Managing Migration to Support Inclusive and Sustainable Growth

Asian Development Bank Institute and Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

OECD BETTER POLICIES FOR BETTER LIVES

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This publication was jointly prepared by OECD and ADBI. It was edited by Jonathan Chaloff (OECD) and Yuqing Xing (ADBI), with contributions from Sakura Yamamura and Tanya Sethi.

Published by:
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Kasumigaseki Building 8F
3-2-5, Kasumigaseki, Chiyoda-ku
Tokyo 100-6008, Japan
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2, rue André Pascal
75016 Paris, France
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ISBN: 978-4-89974-036-1

Foreword

This is the first joint publication of the Asian Development Bank Institute (ADBI) and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) on the topic of labor migration, and springs from the growing interest in labor migration in both Asian and OECD countries. Origin and destination countries belonging to both bodies face increasingly overlapping and interrelated labor migration issues. Demographic transformations, the growing weight of migrant labor forces in the economies of both origin and destination countries, and the importance accorded to migration in public opinion and in administrative policy, are all areas where Asian countries and non-Asian OECD countries have experiences to share and good practices to exchange.

The centre of gravity of international migration towards OECD countries has been slowly shifting to Asia, and the magnitude of flows towards OECD countries and within Asia has been steadily increasing. While populous countries such as the People's Republic of China (PRC) and India punch below their size in terms of flows, they still represent the main countries of origin of migrants to OECD countries, accounting for about 35% of annual inflows. Yet most Asian migration is intra-regional and towards the countries of the Gulf region. Within Asia, temporary labor migration is indeed a major contributor to the labor force in several destination countries; emigrants' remittances are a significant part of gross domestic product (GDP) in several origin countries.

There are numerous policy issues related to the scale and characteristics of labor migration. Under the right circumstances, migrants and both origin and destination countries all benefit from the phenomenon. Getting it right means keeping costs low and protecting migrant rights, while avoiding a negative impact on labor markets and society in the destination countries. The smaller the debt incurred by the aspiring migrant, the easier it is to protect migrants from exploitation by traffickers and unscrupulous employers in destination countries. A large part of migration in the region is for low-skilled occupations, and many countries are still trying to find the right formula for managing this kind of migration. Yet there are also growing demands for skilled workers in OECD countries and in non-OECD Asian countries, which must respond with human resource development strategies and through migration regulations.

These are not new challenges, but the context is rapidly evolving and the expectations of different actors are changing. Most of these challenges require *bilateral* or *multilateral* exchanges, as individual countries seeking to achieve their stated migration goals must interact with countries on the other side of their inflows and outflows.

Since 2011, the ADBI and the OECD have held an annual Roundtable on Labor Migration in Asia. The success of these events reflects the realization that meeting challenges means reaching out to colleagues in other countries. The discussions, grounded in practical experience, have addressed many of the most difficult challenges in labor migration policy in the region: ensuring legality and transparency, identifying and protecting vulnerable populations, supporting successful migration, moving away from migration-dependency. In this way, the Roundtable has advanced the sophistication and understanding of the issues among key officials in the region.

The publication builds on these events and aims to further share experiences and help to identify innovative models for managing new and emerging forms of labor migration. To that end, it also provides, for the first time in a single publication, a statistical overview of international migration in some Asian countries. These data—assembled from different sources, and still reflecting the partial coverage of the phenomenon in many countries—should help readers to understand the impact and role of international migration in Asia.

The title of the publication, *Managing Migration to Support Inclusive and Sustainable Growth*, reflects our hope that better co-ordination and exchange between government and multilateral actors in the region will help develop better policies in this area of strategic importance for growth in the upcoming decades.

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Contents

I. Introduction

Increasing migration flows in recent decades have been an important element of economic integration at both the global and regional levels, notably in Asia. The global financial crisis has put a temporary halt to this trend. As Asian economies recover, and looking ahead, many countries in the region are considering how to attract more foreign workers to meet their labor market needs and sustain long-term economic growth and innovation.

As Asian economies take up the challenge of greater reliance on domestic and regional demand in the post-crisis period, migration could help facilitate such demand. Well-managed migration in the Asia-Pacific region holds the promise of many benefits for both receiving and sending countries, but important challenges remain to be addressed in terms of management of legal migration movements and of labor market integration of migrants.

Since 2011, the Asian Development Bank Institute (ADBI), as part of its thematic priority in capacity building to promote regional integration and international cooperation and inclusive growth, has, together with the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), been organizing an annual Roundtable on Labor Migration in Asia. The main theme of the second Roundtable, held in January 2012, was Managing Migration to Support Inclusive and Sustainable Growth. This report summarizes the themes addressed at the Roundtable. Section II highlights the recent trends in migration within and from Asia; Section III addresses the issues of costs of migration and remittances; Section IV assesses how to improve integration through policies for social protection and inclusion; and Section V examines the demographic causes and consequences of Asian migration. The report concludes with a summary of the Roundtable's findings. It also includes a detailed statistical annex (see Annex 1—comparative tables, and Annex 2—countries and economies).

II. Trends and Outlook for Labor Migration in Asia 2010–2011

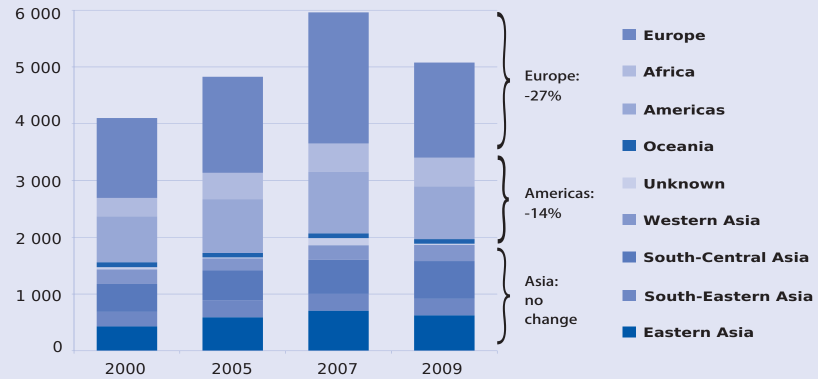
About 13% of the world's migrant population lived in Asian countries in 2010. As the region accounts for 60% of the world population, its share of international migration is relatively low, but migration from Asia has grown in importance. Worldwide, about one in three migrants from developing countries come from Asia. The major part of Asian migration is intra-regional migration and migration to Southwest Asian countries belonging to the Gulf Co-operation Council (GCC).

Asian countries can be roughly differentiated into countries that are primarily origin countries (The People's Republic of China [PRC], Indonesia, the Philippines, Viet Nam, Bangladesh, and Sri Lanka), countries that are primarily destination countries (Singapore, the Republic of Korea, Japan, and Brunei Darussalam), and countries where both in- and outflows are significant, if not balanced (India, Malaysia, Pakistan, and Thailand). Taipei,China; and Hong Kong, China are also destination economies. Asian migration is directed not only to OECD countries in North America, Europe, and Oceania, but also to the GCC, and increasingly to other Middle-Eastern and North African countries (see Table A1).

Migration from Asia was a major and growing component of migration flows to OECD countries over the course of the 2000s—it rose from 26.2% to 30.5% of total flows between 2000 and 2010. In absolute terms, between 2000 and 2008 total legal flows to OECD countries from non-OECD countries in the region rose from 950,000 to 1.49 million. Mirroring a worldwide decline in migration, flows declined between 2008 and 2009, to 1.44 million, before recovering to 1.55 million in 2010. However, migration from the region reacted less to the global financial crisis than migration from other regions: between 2007 and 2009, migration flows from the region to the OECD fell by a mere 1%, compared with a decline of 18% for the Americas and 24% for Europe. The uptick in 2010 was greater as well—7% compared with 1% for the other regions. If Western Asia is included, there was no change in migration from Asia to OECD countries during the crisis, while migration from European and American countries declined significantly from 2007 to 2009—by 27% and 14%, respectively (Figure 1).

Flows to OECD countries in the period 2006–2010 largely reflected prior migration patterns, with the PRC, India, and the Philippines the leading origin countries, along with Romania and Poland. Flows from the PRC to the OECD topped 500,000 in 2010 (about 10% of total flows), a decline from a record peak of 542,000 in 2008.

Figure 1: Inflows of Foreign Nationals into Selected OECD and Non-OECD Countries, by Region of Origin, 2000–2009, and change from 2007 to 2009



Note: Non-OECD countries: Bulgaria, Romania, Russian Federation. See http://esa.un.org/unpd/wpp/Excel-Data/country-classification.pdf for the list of countries included in sub-regions.
Source: OECD International Migration Database. http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DatasetCode=MIG

Migration to non-OECD Asian economies comes almost entirely from within the region, and in most countries where flows are reported it is largely related to employment. These figures vary widely according to destination. Brunei Darussalam and the Maldives have the highest proportion of foreign workers, exceeding 40% of total employment. Singapore follows—the share of foreign workers in its labor force rose from 3% in 1970 to 35% in 2010, to reach nearly 1.2 million non-Singaporean workers. Malaysia has emerged as a new destination country for migrants. The number of foreign workers in Malaysia rose by 340% from 1990 to 2010 when it reached 1.8 million. Most of these migrant workers were from neighboring countries: Indonesia (52%), Bangladesh (18%), Nepal (14%), and Myanmar (9%). Relative to these destinations, Japan and the Republic of Korea have limited stocks of labor migrants (in 2010, 217,000 foreign workers were employed under the Employment Permit System in the Republic of Korea), and, relative to many other OECD countries, much lower total stocks of migrants.

The main drivers of migration in Asia, as elsewhere, are the wage gap between origin and destination countries, which remains wide, and the lack of employment opportunities in origin countries, especially less-educated workers. These factors explain much of intra-regional migration by the low-educated, especially to GCC countries and to high-income non-OECD economies in East Asia. Migration to OECD countries from Asia, however, increasingly involves educated—often highly educated—migrants. In 2005–2006, 47% of all migrants from non-OECD Asian countries had tertiary education, compared with 25% of OECD non-Asian migrants. For recent migrants (less than five years of residence), the shares were 53% and 28%, respectively.

The emigrant population from Asia living in the OECD countries was mainly of working age (75% between 25 and 64 years of age), with 4.6 million highly-educated Asians in the OECD. The emigration rates of highly-educated persons born in Asia who live in the OECD are higher than for Asian migrants in general. 4.8% of highly-educated Asian-born women and 3.6% of highly-educated Asian-born men were living in OECD countries in 2005/2006. Overall, the emigration rate from Asia to OECD countries was 0.6%.

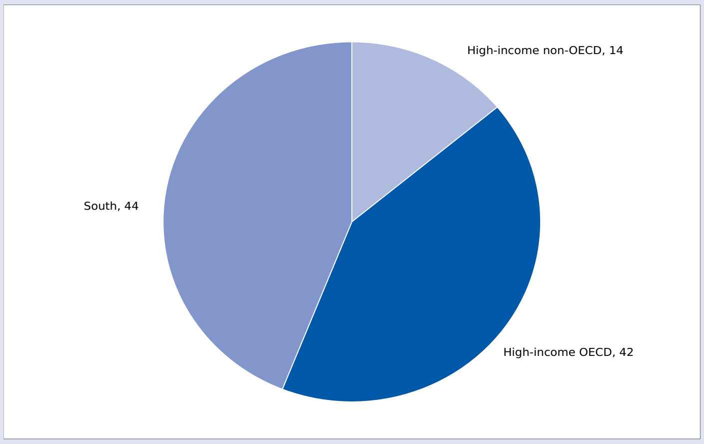
During the Roundtable, participating country-of-origin governments expressed the view that outmigration by educated citizens was largely positive. Governments raising this topic expressed confidence that it provides greater returns to education, and these countries hope to benefit from higher per capita remittance levels, although empirical research does not unequivocally support this assumption. These governments also sought to open new destinations for their migrants, to expand overseas employment opportunities. Concerns over brain drain were not voiced forcefully at the 2012 Roundtable, while favoring an increase in migration by skilled workers was frequently cited. Indonesia, for example, has set an objective of allowing only skilled workers to go overseas for employment from 2017. Sri Lanka also has a labor migration policy based on "skilled and safe migration to minimize negative effects and maximize returns of migration," which aims to enhance the skills-level of its emigrants. In the Philippines, migration of health-related workers is a well-developed phenomenon. In this context, a trend towards tighter rules for labor migration and a greater focus on attracting specific skills observed in a number of destination countries has not gone unremarked by origin countries.

A contrasting trend is the development of programs, such as the Returning Experts Programme in Malaysia, to bring back educated citizens working abroad. Similar policies to encourage highly-skilled immigrant workers to return home are being implemented in other countries, such as "the Hornet's Nest" program in Mongolia or the "Hundred Talents" program in the PRC. Low salaries in the origin countries and the lack of employment possibilities have hampered the success of some return initiatives. Other initiatives aim to leverage the knowledge, expertise, and skills of emigrants to contribute to development, without necessarily encouraging return. For example, the Indian government has created an Overseas Indian Facilitation Centre to promote overseas Indian investments in India, facilitating business-business partnership and a "Diaspora Knowledge Network" to transform ideas into projects.

Although competition for highly-skilled migrants among destination countries is strong, there is concern in destination countries about the ability to ensure the integration and retention of skilled migrants, while origin countries are keen to ensure that their educated migrants are able to utilize their qualifications. Measures to facilitate the recognition of foreign qualifications and training in the host-country language are relatively underdeveloped in Asian destination counties and intra-Asian brain drain outside the OECD is still largely unexplored.

In the Asian context, South-South migration is more substantial than South-North migration. According to the latest estimates by Dilip Ratha (World Bank), the share of South-South migrants among the estimated 215 million international migrants is large (Figure 2). Although the economic benefits of migrating from one developing country to another are much smaller than those of migrating to a developed country, other factors such as lower cost of travel, cultural closeness, and geographic proximity suggest that South-South migration will increase in the coming years.

Figure 2: Distribution of Migrants From the South



Source: World Bank. 2011. *Migration and Remittances Factbook 2011*, Second Edition. World Bank. Washington, DC.

New factors driving intra-Asian migration are, inter alia, differences in growth rates, especially between the emerging Asian economies, which are greater than those in many developed OECD countries, and the income gaps between the Asian economies, on the one hand, and between the Asian economies and the OECD economies, on the other. Demography is also a factor and will be discussed in the next section. Employment conditions are improving in origin countries with large labor surpluses, but a shortage of employment remains. Most participating countries counted on labor migration continuing. Kee Beom Kim (International Labour Organization, ILO) referred to the ILO projection of employment growth, which is expected to be strong in emerging economies, including the Asian emerging economies (ILO 2011). Yet, this strong growth will not be sufficient to absorb those entering the labor market, and the ILO forecasts that labor migration will remain strong in the medium term.

Labor migration is only a fraction of permanent-type immigration to OECD countries. Nonetheless, in most countries it represents the core of migration, as it determines a significant part of subsequent family migration flows as well. Labor migration is the most easily regulated and controlled migration type, and reacts not only to economic conditions but to policy changes induced by these conditions. Labor migration decreased significantly due to the 2008–2009 financial crisis in OECD countries as employers required fewer temporary and permanent workers, and fewer work permits were issued. Such trends were evident for less-skilled workers in the Republic of Korea and Japan, although demand rebounded in the immediate post-crisis period.

Asian non-OECD-member economies are recovering from the economic crisis at different speeds from the OECD economies. Whereas advanced economies—generally destination countries for global migration—are recovering only slowly, economic growth in developing countries—from where labor migrants generally originate—is overall more robust.

In the GCC countries, a major destination region for migrant workers from Asian countries, especially from Bangladesh and the Philippines, development and employment policies are shifting towards a lesser reliance on migrant labor, as unemployment among nationals is on the rise. This has forced origin countries reliant on these destinations to rethink their longer-term plans for orienting labor outmigration, with some countries, such as Sri Lanka, actively exploring bilateral agreements to facilitate migration to OECD countries. At the same time, demand for domestic workers in GCC countries remains robust. Women comprise about two-thirds of the 1.6 million migrant domestic workers in the GCC. In contrast to migrant domestic work in OECD and other destinations, increased reliance on migrants has not yet led to increases in the labor force participation of women in GCC countries.

To meet the needs of and respond to developments in the labor market, future management of labor migration focuses on several aspects. Sector-specific migration management is one concern. The largest single sector for Asian labor migrants is the domestic sector, predominately consisting of women migrants. Origin countries actively regulate outmigration in this sector, where issues of protection and abuse are often in the forefront. Within the domestic sector not only demand for household work but demand for long-term care work has risen. Demand for the latter, already present in certain economies such as Taipei,China, is likely to expand. Not all countries regard this as unskilled work, and where it is a regulated profession, labor migration is less likely to meet demand. Increasingly specific skill requirements mean that origin and destination countries face pressure to improve coordination of economic, employment, and migration policies for mutually beneficial migration.

Many Asian countries already have bilateral, regional, and multilateral partnerships and agreements for both the recruitment of labor migrants and for ensuring working conditions for labor migrants. Labor migration clauses are included in the Economic Partnership Agreements between Japan and several Southeast Asian countries. The Republic of Korea has negotiated 15 bilateral agreements for the operation of its temporary labor scheme, the Employment Permit System (EPS). Examples of multilateral agreements include the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) agreement for the free flow of skilled labor, which covers certain professions and is expected to be implemented from 2015, and the World Trade Organization (WTO) General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) Mode 4.

In addition to regulating movement, some attention has been given to the rights and treatment of migrant workers. The instruments of reference cited in this domain include the ILO Convention Concerning Work for Domestic Workers, the ASEAN Declaration on the Protection and Promotion of the Rights of Migrant Workers, and the United Nations (UN) Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families. Each instrument presents its own specific challenges. Some have not been widely ratified, and even when ratified, certain elements may run counter to national practice or policy, delaying implementation.

One expanding area of government activity focuses on meeting employer needs through mobilizing migrants' skills in both sending and receiving countries. One mechanism cited is mandatory pre-departure acquisition of country-specific knowledge and skills, such as the training provided under the Japanese Economic Partnership Agreement with the Philippines or Indonesia, or under the Korean EPS. This differs in content, structure, and objectives from pre-departure orientation, provided for example in the Philippines, Sri Lanka, and Bangladesh, as well as several Indian states with large migrant populations (Kerala, Gujarat, and Bihar). Post-arrival integration measures are also useful, such as those included in the Republic of Korea's EPS, such as those relating to orientation, counseling, training, and preparation for return. It is important to note that such measures are designed to support migrant workers, rather than promote overseas employment.

The attraction and retention of international students is a special channel for highly-skilled migration. There has been a large increase in flows of international students from Asia to OECD countries, especially from the PRC and India, which has not been halted by the economic crisis. International students may acquire country-specific knowledge, work experience, and language skills during their studies, making them valuable resources for the domestic market in their countries of study. Stay rates for graduating students, however, differ by origin and destination country, with between 20% and 30% staying on average. The number of international students in the region—almost all of whom are from Asian countries—has also been increasing, approaching one million students in 2010–2011 (Table A2), although definitions of international students may differ from those used in OECD countries.

In general, origin countries, including Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, and the Philippines, noted the absence of broad re-integration programs for returning labor migrants, regardless of the crisis. The absence of such programs limits the ability to capitalize on skills and resources acquired abroad, and reinforces dependence on labor migration. The general absence of return and reintegration policies appears particularly acute for women. In India, for example, the pre-departure efforts to support women who emigrate as domestic workers contrast with the absence of a holistic policy for those returning from abroad.

Alongside such regular migration mentioned above, irregular labor migration is an area of particular concern. Some non-OECD-member Asian countries have had substantial irregular migration, and regularization measures, such as those implemented in Thailand, have not definitively resolved the problem.

III. Reducing Migration Costs and the Costs of Remittances

Migration involves costs at different stages. They encompass not only psychological and social costs for the migrants who leave their social environment when going abroad, but also the financial burden they assume. The cost of migration plays a crucial role in the evolution of the migration process. Economic costs are involved at different stages of the migration process, but migrants expect the benefits from migration to outweigh the costs. This is not always the case for temporary labor migrants in Asia, as initial costs tend to be high.

The recruitment process for labor migration typically involves four different types of costs: a) payment to agents, recruiters, government agencies, and to clinics for health checkups; b) transport, lodging, and other related costs associated with departure procedures such as tests and visa fees; c) opportunity costs for the time not working while preparing the departure; and d) interest costs if money has been borrowed to finance all these investments.

In Asia, the number of workers with jobs who obtain their contract using public and cost-free services is low (less than 5% of total labor migration). Most use private recruiters, who charge high fees. High recruitment fees are often financed by loans taken out ahead of departure, which can take labor migrants a considerable time to pay back after arrival. A survey in Bangladesh found that migration costs amounted to more than US$ 2,600, 60% of which went to intermediaries, 28% to agencies and other helpers, and the remainder was spent on travel costs and government fees (Table 1). In India, many low-skill migrants finance these fees by taking out mortgages on their homes.

Table 1: The Costs of Labor Migration from Bangladesh, 2010

Component of migration cost		
Item of cost	**Mean Expense (in US$)**	**Percentage**
Government fee	21	0.8
Agency	271	10.3
Visa	246	9.3
Ticket free	65	2.5
Intermediary	1,569	59.5
Other helpers	465	17.6
Mean expenses	**2,637**	**100**

Note: Sample size = 12,319, excluding those for whom the respondents were unable to provide information about remittances.
Source: Kalam, K.A. 2012. Reducing Migration Cost and Cost of Remittances: Bangladesh Experience. Presentation at the 2nd ADBI-OECD Roundtable on Labor Migration in Asia. ADBI. 18–20 January 2012.

In general, migration costs in Asia tend to rise as skill levels fall, reflecting supply and demand on the labor market—supply is much larger than demand, so recruiters profit from the limited information available to low-skilled workers and the great willingness of potential migrants to pay. This means that the vulnerability of low-skilled Asian labor migrants is especially high. Debts are incurred to pay the fees for the migration process making lesser skilled migrants even more vulnerable in the receiving countries than they already are due to their weaker position in the labor market.

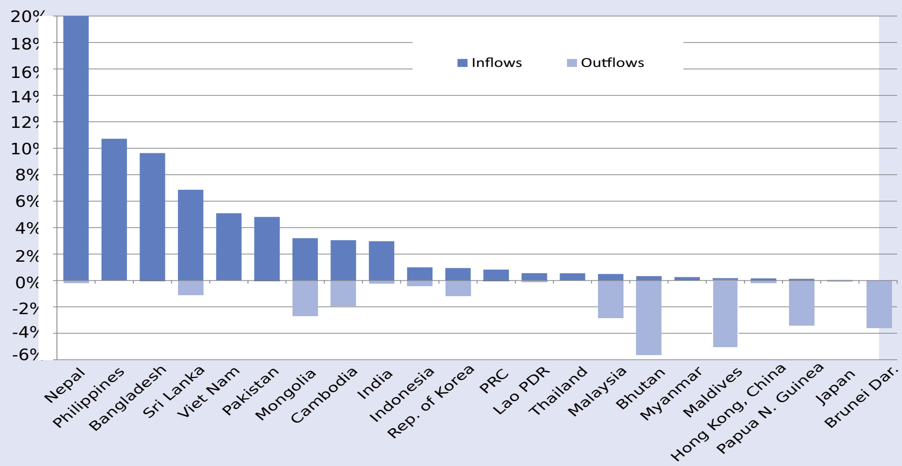
Market mechanisms are not sufficient to eliminate fraudulent or extortionate recruiters, since the number of workers who wish to emigrate is large, and many are ill-informed. Employers who do not bear recruitment or firing costs—as in the GCC—also have little incentive to investigate the credibility of a recruiter's promise of worker skills. Regulation of private recruiters is already in place in most countries of origin. Government regulations on maximum recruitment fees may be an effective way to curb the costs of labor migration. Many countries, such as the Philippines, impose ceilings on fees (e.g., one month's wage or a certain percentage of salary over the full contract duration in the destination country), to control the costs and protect the welfare of their migrant workers. Another solution, also used in a number of origin countries, is to apply standard contracts between country of destination and origin to set clear fees and provide for more protection of labor migrants. On the other hand, regulation of such fees and contracts is hard to enforce. In Sri Lanka, for example, concern focuses on sub-agents rather than the regulated recruiters, and sub-agents are regulated in an effort to improve channels. Sub-agents are generally illegal elsewhere in Asia (in Viet Nam for example), but they continue to operate.

Simpler rules, better worker education, and tougher penalties in case of violations are identified as potentially beneficial reforms. One means to ensure that employers pay costs would be to expand direct recruitment via employer-sponsored job fairs, government agencies, and closely regulated private recruiters. If employers currently have little incentive to verify the skills of candidates, direct recruitment would increase the importance of verification, as spurious claims would bear costs for all parties involved. A number of origin countries participating in the Roundtable expressed confidence that a government monopoly over recruitment could also result in lower fees and better conditions for labor migrants. Governments could also contribute to the reduction of fees by reducing those fees under their direct control, such as those for registration with government agencies, issuance of passports and visas, etc., and by simplifying entry and exit procedures. A persistent element of corruption in developing countries, however, raises some concern in terms of the likely effectiveness of such measures.

Transaction fees on remittances make up another portion of costs that labor migrants bear. Remittances are generally thought to be advantageous for the development of the origin countries. Evidence from household surveys shows that they reduce poverty and contribute to development through financing education and health expenditure and through easing credit constraints on small businesses. They may also act as insurance against adverse shocks during crises and natural disasters, as well as contributing to improving creditworthiness.

Asia accounts for 62% of recorded remittance flows to developing countries, and remittances are an important part of gross domestic product (GDP) in many Asian countries (Figure 3). Asia was the destination for about US$ 200 billion in remittances in 2011, out of a total of US$ 350 billion worldwide. While a modest worldwide decline in remittances was observed during the 2009 economic crisis, remittances to Asia continued to grow in 2009–2011. Remittances also remained more stable during the crisis than foreign direct investment (FDI) and private debt and portfolio equity flows. Remittances are relatively resilient during economic downturns in the host countries because they tend to account for a rather small part of total migrant incomes, and income losses by one migrant may be partially offset by greater remittances by others.

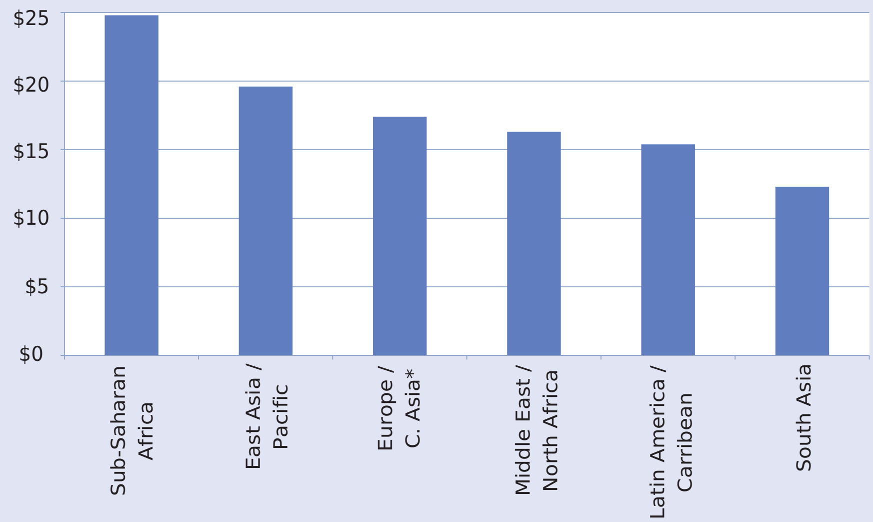
Figure 3: Remittance Inflows and Outflows, Selected Asian Economies (as a share of GDP), 2010



Source: World Bank. 2011. *Migration and Remittances Factbook 2011*, Second Edition. World Bank. Washington, DC.

Remittance costs have generally been falling over the past decade, yet the costs of sending remittances to developing regions often remain high. Remittance costs in Group of Eight (G8) countries are, however, still above the target announced at the G8 summit in 2009 (the so-called 5x5 target, i.e., a reduction to 5% in five years) (Figure 4). Both informal and new formal channels are being used to reduce the costs. Formal channels are safer and tend to improve the saving habits of banking migrants, but compared with informal channels they remain slower, more expensive, and inconvenient. New channels also involve use of internet and communication technologies.

Figure 4: Average Cost of Sending US$ 200 to Developing Regions, by Region, 2010



Note: Europe / Central Asia excludes Russian Federation.

Source: World Bank Remittance Prices Worldwide Database. http://remittanceprices.worldbank.org/.

There may also be greater scope for the involvement of banks in the process. Already, migrants taking out loans to finance their labor migration often must show their job contract to the bank, demonstrating their ability to pay back their loans. A greater and more direct role for banks in the remittance process (as opposed to informal or non-banking services) could bring benefits through lower transaction costs, higher savings, and increased transparency.

IV. Enhancing Integration through Effective Social Protection and Social Inclusion Policies

Integration is a dynamic and continuous process. Besides problems relating to legal status and work permit, integration includes broader social and cultural aspects of interaction of migrants with the society in which they live. The benefits from international migration can only be fully reaped when the integration of the immigrants in the countries of destination has also succeeded. Integration has many facets, ranging from labor market to language integration, to education and civic participation, to residential, social, and economic integration. The policies of priority for Roundtable participants on the whole were access to the benefits of labor market regulations and social insurance schemes. Socially inclusive policies in a broader sense were also addressed.

Migrant workers often face more serious problems than those relating to inclusion in social insurance schemes and coverage by labor law. Migrants may not have access to legal status and work permits, may be deprived of certain fundamental rights, such as accessibility of remedial and judiciary process as well as fair trial, and may not enjoy protection of enforcement, or even face abuse from law enforcers. Even where permit status is assured and labor law is respected, other restrictions may affect inclusion. In some provinces of Thailand, for example, migrants are not allowed to operate a motor vehicle or own a mobile telephone.

Japan has a population that is ageing very rapidly, a problem seen in many other developed countries. Expected workforce shortages in the health care system have led the government of Japan to open a channel for recruitment of health workers, particularly nurses, abroad. Under the Economic Partnership Agreements (EPAs) between Japan and Indonesia and the Philippines, nurses from these two developing countries are allowed to temporarily practice in Japan and take the Japanese national nursing exam. Japanese public authorities designed, provide, and fund pre- and post-departure language courses, elearning, and practical training for nurses (Table 2). The pre-departure Japanese language training cost is estimated at JPY 1.1 million per person per year and the post-arrival language training JPY 2 million per person per year. The total training cost per trainee is estimated at JPY 4.5 million per year. Despite the costly investment in the program, the number of trainees who have managed to pass the qualification exams, which would allow them to stay in Japan, remains very low.

Bilateral and multilateral agreements, particularly between the members of ASEAN, are important tools for protecting workers' rights. International frameworks may set out basic rights of migrant workers, but implementation by national governments is partial and often

Table 2: The Costs of Training Foreign Nurses under Japanese Economic Partnership Agreements (Proposed Budget, 2012)

	Total	Per head (estimate)
	JPY million	JPY thousand
Training offered		
Language training		
Pre-departure language training	450	1,125
Post-arrival language training	800	2,000
Visits, counseling and training (introductory training, counseling, visits, translation of exams)	154	110
Training support for nurse candidates	217	543
Training support for care worker candidates	419	699
Total	**2,040**	**4,477**

Note: Training support includes general training, language training, e-learning, etc

Source: Asato, W. 2012. Foreign Born Healthcare Workers and Inclusive Policy in Japan. Presentation at the 2nd ADBI-OECD Roundtable on Labor Migration in Asia. ADBI. 18–20 January 2012.

problematic, making such frameworks less useful. Some origin countries have imposed unilateral conditions on their migrant workers abroad, although these are difficult to enforce without collaboration of the destination country. Deployment bans represent an extreme attempt to ensure migrant rights.

Initiatives in destination countries can be differentiated into three types: a) prevention programs addressed to migrants, employers, and government officials that are aimed at reducing the vulnerability and abuse of migrant workers by providing information and tools; b) policies targeting abusive recruiters and employers, including traffickers, including penalties and fines; c) programs to provide assistance in legal and social terms for those migrants whose rights have been abused. Such programs are found in many destination countries, including in the GCC, Southeast Asia, Europe, and North America.

Integration programs for migrants are less developed in Asian countries than in most (other) OECD countries. Nonetheless, an action plan has been approved in the Republic of Korea. Yongyuth Chalamwong (Thailand Development Research Institute), citing the case of the EU anti-discrimination policy, underlined how bodies at the municipal and regional level can support migrants' rights and contribute to combating discrimination, especially if they are part of an intra-regional policy.

Another aspect of social protection concerns the provision of social security. Portability of pensions, i.e., the ability to preserve the actuarial value of accrued pension rights when moving from one country to another or from one job (within the same country) to another, is crucial for the migrant concerned, but also has financial and social policy implications for the countries involved. Portability affects the timing and place of retirement. Access to social security schemes and other social services are sometimes denied to migrant workers because of minimum residency requirements in the host country or because access is restricted to nationals. Even when migrant workers have access, enjoyment of social security benefits may still be precluded due to the non-exportability of certain benefits, a minimum number of contribution periods, or the reduction of benefits. Losses for migrants may also occur when accrual rates are higher towards the end of the contribution period, while migrants leave before they reach this backloading phase.

Social security agreements have been signed by several Asian countries. They are aimed at a) ensuring equality of treatment for the migrant worker; b) enabling transferability of social benefits; c) providing administrative assistance for facilitating claims and verification of eligibility; and d) for totalization of periods of contributions or affiliation in all countries where the migrant has worked and where the agreement is valid. Problems are reported in particular regarding double coverage and dual taxation.

The structure of potential bilateral agreements among Asian countries depends on the compatibility of the social security systems in place. Countries with social insurance type systems include Thailand, Lao PDR, Viet Nam, and the Philippines. Such cases allow equal treatment of migrant workers, removal of double taxation, exportability of benefits, as well as totalization of benefits in a bilateral agreement. ASEAN countries with provident fund type systems are Indonesia, Brunei Darussalam, Malaysia, and Singapore, where migrant workers from ASEAN countries may have voluntary access to the scheme, and origin countries may also allow migrants to voluntarily contribute to and access home-country social security schemes (Pasadilla 2011). ASEAN countries with social insurance and provident fund systems allow usage of provident funds to "buy back" periods under the social insurance system and enable social insurance contributions to be transferred to provident funds.

Social security portability has important implications for all countries involved. When migrant workers retire and have the choice to stay, return, or migrate further, portability of social security means they could return home without becoming a burden for the origin country, while alleviating demands on other services in the country of employment abroad. Origin countries could benefit from such return migration flows through enhanced human capital of, and increased investments from, returning migrants. Sri Lanka, for example, sees social security policy as part of its efforts to encourage Sri Lankans to return from employment abroad. Social security portability would facilitate a deeper economic integration within the region and could also contribute to greater social cohesion.

Bilateral agreements prevail in the Asian region. The co-ordination of social security systems in the European Union, through bilateral agreements, could be an example for intra-regional cohesion in Asia, as it does not replace national systems yet provides for free labor movement on an intra-regional basis. However, Asia is still far from such regional integration.

Finally, one observation during the 2008–2009 global financial crisis was the limited support available to labor migrants whose jobs vanished. The remittances sent in the years prior to the crisis rarely translated into initiatives to support migrants during the crisis, and the absence of social protection in many destination countries amplified the impact on unemployed migrants. Guntur Sugiyarto (Sugiyarto 2012) pointed out that a number of origin-country governments, concerned about returning unemployed migrants, tried to keep them from coming back during the crisis. In contrast, early in the crisis, Japan implemented a series of initiatives to support labor migrants of Japanese origin from South America who had lost their jobs following the decline in export-oriented manufacturing, offering both active labor market programs to support their re-employment and a return subsidy for those who wished to go home.

V. Demographic Causes and Consequences of Asian Migration

The anticipated decline in working-age populations in most OECD countries has already focused discussion on how to address an imminent labor shortage, with migration often mentioned as one possible response, especially in European OECD countries. Several participants in the 2012 Roundtable emphasized the importance of demography in explaining Asian migration trends. Apart from the economic vitality of Asian economies and a long-standing stock of permanent migrants in the region, one crucial aspect is the different transitional phases in demographic terms. Yasushi Iguchi (Kwansei Gakuin University) defined three different types of transitions: a demographic transition (longer life expectancy and lower fertility), a labor market transition (when the supply of labor in developing economies starts to decline), and a migration transition (as internal migration gives way to incoming international migration). While a number of Asian countries have been experiencing a sharp decline in fertility rates and a rapidly ageing population, fertility rates have remained high in others, potentially making up for the decrease and the need for manpower in the ageing countries.

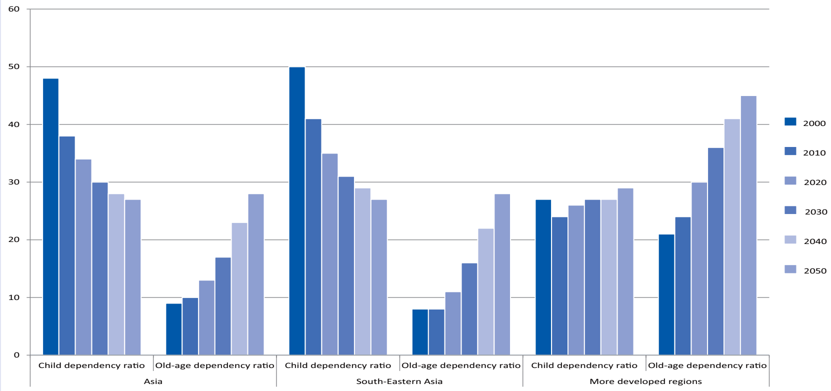
Japan's working age population has been declining since 1995. The PRC is ageing faster than most OECD countries. Thailand, too, expects a sharp increase in the old-age dependency ratio over the next two decades, and Sri Lanka over the next three decades. East and Southeast Asia is estimated to face an overall population decline in the 2040s, whereas the economically active population will already be declining in the 2020s.

The old-age dependency ratio has been increasing and is estimated to further rise in the next decades in all regions, i.e., in Asia, Southeast Asia, and in more developed regions worldwide. The child dependency ratio has declined proportionally in both Asia and Southeast Asia, but remained stagnant in more developed regions (Figure 5).

Most origin countries and new destination countries (Thailand and Malaysia, especially) in Asia are currently in a phase of demographic "bonus" or dividend, implying that their working-age populations are growing, a phase usually associated with an economic boom. Some countries, such as Sri Lanka, expect part of the labor surplus to migrate to other countries.

Another factor influencing international migration is the widening gender imbalance and marriage gap. Pre-natal gender selection in some Asian countries has reduced the ratio

Figure 5: Old-Age and Child Dependency Ratios (number of people over 65 and under 15, compared with the number of people 15–64) in Asia and More-Developed Regions, 2000–2050



Source: United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division. 2011. World Population Prospects, the 2010 Revision http://esa.un.org/wpp/.

of female to male births. As men tend to marry women who are a few years younger, the combined effect of this gender imbalance at birth and the shrinking birth cohorts has led to a "marriage gap" as fewer potential brides are available. There is also an internal gap in many countries, with shortages of brides especially in rural areas of developed economies. This has been contributing to increases in international marriages, often brokered and arranged. While marriage migration has driven the development of integration policy in some destination countries, such as the Republic of Korea, where 12% to 15% of the total foreign population are marriage migrants, it has also led to a restrictive regulatory backlash in countries of origin, such as Cambodia.

As changing social roles and smaller families make it more difficult for the elderly to rely on daughters and daughters-in-law for their care, and women's participation in the labor force increases, pressure may be further put on migration for long-term care and domestic workers, for which the market has expanded rapidly due to the ageing population. A growing need for care support services has already been observed in ageing societies such as Japan and Taipei,China. Training of migrant health personnel—either within the country, or in the countries of origin to be recruited into the host country—appears to be a promising way to make employment of such migrant workers a success. Training may not guarantee success, however. For example, in the implementation of agreements between Japan and Indonesia and the Philippines, fewer than 3% of the trained nurses admitted under the program were able to pass the national licensing exam, due to language barriers. Wako Asato (Kyoto University) noted, however, that immigrants may be able to overcome language barriers, pointing to a pass rate of close to 100% for PRC nursing candidates, who were not covered by the program.

Changing family structures and increasing demand for care is also related to the growing feminization of migration and the labor market in Asia. One way for countries with a shrinking labor force to maintain their working population (along with higher retirement ages) is to mobilize their economically inactive female workforce. Yet increased female participation is associated with increased demand for migrant labor—also female—for household and care work, as household work becomes paid work.

The increasing participation of women in international migration has knock-on effects on family structure and women's empowerment in countries of origin, as more human and financial capital is accumulated by women.

The demographic change and difference in the transitional phases in the Asian region may have an impact on international labor migration. Complementary population structures are to some extent already reacting to ageing societies and declining populations. The challenges posed by rapidly ageing populations in East Asia as well as in (other) OECD countries could be met by wider regional co-operation to overcome and draw benefits from the imbalances in demographic development. Especially in the long term, beyond the 2040s, when the population may continue to grow in some Asian countries such as India, population declines in OECD countries could be offset by several South and Southeast Asian countries.

Conclusions and Future Challenges VI.

The Roundtable provided an opportunity to improve mutual understanding among countries and knowledge about the issues involved in labor migration. One conclusion was that migration may be associated with demographic change, but cannot be a sustainable long-term remedy for ageing working-age populations. While brain drain is a concern, it appears to be secondary in the region's origin countries to concerns about increasing and "upskilling" labor migration.

Social protection and employment governance systems developed to cover residents are strained when extended to workers abroad, and even where there is a will to develop solutions, these are complex and difficult to devise and negotiate.

Labor migration is not a purely economic calculation for the countries involved, as it also touches upon sovereignty issues. Migrants are attracting growing attention from governments, both in their origin countries and in the countries where they work, although the way governments react differs both within the region and compared with other regions. There appears to be a limit, however, to the possibility of government intervention to affect costs related to the imbalance between labor supply and demand. As migration in Asia is often first mediated at the village level through local networks, market forces often overcome attempts to regulate. Governments are also rightly hesitant to interfere with individual and family decisions to migrate, by dictating the destinations or means.

The Roundtable provided an opportunity not only for intergovernmental dialogue but also for comparing the themes and priorities of Asian countries with those of non-Asian OECD members. The perspective on migration at the Roundtable remains largely focused on management issues, and the priorities on protection and social security, rather than integration and settlement. This focus reflects the characteristics of the main Asian destination countries and the type of migration involved—temporary labor migration. For Asian countries, migration is seen squarely as an issue of economic development. In contrast to the situation in non-Asian OECD countries, bilateral agreements are still the main and preferential form of managing migration in the region. Finally, Asian governments see a strong role for themselves in labor migration management.

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Annex 1
Comparative Tables

Table A1: Inflows from Asia to the OECD by Nationality

('000s)

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Afghanistan	16.2	19.5	14.9	12.9	12.2	16.2	15.2	11.9	14.2	18.8	24.7
Azerbaijan	1.4	1.6	4.6	3.9	4.5	4.2	5.2	3.1	3.2	3.4	5.8
Bangladesh	22.7	20.9	18.7	23.2	31.3	37.7	42.7	34.8	41.1	50.7	49.5
Bhutan	0	0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.5	3.2	8.9
Brunei Darussalam	0.5	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4
Cambodia	3.8	4.5	5.1	5.2	6.5	7	10.7	9.6	10.4	9.4	10.1
PRC	282	323.4	333	322.4	367.3	438.2	503.8	518.6	530.5	459.9	508.2
Taipei,China	16.4	20.5	20.6	14.8	19.9	17	31.5	33.5	22	23.9	20.3
Georgia	1.4	2.1	7.2	7.1	7.8	7.8	8.1	7.9	8	8.3	11.4
Hong Kong, China	10.1	12	13.3	11.8	9.5	7.7	9.8	7.7	7.9	6.4	8.5
India	113.1	146.9	160.9	146	192.6	212.2	204.7	212.5	215	226.9	252.4
Indonesia	28.8	31.6	32.8	31.5	26.9	35.1	30.6	26.7	31.6	22.4	24.9
Japan	33.8	37.7	39.9	35.3	36.6	42.8	34.4	32	29.4	35	32.3
Kazakhstan	4.7	4.4	16.7	15.2	12.7	9.6	8	6.9	6.7	6.8	8.2
Rep. of Korea	58.4	68.6	62.4	54.1	57.4	66.5	68.3	72	79.7	78.6	76.1
Kyrgyz Republic	1	1.2	3	2.7	3	2.6	3.4	3.6	3.2	2.7	4.1
Lao PDR	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.3	1.5	1.7	4.1	3.8	3.5	3	2.5
Malaysia	11.3	13.7	11.7	13.3	15.7	10.5	12.2	20.2	24.3	20	22
Maldives	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Mongolia	5.6	6	4.1	7	7.8	11.3	15	15.4	15.4	9.3	9.9
Myanmar	2.2	2.6	3.4	3	3.2	4.8	10.7	9.6	10.4	22.6	19.5
Nepal	3.6	3.2	5.1	5.9	7.7	8.6	14.3	17.3	18.8	23.3	24.9
Pakistan	53.7	54.9	48.5	47.6	73.9	74.4	84	74.6	75.9	76.5	100
Philippines	165	182.5	195.1	192.1	211.2	191.1	171.5	167.9	157.5	163.3	167.1
Singapore	6	5.9	5.5	5.3	6.1	7.5	7.1	6.6	6.6	5.3	6.7
Sri Lanka	22.9	17.7	21.8	24.5	23.4	28.3	28	20.9	33.9	33.2	41.3
Tajikistan	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.8	0.8	0.9	1
Thailand	32.3	34.6	34.4	35.3	36.5	47	51.6	48	47.3	47.2	50.6
Turkmenistan	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.7	1.8
Uzbekistan	7.6	6.2	8.3	11.2	8.4	8.8	11.6	12.6	19.6	12.9	16.6
Viet Nam	51.8	59.8	63.9	55.1	66.1	78	82	88.3	98.3	76.5	87.5

Source: International Migration Database, OECDSTAT. http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DatasetCode=MIG

Table A2: General Characteristics of Emigrants from Asia in the OECD, 2005/06

Country of origin	Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	% men	Low educated (%)	High educated (%)	15–24 (%)	65+ (%)
Afghanistan	259.7	54.8	44.2	23.5	26.2	4
Azerbaijan	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Bangladesh	398.5	55.8	37.7	37.8	14.2	5.7
Bhutan	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Brunei Darussalam	9.8	47.6	17.8	51.2	23.6	2.7
Cambodia	254.5	46.9	45.4	19.7	6.2	10
PRC	2,724.50	46	26	44.7	15.8	14.4
Taipei,China	441.4	44.1	7.1	69.8	11.9	7.2
Georgia	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Hong Kong, China	577	48	16.3	53.8	15.9	6.9
India	2,775.20	53	16.6	63.3	9.8	11.1
Indonesia	336	45.4	17.9	41.9	10.9	24.6
Japan	606	37.8	7.9	54.5	11.7	11.7
Kazakhstan	701.2	47.5	38.2	14.7	19.9	15
Rep. of Korea	1,652.50	43.4	15	45.1	14.8	11.8
Kyrgyz Republic	13.3	46.2	17.9	47.7	23.6	2.7
Lao PDR	256.1	49.4	41.1	19.7	3.5	9.1
Malaysia	245.9	44.3	11.6	58.4	17.5	7.6
Maldives	1	50	7.6	70.9	15.5	0.1
Mongolia	13.5	36.5	17.4	46.9	27.6	0.9
Myanmar	78.4	48.2	25.3	44.3	9.8	18
Nepal	62.1	60.8	17.5	46.9	21	0.9
Pakistan	843.1	56	34.5	39.3	13.7	6.6
Philippines	2,502.30	38.6	13.7	51.9	9.5	12.2
Singapore	119.3	45.7	16.3	52.7	17.1	6.5
Sri Lanka	433.2	52.4	29.2	34.2	14.5	7.2
Tajikistan	12.3	46.9	20	48.3	22.5	8.3
Thailand	346.9	32.6	30.6	33.4	20.8	3.3
Turkmenistan	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Uzbekistan	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Viet Nam	1,757.70	48.6	33.5	27.7	8.4	9.9

Source: Asato (2012)

Table A3: Emigration Rates to the OECD by Education Level, 2005/2006

	Total (%)	Low educated (%)	Intermediate educated (%)	High educated (%)
Afghanistan	1.9	1.1	3.3	6
Azerbaijan	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Bangladesh	0.4	0.2	0.3	3.7
Bhutan	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Brunei Darussalam	3.6	1.7	2.1	17.2
Cambodia	2.8	1.5	6	43.7
PRC	0.3	0.2	0.1	1.7
Taipei,China	1.2	0.8	1.1	2.5
Georgia	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Hong Kong, China	8.8	4.6	5	25.8
India	0.4	0.1	0.2	4.2
Indonesia	0.2	0	0.3	3.7
Japan	0.5	0.2	0.4	0.9
Kazakhstan	5.7	22.7	3.7	5
Rep. of Korea	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.8
Kyrgyz Republic	0.4	0.2	0.2	1.5
Lao PDR	7	4.3	9.7	24.8
Malaysia	1.4	0.5	0.7	5.6
Maldives	0.5	0.1	0.3	24.5
Mongolia	0.7	0.5	0.3	2.4
Myanmar	0.2	0.1	0.5	1.3
Nepal	0.4	0.1	0.5	6.2
Pakistan	0.8	0.4	0.7	5.7
Philippines	4.4	1.8	3.9	8
Singapore	3.3	1.2	2.6	9.1
Sri Lanka	2.9	2	1.8	34.2
Tajikistan	0.3	0.4	0.1	3
Thailand	0.7	0.3	0.9	2.5
Turkmenistan	n.a.	0.6	0.1	0.8
Uzbekistan	n.a.	2.4	0.3	2.3
Viet Nam	2.9	1.4	4.2	15.4

Source: DIOC 2005/2006 www.oecd.org/els/internationalmigrationpoliciesanddata/dioc.htm

Table A4: Outflows of Workers from Asian Economies by Destination

	Bangladesh	India	Indonesia	Kyrgyz Republic	Lao PDR	Nepal	Pakistan	Philippines	Sri Lanka	Thailand	Viet Nam
	2011	2011	2011	2011	2011	Nov-10	2008	2010	2010	2011	2011
GCC countries											
UAE	282,739	39,857	138,861			44,464	222,097	201,214	42,198	9,569	1,160
Saudi Arabia	15,039	137,643	289,297			71,116	138,495	293,049	70,896		3,627
Oman	135,265	7,292	73,819			2,442	37,580	10,955	6,370		
Kuwait	29	2,723	45,149			15,187	6,251		48,105	2,786	
Bahrain	13,996	4,375	14,323			4,647	5,940		7,057		
Qatar	13,111	16,578	41,710			102,966	10,171	87,813	53,632	3,366	7
Other Middle-east											
Jordan	4,387	1,413					106		9,446		
Lebanon	19,169						18	1,327	6,062		
Israel						273		4,941		9,333	
ASIA-OECD											
Japan	770	2,508			136		45	5,938	123	9,302	6 985
Rep. of Korea	2,021	11,390		295			2,304	11,697	5,257	10,964	15 214
ASIA-non OECD											
Singapore	48,667	47,781					16	70,251	1,041	11,461	
Malaysia	742	134,108				105,906	1,809	9,802	3,690	4,321	9 977
Taipei,China		73,498						36,866		47,839	38 796
Thailand		1,113	27		8,386			5,133	6		
Hong Kong, China		50,283					22	101,340	306	2,834	
Brunei Dar.	22,593	10,805					66	7,907	13	3,354	
Indonesia			22					4,084			
India		519						842	90	2,619	
PRC							172	8,954			
Russia				120 000							

Note: Figure for Kyrgyz Republic migrants to Russia is for the year 2010.

Source: Russian International Affairs Council, "Eurasian Union and Migration", available at http://russiancouncil.ru/en/inner/?id_4=554

Table A5: Migrant Remittance Inflows in Asian Countries, in US$ mn (2000–11)

US$ million (2000–11)	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011e	as % of GDP (2012)
Afghanistan	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.
Azerbaijan	57	104	182	171	228	693	813	1,287	1,554	1,274	1,432	1,885	2.5
Bangladesh	1,968	2,105	2,858	3,192	3,584	4,315	5,428	6,562	8,941	10,521	10,850	11,997	9.6
Bhutan	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	3	4	5	6	6	0.3
Brunei Dar.	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.
Cambodia	121	133	140	138	177	200	297	353	325	338	321	354	3
PRC	4,822	6,539	10,293	14,542	19,578	23,478	27,440	38,587	48,407	48,852	53,038	62,497	0.8
Georgia	209	222	230	236	303	346	485	695	732	714	806	1,017	6.4
Hong Kong, China	136	153	121	120	240	297	294	317	355	348	340	356	0.2
India	12,883	14,273	15,736	20,999	18,750	22,125	28,334	37,217	49,977	49,468	54,035	63,663	3
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	1
Japan	1,374	1,984	1,821	1,078	931	1,080	1,380	1,577	1,929	1,776	1,802	1,931	0
Kazakhstan	122	171	205	148	166	178	186	223	192	261	291	270	0.2
Rep. of Korea	4,858	4,832	5,530	6,304	6,570	6,509	6,180	6,812	10,732	8,913	8,708	9,257	0.9
Kyrgyz Republic	9	11	37	78	189	322	481	715	1,232	992	1,275	1,500	20.8
Lao PDR	1	1	1	1	1	1	4	6	18	38	42	45	0.6
Malaysia	342	367	435	571	802	1,117	1,365	1,556	1,329	1,131	1,102	1,235	0.5
Maldives	2	2	2	2	3	2	3	3	3	4	4	4	0.2
Mongolia	12	25	56	129	203	180	181	178	225	200	277	353	3.2
Myanmar	104	117	106	85	118	131	116	82	55	55	116	119	0.1
Nepal	111	147	678	771	823	1,212	1,453	1,734	2,727	2,986	3,469	4,070	20
Pakistan	1,075	1,461	3,554	3,964	3,945	4,280	5,121	5,998	7,039	8,717	9,690	12,264	4.8
Philippines	6,961	8,769	9,735	10,243	11,471	13,566	15,251	16,302	18,642	19,765	21,423	22,974	10.7
Singapore	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.
Sri lanka	1,166	1,185	1,309	1,438	1,590	1,991	2,185	2,527	2,947	3,363	4,155	5,194	6.9
Tajikistan	..	..	79	146	252	467	1,019	1,691	2,544	1,748	2,254	2,680	31
Taipei,China	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Thailand	1,697	1,252	1,380	1,607	1,622	1,187	1,333	1,635	1,898	2,776	3,580	3,994	0.9
Turkmenistan	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.
Uzbekistan	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.
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	5.1

Note: All numbers are in current USD.
Source: World Bank. 2011. *Migration and Remittances Factbook 2011*, Second Edition. World Bank. Washington, DC.

Table A6: Net Migration Rate (per 1,000 population)

	1980–85	1985–90	1990–95	1995–2000	2000–05	2005–10
Afghanistan	-51	-23.14	51.19	-3.53	7.65	-2.58
Azerbaijan	-3.35	-4.36	-3.09	-3.21	1.28	1.2
Bangladesh	-2.17	-0.59	-1.86	-1.55	-2.21	-4.02
Bhutan	0.35	0.61	-37.53	0.05	11.37	4.86
Brunei Darussalam	3.57	2.2	3.1	3.53	2.04	1.84
Cambodia	0	3.44	3.01	1.58	-1.83	-3.71
PRC	-0.05	-0.04	-0.14	-0.11	-0.36	-0.29
Taipei,China	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Georgia	-0.83	-2.4	-20.67	-15.9	-13.4	-6.8
Hong Kong, China	3.15	5.72	5.22	17.04	-0.33	5.08
India	0.1	0	-0.03	-0.1	-0.35	-0.51
Indonesia	-0.1	-0.3	-0.75	-0.75	-1.08	-1.11
Japan	0.36	-1.04	0.73	0.03	0.08	0.43
Kazakhstan	-5.36	-7.37	-18.6	-17.1	-2.93	0.09
Rep. of Korea	1.63	2.08	-2.89	-2.27	-0.42	-0.13
Kyrgyz Republic	-3.75	-7.38	-12.15	-1.13	-9.98	-5.07
Lao PDR	-2.04	0.01	-1.34	-3.46	-4.16	-2.51
Malaysia	2.4	5.43	3.31	3.82	3.2	0.62
Maldives	0	-2.57	-2.63	-0.84	-0.07	-0.04
Mongolia	0	0	-7.86	-4.9	-1.21	-1.13
Myanmar	-0.32	-0.73	-0.62	0.02	-4.38	-2.12
Nepal	-1.27	-1.61	-0.99	-0.86	-0.77	-0.7
Pakistan	3.06	0.27	-2.51	-0.28	-2.31	-2.41
Philippines	-0.7	-1.03	-2.13	-2.12	-2.77	-2.76
Singapore	12.08	8.48	14.26	13.72	11.36	30.87
Sri Lanka	-5.06	-1.64	-2.88	-4.33	-1.04	-2.46
Tajikistan	-1.75	-3.37	-10.69	-11.16	-13.36	-8.88
Thailand	1.37	1.85	-3.8	1.94	3.4	1.45
Turkmenistan	-2.25	-2.01	2.55	-2.3	-4.91	-2.23
Uzbekistan	-1.92	-4.66	-3.13	-3.36	-5.96	-3.88
Viet Nam	-1.14	-1.04	-0.9	-0.75	-1.07	-1.01

Source: United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division. 2011. World Population Prospects, the 2010 Revision http://esa.un.org/wpp/.

Annex 2
Countries and Economies

Immigration in Bangladesh								
	Immigrant population 0+				Immigrant population 15+			
		Total ('000s)	% of pop	% 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	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	

Inflows of foreign workers by origin	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Total						

Emigration to the OECD						
Emigrant population: persons born in Bangladesh living abroad	2000			2005/06		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	161.9	123.6	285.5	222.3	176.1	398.5
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	33.0	24.4	57.4	46.1	40.7	86.8
15–24 (% of population 15+)	17.2	23.1	19.7	13.0	15.7	14.2
25–64 (% of population 15+)	78.2	73.3	76.1	80.3	79.8	80.1
65+ (% of population 15+)	4.7	3.6	4.2	6.7	4.5	5.7
Total emigration rates (%)	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4
Emigration rates of the high-educated (%)	2.7	2.0	2.4	4.1	3.2	3.7

Legal migrant flows to OECD ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Total	37.8	42.9	34.9	41.2	50.8	49.5
United States	11.5	14.6	12.1	11.8	16.7	14.8
Italy	5.8	5.6	5.2	9.3	8.9	9.7
United Kingdom	10.0	10.0	6.0	6.0	13.0	9.0

International students (3 main destinations, '000s)		2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Total		8.7	8.5	9.7	9.5	10.1	11.7
United Kingdom	Non-resident students	1.7	2.0	2.2	2.7	2.8	3.5
United States	Non-resident students	3.2	2.9	2.7	2.5	2.3	2.7
Australia	Non-resident students	3.0	3.4	3.1	2.9	2.4	2.4

Emigration to non-OECD destinations
Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)
Total
Saudi Arabia
United Arab Emirates
Malaysia
Oman
Kuwait

Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total		820.52	867.04	468.65	383.79	560.39
United Arab Emirates	130.2	226.39	419.36	258.35	203.31	282.74
Oman	8.08	17.48	52.90	41.70	42.64	135.27
Singapore	20.14	38.32	56.58	39.58	39.05	48.67
Lebanon	0.82	3.54	8.44	13.94	17.27	19.17
Saudi Arabia	109.51	204.11	132.12	14.67	7.07	15.04

Net Migration Rate (1990–2010)	1990–95		1995–2000	2000–05		2005–10
	-1.86		-1.55	-2.21		-4.02

Remittance inflows (current US$ million)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011(e)
	5,427.5	6,562.3	8,940.6	10,520.7	10,850.2	11,997.2

Immigration in India

	Immigrant population 0+			Immigrant population 15+			
	Total ('000s)	% of pop	% 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	48				

Stock of foreign workers by sector, 2001	Total
Number of foreign workers ('000s)	452
% of total employment	

Inflows of foreign workers by origin	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Total						

Flows of international students ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
	13.3	14.5	18.4	21.2	21.8

Emigration to the OECD

Emigrant population: persons born in India living abroad	2000			2005/06		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	1,027.6	943.0	1,970.6	1,469.5	1,305.7	2,775.2
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	264.2	226.6	490.8	417.2	362.9	780.1
15–24 (% of population 15+)	10.2	11.0	10.6	9.8	9.8	9.8
25–64 (% of population 15+)	80.0	77.7	78.9	79.7	78.4	79.1
65+ (% of population 15+)	9.8	11.4	10.6	10.5	11.7	11.1
Total emigration rates (%)	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4
Emigration rates of the high-educated (%)	2.9	3.8	3.2	4.0	4.5	4.2

Legal migrant flows to OECD ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Total	213.4	206.8	214.6	216.9	228.1	252.8
United States	84.7	61.4	65.4	63.4	57.3	69.2
United Kingdom	47.0	57.0	55.0	48	64.0	68.0
Canada	33.1	30.8	26.1	24.5	26.1	30.3

International students (3 main destinations, '000s)		2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Total		114.12	124.19	127.20	140.65	161.39	179.59
United States	Non-resident students	79.74	84.04	79.22	85.69	94.66	101.56
United Kingdom	Non-resident students	14.63	16.69	19.20	23.83	25.90	34.07
Australia	Non-resident students	15.74	20.52	22.36	24.52	26.52	26.57

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)
Total

Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total	809.45	848.60	610.27	641.36	626.57
Saudi Arabia	195.44	228.41	281.11	275.17	289.30
United Arab Emirates	312.70	349.83	130.30	130.91	138.86
Oman	95.46	89.66	74.96	105.81	73.82
Qatar	88.48	82.94	46.29	45.75	41.71
Kuwait	48.47	35.56	42.09	37.67	45.15

Net Migration Rate (1990–2010)	1990–95	1995–2000	2000–05	2005–10
	-0.03	-0.1	-0.35	-0.51

Remittance inflows (current US$ million)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011(e)
	28,333.6	37,216.8	49,977.3	49,468.4	54,034.7	63,663.3

Immigration in Indonesia							
Immigrant population 0+				Immigrant population 15+			
	Total ('000s)	% of pop	% 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 serv.
Number of foreign workers ('000s)	102.3	26.6	12.4	21.0	12.4
% of total employment	0.09	0.18	0.2	0.09	0.07

Stock of international students ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
		6			

Inflows of foreign workers by origin	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Total						
PRC						
Japan						
Rep. of Korea						

Emigration to the OECD						
Emigrant population: persons born in Indonesia living abroad	2000			2005/06		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	162.3	177.3	339.6	152.8	183.2	336.0
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	22.0	26.4	48.4	17.6	26.5	44.0
15–24 (% of population 15+)	13.7	11.3	12.4	12.8	9.2	10.9
25–64 (% of population 15+)	65.4	61.8	63.5	64.0	64.9	64.5
65+ (% of population 15+)	20.9	26.9	24.0	23.1	25.9	24.6
Total emigration rates (%)	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Emigration rates of the high-educated (%)	3.2	4.2	3.6	3.4	4.1	3.7

Legal migrant flows to OECD ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Total	35.1	30.6	26.7	31.6	22.4	24.9
Japan	12.9	11.4	10.1	10.1	7.5	8.3
Rep. of Korea	10.2	6.9	5.2	9.7	3.3	5.3
United States	3.9	4.9	3.7	3.6	3.7	3.0

International students (3 main destinations, '000s)		2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Total		21.26	19.90	20.04	20.79	22.67	22.48
Australia	Non-resident students	10.18	9.29	9.05	10.54	10.24	10.21
United States	Non-resident students	8.88	8.11	7.84	7.50	7.70	7.39
Germany	Non-resident students	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	1.58	1.52.

Emigration to non-OECD destinations	
Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)	2011
Total	3,256
Saudi Arabia	1,500
Malaysia	917.93
Taipei,China	146.19
Hong Kong, China	140.56
Singapore	106

Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total	690.39	636.21	629.60	567.07	546.19
Saudi Arabia	257.22	234.64	276.63	228.89	137.64
Malaysia	222.20	187.12	123.89	116.06	134.11
Taipei,China	50.81	59.52	59.34	62.05	73.50
Hong Kong, China	29.97	30.20	32.42	33.26	50.28
Singapore	37.50	21.81	33.08	39.62	47.78

Net Migration Rate (1990–2010)	1990–95	1995–2000	2000–05	2005–10
	-0.75	-0.75	-1.08	-1.11

Remittance inflows (current US$ million)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011(e)
	5,722.4	6,174.3	6,794.2	6,792.9	6,916.1	6,924.0

Immigration in Kyrgyz Republic

	Immigrant population 0+			Immigrant population 15+			
	Total ('000s)	% of pop	% women	%15–24	%25–64	% low educated	% high educated
2000	373	8	58	11.2	65.1	35.0	13.4
2010	223	4	58				

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

Stock of international students	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009

Inflows of foreign workers by origin ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2011
Total	3.8	5.1	4.4	8.7	8.5	9.8

Emigration to the OECD

Emigrant population: persons born in Kyrgyz Republic living abroad	2000			2005/06		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	17.3	19.3	36.6	6.1	7.1	13.3
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	1.1	1.5	2.6	2.0	2.6	4.7
15–24 (% of population 15+)	18.0	17.1	17.5	27.2	20.5	23.6
25–64 (% of population 15+)	65.6	62.0	63.7	69.9	76.9	73.7
65+ (% of population 15+)	16.4	20.9	18.8	2.9	2.5	2.7
Total emigration rates (%)	1.1	1.1	1.1	0.4	0.4	0.4
Emigration rates of the high-educated (%)	2.3	1.8	2.1	1.4	1.6	1.5

Legal migrant flows to OECD ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Total	2.6	3.4	3.6	3.2	2.7	4.1
Turkey	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	1.0
Rep. of Korea	0.4	1.1	1.2	0.9	0.6	0.8
Germany	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.6

International students (3 main destinations, '000s)		2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Total		1.13	1.13	1.15	1.16	1.62	1.73
Turkey	Non-resident students	0.75	0.72	0.70	0.64	0.60	0.56
Germany	Non-resident students	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	0.43	0.50
United States	Non-resident students	0.18	0.19	0.20	0.21	0.26	0.27

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)	2011
Total	
Russia	450~500
Kazakhstan	50~75
Rep. of Korea	1.3

Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total					
Russia					115
Rep. of Korea		0.45	0.17	0.32	0.30

Net Migration Rate (1990–2010)	1990–95	1995–2000	2000–05	2005–10
	-12.15	-1.13	-9.98	-5.07

Remittance inflows (current US$ million)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011(e)
	481.2	714.8	1,232.4	991.8	1,275.4	1,500.0

Immigration in Lao PDR

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

Stock of foreign workers by sector, 2009	Total
Number of foreign workers ('000s)	110
% of total employment	

Stock of international students	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009

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

Emigration to the OECD

Emigrant population: persons born in Lao PDR living abroad	2000			2005/06		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	132.8	131.4	264.1	126.4	129.7	256.1
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	4.4	5.8	10.2	4.2	6.5	10.7
15–24 (% of population 15+)	13.8	13.7	13.8	3.3	3.8	3.5
25–64 (% of population 15+)	81.2	79.0	80.1	88.5	86.3	87.4
65+ (% of population 15+)	5.0	7.3	6.1	8.2	9.9	9.1
Total emigration rates (%)	8.3	8.1	8.2	7.0	7.0	7.0
Emigration rates of the high-educated (%)	23.8	29.2	25.9	24.4	25.2	24.8

Legal migrant flows to OECD ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Total	1.7	4.1	3.8	3.5	3.0	2.5
United States	1.2	2.9	2.6	2.2	1.7	1.2
Japan	n.a.	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9
Rep. of Korea	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1

International students (3 main destinations, '000s)		2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Total		0.40	0.36	0.38	0.41	0.44	0.48
Australia	Non-resident students	0.12	0.11	0.13	0.16	0.16	0.17
France	Non-resident students	0.17	0.15	0.14	0.13	0.10	0.12
United States	Non-resident students	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.05	0.07	0.08

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)
Total

Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total					8.39
Thailand					8.39

Net Migration Rate (1990–2010)	1990–95	1995–2000	2000–05	2005–10
	-1.34	-3.46	-4.16	-2.51

Remittance inflows (current US$ million)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011(e)
	4.2	6.2	17.8	37.6	41.8	45.2

Immigration in Malaysia

	Immigrant population 0+			Immigrant population 15+			
	Total ('000s)	% of pop	% women	%15–24	%25–64	% low educated	% high educated
2000	1,554	7	45	23.0	70.6	91.3	5.9
2010	2,358	8	45				

Stock of foreign workers by sector, 2009	Total	Manuf.	Consutruction	Services	Agriculture and fishing
Number of foreign workers ('000s)	1,941	671	301	227	500
% of total employment	16.7	20.9	39.5	3.6	35.9

Stock of internationl students ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
		44.4	47.9	69.2	80.8

Inflows of foreign workers by origin	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Tital						

Emigration to the OECD

Emigrant population: persons born in Malaysia living abroad	2000			2005/06		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	98.6	115.7	214.3	108.9	137.1	245.9
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	16.9	18.8	35.7	22.7	28.3	51.0
15–24 (% of population 15+)	23.9	19.0	21.2	19.3	16.1	17.5
25–64 (% of population 15+)	71.2	75.3	73.5	73.0	76.5	74.9
65+ (% of population 15+)	4.9	5.7	5.3	7.7	7.4	7.6
Total emigration rates (%)	1.2	1.5	1.4	1.2	1.6	1.4
Emigration rates of the high-educated (%)	5.7	6.7	6.2	5.1	6.3	5.6

Legal migrant flows to OECD ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Total	16.5	19.5	20.5	24.6	20.3	22.1
United Kingdom	5.8	7.0	8.0	11.0	7.0	9.0
Australia	4.7	4.8	4.8	5.1	5.4	4.9
Japan	n.a.	2.0	2.3	2.6	2.3	2.3

International students (3 main destinations, '000s)		2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Total		36.43	35.22	35.21	37.83	41.13	44.18
Australia	Non-resident students	16.09	15.55	15.36	17.69	18.58	19.97
United Kingdom	Non-resident students	11.81	11.47	11.45	11.81	11.73	12.70
United States	Non-resident students	6.48	6.42	5.71	5.40	5.43	5.84

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)
Total

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

Net Migration Rate (1990–2010)	1990–95		1995–2000	2000–05		2005–10
	3.31		3.82	3.2		0.62

Remittance inflows (current US$ million)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011(e)
	1,365.5	1,556.2	1,329.1	1,130.9	1,102.4	1,234.7

Immigration in Pakistan

	Immigrant population 0+			Immigrant population 15+			
	Total ('000s)	% of pop	% women	%15–24	%25–64	% low educated	% high educated
2000	4,243	3	45	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
2010	4,234	2	45				

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

Stock of international students	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009

Inflows of foreign workers by origin	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Total						

Emigration to the OECD

Emigrant population: persons born in Pakistan living abroad	2000			2005/06		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	375.0	293.7	668.7	471.9	371.2	843.1
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	79.8	60.4	140.2	109.7	80.3	190.0
15–24 (% of population 15+)	13.9	15.4	14.5	13.0	14.4	13.7
25–64 (% of population 15+)	80.3	78.2	79.3	80.9	78.2	79.7
65+ (% of population 15+)	5.9	6.4	6.1	6.0	7.4	6.6
Total emigration rates (%)	0.9	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.8
Emigration rates of the high-educated (%)	3.1	3.6	3.3	5.4	6.4	5.7

Legal migrant flows to OECD ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Total	74.7	84.6	75.2	76.3	77.0	100.1
United Kingdom	16.0	31.0	27.0	17.0	17.0	30.0
Spain	12.4	8.2	10.6	13.4	10.6	21.7
United Japan	14.9	17.4	13.5	19.7	21.6	18.3

International students (3 main destinations, '000s)		2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Total		14.15	14.98	17.35	18.98	22.39	24.66
United Kingdom	Non-resident students	4.38	6.55	7.94	9.31	9.30	9.61
United States	Non-resident students	7.33	6.58	5.96	5.52	5.35	5.21
Australia	Non-resident students	1.10	1.30	1.54	2.09	2.48	2.84

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)	2009	2012
Total		
Saudi Arabia	1,200	1,700
United Arab Emirates	738	1,200
Oman	152	200
Kuwait	150	150
Qatar	83	n.a.

Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total	180.53	282.87	425.50	396.76	359.33	
Saudi Arabia	46.08	84.77	138.50	201.90	190.61	
United Arab Emirates	100.61	139.78	222.10	141.00	113.32	
Oman	12.66	32.57	37.58	34.32	38.06	
Bahrain	1.63	2.62	5.94	7.09	5.88	
Malaysia	4.84	1.20	1.81	2.46	3.37	

Net Migration Rate (1990–2010)	1990–95	1995–2000	2000–05	2005–10
	-2.51	-0.28	-2.31	-2.41

Remittance inflows (current US$ million)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011(e)
	5,121	5,998	7,039	8,717	9,690	12,264.1

Immigration in Philippines

	Immigrant population 0+			Immigrant population 15+			
	Total ('000s)	% of pop	% women	%15–24	%25–64	% low educated	% high educated
2000	323	0	49	30.3	63.0	54.8	11.9
2010	435	0	51				

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

Inflows of foreign workers by origin	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2011
Total		12.3	13.6	12.6	12.2	14.3
Rep. of Korea			3.7			
Japan			3.4			
PRC			1.8			

Flows of international students ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2011
						4.3

Emigration to the OECD

Emigrant population: persons born in Philippines living abroad	2000			2005/06		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	745.8	1,192.1	1,938.0	966.5	1,535.8	2,502.3
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	107.5	168.8	276.4	164.1	256.4	420.5
15–24 (% of population 15+)	13.9	9.6	11.3	11.8	8.0	9.5
25–64 (% of population 15+)	75.7	80.5	78.6	76.4	79.6	78.4
65+ (% of population 15+)	10.5	9.9	10.1	11.8	12.4	12.2
Total emigration rates (%)	3.1	4.8	3.9	3.5	5.4	4.4
Emigration rates of the high-educated (%)	5.3	8.1	6.8	6.2	9.6	8.0

Legal migrant flows to OECD ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Total	191.6	172.3	168.6	158.1	163.6	167.2
United States	60.748	74.6	72.6	54.0	60.0	58.2
Canada	17.525	17.7	19.1	23.7	27.3	36.6
Japan	63.46	28.3	25.3	21.0	15.8	13.3

International students (3 main destinations, '000s)		2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Total		5.58	5.78	6.31	6.35	7.09	8.04
United States	Non-resident students	3.47	3.69	3.89	3.81	4.17	4.16
Australia	Non-resident students	0.67	0.73	0.81	0.88	1.02	1.29
United Kingdom	Non-resident students	0.78	0.96	0.94	0.82	0.66	1.09

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Total	2,365.96	2,476.19	2,812.48	2,965.32	3,198.85	3,624.81
Saudi Arabia	976.43	1,001.33	1,046.05	1,072.46	1,138.65	1,482.19
United Arab Emirates	231.78	291.36	493.41	541.67	576.00	606.44
Qatar	78.03	115.87	189.94	224.03	258.37	290.32
Kuwait	103.07	133.36	129.71	136.02	145.24	160.61
Hong Kong, China	166.46	121.64	116.07	125.81	140.04	141.24

Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Total	680.07	686.77	716.36	870.42	991.12	1 032.60
Saudi Arabia	194.35	223.46	238.42	275.93	291.42	293.05
United Arab Emirates	82.04	99.21	120.66	193.81	196.82	201.21
Hong Kong, China	98.69	96.93	59.17	78.35	100.14	101.34
Qatar	31.42	45.80	56.28	84.34	89.29	87.81
Singapore	28.15	28.37	49.43	41.68	54.42	70.25

Net Migration Rate (1990–2010)	1990–95		1995–2000	2000–05		2005–10
	-2.13		-2.12	-2.77		-2.76

Remittance inflows (current US$ million)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011(e)
	15,251	16,302	18,642	19,765	21,423	22,973.5

Immigration in PRC

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

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

Stock of international students ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2011
			68.2		93.5	118.8

Inflows of foreign workers by origin	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2011
Total						

Emigration to the OECD

Emigrant population: persons born in PRC living abroad	2000			2005/06		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	976.3	1,089.8	2,066.1	1,254.1	1,470.4	2,724.5
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	217.0	250.7	467.7	298.9	355.7	654.6
15–24 (% of population 15+)	12.3	11.4	11.8	16.6	15.1	15.8
25–64 (% of population 15+)	73.1	73.4	73.3	69.1	70.4	69.8
65+ (% of population 15+)	14.6	15.2	14.9	14.3	14.5	14.4
Total emigration rates (%)	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3
Emigration rates of the high-educated (%)	1.5	2.3	1.8	1.4	2.2	1.7

Legal migrant flows to OECD ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Total	438.8	504.3	519.3	531.3	460.6	508.5
Rep. of Korea	115.8	161.2	177.0	161.7	117.6	155.3
Japan	105.8	112.5	125.3	134.2	121.2	107.9
United States	70.0	87.3	76.7	80.3	64.2	70.9

International students (3 main destinations, '000s)		2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Total		215.34	234.67	260.69	272.23	327.11	368.16
United States	Non-resident students	87.94	92.37	93.67	98.96	110.25	124.26
Australia	Non-resident students	28.31	37.34	42.01	50.42	57.60	70.36
United Kingdom	Non-resident students	47.74	52.68	50.75	49.59	45.36	47.03

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total	641	743	774	778	847	812
Singapore	83					
Algeria	35					
Macao, China	33					
Russia	25					
Hong Kong, China	21					

Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total	372	427	395	411	452

Net Migration Rate (1990–2010)	1990–95	1995–2000	2000–05	2005–10
	-0.14	-0.11	-0.36	-0.29

Remittance inflows (current US$ million)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011(e)
	27,440.4	38,587.3	48,406.5	48,852.4	53,038.5	62,497.3

Immigration in Sri Lanka

	Immigrant population 0+			Immigrant population 15+			
	Total ('000s)	% of pop	% women	%15–24	%25–64	% low educated	% high educated
2000	395	2	50	18.1	63.8	41.8	13.4
2010	340	2	50				

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

Inflows of foreign workers by origin ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Total						
India	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.5		
PRC	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2		
United Kingdom	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1		

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

Emigration to the OECD

Emigrant population: persons born in Sri Lanka living abroad	2000			2005/06		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	169.2	147.7	317.0	227.2	206.0	433.2
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	26.7	30.5	57.2	38.7	42.2	81.0
15–24 (% of population 15+)	14.6	15.2	14.9	14.0	15.1	14.5
25–64 (% of population 15+)	79.8	76.8	78.4	79.6	76.8	78.3
65+ (% of population 15+)	5.6	8.1	6.7	6.4	8.1	7.2
Total emigration rates (%)	2.4	2.1	2.3	3.1	2.7	2.9
Emigration rates of the high-educated (%)	27.2	28.7	27.7	33.6	35.2	34.2

Legal migrant flows to OECD ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Total	28.3	28.1	27.0	33.9	33.3	41.3
United Kingdom	6.0	6.0	6.1	5.0	7.0	11.0
Italy	3.9	3.7	3.8	6.6	6.3	7.1
Australia	3.0	3.3	3.8	4.8	5.3	5.8

International students (3 main destinations, '000s)		2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Total		6.99	7.09	8.26	9.76	10.85	11.97
Australia	Non-resident students	2.12	2.08	2.50	3.55	4.07	4.30
United Kingdom	Non-resident students	2.27	2.42	2.77	3.01	3.14	3.55
United States	Non-resident students	1.96	2.08	2.23	2.43	2.59	2.93

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
Total	1,217.05	1,221.76	1,446.13	1,642.46	1,800.00
Saudi Arabia				517.74	
Kuwait				308.53	
United Arab Emirates				238.60	
Qatar				133.39	
Lebanon				117.03	

Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total	218.46	250.50	247.13	266.45	
Saudi Arabia	60.49	67.44	77.79	70.90	
Qatar	38.94	39.48	43.89	53.63	
Kuwait	41.03	46.94	42.38	48.11	
United Arab Emirates	39.02	51.17	39.60	42.20	
Jordan	8.44	10.36	9.03	9.45	

Net Migration Rate (1990–2010)	1990–95	1995–2000	2000–05	2005–10
	-2.88	-4.33	-1.04	-2.46

Remittance inflows (current US$ million)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011(e)
	2,184.8	2,526.7	2,947.4	3,362.8	4,155.2	5,193.9

Immigration in Taipei,China

	Immigrant population 0+			Immigrant population 15+			
	Total ('000s)	% of pop	% 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, 2011	Total	Manuf.	Construction	Health, social serv.	Agriculture, foresty and fishing
Number of foreign workers ('000s)	425.7	215.3	3.9	197.9	8.7
% of total employment	3.97	7.3	0.47	48.5	1.6

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

Inflows of foreign workers by origin	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total						

Emigration to the OECD

Emigrant population: persons born in Taipei,China living abroad	2000			2005/06		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	191.6	238.3	429.9	194.7	246.8	441.4
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	42.5	54.0	96.4	26.7	38.3	65.0
15–24 (% of population 15+)	22.4	17.4	19.6	13.5	10.7	11.9
25–64 (% of population 15+)	73.7	78.5	76.4	79.3	82.0	80.8
65+ (% of population 15+)	3.9	4.1	4.0	7.2	7.3	7.2
Total emigration rates (%)	2.2	2.7	2.4	1.0	1.3	1.2
Emigration rates of the high-educated (%)	5.3	7.0	6.0	2.2	2.9	2.5

Legal migrant flows to OECD ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Total	17.0	31.5	33.5	22.0	23.9	20.3
United States	9.2	8.1	9.0	9.1	8.0	6.7
Japan	n.a.	4.5	4.9	5.5	5.4	6.6
Canada	3.1	2.8	2.8	3.0	2.5	2.8

International students (3 main destinations, '000s)	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Total	30.73	32.91	34.81	31.00		
United States	14.05	15.53	16.45	14.92		
United Kingdom	9.21	9.25	9.65	7.13		
Australia	2.25	2.68	2.86	2.57		

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)
Total

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

Net Migration Rate (1990–2010)	1990–95	1995–2000	2000–05	2005–10
	n.a.	n.a	n.a	n.a

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

Immigration in Thailand

	Immigrant population 0+			Immigrant population 15+			
	Total ('000s)	% of pop	% women	%15–24	%25–64	% low educated	% high educated
2000	792	1	48	16.8	56.9	84.7	9.9
2010	1,157	2	48				

Stock of foreign workers by sector, 2010	Total	Constructions	Services	Domestic workers	Agriculture and fishing
Number of foreign workers ('000s)	1,335.2	223.4	244	129.8	359.6
% of total employment	3.5	10.7	25.9	35.1	2.1

Stock of international students ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
	5.4	7.6	10	13.7	16.1	17.2

Inflows of foreign workers by origin ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Total						
Japan		10.5	11.1			
PRC		4.6	4.8			
Philippines		3.5	4.0			

Emigration to the OECD

Emigrant population: persons born in Thailand living abroad	2000			2005/06		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	90.8	180.0	270.8	113.0	233.9	346.9
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	15.8	33.9	49.7	19.4	59.2	78.6
15–24 (% of population 15+)	38.7	21.8	27.5	30.8	16.0	20.8
25–64 (% of population 15+)	59.6	76.3	70.7	66.1	80.6	75.9
65+ (% of population 15+)	1.7	1.9	1.8	3.1	3.4	3.3
Total emigration rates (%)	0.4	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.9	0.7
Emigration rates of the high-educated (%)	2.4	3.1	2.8	1.9	2.9	2.5

Legal migrant flows to OECD ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Total	47.1	56.5	48.1	47.5	47.3	50.7
Japan	9.0	8.7	9.0	10.5	9.9	10.9
United States	5.5	11.8	8.8	6.6	10.4	9.4
Rep. of Korea	13.7	15.8	10.5	8.6	5.8	6.9

International students (3 main destinations, '000s)		2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Total		19.79	19.10	19.79	20.27	20.51	20.69
United States	Non-resident students	8.94	9.02	9.08	9.08	9.01	8.59
United Kingdom	Non-resident students	3.75	3.94	4.21	4.54	4.18	4.67
Australia	Non-resident students	5.45	4.92	4.66	4.88	4.57	4.38

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)	2007
Total	450

Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total	121.87	122.68	110.79	106.30	109.29
Taipei,China	52.19	45.09	35.86	40.93	47.84
Singapore	16.27	14.93	14.00	12.72	11.46
United Arab Emirates	9.85	12.97	9.65	8.33	9.57
Malaysia	3.43	3.48	3.88	3.63	4.32
Qatar	5.76	10.72	10.44	6.10	3.37

Net Migration Rate (1990–2010)	1990–95	1995–2000	2000–05	2005–10
	-3.8	1.94	3.4	1.45

Remittance inflows (current US$ million)	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011(e)
	1,333.1	1,635.0	1,897.9	2,776.1	3,580.3	3,994.5

Immigration in Viet Nam

	Immigrant population 0+			Immigrant population 15+			
	Total ('000s)	% of pop	% 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, 2010	Total
Number of foreign workers ('000s)	
% of total employment	

Stock of international students	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009

Inflows of foreign workers by origin	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Total					

Emigration to the OECD

Emigrant population: persons born in Viet Nam living abroad	2000			2005/06		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	747.4	768.6	1,515.9	854.6	903.1	1,757.7
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	63.0	86.1	149.1	59.0	97.6	156.6
15–24 (% of population 15+)	12.5	12.1	12.3	8.6	8.2	8.4
25–64 (% of population 15+)	81.1	79.9	80.5	82.3	81.1	81.7
65+ (% of population 15+)	6.5	8.0	7.2	9.0	10.7	9.9
Total emigration rates (%)	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.9
Emigration rates of the high-educated (%)	17.1	19.8	18.2	14.5	16.6	15.4

Legal migrant flows to OECD ('000s)	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Total	80.1	84.6	90.9	100.7	79.3	87.6
United States	32.8	30.7	28.7	31.5	29.2	30.6
Rep. of Korea	18.0	20.0	21.2	24.0	16.4	22.9
Japan	7.7	8.5	9.9	12.5	10.9	11.9

International students (3 main destinations, '000s)		2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Total		10.58	13.00	16.42	19.98	25.98	33.27
United States	Non-resident students	3.17	3.83	4.76	6.17	8.78	12.61
Australia	Non-resident students	2.62	2.76	3.08	4.04	5.45	7.65
France	Non-resident students	2.95	3.74	4.66	5.16	5.13	5.80

Emigration to non-OECD destinations

Stocks of workers overseas (5 main destinations, '000s)	2007
Total	500
Taipei,China	90
Malaysia	75
Russia	72
Lao PDR	14.50
Saudi Arabia	11.50

Flows of workers deployed (5 main destinations, '000s)	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Total	63.98	53.06	44.18	57.52	59.83
Taipei,China	23.64	31.63	21.68	28.50	38.80
Malaysia	26.70	7.81	2.79	11.74	9.98
Lao PDR	3.07	3.14	9.07	5.90	4.28
Saudi Arabia	1.62	2.99	2.52	2.72	3.63
Macao, China	2.13	3.03	3.28	3.12	1.98

Net Migration Rate (1990–2010)	1990–95	1995–2000	2000–05	2005–10
	-0.9	-0.75	-1.07	-1.01

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

General Notes

1. All tables with top three/five destinations are ranked by decreasing order of frequency for the last year available
2. Data on remittances for 2011 are estimates
3. "n.a." data not available
4. Educational attainment levels are defined according to the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED 1997). "Low educated" persons have completed at best lower secondary education (ISCED 0/1/2). "Medium educated" have completed at best post-education (ISCED 3/4). "High educated" persons hold at least a first stage tertiary degree (ISCED 5/6).
5. The definition of non-citizen students was only used for the countries for which no data on non-resident students were available.
6. Data on international students in the Asian countries is only for degree programmes (undergraduate and upwards) and term language courses
7. Legal migrant flows to the OECD are from Connecting with Emigrants: A Global Profile of Diasporas (OECD, 2012) and estimates for the UK. The only exception is Kyrgyz Republic, for which the UK is excluded.
8. Stock of foreign workers in [country] by sector reports figures for the four sectors representing the largest employers of foreign workers
9. Net migration rate is per 1,000 population
10. The figure for remittances in 2011 is estimated

Data source

Data	Source
Immigrant population in [country]	
Total immigrant population 0+ (thousands) % of total population 0+	UN International Migrant Stock, the 2008 Revision http://esa.un.org/migration/. United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division. 2009. Trends in International Migrant Stock, the 2008 Revision
Emigrant population 15+ ('000s)	UN International Migrant Stock, the 2008 Revision http://esa.un.org/migration/. United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division. 2011. World Population Prospects, the 2010 Revision http://esa.un.org/wpp/. National data sources were used for the United Arab Emirates, Bahrain and Qatar
Recent emigrants 15+ ('000s)	UN International Migrant Stock, the 2008 Revision http://esa.un.org/migration/. United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division. 2011. World Population Prospects, the 2010 Revision http://esa.un.org/wpp/.
Age structure (2000, %) (population 15+):	DIOC-E 2000 – Database on immigrants in OECD and non-OECD countries. www.oecd.org/migration/databaseonimmigrantsinoecdandnon-oecdcountriesdioc-e.htm
Education (2000, %) (population 15+):	DIOC-E 2000 – Database on immigrants in OECD and non-OECD countries www.oecd.org/migration/databaseonimmigrantsinoecdandnon-oecdcountriesdioc-e.htm
Emigrant population: persons born in [country] living abroad	DIOC-E 2000 – Database on immigrants in OECD and non-OECD countries www.oecd.org/migration/databaseonimmigrantsinoecdandnon-oecdcountriesdioc-e.htm DIOC 2005/2006 www.oecd.org/els/internationalmigrationpolicies anddata/dioc.htm DIOC 2000 UN World Population Prospects, the 2006 Revision. Barro, R. and J. Lee. 2010. A New Data Set of Educational Attainment in the World, 1950–2010. National Bureau of Economic Research Working Paper. No. 15902. Cambridge, Massachusetts: NBER. www.barrolee.com/. K.C. et al. 2010. Projection of populations by level of educational attainment, age, and sex for 120 countries for 2005–2050. *Demographic Research*. 22 (15): pp. 383–472. Database: www.iiasa.ac.at/Research/POP/Edu07FP/population%20by%20education%20age%20sex%20 1970_2050%2015Mar2010.zip
Legal migrant flows	OECD International Migration Database http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DatasetCode=MIG; OECD. 2012. Connecting with Emigrants: A Global Profile of Diasporas. OECD Publishing, Paris
International students from [country] in OECD countries	UNESCO/OECD/Eurostat (UOE) database http://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DatasetCode=RFOREIGN
Net migration Rate	United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division. 2011. World Population Prospects, the 2010 Revision http://esa.un.org/wpp/.
Remittance Inflows	World Bank Migration and Remittances Factbook 2011, database: http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTPROSPECTS/Resources/334934-1110315015165/RemittancesData_Inflows_Apr12(Public).xlsx

This joint report of the Asian Development Bank Institute (ADBI) and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) is a summary of the discussions of experts and practitioners from OECD and several Asian countries at the "Second Roundtable on Labor Migration in Asia: Managing Migration to Support Inclusive and Sustainable Growth." The roundtable was co-organized by ADBI and OECD in Tokyo from 18 to 20 January 2012. More than 30 experts and government officials from OECD and emerging Asian economies participated in the roundtable.

The report highlights the dynamics and challenges of international migration between OECD and developing Asian countries as well as intra-Asian migration. It also identifies areas for facilitating global labor migration and protecting the rights of migrant workers, and outlines innovative policy prescriptions.

The appendix of the report includes a unique dataset on the status of international migration, providing insightful information on labor migration of Asian countries. A part of the data was generated from surveys in selected Asian countries.

ISBN 978-4-89974-036-1