

**Emerging Issues on International  
Migration and Development in  
Asia and the Pacific**

Bangkok, Thailand, 20 - 21 September 2008

Report of the Expert Group Meeting



United Nations



**Department of Economic and Social Affairs**  
Population Division

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Migration and Development in  
Asia and the Pacific**

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United Nations  
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# DESA

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## PREFACE

The Population Division of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA) of the United Nations Secretariat is responsible for providing the international community with up-to-date and objective information on population and development. The Population Division provides guidance to the United Nations General Assembly, Economic and Social Council and the Commission on Population and Development on population and development issues and undertakes studies on population levels, trends and the components of population change, including international migration, as well as population policies and the interrelationships between population and development.

In the area of international migration, the Population Division estimates the global number of international migrants at regular intervals, monitors levels, trends and policies of international migration, and collects and analyzes information on the relationship between international migration and development. In this context, the Population Division organized an Expert Group Meeting on Emerging Issues on International Migration and Development in Asia and the Pacific which was hosted by the United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP). The meeting took place in Bangkok, Thailand from 20 to 21 September 2008 and featured presentations addressing international migration trends in Asia and the Pacific, regional migration policies and cooperation mechanisms, labour migration and the link between international migration and development. Two special presentations addressed data collection activities on international migration in Asia and the Pacific.

The Expert Group Meeting also served as preparation for the Asia-Pacific High-level Meeting on International Migration and Development which was held in Bangkok from 22 to 23 September 2008. The High-level Meeting, co-organized by DESA and ESCAP, was held in preparation for the second meeting of the Global Forum on Migration and Development (GFMD), which took place in Manila, the Philippines, in October 2008.

The Expert Group Meeting allowed for an exchange of views between invited experts and representatives of United Nations agencies, funds and programmes, offices of the United Nations Secretariat and international organizations active in the field of international migration. The participating experts underscored the importance of linking global and regional perspectives in discussing international migration. The Meeting also benefited from the collaboration between the Population Division of DESA and ESCAP in the field of international migration and development and contributed to capacity-building in the region.

This volume contains the report of the meeting, the organization of work and the list of participants. For further information on the present publication, please contact the Office of the Director, Population Division, United Nations, New York, NY 10017, by telephone (+1 212 963 3179), fax (+1 212 963 2147) or e-mail ([migrationp@un.org](mailto:migrationp@un.org)). This report as well as other migration-related publications of the Population Division may be accessed at [www.unmigration.org](http://www.unmigration.org).



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## EXPLANATORY NOTES

Symbols of United Nations documents are composed of capital letters combined with figures.

The following abbreviations are used in this document:

AIDS	Acquired immunodeficiency syndrome
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
DESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
ESCAP	United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific
GCC	Gulf Cooperation Council
GDP	Gross domestic product
GFMD	Global Forum on Migration and Development
HIV	Human immunodeficiency virus
ILO	International Labour Organization
INED	Institut national d'études démographiques
IOM	International Organization for Migration
IPUMS	Integrated Public Use Microdata Series
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
SARS	Severe acute respiratory syndrome
STD	Sexually transmitted disease
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNHCR	Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
USSR	Union of Soviet Socialist Republics



## **REPORT OF THE MEETING**



## REPORT OF THE MEETING

The Population Division of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs (DESA) of the United Nations Secretariat organized an Expert Group Meeting on Emerging Issues on International Migration and Development in Asia and the Pacific<sup>1</sup>, which was hosted by the United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP). The meeting took place in Bangkok, Thailand, from 20 to 21 September 2008 and focused on the following topics: (a) international migration trends in Asia and the Pacific in the global context; (b) regional migration policies and cooperation mechanisms; (c) labour migration, and (d) international migration and development. The meeting also featured two special presentations, one on the use of labour force surveys for the collection of migration data and the other on the United Nations Global Migration Database developed by the Population Division of DESA.

The Expert Group Meeting also provided input for the intergovernmental Asia-Pacific High-level Meeting on International Migration and Development, which was held in Bangkok from 22 to 23 September 2008. The High-level Meeting, co-organized by ESCAP and the Population Division of DESA, was held in preparation of the second meeting of the Global Forum on Migration and Development (GFMD) that took place in Manila, the Philippines, in October 2008.

Nearly forty participants attended the Expert Group Meeting, including representatives of United Nations agencies, funds and programmes, offices of the United Nations Secretariat, international organizations active in the field of international migration as well as the invited experts. A full list of participants is presented at the end of this report.

### I. OPENING

Ms. Thelma Kay, Director of the Social Development Division of ESCAP, opened the meeting by welcoming the participants. She noted that the priority accorded to international migration on the international agenda had been rising. The Expert Group Meeting served two purposes. First, it provided an opportunity for experts and United Nations organizations to discuss international migration and development in Asia and the Pacific. Second, it would provide substantive input to the Asia-Pacific High-level Meeting that would bring together governmental representatives from most countries in the region. Ms. Kay thanked the Population Division of DESA for organizing the Expert Group Meeting and for collaborating with ESCAP in the preparation of the forthcoming Asia-Pacific High-level Meeting.

Mr. Philip Guest, Assistant Director of the Population Division, also welcomed the participants. He said that it was appropriate that the Expert Group Meeting was taking place in Thailand, a country of origin, destination and transit for many international migrants. He emphasized the importance of fostering close collaboration between parts of the United Nations system with global responsibilities and those concerned with regional issues, such as the regional commissions. Merging the global and regional approaches to international migration was especially important because both international and regional processes interacted to shape the international movement of people. He was therefore pleased that the Population Division of DESA had collaborated with ESCAP in organizing both the Expert Group Meeting and the subsequent High-level Meeting for government representatives. One of the Expert Group Meeting's key contributions would be to ensure that its results informed the debate of policy-makers participating in the High-level Meeting. For that reason, some of the experts participating in the Expert Group Meeting would serve as resource persons for the High-level Meeting, thus affording government representatives the opportunity to interact with experts during their deliberations. Mr. Guest thanked ESCAP for hosting the Expert Group Meeting and, in particular, Ms. Keiko Osaki-Tomita of the Population and Social Integration Section of ESCAP for her support of the Meeting.

## II. INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION TRENDS IN ASIA AND THE PACIFIC IN THE GLOBAL CONTEXT

### 1. Presentations

Ms. Sabine Henning of the Population Division of DESA made a presentation on levels and trends of international migration in Asia and the Pacific. Based on the estimates contained in *Trends in Total Migrant Stock: The 2005 Revision*<sup>2</sup>, she noted that in 2005 Asia hosted the second largest number of international migrants in the world (53 million), a number greater than that in Northern America (44 million) and exceeded only by the number in Europe (64 million). In 2005, another five million international migrants were living in the Pacific. Asia and the Pacific together accounted for 31 per cent of all international migrants in the world, whereas a further 34 per cent resided in Europe and 23 per cent in Northern America. A growing number of countries in Asia and the Pacific were active players in the migration process, whether as sending, receiving or transit countries or a combination of some of the three.

At the country level, the United States of America hosted the largest number of international migrants in the world (38 million) in 2005, followed by the Russian Federation (12 million) and Germany (10 million). In Asia and the Pacific, Saudi Arabia (6.4 million), followed by India (5.7 million), Australia (4.1 million), Pakistan (3.3 million) and the United Arab Emirates (3.2 million) were home to the largest numbers of international migrants in 2005. In 2005, the share of international migrants in the total population was highest in Oceania (15 per cent), followed by Northern America (14 per cent) and Europe (9 per cent). In Asia as a whole, international migrants accounted for a low 1.4 per cent of the population but in Western Asia, they accounted for 11 per cent of the population.

Globally, female migrants constituted almost half of the international migrant stock in 2005. Compared to other major areas, Asia had the lowest proportion of female migrants in the world (45 per cent) and, within Asia, the lowest proportion of females among all international migrants was found in Western Asia (39 per cent). The marked under-representation of women among Asia's international migrants resulted from the large number of male contract workers employed in the region, particularly in the Member States of the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC)<sup>3</sup>. In 2005, 71 per cent of all international migrants in the GCC countries were male.

On the basis of data for the period 1990 to 2005 contained in the Population Division's database entitled *International Migration Flows to and from Selected Countries: The 2005 Revision*<sup>4</sup>, Ms. Henning reported that among the 15 countries having flow statistics for that period, the main destinations for Asian migrants were, in order of importance, the United States, Germany and Canada. For international migrants from Oceania, key destinations were the United Kingdom, Australia and New Zealand in order of importance, though the net migration gain of Australia and New Zealand with respect to migrants originating in other countries of Oceania varied considerably over time owing to the free movement regime existing between those two countries.

Ms. Henning then discussed migration flows from selected labour-sending countries in Asia, such as Bangladesh, India and the Philippines, based on their official data on contract workers leaving to work abroad. According to those data, in the early 1990s, Saudi Arabia was the main destination for migrant workers from Bangladesh and India but by 2005 migrants from those two countries and the Philippines were flowing in larger numbers to the United Arab Emirates. In addition, increasing numbers of migrant workers from Bangladesh and India were going to countries other than those in the GCC. Filipinos, in particular, could be found in a large number of countries, both within Asia and in other regions.

Estimates of net international migration prepared by the Population Division of DESA as part of the official set of United Nations population estimates and projections and published under the title of

*World Population Prospects: The 2006 Revision*<sup>5</sup> showed that, from 1990 to 2000, Asia had lost about 1.3 million people annually due to net emigration, whereas Oceania gained 96,000 persons annually.

Ms. Henning noted that migration flows within Asia were complex and highly differentiated. Whereas the oil-producing countries of Western Asia had been experiencing net migration gains almost uninterruptedly since the late 1960s, countries in Southern Asia and South-Eastern Asia had been mostly the origin of low-skilled and low-paid workers and had been experiencing net migration losses. Australia and New Zealand, despite recording fluctuating numbers of immigrants and emigrants, had generally experienced net migration gains since the 1950s.

According to the Population Division's publication entitled *World Population Policies 2007*<sup>6</sup>, in 2007, Governments were more likely to report that they wished to maintain their level of in-migration than they were to wish to reduce that level. In Asia, 31 of the 47 Governments reporting an opinion favoured either maintaining or raising their current levels of in-migration, up from 25 countries in 1996. The report traced the shift towards less restrictive stances to improved understanding of the consequences of international migration, a growing recognition by Governments of the need to manage international migration better rather than to limit it, the persistence of labour shortages in certain sectors of the economies of countries experiencing rapid economic growth, globalization and population ageing.<sup>6</sup> In 2007, 14 out of the 16 countries in the Pacific expressing an opinion had migration policies intended to either raise or maintain current levels of in-migration.

Countries in Asia and the Pacific generally lagged behind the rest of the world in ratifying treaties and protocols relevant to international migration. Thus, as of August 2008, just 8 per cent of countries in Asia and the Pacific had ratified the 1949 ILO Convention concerning Migration for Employment (Revised) as compared with 24 per cent worldwide. Similarly, only 12 per cent of countries in Asia and the Pacific had ratified the 1990 International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families as compared with 19 per cent worldwide. In the area of human trafficking, 33 per cent of the countries in Asia and the Pacific had ratified the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, especially Women and Children but 59 per cent had done so globally. With respect to legal instruments relating to refugees, 35 per cent of countries in Asia and the Pacific had ratified the 1951 Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees as compared to 75 per cent worldwide.

Ms. Keiko Osaki-Tomita of the Social Development Division of ESCAP presented a paper entitled "Key trends and issues on international migration in Asia and the Pacific." She reported that the number of international migrants in Asia had nearly doubled over the last 45 years, from an estimated 28 million in 1960 to more than 53 million in 2005. In the Pacific, the number had increased from 2 million to 5 million over the same period. A salient feature of international migration in Asia and the Pacific was the large number of temporary migrant workers. With few exceptions, international migration in both major areas was primarily intended to fill unmet labour demand rather than to provide opportunities for settlement. Furthermore, most migrants in Asia were low-skilled workers employed in agriculture, construction, manufacturing and domestic services. Although the Governments of several labour-surplus countries in Asia actively promoted labour migration, in many countries the role of Governments in managing out-migration was limited. Consequently, the private sector played an important role in shaping migration flows. Since the 1990s, the migration of highly skilled and professional workers had increased in response to the high demand for workers in information and communication technology (ICT) and health care in developed countries together with the active promotion of highly skilled labour migration by the Governments of some countries of origin. Similarly, the number of students from Asia and the Pacific who migrated to developed countries, especially to Australia and the United States, in order to pursue their education had also increased markedly since 1990.

Although Asia had the lowest proportion of female migrants in the world, the feminization of labour migration continued in a number of countries in Asia and the Pacific. Thus, women constituted a majority of the migrant workers leaving Indonesia (69 per cent in 2005) and the Philippines (72 per cent of the land-based migrants in 2005). Female migrant workers from the region worked primarily in domestic service but they were also engaged in health care, manufacturing, entertainment and other services. Because a significant proportion of women migrated informally from certain countries, the official statistics reported by countries such as Cambodia, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Myanmar or Viet Nam probably underestimated the magnitude of the flows.

Ms. Osaki-Tomita noted that irregular migration was widespread in Asia and the Pacific and, therefore, official statistics had to be considered only approximations of the size of the actual flows. In some countries of the region, regularization campaigns had shed some light on the magnitude of undocumented migration. Thailand, for example, had registered about 1.3 million migrants in an irregular situation in 2004. The Russian Ministry of Labour estimated that in 2000 there were between 3 million and 5 million migrant workers in an irregular situation in the Russian Federation. In Kazakhstan, between half a million and a million undocumented migrants from Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan and Uzbekistan were thought to be residing in the country. Moreover, instances of human trafficking had increased in many Asian countries, with women and children being especially at risk of falling victim to such a crime.

Ms. Osaki-Tomita focused also on the economic dimensions of international migration, reporting that remittances sent to countries in the ESCAP region had increased from US\$110 billion in 2006 to US\$121 billion in 2007. In 2007, the three developing countries receiving the largest amount of remittances were all members of ESCAP, namely, China, India and the Philippines. Remittances accounted for a significant share of gross domestic product (GDP) in several countries of the region, especially in smaller economies such as that of Tajikistan, where remittances constituted 36 per cent of GDP; Tonga, where they accounted for 32 per cent, and Kyrgyzstan, where their share of GDP was 27 per cent.

Regarding the social dimensions of international migration, Ms. Osaki-Tomita noted that migration could contribute to the empowerment of women and thereby promote gender equality. However, female migrants who returned to their countries of origin frequently found themselves underemployed or even unemployed. In the countries of destination, Asian migrant women were usually employed in jobs that did not improve their human capital, such as those in domestic services or manufacturing, and because many of those jobs were in the informal or unregulated sectors of the economy, they put migrant women at a greater risk of exploitation and abuse.

Migration for the purposes of marriage had been growing in Asia and the Pacific, with Japan and the Republic of Korea, in particular, recording rising numbers of marriages involving foreign-born women. The majority of foreign-born brides originated in China, Indonesia, the Philippines, Thailand or Viet Nam. The social integration of foreign-born spouses and their children was a major challenge to receiving countries.

Migration also affected family stability, especially when spouses and children had to be left behind. In cases where children migrated with their parents, they often faced institutional, social and psychological challenges in countries of destination, especially if their status was irregular. Migrants who returned to their countries of origin had the potential of transferring know-how and new ideas to their families and peers. These "social remittances" could benefit both family members and the communities of origin.

As the outbreaks of severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) in Eastern and South-Eastern Asia had made plain, human mobility had public health implications. Although infectious diseases were far more likely to be transmitted by tourists and other short-term travelers than by migrants, the latter were



often perceived as vectors for the transmission of diseases such as HIV/AIDS, other sexually transmitted diseases (STDs), SARS or tuberculosis.

Lastly, Ms. Osaki-Tomita identified several principles that should guide the management of international migration. The rights of migrants should be protected, especially those of low-skilled migrant workers including female migrant workers. Recruitment processes should be monitored and regulated. The development impact of remittances should be maximized and effective measures to combat irregular migration and human trafficking should be implemented. Addressing these challenges required increased understanding and awareness of the social and economic impacts of international migration, as well as the political will to manage international migration flows and address their consequences. Research and effective advocacy coupled with coordination at the national, regional and international levels could promote actions that maximized the benefits of international migration while reducing its costs.

Mr. Jean Louis Rallu of the Institut national d'études démographiques (INED) of France presented a paper entitled "Population, migration and development in Asia, with special emphasis on the South Pacific: The impact of migration on population and the MDGs." He focused on various types of migration flows in Asia and the Pacific and on how they affected population and development. In the Pacific, the direction and composition of migration flows were shaped mainly by the relations between former colonial powers and their colonies as well as by bilateral agreements regarding free movement, travel or the recruitment of temporary migrant workers. Most Pacific islanders who migrated went to Australia, Canada, New Zealand or the United States.

International migration had a greater impact on the population dynamics of the less populous countries. In the Federated States of Micronesia, Nauru, Samoa and Tonga, net emigration had largely offset natural increase since the 1980s and in Niue, Tokelau and the Cook Islands over certain periods, net emigration had led to reductions in the population. Because emigration involved mostly the young and productive segments of society, the depletion of the young adult cohorts typified the countries affected by large out-migration, such as the Cook Islands, the Federated States of Micronesia or Palau. In the past, male dominated emigration had led to unbalanced sex ratios in the populations of countries of origin. However, female migration had increased over time and, in certain Pacific countries such as Samoa and Tonga, women were more numerous than men among young emigrants. In sum, in small populations, sustained out-migration affected not only the rate of population growth but also the age and sex structure of the population in significant ways. In addition, international migration could affect both positively and negatively the size and structure of the labour force and, consequently, the distribution of income, the empowerment of women and the dynamics of family formation. These changes would, in turn, affect the prevalence of poverty, the cornerstone of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

Mr. Rallu argued that when emigration reduced population growth it also reduced the competition for access to health services, education, water and sanitation, being therefore a positive development. However, the emigration of highly skilled workers, especially of those having skills that were in short supply in the country of origin, could adversely affect the provision of services in the country or the development of its economy. Thus, in several of the Pacific countries experiencing high net emigration rates, such as the Federated States of Micronesia, Fiji or the Marshall Islands, there had been little progress in lowering infant mortality.

Although migration could provide women with opportunities to access paid employment, health care and education therefore improving their social status, it could also expose them to significant risks of exploitation and abuse. Moreover, their status might not improve upon return to the country of origin. In the Pacific, although women were increasingly engaging in international migration, their representation in parliamentary bodies was still among the lowest in the world.

Remittances sent by migrants could contribute to poverty reduction. However, given the selectivity of international migration flows, remittances might not reach the poorest segments of society. In addition, remittances could raise a country's poverty line by producing inflation and raising the cost of living. Low-skilled migrants in countries of destination, who frequently took jobs considered dirty, dangerous and demanding, often joined the ranks of the poor in countries hosting them. Yet, remittances used for consumption or invested in education, health care or housing did contribute to generate jobs in the countries of origin and to propel the economic growth that was necessary to reduce poverty. In short, international migration per se could not automatically reduce poverty but it had positive outcomes that could be leveraged with the right interventions.

Lastly, Mr. Rallu reviewed the interrelations between international migration and two other MDGs, namely, the control of HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases, and the pursuit of environmental sustainability. Since the 1960s, international migration and remittances in the Pacific had produced a variety of social effects, including changes in life styles, diet and the modernization of housing. Migration that reduced the size of the labour force in the primary sectors of the economy could adversely affect agricultural production and increase reliance on food imports. Non-communicable diseases, such as cardio-vascular disease, cancers and diabetes had been rising among the population of the Pacific. Changes in consumption patterns and increased use of automobiles had increased toxic waste and pollution and imperiled fragile ecosystems in the region.

## *2. Discussion*

In the ensuing discussion, participants expressed appreciation for the presentations, which had described key features of international migration trends and patterns in Asia and the Pacific. Participants argued that, although estimates on the migrant stock provided useful information, it was also important to have estimates about international migrants according to specific characteristics such as skill level or age. There was considerable debate concerning the impact of international migration on human capital in both countries of destination and those of origin. Participants underscored the importance of documenting the impact of international migration on the countries of destination. In the GCC countries, for instance, heavy reliance on migrant labour had reduced employment opportunities for the native population, a development that had received insufficient attention.

Some participants noted that the emigration of skilled persons could prompt others to gain human capital in order to migrate. The use of remittances to improve the education of those left behind was seen as part of this process of improving human capital, a development that would be beneficial for countries of origin. Studies were cited corroborating that school enrollment and school completion rates were higher among children living in household with a migrant abroad than among those belonging to households without migrants. However, Mr. Rallu cautioned that, in the case of the Pacific islands, traditional social structures and limited economic opportunities reduced incentives to invest in improving human capital.

Participants pointed out that remittances were particularly high in Asia and the Pacific and that the experience of several countries in the region for the last few decades made plain that there was no automatic or causal link between remittance inflows and development. They also remarked that insufficient attention had been given to the situation of migrants in countries of destination where, because they sent large parts of their earnings home, they had difficulty staying out of poverty.

There was interest in the growing migration of students from Asia and the Pacific to pursue educational training in developed countries and it was suggested that student flows could be a harbinger of other types of flows directed to the same destinations in the future.

Regarding marriage migration, participants cautioned against equating it to human trafficking. Most of the marriage migration was legitimate and it was likely to continue, if only because of the severely unbalanced sex ratios that populations, such as that of the Republic of Korea, would have in the near future.

Regarding children left behind, it was important to underscore that in most of Asia the extended family cared for them and that such family functions would have been undertaken even if the parents had moved to work just to a nearby city.

Participants inquired whether ESCAP was ready to take a proactive role in addressing the impact of climate change on international migration. Ms. Osaki-Tomita replied that climate change would likely affect the region through rising sea levels and extreme weather events that primarily threatened low-lying small island States and coastal areas. Some participants cautioned against speculating about the impact of climate change on international migration, especially given the widely varying figures published in recent months. The evidence to link the two on a firmer basis was still lacking.

### III. SPECIAL PRESENTATION: MIGRATION DATA OBTAINED FROM LABOUR FORCE SURVEYS IN THE PHILIPPINES AND THAILAND

#### *1. Presentation*

Mr. Geoffrey Ducanes of the International Labour Organization (ILO) Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific in Bangkok, Thailand, made a special presentation on migration data obtained from labour force surveys with particular emphasis on the cases of the Philippines and Thailand. He explained that a migration module had been included in the labour force survey of the Philippines as early as 1982 and that it currently included 25 questions gathering information that would permit: (a) the estimation of the number of overseas Filipinos; (b) the analysis of the socio-economic characteristics of overseas Filipinos; (c) the level of remittance transfers, and (d) the identification and analysis of remittance transmission channels. Some of the results yielded by the labour force survey differed from those implied by official statistics. For example, the estimated volume of remittances according to the labour force surveys was much lower than official estimates derived from the balance of payments. Because international migration was often a family decision, the detailed data gathered by the labour force survey permitted a better assessment of the migrant household's calculus than general data, such as those collected in censuses, could provide. Relevant information gathered by labour force surveys included income and expenditures of the families of migrants and the employment history of other household members.

In 2006, a migration module with 22 questions had been added to the labour force survey of Thailand. Focusing on migrants coming to Thailand, the module was designed to gather information about their socio-economic characteristics and their motivation to migrate. The module also allowed gathering data on remittances received by households in Thailand from Thai migrants abroad and on the channels of transmission used. Since many foreign-born workers in Thailand were from non-Thai speaking countries, such as Cambodia, the Lao People's Democratic Republic and Myanmar, the lack of questionnaires in their languages led to significant data collection problems and affected the quality of the results. In addition, migrants in an irregular situation were reluctant to answer questions and were probably not well covered by the survey. The National Statistical Office of Thailand was working to ensure that the next round of labour force surveys used questionnaires translated into the languages of the main migrant groups in Thailand to ensure better coverage in future surveys.

As the cases of the Philippines (a country of origin) and Thailand (a country of origin and destination) illustrated, different practical issues arose in relation to the appropriate survey methodology depending on whether a country was hosting international migrants or was the source of international migrants. For countries of destination, availability of both questionnaires in the languages of the international migrants involved and interviewers capable of communicating in those languages was necessary to assure the quality of the information collected. In countries of origin, interviewers had to be well trained to elicit the relevant information from relatives of the migrant who, being abroad, could not respond personally to the questionnaire.

## 2. Discussion

During the discussion, participants acknowledged the value of adding migration modules to surveys or even to population censuses and recommended that National Statistical Offices try to incorporate such modules more often and consistently to large surveys. It was noted that New Zealand had recently added a migration module to its labour force survey. Mr. Ducanes said that the ILO had also considered adding modules on returning migrants to labour force surveys.

There was considerable discussion on the definitions of “international migrant” and “migrant household” used in surveys. Some of the issues raised were: (a) whether a person who had left and settled abroad for a long time would still be considered a member of some household in the country of origin; (b) whether it was possible to ensure that consistent definitions of “migrant” and “migrant household” be used in national surveys so as to ensure comparability across countries and over time; (c) whether, given that surveys are unlikely to cover more than a small proportion of all migrants, it was useful to consider them as sources of data to estimate the size of the migrant stock; (d) whether surveys could provide confirmatory evidence of sufficient quality to assess the volume of remittances. Participants agreed that data obtained via surveys could usefully complement official statistics by providing detailed information regarding the migration experience but they did not recommend using surveys to obtain measures of the migrant stock. They were not optimistic about the possibility of ensuring that all surveys used the same definition of “international migrant”. They also noted that, without oversampling the population of international migrants, which was often geographically concentrated, even large nationally representative surveys could yield very small numbers of international migrants whose characteristics would be measured with large sampling errors. These factors had to be taken into account when comparing results from labour force surveys between countries or over time.

## IV. REGIONAL MIGRATION POLICIES AND COOPERATION MECHANISMS

### 1. Presentations

Mr. Manolo Abella of the ILO Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific in Bangkok, Thailand, spoke about emerging issues in the governance of labour migration in Asia and the Pacific. He noted that there were four key challenges in the governance of migration in the region: (a) absorbing an educated work force in countries of origin; (b) controlling borders and regulating labour markets; (c) protecting migrant workers, and (d) addressing growing xenophobia.

According to the Population Division’s *World Population Prospects: The 2004 Revision*<sup>7</sup>, working-age populations were projected to increase in all regions of Asia between 2005 and 2025. Furthermore, school enrollment rates had increased sharply in many Asian countries since 1995 implying that, in addition to the rapidly growing cohorts of young people that would need jobs, there was concomitantly a growing number of educated young people in need of employment. These trends resulted

in rising emigration pressures. Mr. Abella suggested that countries experiencing labour shortages might capitalize on those demographic changes by negotiating temporary labour agreements with Asian countries where the numbers of young educated workers were growing. It was also necessary for the countries with young and increasingly better educated populations to invest more in job creation instead of relying too much on emigration to relieve pressures on the labour market. If emigration pressures remained high and there was little hope of finding work abroad through legal channels, more young people would likely seek employment through unregulated channels.

Mr. Abella stressed that in many countries the management of migration was often driven by the demand for labour. In the case of the GCC countries, the continued reliance on migrant workers had been a disincentive for the growing number of native young people to seek employment. He suggested a number of measures that would make it easier for the native-born to find jobs and more difficult for employers to favour migrants over native-born workers. Thus, vocational training for the native-born could improve their prospects of finding work and employers might be offered cash incentives to hire native-born workers or face stiff fines for employing migrant workers when native-born ones had the needed skills. Mr. Abella also suggested that stricter regulations could be adopted for the issuance of visas and that restrictions on visa trading could be established. In addition, Governments could work towards the “nationalization” of workers in the public-sector; establish employment quotas for the native-born and the foreign-born in the public sector, ban the employment of migrant workers in certain sectors of the economy, and levy direct and indirect taxes on migrant workers.

Mr. Abella said that migration policies that were effective in one country were not necessarily effective in another. For instance, in Thailand the cost of obtaining the permits allowing legal employment was too high (US\$600) for workers coming from low-income neighbouring countries, such as those originating in the Lao People’s Democratic Republic. As a consequence, many migrant workers opted to remain undocumented. The lack of bilateral agreements to manage labour migration was partly responsible for the unregulated commercialization of the migration process, exposing migrants to discrimination and exploitation as well as to health and safety hazards in the workplace. It was crucial to stop visa trading and to regulate the recruitment process. To do so, Government-to-Government cooperation was essential so that recruiters could not play the regulations of one Government against those of another.

Mr. Richard Bedford of the University of Waikato, New Zealand, presented the paper entitled “Migration policies, practices and co-operation mechanisms in the Pacific.” According to estimates produced by the Statistics and Demography Division of the South Pacific Community, the population of the Pacific amounted to 34.5 million people in 2007, representing 0.5 per cent of the world’s population. With 25 million people, Australia and New Zealand were the most populous countries in the Pacific (also known as Oceania). The other regions of the Pacific, ordered by population size, were: Melanesia (8.1 million), Polynesia (0.7 million) and Micronesia (0.5 million). Within Melanesia, Papua New Guinea was the most populous country with 6.3 million inhabitants in 2007. In the Pacific, Micronesia, followed by Melanesia and Polynesia had experienced the highest population growth rate during 1950-2000. During 2000-2050, the populations of Melanesia and Micronesia were projected almost to double, whereas Australia, New Zealand and Polynesia were expected to experience slower population growth.

Australia and New Zealand were important countries of destination for international migrants in the Pacific. The United States was also an important destination, particularly for emigrants from Micronesia and Samoa. In the Pacific, special migration agreements existed among some countries, including agreements permitting unrestricted migration from former colonies to former colonial powers. Labour shortages in Australia, New Zealand, Polynesia and Micronesia and an abundant supply of unskilled labour in Melanesia had prompted countries in the region to enact special migration agreements in order to match labour demand with labour supply. Although Australia and New Zealand had signed a treaty allowing free movement of

their citizens between the two countries, their migration policies towards other Pacific countries varied. Thus, whereas New Zealand had long-established migration relationships with countries in Polynesia and with Fiji, Australia had ended its special relationships with some countries in the Pacific around 1950. Mr. Bedford noted that Pacific islanders who became New Zealand citizens could move freely to Australia, leading to a significant growth of Australia's population of Pacific island origin, a development that had, on occasion, caused tensions between the Governments of Australia and New Zealand.

Following the 2006 High-level Dialogue on International Migration and Development convened by the United Nations General Assembly, the Government of New Zealand had enacted the Recognised Seasonal Employer (RSE) policy, in order to achieve benefits for migrants, the countries of origin and New Zealand as country of destination. The policy, inspired by the recent policy discourse on international migration and development, was a direct response to both industry-specific labour demands and broader foreign policy objectives to promote development and security in the Pacific region. Launched in 2007, the RSE policy facilitated the temporary admission of workers from five countries in the Pacific (Kiribati, Samoa, Tonga, Tuvalu and Vanuatu) to remedy labour shortages in New Zealand's horticulture and viticulture industries. Workers were required to return home when their contracts ended but there was no restriction on the number of times an employer could recruit the same worker. Although the RSE policy had been in effect for less than two years, both government officials and employers in New Zealand had expressed optimism regarding the programme's results.

Similarly, in 2008 the Government of Australia had initiated a small-scale, seasonal employment pilot programme in cooperation with selected countries in the Pacific (Kiribati, Papua New Guinea, Tonga and Vanuatu). The programme, modeled on New Zealand's RSE policy, indicated policy convergence among the two countries and was an important development towards a broader multilateral approach to international migration and development in the Pacific.

Mr. Bedford noted that, despite the widely held view that shortages of skilled workers affected the availability of services and the productivity of industries in countries of origin, the Governments of the Pacific islands were unlikely to curb the emigration of their skilled people because of the importance remittances had for their economies. Lastly, Mr. Bedford called attention to the importance of safeguarding the rights and entitlements of indigenous peoples, including their special land rights or their right to citizenship, which could be jeopardized if they settled in other countries and those rights could not necessarily be passed to their foreign-born descendants. The protection of such rights needed to be considered when formulating migration policies or drafting bilateral or multilateral agreements regarding international migration in the Pacific.

Mr. Mohammed Dito of the Policy Directorate of the Labour Market Regulatory of Bahrain presented the paper entitled "GCC labour migration governance." He said that countries belonging to the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) had attracted considerable political and economic attention in recent years because of their abundance of oil, their increasing financial power and their strategic location. These factors also influenced regional labour migration flows. The rapid economic growth the GCC countries had experienced in recent years had increased demand for migrant labour, a demand that had been filled mostly by migrants from other Asian countries. According to the Population Division's *Trends in Total Migration Stock: The 2005 Revision*<sup>2</sup>, the number of foreigners in GCC countries had increased from 8.6 million in 1990 to 12.8 million in 2005. In contrast to other countries in the Arab<sup>8</sup> region, GCC countries had experienced sustained positive net migration rates. Coupled with high natural increase, certain GCC countries had experienced some of the highest population growth rates in the world during 2000-2005. In 2005, foreigners accounted for 35.7 per cent of the population of the GCC countries, whereas at the world level international migrants accounted for just 3 per cent of the world population. Females were severely underrepresented among the foreigners living in GCC countries. In 2005, 29 per

cent of all foreigners in the GCC countries were female. This imbalance owed much to the high number of foreign males workers in the oil and construction sectors.

The GCC countries had two major concerns in relation to international migration. First, especially in the smaller countries of the group, foreign workers accounted for a very large percentage of the population and the foreign population was constituted mostly by male workers. Second, heavy reliance on migrant workers went hand in hand with unemployment and underemployment among the native-born, especially among younger cohorts. High oil production had produced rapid economic growth but not the jobs that could benefit the native-born population. A balance between job growth and social protection had not been achieved. GCC countries faced the challenge of creating jobs that would be attractive for their growing native-born populations while also attracting the foreign skilled and low-skilled workers needed to keep their economies growing. The GCC countries were very aware that competition for migrant workers within Asia was growing, especially because other countries in the region had become poles of attraction for international migrants. In response, the GCC countries had been diversifying the sources of international migrants they admitted. In addition, they were becoming more sensitive about the need to safeguard the rights of migrants to maintain an attractive labour market.

Mr. Dito outlined key challenges preventing the full implementation of the decent work agenda<sup>9</sup> of the ILO in GCC countries. First, the GCC countries were experiencing significant unemployment and underemployment of native young people, particularly young women. Creating jobs for the young that were decent and culturally appropriate for women was a goal difficult to reach. In GCC countries, the rights of migrant workers, especially of low-skilled temporary migrant workers, whether working in the private or the public sectors, were not always respected. Workers in domestic service, most of whom were foreign women, used not to be protected by labour laws and were vulnerable to exploitation and abuse. Frequently, there were no legal means of punishing perpetrators or preventing the recurrence of exploitation or abuse. In recent years, the Governments of several GCC countries had introduced special laws protecting workers in domestic service, but those laws were not being consistently implemented. Because there was an ample supply of persons in other Asian countries wishing to work in the GCC countries, a “market for work permits” had developed that was not under government control. The regulations governing the temporary admission of foreign workers increased the vulnerability of those workers to exploitation by making them dependent on the sponsor. That system was prone to corruption and had resulted in the victimization of migrant workers. Just as Mr. Abella had done, Mr. Dito suggested that greater Government-to-Government collaboration in the regulation of international migration flows between origin and destination could result in better regulation of the various intermediaries in the labour migration process, including recruitment agencies and sponsors.

Mr. Dito considered that the governance of the labour market in GCC countries was at a crossroads. Governments could either continue on the current path of incremental improvements in the management of labour migration or they could strive for coherence between their labour, economic and socio-political policies in order to implement a decent work agenda that would benefit both their native-born populations and migrant workers. Because of the importance of migrant labour for the GCC countries, an important step in achieving such coherence would involve fostering greater cooperation at the bilateral or regional levels with countries of origin and with other GCC countries. He also stressed that in order to develop effective policies and regulations, appropriate evidence and research were needed. He supported the strengthening of data collection procedures, including both through administrative channels and via surveys.

Mr. Thomas Vargas of the Regional Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) located in Malaysia made a presentation on refugee and asylum flows in Asia and the Pacific. Because most countries in Asia and the Pacific had not ratified the United Nations Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees, the Convention’s definition was generally not the one determining

who was a refugee in Asia and the Pacific. In the region, refugees and persons in refugee-like situations included persons who were forced to flee their countries because of armed conflict, serious disturbances of the public order, persecution or the denial of human rights. Refugees did not enjoy the protection of their country of citizenship.<sup>10</sup> At the end of 2007, countries in Asia and the Pacific hosted about a third of the world's refugees, with an estimated 3.8 million refugees and persons in refugee-like situations. In 2007, Afghanistan was the leading country of origin of refugees in the world, being the origin of 3.1 million refugees or 27 per cent of the global refugee population. It was followed in Asia by Iraq, which was the origin of 2.3 million refugees and persons in refugee-like situations and Viet Nam, which was the origin of a further 300,000. At the end of 2007, the three major countries of asylum in the world were Pakistan (2 million), followed by the Syrian Arab Republic (1.5 million) and the Islamic Republic of Iran (0.9 million). Most refugees in Pakistan and the Islamic Republic of Iran originated in Afghanistan, while most refugees in the Syrian Arab Republic originated in Iraq.

Asylum-seekers, who were persons that had requested international protection and those who had pending claims for refugee status, numbered 740,000 worldwide by the end of 2007.<sup>11</sup> Most asylum-seekers in countries in Asia and the Pacific originated in Myanmar (5,700), followed by Sri Lanka (1,700) and Pakistan (900).

Mr. Vargas identified several challenges faced by refugees in Asia and the Pacific. Forced displacement was often part of broader population movements, making it difficult for UNHCR to identify refugees and provide them with adequate assistance. Not all countries in the region had adopted legal instruments to protect refugees, rendering refugees vulnerable to abuse and exploitation. UNHCR was often the only organization providing assistance. In the countries of Asia and the Pacific, refugees often faced hostility in host countries at a time when civil society promoted respect for the rights of citizens over those of foreigners. Given the ongoing political problems in some Asian countries, such as Myanmar and Sri Lanka, the number of refugees in Asia was expected to remain high. Several cooperation mechanisms existed to address refugee problems in the region, including the Asia-Pacific Consultation on Refugees, Displaced Persons and Migration (APC), the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), the Bali Process and the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC). Some of those regional cooperation mechanisms had addressed migration and refugee issues in the past and were considering doing so again in the future. Lastly, Mr. Vargas presented the document entitled "Refugee Protection and Mixed Migration: A 10-Point Plan of Action."<sup>12</sup> The Plan outlined new initiatives for addressing effectively the problems faced by refugees.

## *2. Discussion*

In the ensuing discussion, participants debated the scope of regulations and their effectiveness in improving the management of migration in Asia and the Pacific. In designing and implementing regulatory mechanisms to protect migrant workers, there was often a tension between labour market demands and proper enforcement of minimum standards for decent work. This tension was particularly noticeable regarding the migration of low-skilled workers, to whom countries of destination often did not offer sufficient protection. Therefore, it was important for countries of origin to play a proactive role in protecting the rights of their migrants abroad. Participants noted that the Governments of countries of destination had an interest in protecting the labour rights of migrants because only by doing so could they ensure that national workers were not displaced by migrants. In negotiating bilateral agreements, authorities of the parties involved had to be mindful of unintended consequences. For instance, the requirement that prospective migrant workers become proficient in the language of the country of destination prior to departure had led to exploitative practices by language schools in the country of origin and increased the costs of migration. The Republic of Korea was one of the countries in Asia having such requirements.



There was concern about the practices described as visa-trading and visa-levying, both common in countries of Asia and the Pacific. When levies were imposed on employers of migrant workers as a requirement to issue a visa, it was important to ensure that such levies were not passed on to the workers. Singapore, for instance, had been successful in levying the necessary fees from employers without burdening migrant workers but even there, irregularities sometimes arose.

Participants noted that Governments had the responsibility of safeguarding not only the human rights of migrants but also those of their own citizens. Countries where citizens did not enjoy the full range of economic and social rights were also more likely to be weak in protecting the rights of migrants.

Participants compared the experiences of refugees with those of migrant workers. They concluded that both types of migrants used similar transit routes and were exposed to similar risks while en route to their destination. Crucially, however, refugees had a right to international protection whereas migrant workers did not.

In the GCC countries, Ministries of Labour were under increased pressure to adopt a regulatory framework that provided more guarantees for the protection of migrant workers' rights. However, if those regulations were established, their implementation would go beyond the mandate of the Ministries of Labour and would require effective coordination with other ministries. Collaboration with other countries in the region would also be desirable, especially by working toward the harmonization of migration policies. Currently, in most GCC countries the State had given employers the power to decide who would be hired and, therefore, they effectively selected migrants. Unfortunately, employers had often used that power to exploit migrant workers.

Regarding the temporary migration schemes recently established by Australia and New Zealand for citizens of the Pacific islands, some participants thought that seasonal migration was not ideal either for the migrants or for their employers. If migrant workers performed well and their employers invested in their training, both migrants and employers lost when migrants had to return to the country of origin. The receiving economy could benefit more by allowing seasonal workers to work for longer periods if their employers needed them. Mr. Bedford agreed that the temporary worker programmes recently established by Australia and New Zealand were not a long-term solution to the need of matching labour demand with supply. Furthermore, running temporary migration schemes was costly, both because of the selection process involved and because authorities had to ensure the departure of workers at the end of their contracts. It was important to stress that many countries in the Pacific were unable to generate the jobs needed to absorb their growing labour forces. The pressure to find work abroad was high. To prevent rising levels of undocumented migration, regional cooperation mechanisms to match labour demand with labour supply over the long run were needed as well as better strategies to protect the rights of international migrants.

## V. LABOUR MIGRATION

### *1. Presentations*

Mr. Philip Martin of the University of California at Davis, United States, presented the paper entitled "Managing labour migration: Asia and the Global Forum on Migration and Development." He said that Asia was currently home to 60 per cent of the world's labour force and to about 30 per cent of all international migrants in the world. Countries in Asia varied significantly in level of economic development. Thus, whereas the economies of several Asian countries had become developed and those of other Asian countries had been growing at rapid rates, Asia still had many low-income countries. While most Asian countries favoured export-driven economic policies, their labour migration policies

were more diverse. The GCC countries, for instance, still relied heavily on temporary migrant workers. In contrast, Singapore encouraged highly skilled migrants to settle but it maintained a rotation regime for the larger number of low-skilled migrants it admitted. Recently, countries of origin were trying to increase the number of their migrants working abroad as well as the share of skilled workers among migrant worker outflows and to reduce their dependency on employment in GCC countries.

Several Asian countries were also important sources of international migrants to traditional countries of immigration, including Australia, Canada and the United States. Within Asia, most international migration involved the temporary movements of migrant workers in search of better economic opportunities. Internal rural-urban migration in the region was significant and had been rising in some countries, especially in China.

Mr. Martin described three “doors” for the entry of international migrants. The term “front door” referred to the admission of legal permanent immigrants. The “side door” was open for temporary migrant workers, students or even tourists, that is, all persons moving legally for temporary stays abroad. The “back door” was used by migrants in moving through irregular channels. In Asia, migration via the “side-door” was the most common. It was followed by “back door” migration. International migration via the “front door” was minimal. Thus, both Japan and the Republic of Korea, two labour-receiving countries, had favoured “side-door” migration for decades and were largely closed to “front-door” migration. In both countries, foreign workers were admitted as trainees and only gradually became temporary migrant workers.

The countries of Western Asia also favoured “side-door” migration, especially those belonging to the GCC, where temporary migrant workers held most of the private-sector jobs. In the past, Governments of the GCC countries had reserved public sector jobs for the native population. However, more recently, even public sector jobs were being filled by temporary migrant workers. Some countries in the region had tried to “re-nationalize” their work forces by restricting certain jobs to natives, but the strategy had not been successful because native workers were not interested in taking jobs that were demanding and paid low wages. Instead, natives had been selling sponsorships to the migrant workers who were willing to take those jobs.

The Philippines was the most important labour-exporting country in Asia. According to official statistics, 8 million Filipinos were living abroad in 2007. In addition, Southern Asia was the origin of 1.5 million migrant workers in 2005, originating mainly in India, Sri Lanka and Nepal, in order of importance. Like the Philippines, countries in Southern Asia had created specialized agencies to promote worker migration and to protect the rights of migrant workers. Governments in Asia were interested in expanding the opportunities for their skilled migrants to work abroad. They considered that, by earning higher wages, skilled migrants were more likely to send higher amounts of remittances. In addition, being more educated, skilled migrants would be better able to demand respect for their rights and protect themselves against abuse and exploitation than low-skilled migrants.

Mr. Martin emphasized that international migration was a process to be governed, not a problem to be solved. Every country in the world experienced international migration, whether as a destination, a point of transit or a place of origin. Globally, international migration had been increasing and international migration flows in Asia and the Pacific were among the most dynamic. The issues raised by international migration were already high on the international agenda and he expected them to continue being important topics for political debate, whether nationally, regionally or internationally.

Ms. Maruja Asis of the Scalabrini Migration Center in the Philippines made a presentation on transnational solidarity, the importance of migrant-homeland cooperation for the development of Asian countries. She noted that it was recognized that migrants’ financial transfers had development impacts in the countries of origin. In addition, the transfer of knowledge and know-how as well as investments by

migrants also had positive effects and could help spur development in both countries of origin and those of destination.

Most research on the interlinkages between international migration and development had focused on Africa and Latin America. Until recently, countries in Asia had not purposely tried to harness the development potential of international migration. As noted by other speakers, most international migration within Asia involved the temporary movement of low-skilled migrant workers. Except in the cases of China, India or the Republic of Korea, countries of origin had offered little potential for international migration to influence development. In China and India, since at least the 1990s, authorities had been taking measures to create and strengthen ties to their expatriate communities in order to promote development.

In China, people had traditionally not viewed emigration positively. Nevertheless, numerous Chinese had migrated overseas for decades and communities of Chinese origin had developed in many parts of the world. The Chinese Government did not begin to embrace its expatriate community until the 1990s. At first, the Government began to support the training of students overseas expecting them to return after they completed their studies. When many students failed to return, the Government adopted in 2000 a new policy to encourage overseas based Chinese “to serve the nation” even without returning to China. Native-born Chinese living abroad were encouraged to contribute to the development of China by channeling foreign direct investment to the country and opening markets abroad, a process that was bolstered by the growth and diversification of the Chinese economy.

In the case of the Republic of Korea, the Government began outreach programmes geared to former emigrants in the 1990s and emigrants began to return, attracted by the economic opportunities in their country and the political reforms that had improved governance. The return of highly skilled emigrants contributed to expand tertiary education and strengthen research capacity in the Republic of Korea. Returning Korean scientists and engineers thus contributed to strengthen economic growth.

India, just as China, had been the origin of large numbers of emigrants who had created important Indian communities abroad. However, the Government had not tried to engage those communities to harness their potential to support development. Recently, however, the Government had started proactively to engage Indians abroad in order to advance the country’s economic and social development.

In all these cases, remittances had not been the major factor promoting development at origin. Instead, the active engagement of the highly skilled elements of the migrant community abroad had facilitated the transfer of knowledge and know-how as well as the use of networks to generate other financial flows and open markets abroad. These factors had made an important contribution to the acceleration of economic growth in the countries of origin. However, Ms. Asis emphasized that in all three cases, political and economic reforms had been crucial for establishing the preconditions for migrants to engage actively in the development of the countries of origin.

In recent years, Asian countries of origin had intensified both their management of international migration and the incorporation of labour migration into development strategies. Bangladesh, India, Indonesia, Pakistan, the Philippines, Sri Lanka and Viet Nam had all set deployment targets and encouraged highly skilled workers to find jobs abroad. It was more common than erstwhile for countries of origin to view their expatriates as assets and to take active measures to foster closer links with their expatriate communities. Thus, several countries had encouraged the political engagement of their migrants abroad by allowing them to vote in national elections while abroad and permitting dual citizenship. In addition, most of the countries of origin had established offices to promote labour migration and to assist migrants while abroad.

India and the Philippines, for instance, were deeply engaged in State-led cooperation with their transnational communities. The Philippines had established an extensive institutional and legal framework governing the international migration of its citizens. Various government agencies shared responsibility for permanent emigrants and overseas Filipino workers, which by 2005 were estimated to ascend to 8 million, representing nearly 10 per cent of the country's 85 million people. The Commission on Filipinos Overseas (CFO) focused on emigrants who had established permanent residence abroad. It offered orientation and education programmes to help prepare departing emigrants for life abroad as well as to foster closer ties between emigrants and the Philippines. Other government agencies were in charge of labour migration programmes, overseeing the licensing and regulation of recruitment and placement agencies, the welfare of overseas Filipino workers and of the families they left behind, and the provision of legal and repatriation assistance for distressed Filipinos working abroad.

In India, until a decade ago, the Government had neither facilitated nor promoted international labour migration. However, certain states, such as Kerala, had filled that policy gap in the past. More recently, the central Government had adopted an active and comprehensive approach to the management of international migration, including by protecting Indian workers abroad and reaching out to the Indian expatriate community. In 2004, the Government established the Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs to strengthen ties between India and its emigrants, and it further established subsidiary institutions to facilitate the Ministry's work. In addition, in 2003, the Government began a yearly celebration of Pravasi Bharatiya Divas, a celebration of Indian emigrants, which included conferring awards to outstanding Indian emigrants and provided opportunities for networking.

Ms. Asis also discussed the role of non-state actors, including migrants' associations, other non-governmental organizations and private sector groups based in countries of destination and supporting development initiatives in countries of origin. Although data on the work of such associations were still sketchy, there were about a thousand organizations created by Indian citizens in Northern America alone. There were also between 4,000 and 12,000 active Filipino migrants' associations. These associations included savings groups that encouraged migrants to save for their return, provided entrepreneurship training, and promoted investment in enterprises in the Philippines. Alumni associations, faith-based groups and professional organizations also fostered links between emigrants from Asia and their countries of origin.

Ms. Asis cautioned that the information available to assess the development impact of international migration in the Asian countries of origin was sparse and deficient. Preliminary research suggested that the funds generated by migrants' associations were modest, that the development impact of their activities in countries of origin were highly localized, and that the majority of international migrants involved in those groups were permanent settlers rather than temporary migrants. Because international migrants originating in Asia were mostly low-skilled migrant workers working temporarily abroad, they did not contribute much to the transfer to knowledge or know-how and did not have the capacity to generate major investments. Most migrants' associations had been primarily concerned with the protection of migrants' rights and had only very recently started to consider the possible development aspects of international migration. Yet, even if migrants and the associations they formed were to become more involved in promoting development in countries of origin, their activities could not be a substitute for sound economic policy and measures to promote equitable development.

## 2. Discussion

During the discussion, the current temporary migration programmes in Asia were compared with the experience of Europe and Northern America. Participants pointed out that the guest worker programmes that had been common in Europe in the 1960s and early 1970s had offered a *de facto* path to

permanent residence in countries of destination, including possibilities for family reunification and the eventual acquisition of citizenship. During the 1973 recession in Europe, guest workers who had lost their jobs had not automatically lost their right to stay in host countries. In contrast, in Northern America, the H1B visa programme of the United States, currently the largest temporary worker programme in the world, limited the possibility of long-term stays. Some participants found these comparisons misleading because the temporary migrant programmes in developed countries and those in Asian countries had different objectives. Furthermore, the former were developed in contexts where the respect for the rights of migrants were supported by well established institutions.

Participants also warned that, with regard to the impact of international migration on development, some countries in Asia seemed to be considering the migration of their citizens as a “quick fix” to achieve development. Expectations regarding the positive impact of remittances were often unrealistic and received too much attention in the public debate. The contributions of migrants’ associations could also be overstated. Even in the much vaunted “Tres por Uno” programme established by the Government of Mexico, which involved matching every dollar contributed to a local development project by migrants with three dollars, each contributed by the national, regional and local governments, the funds raised often were not spent on development projects. In several instances, local churches had been the principal beneficiaries of the “Tres por Uno” programme, not the broader community. In addition, hometown associations were often highly fractionalized and their activities lacked efficacy. Ms. Asis disagreed with these generalizations and argued that certain linkages between migrants’ associations and the countries of origin were crucial to development. Migrants undertook philanthropic projects in the home communities that benefited their inhabitants at large and the associations they formed could be useful partners for national Governments in promoting development.

## VI. SPECIAL PRESENTATION: THE GLOBAL MIGRATION DATABASE

### *1. Presentation*

Mr. Bela Hovy, of the Population Division of DESA, made a presentation on the Global Migration Database created by the Population Division. The database contained the most comprehensive set of publicly available data on the number of international migrants (that is, the stock of international migrants) classified by country of birth or country of citizenship and, when available, by sex and age group. The main sources of the data contained in the database were population censuses and population registers. In a few cases, data collected via nationally representative sample surveys were also included as well as data generated by other official sources of national statistics. The Global Migration Database helped close some of the gaps in the availability of internationally comparable data on international migration that were noted at the time of the High-level Dialogue on International Migration and Development conducted by the General Assembly of the United Nations in 2006. In preparing the Database, the Population Division benefited from the financial support of the United Nations Children Fund (UNICEF) and the Special Unit for South-South Cooperation of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). In addition, the Database incorporated the sets of data compiled by the United Nations Statistics Division, the World Bank, the University of Sussex and the Minnesota Population Center (developer of IPUMS International).

Mr. Hovy noted that, according to the United Nations census recommendations, census questionnaires should include two questions regarding the origin of the persons enumerated: a question on place of birth allowing for the recording of the country of birth of those born abroad and a question on the country of citizenship. Inclusion of both questions made possible the preparation of tabulations of the population classified by country of birth and by country of citizenship. Cross tabulations of the population by country of birth, age group and sex on the one hand and by country of citizenship, age

group and sex, on the other, should be produced. Mr. Hovy explained that the Global Migration Database contained all the publicly available tabulations that included a classification of the population by country of birth or by country of citizenship, whether or not a further classification by age group or sex was also available. The Database covered all census rounds since 1955. According to the contents of the Global Migration Database, data on the total number of international migrants were available for 65 per cent of all countries or areas for the 1980 round of censuses and for 72 per cent for the 2000 round. In Asia, the equivalent proportions were 48 per cent and 72 per cent, and in Oceania they were 79 per cent and 88 per cent. That is, there had been an increase in coverage at the global level and in both Asia and Oceania but progress had been more marked in Asia. Nevertheless, Asia still lagged behind Europe (87 per cent) and Latin America and the Caribbean (78 per cent) in terms of the coverage attained in the 2000 round of censuses.

Relatively few countries had released tabulations of the population cross-classified simultaneously by country of origin, age group and sex. At the global level, just 21 per cent of all countries had such tabulations in the 1980 round of censuses and 29 per cent had them in the 2000 round. In Asia, the equivalent proportions were 4 per cent for the 1980 round of censuses and 22 per cent for the 2000 round. In both cases, the coverage in Asian countries was among the lowest for any major area of the world, with Africa being the only other major area having a lower coverage.

One of the major strengths of the Global Migration Database was that it permitted to assess the size of expatriate communities by combining the foreign-born populations enumerated by different countries. Mr. Hovy showed the results obtained when focusing on persons born in China and India and enumerated by the 2000 round of censuses. The Database also contained information on the number of enumerated persons who were stateless. Mr. Hovy showed how to access the Database online<sup>13</sup> and how to use it.

## *2. Discussion*

Participants welcomed the creation of the Global Migration Database and underscored the importance of continuing to maintain it, especially by adding the results of the 2010 round of censuses. Participants agreed that the 2010 round presented a major opportunity for countries to follow the United Nations recommendations regarding the collection of data on both place of birth and country of citizenship in order to provide the essential statistical foundation for the analysis of international migration in relation to other development outcomes. It was noted that when information on place of birth was available, international migrants could be equated with the foreign-born, an approach that was recommended because the foreign-born had to have moved from one country to another at some point in their lives. Nevertheless, some participants cautioned that the interpretation of the foreign-born might need explanation when countries disintegrated. Thus, with the disintegration of the former USSR, persons born outside of the republics that became independent were transformed, literally overnight, from internal into international migrants. They noted, however, that regarding both, internal and international migration, a difference between place of birth and place of current residence was the criterion used to identify migrants.

Because an increasing number of people had dual citizenship, participants cautioned against using data on country of citizenship to identify international migrants. However, they acknowledged the importance of distinguishing nationals from foreigners.

Participants strongly endorsed the practice of tabulating all countries of origin, whether in terms of country of birth or country of citizenship, separately and recommended that the presentation of data in terms only of regional aggregates be avoided. They also suggested tabulating the data on the population

by country of birth cross-classified by skill level. Lastly, participants recommended that data availability be reported not just in terms of country or major area but also in terms of the number of international migrants covered by each census round.

## VII. INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION AND DEVELOPMENT

### *1. Presentation*

Mr. Ronald Skeldon of the University of Sussex, United Kingdom, made a presentation on the interlinkages between international migration and development. He argued that while development had always been an aspect of research on international migration, only recently had Governments begun to focus on ways to manage international migration so that it could promote development. He identified three conceptual difficulties in discussing the interrelations between international migration and development. First, international migration and development were generally considered distinct phenomena and international migration had rarely been considered an integral part of development. Second, the term “development” had no single definition and was often interpreted to mean different things by different researchers. Some viewed the reduction or elimination of poverty to be the key measure of development, others equated development mainly with sustained economic growth, while still others thought development should encompass also social and demographic changes. Mr. Skeldon argued that any discussion of the interrelations of international migration with development had to establish first the meaning of development and then disaggregate its components. Third, it was difficult both to conceptualize and to measure international migration in all its facets. In addition, confining the discussion to international migration and development disregarded the fact that the majority of people moving did so within countries as internal migrants and not as international migrants.

Mr. Skeldon proceeded to identify key challenges to the analysis of the nexus between international migration and development. The linkages between the two were multidimensional and involved feedback mechanisms that made it difficult to identify cause-and-effect relationships. Further, according to the Population Division of DESA, international migrants accounted for only three per cent of the world population, a very low proportion that had changed little over time. Most international migrants were themselves excluded from the debate on the linkages between international migration and development. Lastly, by ignoring internal migration, the part of migration that was most likely to affect development was neglected. He therefore urged the integration of research on urbanization, international migration and development.

The more countries were linked to the global economy, the more they experienced international migration and international mobility. International migration was therefore an indicator of globalization.

Remittances had been the focus of much attention by both researchers and policy-makers. In the policy arena, remittances were generally considered as an effective means of reducing poverty and fostering development. However, research showed that remittances improved social and economic conditions mainly in the very limited number of towns and villages from which migrants originated and, because of the selectivity of international migration, their impact on improving the lives of the poorest people or of the poorest regions in developing countries was very limited.

In the public debate, emigration of the highly skilled was often considered to have an effect opposite to that of remittances. Thus, whereas countries generally benefited from remittances, the emigration of the highly skilled deprived them of needed human capital. This view was too simplistic. It ignored the fact that, in many countries, the demand for services of the highly skilled was not high. In some developing countries, demand for workers with basic skills was higher than that for the highly

skilled. Second, the fact that inadequate pay and working conditions caused the emigration of the highly skilled was not factored in. Third, the acquisition of skills often took place abroad, not at origin. Hence, any discussion of the emigration of the highly skilled had to take into account the opportunities they had for training at origin.

The newly discovered role of expatriate or transnational communities was another new facet of the current debate on international migration and development. In discussing the possible contributions of transnational communities, it was generally assumed that they were homogeneous. In fact, they consisted of disparate groups, including multiple cohorts of migrants and their descendants. They also brought together people who might have different political views, a variety of backgrounds, as well as social and educational differences difficult to bridge. Studies of the effectiveness of transnational communities in supporting developmental efforts at home indicated that a country of origin would only reap the full developmental benefits of social and financial remittances from their transnational communities if the country had reached a key threshold in the path to development, was pursuing the right economic and social policies, and was enjoying social, economic and political stability.

Mr. Skeldon focused next on labour migration, noting that temporary labour migration increased the volume of remittances. Nevertheless, as already noted, remittances did not automatically and directly stimulate development. He also pointed out that ensuring the full respect to the rights of temporary migrant workers was difficult, especially in times of economic and financial crisis. Governments whose goal was to open more opportunities for their citizens to work abroad might not be in a strong position to insist on the full respect of the rights of their migrants.

Lastly, Mr. Skeldon concluded that the multidimensional nature of international migration complicated efforts to manage it in order to reach a specific development goal. Migration was primarily a consequence of development. Development strategies had to be formulated first with the goal of ensuring progress in the development front and should not be shaped mainly by considerations on how they might affect international migration. An approach giving priority to development would probably result in greater coherence between migration and development policies.

Mr. Richard Brown of the University of Queensland, Australia, presented a paper entitled “Remittances and development in the Pacific: Effects on human development.” Based on cross-sectional data produced by household surveys conducted in Fiji and Tonga in 2005 and on the use of different econometric techniques, his study examined the impacts of international migration and remittances on key aspects of human development, such as poverty reduction, health improvement and the motivations for sending remittances. In 2004, total remittances reached US\$130 million in Fiji and US\$67 million in Tonga. On a per capita basis, Fiji received US\$371 per person and Tonga US\$753. Furthermore, in Fiji only 42 per cent of the population received remittances, whereas in Tonga the equivalent proportion was 91 per cent. Remittances accounted for 6.2 per cent of GDP in Fiji and for 42 per cent in Tonga. Consequently, the impact of remittances on development was expected to be greater in Tonga than in Fiji.

In Tonga, a household with migrants whose income without remittances was already below the poverty line was more likely to receive remittances the poorer it was. Hence, remittances were an important source of informal, family-based social protection for the poorest. Factors tending to result in increased remittance amounts included the presence of an older person in the household, anticipation of a major social ceremony, such as a wedding or a funeral, and the presence of household members with a medical incapacity lasting more than 30 days. In Fiji, the presence of an older person or of a medically incapacitated household member had no effect on the amount of remittances received by households. In both Fiji and Tonga, households receiving remittances scored higher on a wealth index, which reflected both household assets and the characteristics of the household’s dwelling. Hence, there appeared to be a positive correlation between receiving remittances and household wealth.



Regarding the relationship between education and international migration, the study showed that in Fiji, a person was more likely to acquire tertiary education if he or she expected to migrate. In Tonga, the relationship between migration intentions and tertiary education was not statistically significant perhaps because citizens of Tonga had easy access to Australia and New Zealand through family networks and the family reunification provisions of those countries.

Lastly, the study explored the relationship between remittances and the health status of household members. If there were a causal relationship between wealth and health,<sup>14</sup> income transfers might improve the health status of the poor. In Fiji, the study showed that the higher a household's wealth, the less likely that any person in the household would be incapacitated and this relationship was statistically significant. Consequently, because remittances contributed to increasing a household's wealth, they were also expected to improve the health of household members.

Mr. Brown argued that remittance flows to households in Fiji and Tonga were primarily motivated by altruism: the donor transferred money only for the benefit of the recipient and expected nothing in return. If a household's income fell below the poverty threshold, migrants increased the amounts transferred, therefore providing an economic safety net for the poorest. Thus, remittances reduced the incidence and depth of poverty in both Fiji and Tonga. They also contributed towards household wealth and had a positive impact on overall household health. In Fiji, persons intending to migrate showed increased interest in acquiring tertiary education. The evidence from Fiji and Tonga suggested that informal remittance mechanisms were working well and remittances did not need to be re-directed into formal channels. Mr. Brown cautioned that, while much research had focused on the welfare of households left behind, less attention had been paid to the welfare of the migrants themselves, a topic that needed further attention.

Ms. Tasneem Siddiqui of the University of Dhaka, Bangladesh, made a presentation on migration and gender in Asia. According to her, a large number of migrants in Asia did not migrate through official channels and therefore were not reflected in official statistics. Most international migrants in Asia moved to work abroad temporarily. Since at least the 1990s, there had been a diversification of destinations within Asia, with the emergence of several countries in South-Eastern Asia and Eastern Asia as alternative destinations for migrant workers in relation to the GCC countries. The major countries of origin in Asia included Bangladesh, Cambodia, India, Indonesia, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Myanmar, Nepal, Pakistan, the Philippines, Sri Lanka and Viet Nam. Countries of destination included Bahrain, Brunei, Hong Kong Special Administrative Region of China, Japan, Kuwait, Malaysia, Oman, Qatar, the Republic of Korea, Saudi Arabia, Singapore, Thailand and the United Arab Emirates.

Ms. Siddiqui distinguished four categories of female migrants in Asia: (a) women who migrated as dependents of their spouses or parents; (b) female migrant workers moving independently; (c) female students and female professionals also migrating on their own, and (d) women migrating for the purpose of marriage. Women from South-east Asian countries were more likely to be part of migration streams than women from countries in Southern Asia. Among migrants from Cambodia, Indonesia, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Myanmar, Sri Lanka and the Philippines, over half were women. Independent female migration for the purpose of working abroad had started in the late 1970s and was initially directed mainly to GCC countries. The migration of female professionals also started at that time but females had accounted for very low proportions of the highly-skilled migrants. In recent years, the proportion of migrant women in some professions had been growing, particularly in the health sector. Female migrants also constituted high proportions of international migrants in the manufacturing sector of some countries and in the domestic services in all countries.

In many Asian countries, the wages of low-skilled and semi-skilled workers were low. Women often received lower wages than men for similar work and often worked longer hours than men, rarely receiving overtime pay. Domestic work, in particular, was usually not subject to regulation. Domestic workers did not qualify for publicly funded health care and were more vulnerable to exploitation and abuse on the job. Since employers usually provided accommodation and food for domestic workers, some used deprivation of these essentials as punishment for unsatisfactory work. Domestic workers in Bahrain, Kuwait, Lebanon and the United Arab Emirates reported that their freedom of movement was restricted, that they were denied access to telephones, that their correspondence was controlled, and that they were socially isolated.

Ms. Siddiqui said that there had been recent improvements in the laws and regulations governing labour migration in some Asian countries and that some of those changes benefited female migrants. Bahrain, for example, had announced a national plan to assist abused workers in emergency situations. The plan included the provision of temporary shelter and a help hotline. In Jordan, the Ministry of Labour had started to monitor recruitment agencies. Pre-departure training, free insurance coverage and provisions for pension coverage were among the institutional measures that had been introduced by countries of origin to protect their migrant workers abroad. The Government of Sri Lanka had enacted such measures. The Government of Bangladesh was collaborating with the private sector to develop pre-departure training centres, some focusing especially on female migrants.

The effects of female migration on the children in households with migrants had been well documented in some countries. In Sri Lanka, children in households receiving remittances had a higher birth weight and better nutritional status than other children. They also had lower school drop-out rates. This finding also applied to El Salvador. In Bangladesh and Sri Lanka, households with female migrants working abroad spent more on private tuition than other households did.

Migration policies often reinforced traditional gender roles. The labour recruitment policies of receiving countries tended to segregate women in traditional female occupations, thus reinforcing a gendered division of labour. In some countries, women's independent participation in international labour migration challenged the norms of traditional patriarchal societies, because women working abroad had to make decisions independently of their relatives, thus gaining negotiating power as well as social and economic independence. Upon return to the country of origin, female migrants often had difficulty maintaining their newly acquired decision-making power. The migration of husbands also contributed to empowering the wives they left behind, because the latter had to take over the role of heads of household. Upon the husbands' return, however, wives might not find it easy to surrender such roles.

Noting that some countries in Asia still restricted independent migration of women, Ms. Siddiqui argued for lifting such restrictions, which were counterproductive because they made women more vulnerable to human trafficking and abuse. She underscored the importance of protecting the rights of migrants, especially by following international standards, such as those set in the 1990 United Nations Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families. She noted that non-governmental organizations in countries of origin and destination interested in the protection of the rights of migrants were active in maintaining international migration high on the regional and international agendas. She considered that it was useful to provide pre-departure training for all migrants but especially for women and highlighted the experience of India, the Philippines and Sri Lanka in establishing and maintaining high-quality training centres. Lastly, Ms. Siddiqui called for the improvement of data on international migration in Asia and the Pacific to provide the evidence base needed for the development of sound policy.

## 2. Discussion

In the ensuing discussion, participants underscored that international migration could not be considered a short-cut towards development but noted that Governments needed assistance in identifying ways of leveraging the positive impacts of international migration on development.

There was some debate as to whether remittances necessarily contributed to poverty reduction. Some participants cited studies showing that remittances were usually not directed to the poorest segments of society. Although remittances had the potential to alleviate poverty, that effect was not automatic. Furthermore, remittances *per se* usually did not promote economic growth. In Fiji and Tonga, the cost of living had increased because life styles had changed as a result of remittances and investment in local food production had declined, making necessary the importation of food. Nevertheless, there was agreement that remittances had positive effects on the households that received them, especially with regard to health and education outcomes.

There was disagreement on whether pre-departure training programmes actually helped migrants to prepare for the situations they would encounter at destination. Some participants argued that the main beneficiaries from those training programmes were the organizations offering the mandatory courses, for which the migrants paid. Often, the contents of the training programmes were outdated or not relevant for the situations migrants would face at destination. To be useful, training courses should be practical and tailored to the particular jobs that migrants would perform. Thus, if women were migrating to work in domestic service, they should receive training in the use of household appliances, food preparation, and local language and customs.

Participants agreed that all too often inefficient regulations imposed additional and unnecessary costs on both migrants and potential employers. Under certain circumstances, regulations resulted also in higher irregular migration and increased risks for migrants. To understand better which types of regulations worked best to protect migrants effectively, more research was needed, particularly with regard to the experience of countries in Asia and the Pacific. In particular, the collection of longitudinal data on international migration, its causes and consequences, would be crucial so that the effects of international migration might be teased out from other interventions promoting development.

## VIII. CLOSING

Mr. Guest thanked all paper authors, presenters and participants for their contributions. He also expressed his appreciation to ESCAP for hosting the meeting and thanked Ms. Osaki-Tomita, in particular, for her support for the meeting. Ms. Kay then made the concluding remarks, reiterating her gratitude to all participants for their contributions. She expected that the documentation produced and the results of the deliberations held during the meeting would inform the debate at the High-level Meeting of government representatives that was to be held over the next two days and where many of the participants would act as resource persons. She then declared the meeting closed.

## NOTES

<sup>1</sup> In this report, the terms Oceania and Pacific are used interchangeably to indicate the region that includes Australia, New Zealand, Melanesia, Micronesia and Polynesia.

<sup>2</sup> United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, 2006a. Trends in Total Migrant Stock: The 2005 Revision (United Nations Population Division, POP/DB/MIG/Rev.2005).

<sup>3</sup> The members of the Gulf Cooperation Council are: Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates, all located in Western Asia.

<sup>4</sup> United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, 2006b. International Migration Flows to and from Selected Countries: The 2005 Revision (United Nations Population Division, POP/DB/MIG/FL/Rev.2005).

<sup>5</sup> United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, 2007. World Population Prospects: The 2006 Revision. Datasets in Excel and ASCII Formats (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.07.XIII.7).

<sup>6</sup> United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, 2008. World Population Policies 2007 (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.08.XIII.8).

<sup>7</sup> United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, 2005. World Population Prospects: The 2004 Revision. Datasets in Excel and PDF Formats (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.05.XIII.12).

<sup>8</sup> In Mr. Dito's presentation, the Arab region includes the following countries: Algeria, Bahrain, Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, the Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, Morocco, the Occupied Palestinian Territory, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, the Syrian Arab Republic, Tunisia and the United Arab Emirates.

<sup>9</sup> According to the ILO, "Decent work sums up the aspirations of people in their working lives. It involves opportunities for work that is productive and delivers a fair income, security in the workplace and social protection for families, better prospects for personal development and social integration, freedom for people to express their concerns, organize and participate in the decisions that affect their lives and equality of opportunity and treatment for all women and men." See <http://www.ilo.org/global/Themes/Decentwork/lang--en/index.htm> (accessed 6 July 2009)

<sup>10</sup> According to UNHCR, its statistics on refugees include "... individuals recognized under the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees; its 1967 Protocol; the 1969 OAU Convention Governing the Specific Aspects of Refugee Problems in Africa; those recognized in accordance with the UNHCR Statute; individuals granted complementary forms of protection; or, those enjoying 'temporary protection'." The 2007 refugee population also included people in refugee-like situations. This sub-category was descriptive in nature and included groups of persons who were outside their country or territory of origin and who required protection similar to that required by refugees, but for whom refugee status had, for practical or other reasons, not been ascertained. See <http://www.unhcr.org/45c06c662.html#asylum-seekers> (accessed 17 July 2009).

<sup>11</sup> The number referred to claimants whose applications were pending at the end of 2007, irrespective of when they may have been lodged (the so-called "backlog", "undecided" or "pending cases"). See <http://www.unhcr.org/4981c2f02.html> (accessed 17 July 2009).

<sup>12</sup> For the 10-Point Plan of Action, see <http://www.unhcr.org/protect/PROTECTION/4742a30b4.pdf> (accessed 8 July 2009).

<sup>13</sup> The migration website of the Population Division of DESA is: [www.unmigration.org](http://www.unmigration.org).

<sup>14</sup> The household-level health index was calculated using information on the number of household members unable to carry out their daily duties (working, cooking or attending school) for more than 30 days in the preceding year.



## **INFORMATION PAPERS**





## ORGANIZATION OF WORK

Saturday, 20 September 2008

### **Registration (12.30 – 13.00)**

*Afternoon session (13.00 – 17.00)*

#### **I. Opening**

*Opening statement*

(Thelma Kay, Director, Social Development Division, Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP))

*Opening statement*

(Philip Guest, Assistant Director, Population Division, Department for Economic and Social Affairs (DESA))

#### **II. International migration trends in Asia and the Pacific in the global context**

- a. *Levels and trends of international migration in Asia and the Pacific*  
(Sabine Henning, Population Division, DESA)
- b. *Key trends and issues on international migration in Asia and the Pacific*  
(Keiko Osaki-Tomita, Social Development Division, ESCAP)
- c. *Population, migration and development in Asia, with special emphasis on the South Pacific: The impact of migration on population and the MDGs*  
(Jean-Louis Rallu, Institut National d'Etudes Démographiques (INED), France)

#### **III. Special Presentation: Migration data obtained from labour force surveys in the Philippines and Thailand**

(Geoffrey Ducanes, International Labour Organization (ILO), Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, Thailand)

#### **IV. Regional migration policies and cooperation mechanisms**

- a. *Emerging issues in governance of labour migration in Asia Pacific*  
(Manolo Abella, International Labour Organization (ILO), Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, Thailand)
- b. *Migration policies, practices and co-operation mechanisms in the Pacific*  
(Richard Bedford, University of Waikato, New Zealand)
- c. *GCC labour migration governance*  
(Mohammed Ibrahim Dito, Labour Market Regulatory Authority, Bahrain)
- d. *Refugee and asylum flows in Asia and the Pacific*  
(Thomas Vargas, Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), Malaysia)

Sunday, 21 September 2008

*Morning session (9.00 – 12.00)*

**V. Labour migration**

- a. *Managing labour migration: Asia and the Global Forum on Migration and Development*  
(Philip Martin, University of California at Davis, United States of America)
- b. *Transnational solidarity: Migration-homeland cooperation for development in Asia*  
(Maruja Asis, Scalabrini Migration Centre, the Philippines)

**VI. Special Presentation: *The Global Migration Database***  
(Bela Hovy, Population Division, DESA)

**VII. International migration and development**

- a. *Migration and development*  
(Ronald Skeldon, University of Sussex, United Kingdom)
- b. *Remittances and development in the Pacific: Effects on human development*  
(Richard Brown, University of Queensland, Australia)
- c. *Migration and gender in Asia*  
(Tasneem Siddiqui, University of Dhaka, Bangladesh)

**VIII. Closing**

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