



EMIGRATION OF TRAINED AND PROFESSIONALLY QUALIFIED MANPOWER FROM SAARC COUNTRIES TO DEVELOPED NATIONS



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SAARC HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT CENTRE
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Foreword

The research study on “Emigration of Trained and Professionally Qualified Manpower from the SAARC Countries to Developed Nations” is part of process to fulfil research program sequence of the SAARC Human Resources Development Centre [SHRDC] in the year 2014. The main objective of the study was to explore the dynamics of overseas skilled labour migration over time including the types of migration diaspora, remittances and type of skills. The study also discussed the issues related to transformation of this phenomenon in favour of interest of the SAARC countries. Causes of migration, brain drain, skill shortage, interest of the SAARC region, and trends of returning migrations also analysed in the study. Study also looked into the similar opportunities within the region or in their own countries, use of remittances for education and HRD in home countries are evaluated. The research study investigated the dynamics of the future projection of need of workforce globally and in the context of the SAARC region.

The team of researchers analysed the policies and programs focusing particularly to manage migrants and skills needs in the respective Member States. Presence, absenteeism and in-process policies and programs are also discussed. Research team has also investigated the roles of Governments, migrants, and their families living in home countries to cater needs of HRD in the SAARC region.

Although, most of the Member States focused on outward migration, but the skills gaps created has brought severe injections in their labour economies. The Member States has developed policies, programs and strategies to promote migration, but need of time is to send more skilled labour to fulfil core objective of enriching the region with remittances and foreign reserves. This will ultimately, strengthen the regional economy and reduce vulnerabilities in favour of poor mass in the SAARC region.

I believe that findings of the research study will lend a helping hand to the policy makers, Government officials, researchers, academia and institutions working on migration, remittances, HRD, economic development, and skill gaps.

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This report has been prepared by Research Analytics International [Private] Limited where a research team comprised of Mr. Nadeem Akhtar (Principal Investigator), Mr. Zahid Aziz, Mr. Adil Wasim, Syed Kamran Khurshid Rizvi, and Mr. Touqeer Izhar. Dr. Shujaat Farooq provided invaluable guidance for refining research objectives and drawing important sections of the report.

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Glossary

ADB	Asian Development Bank
ADBI	Asian Development Bank Institute
ALFEA	Association of Licensed Foreign Recruitment Agencies
AUS	Australia
BEOE	Bureau of Emigration and Overseas Employment, Pakistan
BMET	Bureau of Manpower Employment and Training
DEU	Germany
EFW	Economic Freedom of the World
ESP	Spain
EU	European Union
EU	Europe
EIU	Economist Intelligence Unit
GBR	Great Britain
GCC	Gulf Cooperation Council
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HDI	Human Development Index
HEC	Higher Education Commission
HR	Human Resource
HRD	Human Resource Development
HRM	Human Resource Management
IIASA	International Institute for Applied System Analysis
ILO	International Labour Organization
IOM	International Organization for Migration
IT	Information Technology
KSA	Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
LTTE	Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam
LMIS	Labour Market Information System”
MENA	Middle East and North Africa
MLRFE	Ministry of Labour Relations and Foreign Employment
MOIA	Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs
MoU	Memorandum of Understanding
MPI	Migration Policy Institute
MRA	Multiple Regional Analysis
NMR	Net Migration Rate
OECD	Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development
OIFC	Overseas Indian Facilitation Centre
PRB	Population Reference Bureau
SAARC	South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation
SHRDC	SAARC Human Resource Development Centre
SLBEF	Sri Lanka Bureau of Foreign Employment
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
TUR	Turkey

TVEC	Tertiary and Vocational Education Commission
TVET	Technical Vocational Education and Training'
UAE	United Arab Emirates
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNDESA	United Nations Department for Economic and Social Affairs
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
USA	United States America
USD	United States Dollar

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Executive Summary

South Asian region is one of the world's largest labour markets. As it is a fact that fertility is on decline in all over the world, it has the same trend in South Asia, resulting in a demographic transition that put countries into a crossroad: either invest on the human capital or waste it. East Asian countries have already harvested the investment on human capital development while China is on most successful track of the economic growth through employment generation and enterprise development. The point to discuss this 'window of opportunity' to discuss here is to let the policy makers see at the statistics of population and labour growth in future in the SAARC countries and to link them economic prevailing and prospectus economic development. Migration in the SAARC countries has specific phenomenon. In countries like Afghanistan, Bhutan, and Maldives, people often migrate under humanitarian factors but majorly populated countries like Pakistan, India, and Bangladesh including Sri Lanka see out migration of those segments of the society who are better qualified and are professionally trained to seek job, to settle in the development counties. Majority of such emigration happens to OECD countries with priority on the United States, United Kingdom and other countries in Europe.

The major factors to emigrate include better socioeconomic factors at destination countries. The largest emigration country in the SAARC is India, which sent 253 thousand people to the OECD in 2010 with emigration rate of 4.2 of highly qualified people during 2005-06. The total diaspora stock of Indians living in OECD in 2008 was 3.766 million. There is lot of data in the report that can hardly be reported succinctly here while covering all dimensions of the SAARC skilled emigration

These emigrants are a definite source of brain drain from the SAARC countries. According to a contemporary point of view, emigrants cannot be seen as a sunk cost as it can be recovered through different channels that engage country wise diaspora back to nations. This is how different policies can work to engage emigrants with country of origin.

The key points regarding emigration of trained and qualified people from the SAARC countries to developed countries can be highlighted as:

1. The emigration of trained and qualified professionals to developed countries have specific phenomenon and is different from that of unskilled and semi-skilled emigration.
2. The emigration of skilled people from the SAARC countries to development nations mainly depends on specific immigration policies of the destination countries.
3. The emigration from the SAARC mainly happens from India, Pakistan, and Bangladesh and these countries have specific professions, which more migrate than other professionals, and these professions vary by country.
4. Emigration countries are observing both negative and positive impact of this phenomenon: Negative impact is the 'brain train' that happens on a regular basis for these countries; while positive impact happens through engagement of emigrants through different channels.
5. The top positive impact of emigration is flow of remittances. Remittances are increasing over the years from developed countries to the SAARC countries. These remittances are

also a major part of the overall GDP of the receiving countries. This rate of share of remittances on GDP is increasing over the years.

6. According to OECD data on migration from the SAARC countries, the rate of emigration of both male and female skilled and qualified emigrants is more than the general rate of emigration of overall population.
7. Emigrants from the SAARC countries and from across the world provides important economic support to developed countries by working in volatile sectors and by providing cheap labour.
8. Students from the SAARC countries moving to study in developed nations have been increasing over the time. These students later either engage into temporary work or settle there permanently.
9. There is not clear and concise policy that addresses the emigration of skilled people from the SAARC countries to developed nations.
10. There is a clear lack of country wise data on emigration by educational attainment. Most of the SAARC countries encourage their surplus labour force to emigrate abroad to work and this is particularly emphasised for low skilled and semiskilled labour force.
11. In destination countries, the SAARC emigrants have well organised organisational phenomenon and they live in harmony and in close connection with other diaspora members and also they engage through different means with their back home families a communities.
12. There is a specific need to increase and reap the benefits of these emigrants by integrating them with home countries through trade, knowledge share, and investment etc.

Literature review shows that emigration is no more a threat to origin countries if optimal policies are devised and applied to remain in contact with the emigrated population. People emigrate due to well defined and already research factors that revolve around broad theme of socioeconomic disparities, demographic factors, security and corruption. People who are well educated are able to distinguish between good and bad for their future and they are also able to exploit the existing opportunities in foreign countries. Skilled and well-qualified emigrants are also welcomed abroad and fulfils the gaps in employment that are generated through many reasons in the destination countries like migration of the population of the developed countries to other countries of the region [This mostly happens because moving in OECD, for example, is free and irrespective of border restrictions].

The emigration happens in cadres where there is a more demand in the destination countries and where the already existing diaspora have well established community. For example, professionals from Information Technology industry of India mostly emigrate abroad and in USA, they do have a well-established community and they have already developed their independent businesses there. Doctors from Pakistan mostly immigrate to USA because they do have well established community there and new comers can easily be integrated into the already existing community of professionals.

The primary data collected from emigrants also confirms the secondary data findings. All emigrants interviewed were highly qualified and more than 59 percent reported to acquire their highest degree while living in the destination country. The range of ages of the emigrants interviewed is from 21 years to 65 years with median age of 38 years.

Emigrants work in all professional categories of the cadres while engineering profession is at top with respect to other professions. Emigrants are engagement is also evident from the fact that majority of emigrants are married to native country nationals and families of 59 percent of them are living with them. Majority of the emigrants moved abroad with the aim to work.

About three quarters of the emigrants reported the use of remittances on education, health and property investment. This shows that impact of the remittances in overall is positive on overall economic development of the SAARC countries. More than half emigrants interviewed reported to have registration with embassy or consulate of their home country in the country of residence while less reported to attend any event organised by the embassy or consulate.

The report has highlighted the importance of labour market information system to be developed and managed at the SAARC level, particularly in the context of skilled emigration. This will help enable the respective governments to make sure that they do have developed their policies based on their future need of the trained and skilled human resources. The inter country cooperation in this regard can be ensured through SHRDC. The SHRDC should be empowered to collect, maintain and analyse the data on skilled migration to devise policy level recommendations based on the overall situation in the SAARC region and by country as well.

1. Introduction

Migration has multiple dimensions and people migrate both in peace and unrest. The migration done in unrest has prime objective to be secured, however migration in peace is linked with economic gains and other social attributes like living standards and quality of life. The migration of skilled population from one country, particularly the developing, to another-the developed-has opened a great debate. It posed multiple questions that scientists and policy makers are looking to answer both in the context of developed as well as developing countries.

This report is based on research on migration of trained and professionally qualified people from the SAARC region to developed countries. In perspective of this study, destination countries can be referred as ‘immigration countries’ and the SAARC countries can be referred as ‘emigration countries’ as terms used by Trebilcock and Sudak [2006]. The political economy of migration has different aspects for both of these two group of countries, however our main focus is skilled emigration and its phenomenon in the SAARC region with the objective to draw particular recommendations, based on empirical findings sourced both from primary and secondary research, for the SAARC governments to effectively transform this emigration phenomenon in favour of their interests that translate into long term human resource development to meet country and region’s present and future requirement of specifically skilled human resources.

Different dimensions of skilled emigration are complex to underpin, however recent literature guides to understand and analyse this phenomenon. Trebilcock and Sudak [2006] assert that emigrants are not viewed as sunk cost rather a resource to be cultivated. This is particularly important for emigration countries where this resource has often been ignored. This report will analyse it in the context of ‘Brain Drain’, ‘Brain Gain’, ‘Brain Circulation’, and ‘Brain Reversal’.

Four countries in the SAARC region constitute the largest skilled diaspora. These countries are India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, and Sri Lanka. Following table shows the emigration rate of the SAARC countries of tertiary educated population.

Table 1: Tertiary Educated Emigration Rate of SAARC Countries

Country	Stock of Emigrants as Per cent of Population	Emigration Rate of Tertiary-educated Population 2000	Stock of Immigrants as Per cent of Population	Females as Per cent of Immigrants
Afghanistan	8.1	23.3	0.3	43.6
Bangladesh	3.3	4.3	0.7	13.9
Bhutan	6.3	0.6	5.7	18.5
India	0.9	4.3	0.4	48.7
Maldives	0.6	1.2	1	44.7
Nepal	3.3	5.3	3.2	68.2
Pakistan	2.5	12.6	2.3	44.7
Sri Lanka	9.1	29.7	1.7	49.8
South Asia	1.6	10.2	0.7	45.6

Source: Migration and Remittances Fact Book, World Bank, 2011

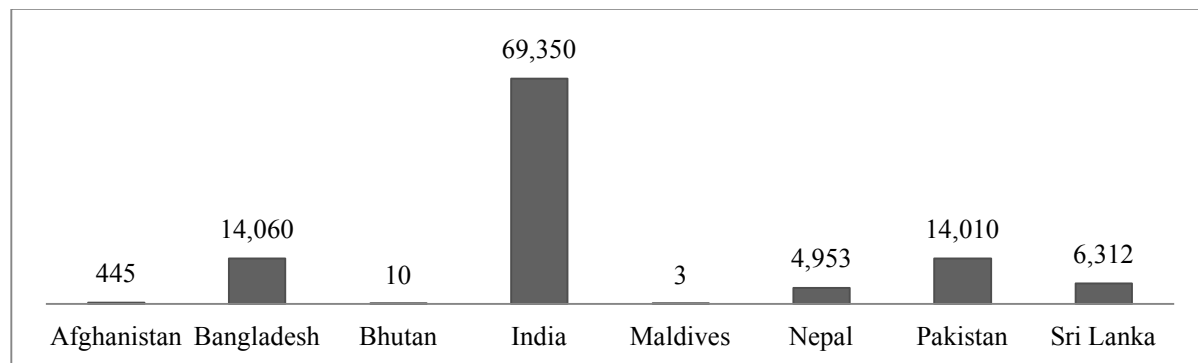
According to Table 1, Sri Lanka and Afghanistan are the top emigrant countries for tertiary educated people, the third is Pakistan followed by Nepal. These statistics represent facts for the year 2000 while the statistics must vary till 2014 in the context of need of skilled migrants in the immigration countries, financial crisis and other indicators that affect emigration flows.

An OECD [2013] report highlighted the emigration rates in the OECD countries. Emigration rate of highly educated workers of the SAARC countries in OECD is dominated by Sri Lanka with rate of 5.7 followed by Pakistan [5.5], Afghanistan [4.8], India and Bangladesh with the rate of 3.2. Khadria [2008] highlighted the future prospects of the emigration from three South Asian countries: India, Pakistan and Bangladesh to OECD countries. She reasserted the prospects of this emigration with increasing influx of emigrants in the context of ‘demographic dividend’ in three most populous South Asian countries and according to her analysis there are six most broad groups of OECD countries where South Asians emigrate:

1. USA, Canada and North America
2. United Kingdom in Europe
3. Australia and New Zealand in the Pacific
4. West Europe countries in the EU
5. Japan and Korea in East Asia
6. East Europe new members of the EU.

Remittances are important factor of overall emigration phenomenon. Remittances have both macro and micro level impact in emigration countries. Macro impact can be factorized through increase in purchasing power parity and micro level impact can be seen in better socioeconomic indicators at household level particular of families receiving remittances. Recent remittances flows for the SAARC countries are given in the Figure 1:

Figure 1: Remittances Received by SAARC Nations in Million US\$--2012



Source: Authors' compilation from Bilateral Remittances Matrix, World Bank and OECD, 2012

Migration with its impact is now a hard-core policy research topic and it attracted attention of private sector as well as governments. According to Abrar [2005], migration has become important policy issue both for sending and receiving countries, more and more civil institutions like universities, media, migrant support groups and trade unions become important stakeholders. In this context public and private sector stakeholders in the SAARC region are required to be

identified and mobilized to influence long-term emigration policy in the region in the context of future regional integration and human resource developments.

Structure of the Report

This report is based on both primary and secondary research. An extensive and comprehensive secondary research is undertaken to cover the different dimensions of skilled migration from the SAARC countries to developed countries. The report is divided into seven sections. Section I discusses in details about research methodology both for primary and secondary research methodology applied. Section II highlights important literature review that covers the recent research on different aspects of skilled migration in the context of emigration and immigration countries. The literature is divided into three sub-sections: first sub-section highlights the recent literature that underpins the dynamics of South Asian skilled emigration covering different dimensions of this phenomenon with the answers on who, where, when and how skilled labour migrates. Second sub-section of literature compiles the empirical findings on the negative impact of skilled migration on economic and human resource development faces of the South Asia. This section also highlights the South Asian labour market situation in the absence of skilled labour. The third sub-section highlights the concepts of brain gain, brain reversal and brain circulation. This is how to reap benefits of emigrants and even not to see them as a sunk cost but a resource to be cultivated.

Section III provides detailed country specific case studies on emigration of trained and qualified professionals to developed countries. The section is dedicated to develop profiles of the SAARC countries in terms of their diaspora living abroad as emigrants. This section will also provide quantitative data sourced from the respective SAARC governments and other national/international organizations like World Bank, OECD, IOM, UN and others. The different factors that lead the emigration phenomenon will be discussed by focusing on individual countries of the SAARC region.

Section IV is about the official migration policies that are enacted by the SAARC nations. These policies are discussed and analysed in line with the objectives of this research. The analysis of existing policies is important component in this research because countries' requirement of the future need of trained human resources should have a cognizant link with the emigration patterns and diaspora living abroad. It is hypothesized that future projections of the skilled human resources within the countries of the region is endorsed in the migration policies.

Section V is about very important aspect of the labour market dynamics. The labour market information system is discussed for South Asia taking the perspective from the individual SAARC countries. Labour market information system is supposed to exist at country or regional level to achieve future requirements of the skilled human resources. Developed countries like, for example, OECD has very comprehensive labour market information system that adequately able to inform governments and policy makers on current and future patterns of labour market dynamics. In line with this information system, what private sector can play a role is also part of the discussion.

Section VI provides key findings on the primary research that was collected from the South Asian Diaspora living in developed countries. The data collected through purposive sampling and access to Diaspora was ensured through multiple platforms. The primary data collected through individual country research team members; contacting through associations/groups made by and for the Diaspora in developed countries; and through online posting of the questionnaire.

Section VII is about recommendations based on the overall findings that came across from secondary and primary research. Recommendations are based on empirical grounds and are practical to achieve the future human resource requirements of the SAARC nations and region as a whole.

Objectives of Study

Following are the objectives of the study:

- 1] To study the dynamics of overseas skilled labour migration over time including the type of migration diaspora, remittances and type of skills;
 - a] Overseas migration by diaspora/continent overtime
 - b] Trends in country wise remittances
 - c] Is migration temporary or permanent?
 - d] Trend in overseas migrants classified by skills

- 2] Can this phenomenon be transformed in favour of interests of the SAARC countries?
 - a. Why overseas migration is taking place with its worse consequences including the brain drain and skill shortage?
 - b. What are interests of the SAARC countries in connection with emigration of trained human power?
 - c. Trends of return migration and its impact on local economy
 - d. Do they think that the SAARC countries can provide them the same sort of opportunities and how human capital flight can be overcome?
 - e. Are their remittances used for education and development of human resources for their back home family members?
 - f. Are they imparting education, skills etc.?

- 3] To study dynamics of the future projections of need of workforce globally and in the context of the SAARC.

These objectives are achieved through systematic review of the existing literature that is recently generated in emigration countries i.e. the SAARC region and that focused on pros and cons of skilled dynamics of emigration. To further annex towards objectives, case studies prepared and important country wise patterns highlighted with an integrated chapter on emigration policies of individual countries.

2. Research Methodology

The overall research objectives are achieved through adoption of systematic methodology that covers the in-depth findings on emigration of trained and professional human resources to developed countries. As the main question is to know how this phenomenon of emigration can be transformed for the betterment of the SAARC countries, because in future there could be a severe shortage of trained and skilled human resources pertaining to economic development opportunities existing in the region. The SAARC region and its economic growth should be linked with integration of policies that promote human capital development for its Member States.

This methodology is divided into two main layers: In the first layer, the review and in-depth analysis of secondary data and individual country level situation and policy assessment regarding emigration of trained and professional human resources is done. The human capital retention policies are analysed for each respective country and policy guidelines are drafted based on the analysis of secondary and primary data for respective countries of the SAARC region and for the SAARC as a whole. The available sources of secondary data include, but not limited to World Bank, Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development [OECD], International Labour Organization [ILO] and other international and national organizations like International Institute for Applied System Analysis [IIASA]—particularly for human resource projections. Since South Asia provides the highest number of trained and skilled migrants to developed countries, lot has been written on it. In this context, the study required extensive attention to the analysis of existing literature to draw on the main trends, findings and recommendations. Systematic literature review is done and the emigration data is used to draw empirically on it. The study produced dedicated case studies for the SAARC Member State with individual recommendations and scenario development for collection of primary data. Inter-regional emigration patterns analysis is also be incorporated in the final report as this relates to regional integration, freedom of movement and work. Retention of trained and skilled workers within the SAARC region might help countries to stop losing best talent and minds.

The second layer is based on collection and analysis of primary data. The need and importance of primary data cannot be underestimated for development of comprehensive country specific recommendations on emigration of trained and skilled workers out of the region.

Sampling Methodology

Sampling methodology for this research study is based on facts that are revealed by initial analysis of secondary research. This research study used purposive sampling technique which is among the non-probability sampling techniques and is widely used to achieve the research objectives based on specific targeted population, in this case skilled and trained the SAARC region emigrants to developed countries.

The world's largest emigrants are from South Asia. Three of the SAARC region countries: India, Pakistan and Bangladesh are populous countries in the world [2nd, 6th, and 7th respectively]. The

total population of the SAARC countries was 1617 million in 2010 [PRB, 2010]¹. Table 2 illustrates the statistics based on emigrants from the SAARC region.

Table 2: SAARC Countries in and out Migration Patterns 2005-2010

SAARC Countries	Migration			Favourite Destinations
	Total-in	Total-out	Total-out per cent	
Afghanistan	19809	398205	4.3	Iran, Europe
Bangladesh	52555	2862384	31.1	West Asia, Europe, North America, India
Bhutan	-	-	-	-
India	765241	3549673	38.6	West Asia, Europe, North America
Maldives	-	-	-	-
Nepal	96554	187497	2.0	South-East Asia, North America
Pakistan	29449	1958091	21.3	West Asia, Europe, North America
Sri Lanka	83	240831	2.6	Europe
Total	963691	9196681	100	OECD

Source: Circos available at www.qz.com/192440/where-everyone-in-the-world-is-migrating-in-one-gorgeous-chart/.

The overall sample of 650 is distributed among the SAARC countries as per the share of emigrant as given in the above table. Table 3 provides exact proposed number of interviews from the respective SAARC countries.

Table 3: Emigration Study Sample Distribution

SAARC Countries	Emigrants percent	Sample Size
Afghanistan	4.30	28
Bangladesh	31.1	199
India	38.6	247
Nepal	2.00	13
Pakistan	21.3	136
Sri Lanka	2.60	17
Bhutan	~0	10
Total Sample	100.0	650

As explained in the introduction section, the overall methodology being proposed is a mix-method qualitative and quantitative research. For qualitative part, the research is completed by employing the following qualitative research sub-methodologies. These are the approaches through which analytical skeleton of the main report is constructed.

1. Basic Interpretative Studies: Under this type of research activity, the publically available reports, data and state policies on migration were analysed and discussed.

¹ Total population of countries in 2010 is taken intentionally because Figure 1 and its corresponding Figures on the individual SAARC countries are based on migration data till 2010.

2. Case Studies: Each country and its overall migration paradigm were developed on principles of a case study. This disintegrated the underlying factors/characteristics of migration and its underlying factors at each country level.
3. Document/Content Analysis: Aimed to explore the already developed content that comes under migration framework in each country. The content includes policy documents, human resource development strategies etc.
4. Historical Research: This is to develop a context or lens by which migration can be seen in each of the SAARC country. There is a need to look at the phenomenon of emigration in the historical perspective and underpin the changing patterns of emigration over the time.

Survey Implementation

In the quantitative research, the study aimed to use non-experimental quantitative research. In non-experimental quantitative research, the researcher identifies variables and may look for relationships among them but does not manipulate the variables. Major forms of non-experimental research are relationship studies including ex post facto and correlational research and survey research [Ary, Jacobs, Sorensen, and Razavieh, 2010].

Data Collection Mechanism

This study specifically focuses on collection of both secondary and primary data related to the subject of research.

Secondary Data

Secondary data is one of the main parts of any formative and applied research. The secondary is also important to keep track on, access and analyse because governments and other institutes including civil society collect and compile it. The published reports by governments, other national and international organizations also constitute secondary data.

During the initial phase of the study, comprehensive secondary resources were collected using HEC digital library resources². Government reports and policy documents were collected from relevant departments/institutes with the help of SHRDC and respective country resource parties/individual identified for this research activity.

Primary Data

Primary data fulfils the gap identified during literature review and analysis of the secondary data. The underlying patterns, knowledge, behaviour, acceptability and understanding of the topic cannot be understood unless primary data is collected. A sample size of at least 660 skilled emigrants was sought while more responses were welcomed.

The masses that migrated out of the SAARC to different countries with tertiary level of educational background were sought for the survey on a structured questionnaire [Annex - III].

² Thanks to SHRDC for providing permission to access HEC digital library

The questionnaire was pre-tested on ten respondents, which were not included at later stage. The questionnaire was mounted through website³ and different diaspora groups were invited to participate in the survey; different team members in origin as well as destination countries were also engaged to contact and complete interviews from qualified nationals of the SAARC Member States. The numbers of interviews from the each SAARC diaspora members reflect the overall percentage of emigrants of that country into the developed countries. The survey was stopped and taken off after required numbers of interviews were achieved.

The primary data was collected through structured interviews from identified emigrants residing in countries that appeared favourite for the each SAARC country emigrants. The questionnaire with study introduction was also shared among different diaspora based organizations in developed countries, circulated through web-based application. Respondents were able to fill the questionnaire through online link at website of Research Analytics International [Private] Limited.

Data Analysis

Data analysis was done in SPSS version 20.0 to generate descriptive statistics and for model development to analyse the subject variables related to migration in the SAARC region.

³ www.saarc.researchanalyticsintl.org; www.surveys.researchanalyticsintl.org.

3. Literature Review: Emigration from SAARC Region

Trends in High Skilled Migration

So far we have lived in a world which was globalized yet restricts the free movement of human capital across borders [Abrar, 2005]. However, high skilled mobility was making its way to the mainstream. While the overall migration rate for the globe was quite stable at 2.8 percent of the population, it was evident that the migratory flow was now more from the developing to the developed world and encompasses a higher proportion of tertiary educated professionals [Gibson and McKenzie, 2011]. Owing to their higher propensity to move, 7.3 times that of individuals with primary education [Gibson and McKenzie, 2011], as well as increased receptivity in host countries [Dumont and Lemaître, 2005], high skilled migrants were now constituting a larger share of total migrant stock all over the globe when compared with their share in previous decades. This increase in the ratio of high skilled immigrants was particularly obvious in countries that adopt a points-based selective immigration policy [Dumont and Lemaître, 2005].

Member countries of Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development [OECD] countries have attracted almost 24 percent of South Asian emigrant stock, thereby becoming the second most preferred region in the globe when excluding intra-regional migrations [Dhar and Samanta, 2014]. But what was more important was that South Asians migrating towards the OECD countries and especially towards the traditional destinations such as United States, United Kingdom and Canada are mostly highly qualified professionals [Giordano and Terranova, 2012]. The period 1990 – 2000 witnessed a 63.7 percent rise in the figure of tertiary-educated immigrants to OECD as against a 14.4 percent rise in the number of unskilled immigrants [Beine, Docquier, and Rapoport, 2008].

Within the OECD countries, the primary reason for the popularity of traditional destinations was their English-speaking environment [Khadria, 2009] in which South Asian emigrants find it easier to assimilate. This was also evident from the increasing popularity of Australian immigration program, again an initiative by an English-speaking country. The importance of language in migration decision partially explains the failure of Germany's Green Card scheme that was designed to attract highly qualified professionals especially IT personnel from the developing countries on a temporary basis [Bauer and Kunze, 2004].

Throughout the globe, there was a hunt for talent and competition among the industrialized states to attract the highly skilled professionals from abroad including the South Asian region [Khadria, 2009]. While demographic factors such as the ageing population of the western countries and a slow population growth rate that hinders the natural process of inter-generational workforce replacement play a significant role in creating this shortage of skilled professionals in OECD countries, various studies have also addressed the novel requirements of a knowledge-based economy [Khoo S. E., 2014]. To maintain their dominating position, global status and to sustain economic growth [Kaushal and Fix, 2006; Dumont and Lemaître, 2005], OECD countries need to continue producing knowledge at unprecedented rates. High skilled immigrants provide the requisite resources and building blocks for this knowledge hub, especially in science, engineering and technology related sectors [Kaushal and Fix, 2006].

This competition for the best brains of the world was driving the OECD countries towards relaxation in their immigration policies. In an attempt to absorb more and more knowledge workers [Naim and Iftikhar, 2010], countries have either increased their quota for high skilled immigration or introduced new schemes and possibilities for drawing qualified human resources from other regions of the globe [Bauer and Kunze, 2004]. It was against this backdrop that Germany introduced its Green Card scheme and United Kingdom its Highly Skilled Migrant Programme in the beginning of 21st century. Even though these schemes are no longer available, they and the new ones' that have replaced them, e.g. the European Blue Card that aims to attract 20 million high skilled professionals within two decades [Khadria, 2009], represent the ever expanding choice of people with managerial, professional and technical backgrounds in an increasingly receptive globe [Khoo S. E., 2014].

Another key feature of this receptive globe was that the reception has moved away from offering a disadvantaged position for the immigrants to a more neutral or even favourable position [Iredale, 2001; Wickramasekara, 2011] as they enjoy the benefits accruing from competition among different immigration schemes and destinations. However, South Asian nations must cautiously monitor the effects of this transition towards a knowledge-based economy and the ensuing competition for human resources because it is expected to exacerbate the flight of human capital from East to the West [Chalamwong, 2004].

Mohapatra and Ozden [2010] highlighted that highly skilled migrants enjoyed a better standard of living than the semi-skilled or unskilled migrants. They were able to bring their families along their new destinations and have more chances of settling permanently in the industrialized nations. They were also in a better position to assimilate in the new environment as they were highly educated and hold the necessary linguistic skills.

An interesting inquiry concerns the occupations these highly skilled immigrants hold in the destination countries and whether the stereotype of a PhD cab driver exists in reality. In US, Kaushal and Fix [2006] stated that high skilled immigrants were well represented in fields such as medicine, engineering, computer science, environment, safety and social sciences. South Asian immigrants to US in particular, with 75 per cent holding tertiary education, were mainly employed in education, health, social services, professional scientific and management services, manufacturing and retail trade [Mohapatra and Ozden, 2010]. The situation seems favourable in other OECD countries as well with computer specialists, accountants, managers, scientists and academicians making the bulk of high skilled immigrants [Gibson and McKenzie, 2011]. Nursing has also turned as a favourite occupation for Nepalese females who were easily finding their way to North America, UK, Australia and New Zealand [Adhikari, 2013].

Brücker [2011] suggested professional equity between the immigrants and natives. Based upon OECD data and calculations by the author, the study pointed out the fact that the share of immigrants holding tertiary education employed in key management and highly professional occupations was strikingly similar to the share of native population holding tertiary education. Hence, immigrants were not compelled for skill downgrading. However, this finding was based on aggregated data and was not specific to immigrants from South Asia.

On the contrary, Islam and Mayer [2013] presented very different findings related to professional opportunities for South Asians residing in Greater Toronto Area. According to Islam and Mayer findings, 57 per cent of the respondents could not get their professional degrees recognized in Canada, 59 per cent had trouble getting their work experience recognized, 64 per cent had to switch their career to a different field and 70 per cent reported the feelings of unhappiness, frustration, anxiety and depression because of their underemployment.

Literature also draws interesting case studies such as that of ‘brown skinned specialty’ of Geriatrics in UK. A marginalized area of medicine came to be dominated by doctors from South Asia as they could find relatively easier opportunities for progression in this domain as against the limited opportunities in mainstream specialties [Bornat, Henry, and Raghuram, 2008]. It is imperative that further studies researching the dynamics of high skilled migration from South Asia shall investigate how well the emigrating professionals are assimilating in their new destinations and how smooth the engagement is moving from “Dirty, Difficult and Dangerous” jobs to “Desirable, Demanded and Diasporic” jobs [Khadria, 2009]

International migratory movements have followed the principles of demand and supply as well as were caused by various push and pull factors. On the supply side was the increasing tendency of high skilled professionals to be attracted towards magnetic areas that command global appeal and on the demand side were host countries implementing point-based systems for ensuring the selection and thereby arrival of only the best talent from this global pool of human resources [Beine, Docquier, and Rapoport, 2008]. Reinforcing the migratory tendency of high skilled professionals were their access to social capital and information, language skills, financial resources and the fact that they were more integrated in the international labour market [Dumont and Lemaître, 2005]. Khadria [2009] speculated that with the passage of time migratory flows to OECD countries would be driven more by demand related factors as opposed to the oversupply of migrants from developing regions such as South Asia, hence worker-seeking atmosphere of 21st century will replace the work-seeking milieu of the 20th century.

Naim and Iftikhar [2010] have identified a comprehensive list of push and pull factors for high skilled migration. They listed underemployment, security issues, feeble education system and lack of strong institutions for scientific research and innovation as the primary push factors for the flight of human capital from South Asian countries such as Pakistan and Bangladesh. In addition, there were factors such as stagnant careers, insufficient funds for research, an environment that did not fully utilize intellectual and other resources, low social capital, political instability and law and order issues that are pushing the professionals out. Among the pull factors were “better learning opportunities as members of international networks, access to high quality scientific infrastructure and frontier technologies, higher salaries, competitive job environment, access to better education and health facilities for family and availability of funds for research and innovation”. Visa relaxation policies of host countries were also playing an important role as a pull factor.

Interestingly, they argued that unemployment was not the key factor in migration because World Development Indicators acknowledge that the unemployment rate of tertiary educated professionals was only 22 percent of total unemployment rate. It was other factors associated with overall career progress and the macroeconomic environment that result in high rate of emigration.

Their argument was further substantiated by the results of an OECD study that found no strong correlation between the emigration rate of the highly skilled and conditions of unemployment in the source countries [Dumont and Lemaître, 2005]. Hence, when it comes to high skilled migration, the developing countries were not benefitting from the export of surplus labour as in the case of semi-skilled or unskilled labour migration.

Migration studies focusing on people with managerial, professional and technical skills drew our attention to employment-related as well as non-economic factors; better future for the family, better employment opportunities and higher salaries were cited as more relevant reasons for professionals emigrating from the developing regions including South Asia [Khoo S. E., 2014]. People were also compelled to expand their learning opportunities via capitalizing upon the high quality research infrastructure of the developed countries and through networking with industry leaders [Gibson and McKenzie, 2011].

Khadria [2009] added a perspective to the debate of push and pull factors by denying their stereotype classification that implies purely negative factors in one country and absolutely positive in the other. According to his point of view, positive push factors identified in the source countries and negative pull factors in the destination countries. For example, the growing need for healthcare professionals in OECD region was actually negative because it was caused by age-structural-imbalance in these countries and need to be worked out through long-term social policies in addition to immigration policies.

Another critical inquiry that Bauer and Kunze [2004] have raised was whether the firms were employing foreign professionals for filling-in the knowledge gap related to latest technologies or foreign markets or because of a shortage of skilled professionals in the domestic economy. The answer to this query bears policy implications because in case of former, these professionals played a complementary role and hence accorded a positive value by the local population whereas in case of latter they were considered as substitute for native professionals and did not enjoy as much a favourable reception. Though one could assume that majority of the professionals emigrating from South Asia belonged to the latter category.

Remittances played an important role in the economy of South Asia. In fact, the region has often been termed as “remittance economy” as it has experienced a continually increasing trend in the receipt of remittances from its emigrants and this amount far exceeds other modes of international transfers such as Official Development Assistance or Foreign Direct Investment [Dhar and Samanta, 2014]. In 2011, remittances accounted for 22 per cent of Nepal’s GDP [Wickramasekara, 2011] while Bangladesh was also quite dependent upon remittances with almost a double-digit figure as a proportion of GDP. Even though the relative share of remittances in India’s economy was quite low, the amount of USD 55 billion [World Bank, 2011] was massive in absolute terms.

Two issues concern remittances critically and are of prime importance in our study. Firstly, whether the remittances were used in productive investments such as education, health etc. or were spent in household consumption. A number of studies acknowledge arguments rose in favour of remittances being used lavishly in household consumption and hence not playing the significant role they could in long-term development of these households [Dhar and Samanta,

2014; Chalamwong, 2004]. The behaviour of South Asian households needs to be deciphered in these regards.

Secondly, and equally important, was the debate concerning whether high skilled professionals remit as much as or even higher than their low-skilled counterparts. Naim and Iftikhar [2010] concur with the popular view that since high skilled emigrants maintained better quality of life in destination countries and spent a huge sum on the education of their children overseas; they were not in a position to contribute much in the shape of remittances. Gibson and McKenzie [2011] considered such view as against the empirical evidence especially in case of low-income countries where these remittances from high skilled professionals could be considered relatively significant. Giordano and Terranova [2012] have shared the findings of a recent study that verifies that qualified professionals sent more sum as remittances. Based upon a database of 33,000 immigrants in 11 OECD countries, the study revealed that tertiary-educated immigrants remit \$1,000 per year on average to their home countries. It would be interesting to find out the average figure for South Asian professionals and compared it with this global average.

Brain Drain and its Consequences

Brain Drain a term that was coined by British Royal Society to refer to the flight of scientists and technologists from UK to North American countries in the 60's, now generally refers to the emigration of highly qualified and skilled professionals, mainly tertiary-educated, from a less developed country to a more developed and preferred one [Gibson and McKenzie, 2011]. The term has a negative connotation and implies that emigration results in absolute loss for the sending country; the country loses out any returns that it may have gained had the professional not gone overseas [Chalamwong, 2004].

Various costs are associated with the exodus of scientists, engineers, physicians and other professionals. First of all, the cost incurred in the shape of education and training of human resources was lost because the emigrated professionals were no more participating in the local job market. The situation was worse for developing countries that subsidize public education because to cover the skills deficit, additional funds were required that can only be raised through increased taxation or reduction in educational subsidies and other public expenditure [Schiff, 2005]. None of these measures was conducive to the promotion of higher education.

Exacerbating the situation was the fact that it was not just the expenditure on education that was lost but the source country also loses out future tax revenue and entrepreneurial opportunities that could have been generated from the participation of these professionals in the local economy. Ultimately it was the foreign economies that benefited from the creation of new businesses and jobs through the efforts of these high skilled migrants – California's Silicon Valley was a shining example [Kaushal and Fix, 2006].

There was more to the emigration of highly qualified professionals than what the direct losses suggested. Indirect costs and externalities also made their presence felt. Naim and Iftikhar [2010] have outlined a large number of social impacts and indirect losses to the economy. They assert that the loss of highly qualified places an unnecessary strain on the economy resulting in enormous cost in terms of time and money. Scientists and engineers play the leading role in

maintaining and enhancing the pace of technological innovation in the economy. They “adopt, absorb and indigenize advance knowledge and technologies” which is the key requirement to compete in today’s knowledge-based global economic system. It is the availability of such expertise that attracts Foreign Direct Investment, engages international trading partners, and diffuses technology thereby enhancing the effectiveness of local production function. What is more important is that this expertise is accumulated not only through education but also through valuable experiences gained practically and at the shop floor. At times, the developing countries have to hire foreign consultants at a higher cost to their taxpayers just because of shortage of local experts. In addition, long-term governance and development initiatives also suffer because of the weakening of public and private institutions.

Externalities related to certain professions make the impact of brain drain more detrimental for the society and the economy. Professionals belonging to health and education, for example, have a significant bearing on the well-being of other members of the society [Gibson and McKenzie, 2011]. Owing to the exodus of healthcare professionals such as nurses, Nepal is experiencing a “care deficit” in providing effective healthcare services to its own population [Adhikari, 2013]. Financial benefits alone cannot compensate for the loss of care for children, elderly and the sick people. Similarly, engineers have a strong influence on the productive potential of other members of the workforce [Beine, Docquier, and Rapoport, 2008].

Another theme that appears recurrently in brain drain literature is the underemployment of professionals abroad. Mattoo, Neagu and Ozden [2005] introduced the term “Brain Waste” to acknowledge the practice of hiring immigrant professionals for jobs for which they are overqualified. Adhikari [2013] also highlights that migrant nurses often have to accept offers that do not match their valuable knowledge and experience and often have to suffer through the unhealthy social stratification within the profession. But we have covered this topic in detail in the trends section above and discussed the contradictory results and opinions of scholars on this subject.

It is interesting to note that while Sri Lanka has raised some concerns on the exodus of physicians and healthcare professionals, none of the South Asian countries including Sri Lanka has ever addressed brain drain as part of its migration policies [Wickramasekara, 2011]. This seems to be on account of two reasons. Firstly, brain drain is generally more a problem for countries with smaller populations and low levels of human capital [Gibson and McKenzie, 2011]. Secondly, the chart of tertiary-educated persons in South Asia is an upward sloping one with enrolment rates going up from 8.0 per cent in 2000 to 11.4 per cent in 2008 [Gibson and McKenzie, 2011]. This rise in tertiary-enrolment ratio has made it possible to keep a check on the emigration rate of highly skilled in a changing world where such professionals are high in demand and restrictions on immigration are being increasingly relaxed.

Reaping the Benefits from Emigrants

The migration literature has seen a gradual shift from the concept of brain drain to notions of brain gain, exchange and even reversal. The basic thought behind these ideas is that international migration is a positive phenomenon; qualified professionals develop further skills, accumulate knowledge, gain valuable experience and they are able to transfer some of it to their home

country. Hence, even apart from remittances, there is a lot for the developing countries to benefit from the movement of their highly skilled people towards the developed world.

The key role in gaining such benefits is played by the diaspora networks located in different industrialized countries. These networks are comprised of emigrants who are maintaining links with their home country both materially and ideologically [Agunias and Newland, 2012]. The challenge is to identify, engage and build these networks with activities that are in sync with the professional goals and progress of their members in destination countries.

Among such activities are trade and investment. The reasons why emigrants are generally inclined to make productive investments in their country are because they understand the market and are in a better position to evaluate the relative strengths and weaknesses of opportunities that are available. In addition, they have access to reliable contacts that can facilitate the implementation aspects. More importantly, return migrants may assume the role of facilitator themselves when bringing investment from abroad [Chalamwong, 2004].

Another key engagement is related to the transfer of knowledge and technology from industrialized nations to the developing ones. Owing to their links at both the ends, diaspora members play an important role in this transfer and collaborate effectively with the business community and academia in the home country [Chalamwong, 2004]. India's IT sector is a shining example of this knowledge spill over [Giordano and Terranova, 2012]. However, it has also been argued that the main content in such knowledge transfers has often been related to educational and career opportunities abroad [Gibson and McKenzie, 2010] and not what is relevant for the development of local economy.

Agunias and Newland [2012] also recognized the intermediary role that diaspora members play in strengthening the integration of their countries in global economy. Acting as "cultural interpreters" or "reputational intermediaries", they understand the concerns of business stakeholders on both the sides and push for changes that are required for increasing the flow of goods and services from one country to the other. However, before embarking upon any diaspora-centred strategy, the source country must create a relationship of trust with its diaspora networks and help the same create one with the governments and industries of destination countries. The authors have listed three mechanisms through which various Asian governments have successfully engaged their diaspora members. Firstly, legislation related to flexible citizenship, visa arrangements, political rights, property rights, etc. is enacted for the development of an overall environment that is conducive to engagement. Secondly, diaspora-centred institutions are established at various levels including ministerial, national and local levels. Lastly, various programs were designed and managed that specifically target diaspora networks through tapping into their human capital, savings or philanthropic contributions.

Wickramasekara [2011] has discussed how South Asian countries were engaging their diaspora resources for achieving long-term development goals. India and Sri Lanka have accessed financial resources through specific bonds and foreign currency accounts for the non-residents. Pakistan's emigration policy endeavours to improve country's international image via linking the local academia and business community with its diaspora. A separate ministry for Pakistani's living abroad has been established. The Non-Resident Nepali Association, established in 2003, has

succeeded in bringing financial investment and charities to Nepal. With almost 1.5 million people living in US, UK and other OECD countries, Bangladesh's diaspora has also made significant contributions to its economy.

For various socio-economic reasons, some of the developing countries have also witnessed the return of formerly emigrated professionals. This reversal is beneficial when the returnee has accumulated sufficient financial and social capital so as to avoid re-migration and is fit enough to continue participating in economic activity [Wickramasekara, 2011]. The returnees' bring with them not only "knowledge, expertise, access to global networks, and capital, but also an international sensibility that influences where they work, live and their expectations" [Chacko, 2007].

A number of countries have also designed and deployed programs persuading the emigrants to return. Pakistan's Higher Education Commission, for example, has tried to attract the academic diaspora through its Foreign Faculty Hiring Programme [Naim and Iftikhar, 2010].

The reversal is quite prominent in the case of India, despite the fact that Indian Government has not played any active role in this return of emigrants. This tells us that economic opportunities and reasons are sufficient for inducing returns [Giordano and Terranova, 2012] and countries that integrate well in the global structure can find themselves attractive enough.

Dhar and Samanta [2014] also describe the case of India; foreign firms entering the Indian market for the first time found it more logical to send among their existing staff people of Indian origin to the country. They were assumed to be culturally knowledgeable, possessing language skills and in a better position to deal with the local bureaucracy. Hence, expansion in operations of international firms resulted in return migration for India. Entrepreneurship opportunities also proved important in inducing return migration of Indian professionals. A vast number of start-ups in Bangalore were actually funded by Indian diaspora especially those associated with Silicon Valley.

Khoo [2014] has cited a number of reasons given by Australian immigrants who were returning to their home countries. The main reasons were of non-economic nature such as homesickness, family issues and improvement in the political situation of home country. Chacko [2007] mentioned the desire to make a difference, grabbing the opportunity to return to their roots, being able to spend more time with the family and a concern that their children would suffer the fate of second-class citizens abroad as reasons given by Indian professionals for their return. But her list also includes economic reasons such as prospects for advancement in career, salaries that offer the same purchasing power as that given by income earned abroad and the exciting nature of work.

Apart from the engagement and return of diaspora members, emigration also induced investment in education in home country. Since people believe they stand a strong chance for migrating to one of the developed countries and earn higher income, they invest in their own education or that of their children [Chalamwong, 2004]. International migration is one of the factors driving growth in the enrolment ratio of tertiary education in South Asia. Sri Lanka for example tops the charts in both high skilled migration as well as tertiary enrolment [Dhar and Samanta, 2014]. Girls in Nepal are particularly inclined towards education in nursing because it can open the doors in global

healthcare market [Adhikari, 2013]. Of course, not all those who invest in education for migration end up being successful in migrating and hence a brain gain is experienced by the source country [Gibson and McKenzie, 2011].

Validating the concept of induced investment in education is the meticulous study of Beine, Docquier and Rapoport [2008] that makes great use of available data on emigration rates by education levels. They have investigated both the positive and negative aspects of brain drain and found out that “most countries combining low levels of human capital and low migration rates of skilled workers end up with a positive net effect. In contrast, the brain drain appears to have negative effects in countries where the migration rate of the highly educated is above 20 per cent and/or the proportion of people with higher education is above 5 per cent”. Hence, the induced investment in education can payoff well [what the authors call “beneficial brain drain”] if the developing countries can keep the emigration rate of the tertiary educated below the threshold of 20 per cent. Interestingly, majority of the South Asian countries, i.e. Maldives, India, Bhutan, Bangladesh, Nepal and Pakistan are experiencing beneficial brain drain. Afghanistan and Sri Lanka, owing to their high emigration rates, are the only two countries from the region experiencing detrimental brain drain. The study has been quite successful in highlighting the distributional effects of brain drain across the developing world and in identifying factors that contribute towards the formation of beneficial brain drain.

Gibson and McKenzie [2011] discussed a number of issues related to the concept of induced investment in education. A key assumption in studies was that the educational system of developing countries was capable of catering to the additional demand. This might be true for general tertiary programs but perhaps not in the case of programs that develop doctors, scientists and other highly qualified professionals, especially if the government practices restrictions on private education in these fields. Another aspect to be wary of concerns the argument that bulk of the induced investment in education is related to fields that payoff overseas only, for example medical practitioners from developing countries prefer geriatrics and not tropical medicine which is more pressing for the local society.

Key transformations are obvious in the migratory affairs of the globe. A world that restricts movement of human capital is slowly giving way to one that offers greater mobility of highly qualified professionals. Slow population growth, ageing of the existing workforce and the emergence of a knowledge-based economy are all pushing more and more of the industrialized countries towards relaxations in their immigration policies. High skilled migrants now enjoy a favourable reception at their new destinations, have better chances for assimilating in the new environment and are gaining the benefits of a demand-driven migratory trend in OECD countries.

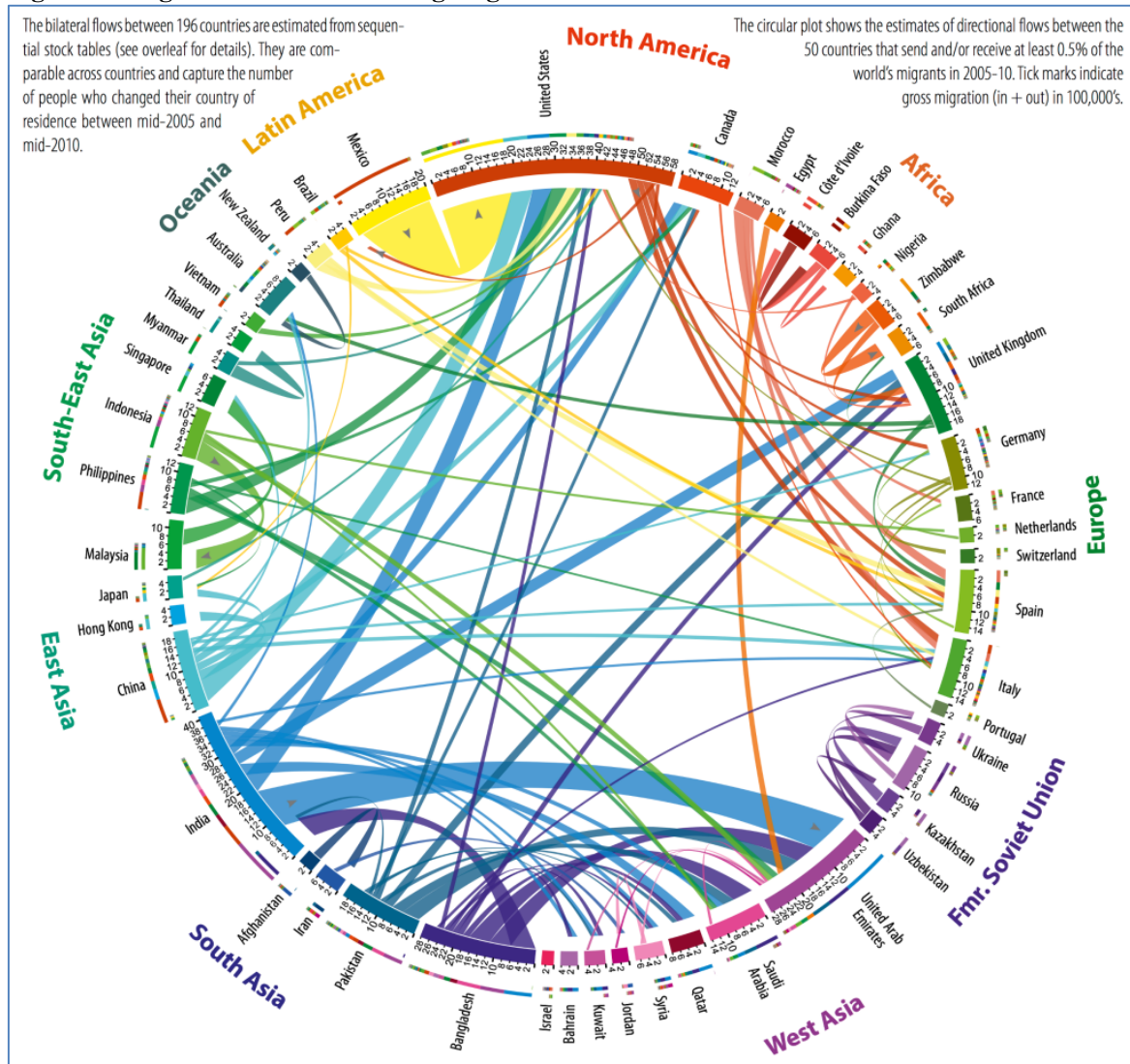
These trends present both opportunities and threats for the South Asian region. At one ends, the region risks losing the brightest of its minds to the industrialized world. This brain drain can result in loss of public expenditure incurred on the education and training of professionals and cost in terms of tax revenue and entrepreneurial activities that the economy is unable to gain from in future. The exodus of the highly qualified adversely affects the absorptive capacity of the economy with respect to innovation and technology. Long-term development initiatives and institutions of governance suffer because of the lack of native experts. Externalities related to

various occupations such, as health and education need to be specially factored in migration policies.

At the other end of the spectrum are the various modes of benefiting from high skilled migration. The primary ones' being proactive engagement with diaspora networks, invoking return of selective emigrants and capitalizing upon the induced investment in education. Engaging with diaspora members can bring in further investments as well as latest technology and knowledge from abroad. Diaspora members can facilitate the further integration of the region in global economy; the challenge is to design programs that are in sync with their socio-economic priorities and objectives in the destination countries. Return of professional emigrants who are now better equipped with financial and social capital and can play the leading role in advancement of academia, research, public institutions, private business and industry can help the region lower its productivity gap and increase its leverage in today's interdependent world. South Asian countries can also benefit from the investment in education that prospects for emigration have induced; the challenge here is to ensure that the educational system has capacity for handling additional demand and that local needs are addressed by the academic programs and training courses. Further research and inquiry specific to high skilled migration from South Asia can help develop sound policies for the regional countries to gain the most and avoid the drawbacks of this phenomenon.

Migration pattern of the regions are shown in Figure below, while details of the each SAARC Member States are provided in Annex – I.

Figure 2: Migration Patterns among Regions



Source: Global Economic Freedom and Migration, 2014

According to Clark, Lawson, Nowrarteh, Powel and Murphy [2014], migration has positive impact on economic freedom of countries where people immigrate. This positive impact is quantified by them using the data of 'Economic Freedom of the World' [EFW]'s Annual Report. According to United Nations [2013], the net migration rate for all the SAARC countries, except Bhutan, is in negative, which depicts the outgoing tendency from these countries. The correlation between overall score of EFW and Net Migration Rate [NMR] is about 0.40 [Research Analytics International, 2014], which shows that as the NMR increases, score on EFW increases. Since NMR is negative, this implies that if NMR shifts towards positive values, it affects positively on score of EFW. Emigration for the SAARC has negative impact on Economic Freedom Index of these countries. However, it cannot be argued that lack of Economic Freedom increases emigration or vice versa but there is an association between these two variables for the SAARC countries.

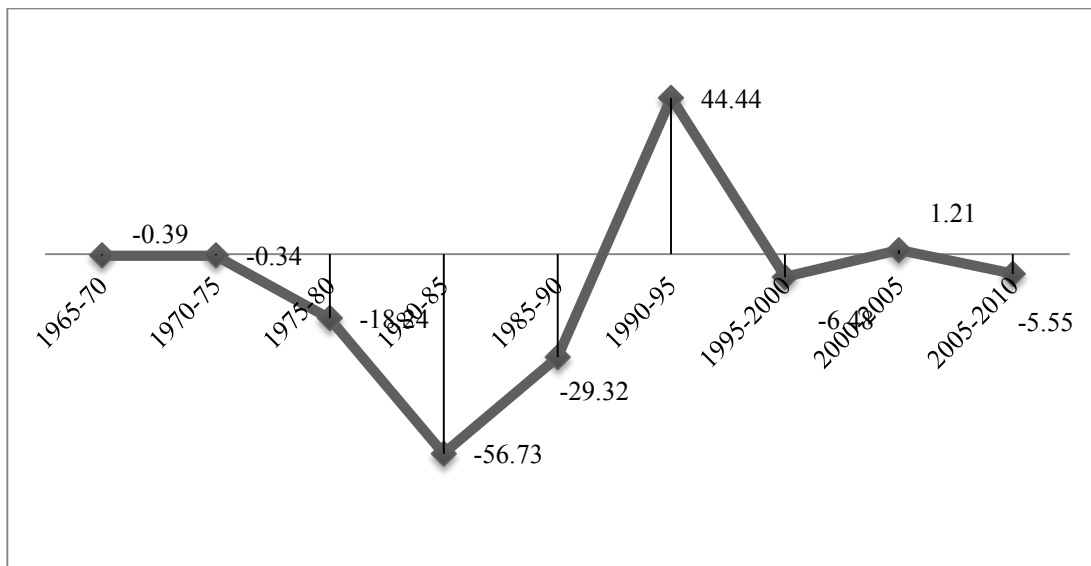
4. Situation Analysis of the SAARC Region

Afghanistan

Afghanistan has joined in 2007 and became the eighth Member of the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation – SAARC. A country of about 30 million in 2013 people is in transition with history of war that negatively impacted the country profile in terms of socioeconomic and political development. The instability becomes means of emigration and huge number of population travelled across borders to neighbouring countries including Pakistan and Iran. After 2001, the country is started rebuilding with the aid of the international agencies.

Afghanistan's history shall be having a direct link with its Net Emigration Rate [NMR]. According to United Nations Population Division [2013], the NMR for Afghanistan has the following pattern. Figure 3 shows pattern of NMR by five-year gaps. The positive values reflect the return of refugees in specific years but during 2005-10 more people are getting out of the country than were coming in the country.

Figure 3: Afghanistan' Net Migration Rate



Source: Author's compilation from UN, 2013

According to a report by Department of Immigration and Border Protection, Australia [2013], 28730 Afghan-born people were living in Australia [as of June 2011] having median age of 29.5 which is about 8 years below the median age in Australia and 54 percent were male. The report further elaborates, "The employment outcomes of those born in Afghanistan were poor compared with the general population. At the time of the 2011 Census, only 33 percent of Afghans aged 15 years and above were working. Another 8 percent were unemployed and 59 percent were not in the labour force. Among those who were employed, the most common occupations were technicians and trades workers as well as labourers accounting for 22 percent and 17 percent of all Afghan-born workers respectively" [Commonwealth of Australia, 2013].

Australia, for example, offers three types of migration policies for Afghans: Humanitarian Programme; Family Migration; and Skilled Migration. Of total 5165 permanent visas offered to Afghans in 2012-13, only 13 were granted based Skilled Migration. Since 2009, there were total 15424 permanent migration cases granted to Afghans with 0.35 percent share of skilled migrants.

According to Migration Trends and Outlook, New Zealand [2013], most of the Afghanistan's migration applications were approved under other categories than skilled migration. The trends data show that of total humanitarian approvals, 1 percent were from Afghanistan in 2010-11, 2 percent in 2011-12 which rose to 6 percent for 2012-13. Other migration application approved for Afghans were under Refugee Quota programme. During the year 2012-13 only one Afghani was granted migration to New Zealand based on stream of skill/business category.

Much of Afghanistan's emigration story is filled with data on mass movement of people out of borders of Afghanistan to secure themselves from war, drought and resultant poverty. The conflict has uprooted the institutions that develop human resources, as it is evident from the profile of Afghanistan compared to other lowest developed countries in the world.

However, Afghanistan has information on its diaspora. The information is available through different sources including OECD and World Bank. According to World Bank [2011], Afghanistan is one of top ten emigrant countries with emigration stock of 2.3 million; however, Afghanistan does not report remittances inflow to World Bank. Top migration corridor for Afghanistan is 'Afghanistan-Iran' with 1.7 million migrants.

Table 4: Afghanistan's Ranking

Afghanistan compared to:	World	Region
Human Development Index [HDI]	172/187	31/31
GDP per capita	172/194	32/33
Emigration rate	129/203	21/38
Emigration rate of the highly-educated	105/157	15/25

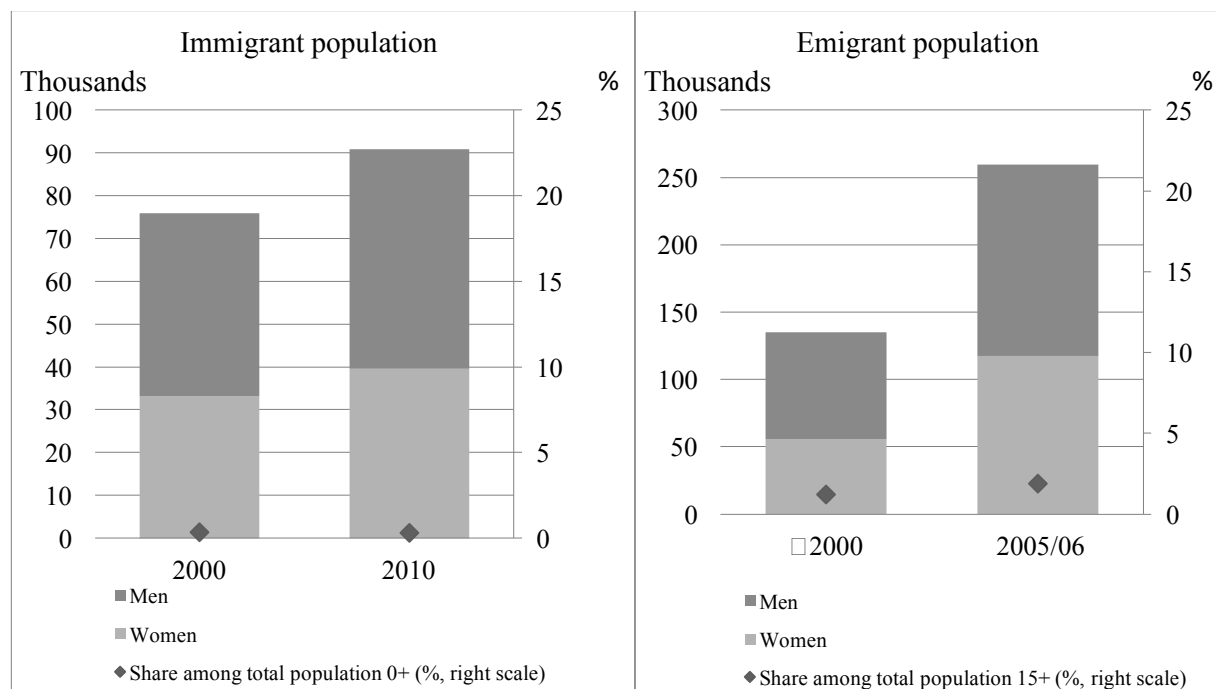
Source: OECD, 2012

Afghanistan stands 21st among 38 regional economies on emigration while people who are highly educated moves out of Afghanistan more frequently. The HDI and GDP rates are reflection on the emigration rates.

Figure 4 outlines the migrant population of Afghanistan. There were more than 90 thousand Afghans living in other countries as immigrants in 2010, which increased from about 75 thousand in 2000. The emigrant population of Afghanistan has increased from 135 million in 2000 to about 260 million in 2005-06, which is an increase of more than 92 per cent from base value in 2000. This emigrant population was about 2 per cent of the total Afghanistan's population 15+ years in 2005-06. The important aspect of migration statistics of Afghanistan is the movement of women. The emigration rate of 1.8 and women emigrate with a just marginally low rate of 1.6, however this rate is much higher for tertiary educated women which stands at more than 11 per cent against about 5 per cent men emigration rate. The rate of emigration of tertiary educated people put a pressure on development policies that render success on availability of human resources.

Afghanistan has to feel this pressure among other policy challenges towards improvement in its overall human development and economic competitiveness indicators.

Figure 4: Migration Dynamics of Afghanistan



Source: OECD, 2012

Table 5 provides a ready glimpse on the Afghanistan migration statistics. Data on emigration is only available till 2005/06.

Table 5: Emigration Statistics of Afghanistan ['000]

Afghanistan	Emigrant Population	Highly Skilled Emigrants	Emigration Rate Per cent	Emigration Rate of Highly Skilled Percent
Total Population	347	71	1.8	4.8
Female Population	155	31	1.6	11.4

Source: UNDESA and OECD, 2013

People who move to other countries also play specific roles in the destination labour markets. The immigration countries pay specific attention to collect and compile important data regarding labour market participation of immigrants. Table 6 provides details on different indicators of the labour market participation of Afghanistan immigrants.

Table 6: Labour Market Indicators of Afghan Born in OECD Countries

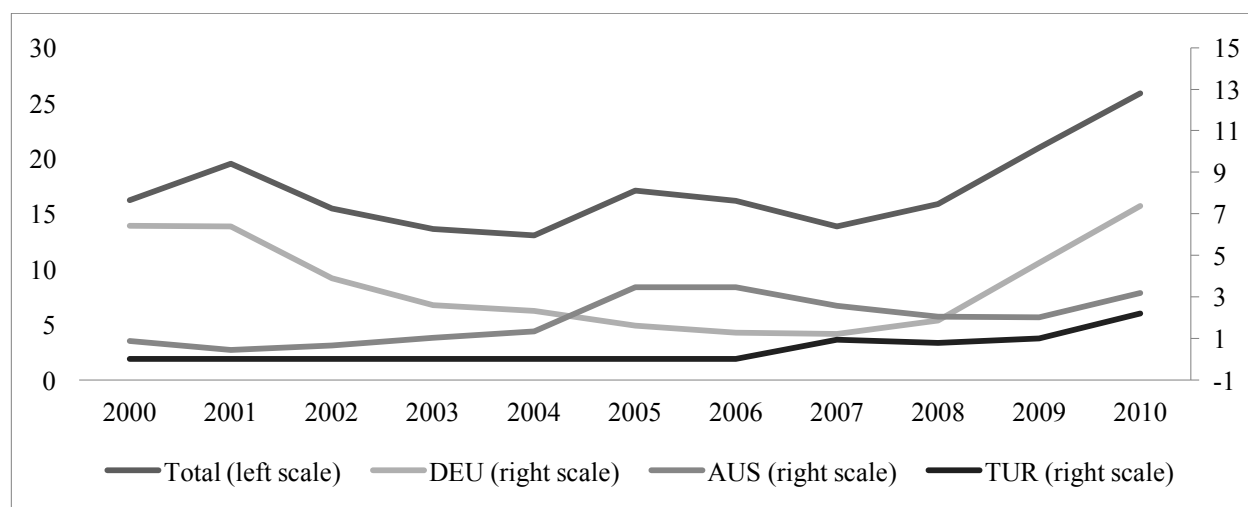
Labour Market Indicators	2000	2005/06

Population 15-64		Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Employment-population ratio [percent]		55.9	29.6	44.4	59.5	34.8	48.4
Unemployment rate [percent]		12.4	14.6	13.0	16.0	17.5	16.5
Participation rate [percent]		63.8	34.7	51.1	70.8	42.2	58.0
Total employed [000]		34.0	14.0	47.9	74.2	35.5	109.6
Employment rates of the highly-educated [percent]		65.9	53.9	61.3	84.5	62.9	76.3
Unemployment rates of the highly-educated [percent]		12.4	11.8	12.2	11.5	12.7	11.9
Highly-educated in low- and medium-skilled jobs [percent]		51.1	53.3	51.8	50.2	51.5	50.6
Highly-educated employed [000]		10.1	5.0	15.2	22.9	10.4	33.4
Distribution of employment by occupation [percent], population 15+	Legislators, senior officials and managers	9.4	5.8	8.3	12.0	3.3	9.5
	Professionals	8.2	8.1	8.2	5.4	8.6	6.3
	<i>Life science and health professionals</i>	3.6	3.4	3.5	1.6	3.4	2.1
	<i>Teaching professionals</i>	1.6	3.2	2.0	1.1	2.3	1.4
	Technicians and associate professionals	7.7	12.1	9.0	6.8	9.4	7.5
	Clerks	7.8	18.7	11.0	5.9	22.1	10.6
	Service, shop and market sales workers	18.6	35.3	23.5	16.5	32.3	21.0
	Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	0.4	0.2	0.4	0.8	0.7	0.8
	Craft and related trades workers	11.9	2.2	9.1	16.5	7.8	14.0
	Plant and machine operators and assemblers	17.5	6.4	14.3	19.2	2.7	14.4
	Elementary occupations	18.4	11.2	16.3	16.1	13.0	15.2

Source: OECD, 2012

The employment to population ratio for Afghan Immigrants has increased from about 44 percent to 48 percent from 2000 to 2005-06. Men are more likely to work than women but unemployment rates of Afghan immigrants is in double figures and has increased from 13 percent in 2000 to about 17 percent in 2005-06. As the number of immigrants increase, the employment rates depend on issues of settling and finding the occupational jobs. The total employed population increased from 48 thousands to 110 thousands in half a decade from 2000 onward and participation rate was also increased from 51 to 58 percent in the same period. The employment of highly educated Afghan immigrants has increased more than doubled from 15.2 to 33.4 thousand in half a decade starting from 2000 and among them, the rate of ‘legislators, senior officials and managers’ and professionals in ‘life science and health and teaching profession’ remained the same at more than 17 percent while it reduced from about 14 to 12 percent for women. Highest number of employed Afghans abroad work under ‘Service, shop and market sales workers’ category of occupation. This holds for both genders of immigrants.

Figure 5: Legal Afghan Migrant Flows in OECD [000]



Source: OECD, 2012

The trend shows the greater number of Afghan emigrants. The legal immigrants are those who received the official residence or work permit through proper channels. The largest Afghan Diaspora is in Germany and there is an increasing trend in all major countries. The countries specified in the Figure 5 are the top four immigrant countries for Afghanis according to OCED data 2012. Among developing countries, Iran and Pakistan are also top migrant destinations for Afghanis to live and work. Table 2 provides the Pakistan, Iran and Turkey as the main destinations for Afghanis.

The future prospects of the Afghan emigration can be linked with the intention of its residence to migrate. Table 7 is an illustration of a survey reported by OECD [2012]. The people who are intended to emigrate. Twenty eight per cent would move permanently if they had the opportunity to move and young population is more intended to emigrate.

Table 7: Intention to Emigration of Afghanistan Population 2008-10

Intention to migrate	Women	15-24	Highly-educated	Total	Regional Total
Persons who would move permanently, if they had the opportunity [percent]	28	31	29	28	9
Of which: Persons who are planning to move permanently in next year [percent]				27	7
Of which: Persons who already did some preparation e.g. visa application [percent]					40
Three main countries of desired destination: Iran [26 percent], USA [12 percent], Pakistan [10 percent]					

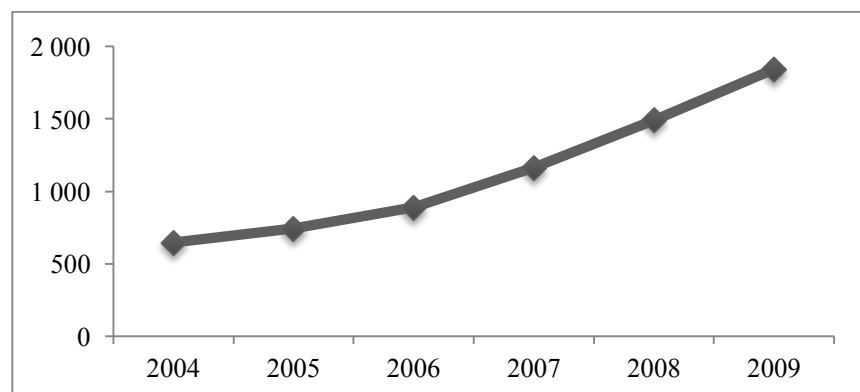
Source: OECD, 2012

Table 8 further explains the important indicators of Bangladesh regarding emigration. If there is full awareness of the prospects to emigrate, people more often choose to settle out of Afghanistan and the reasons would come up the most common issues in the country i.e. persistent poverty, political instability and lack of business development prospects.

Moving for education is another important factor that defines the level if emigration to develop countries. It is more related to the issue of skilled and educated migration out of native country

due to the reason that people moving out to educate themselves are more inclined to be stayed there and finding jobs of choice leading to permanent or at least long term settlements. Figure 6 provides an overview of the Afghan students who are moving abroad for studies.

Figure 6: Afghan Overseas Students



Source: OECD, 2012

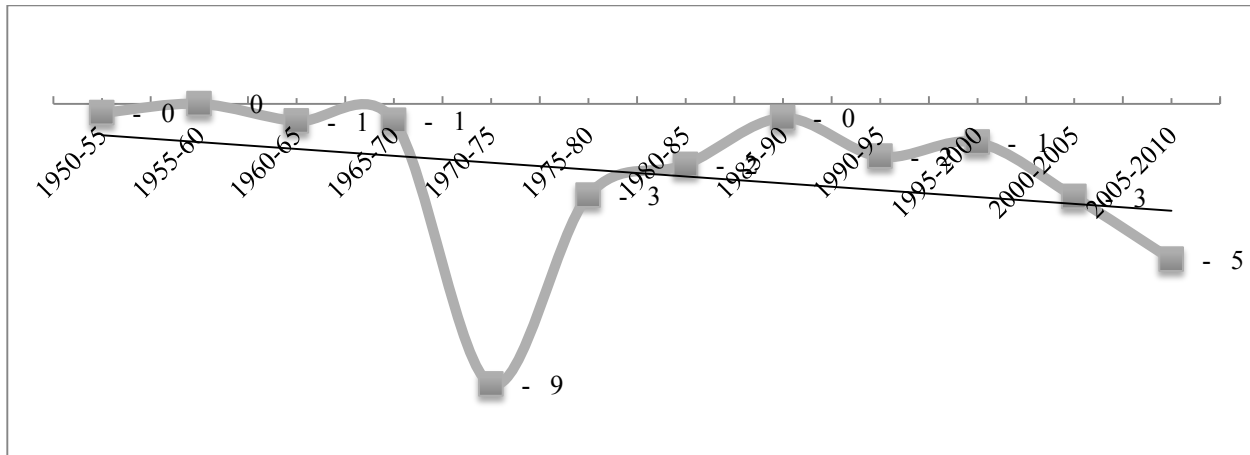
The number of students has increase more than three times from 2004 to 2009 showing a remarkably increasing trend over the years. This further can increase the level of Afghan emigrants settling in the developed countries.

Bangladesh

Bangladesh has enriched profile on emigration and its remittances were estimated to be US\$13779 million in 2013. Its net migration rate [NMR] is -2.6 migrants per 1,000 population. The negative NMR is characteristic of most of developing countries. Bangladesh comes among one of the populous countries in the world with successful implementation of population policies. Currently it stands as the 8th populous country in the world [Official Population Clock, 2014] and 3rd populous in the SAARC region. According to International Organisation of Migration, about 5 million Bangladeshis are working overseas. The unskilled and semi-skilled workers contribute effectively into the overall economic development through generating in-flow of remittances but migration of skilled and professionally qualified people out of Bangladesh has repercussions on overall competitive facet of the economy of Bangladesh.

The net migration rate is an important indicator to measure the level of the migration in a country. Figure 7 depicts a trend of Bangladesh's net migration rate over the decades.

Figure 7: Bangladesh's Net Migration Rate



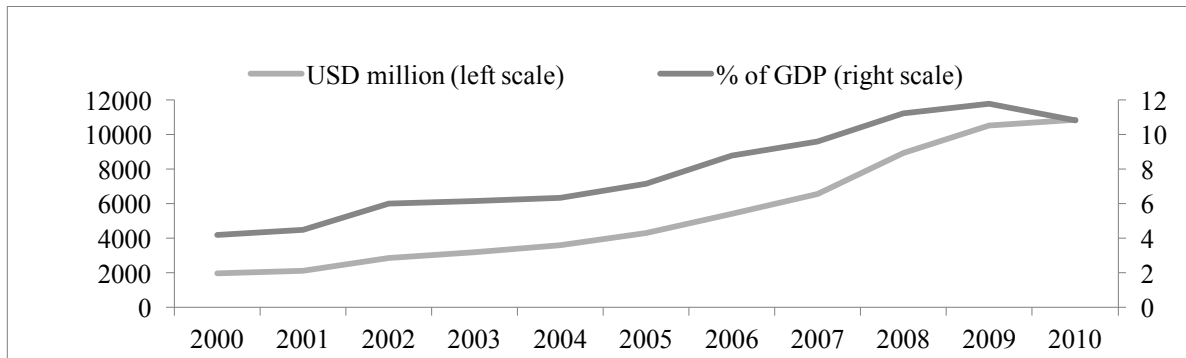
Source: UN DESA, 2013

Bangladesh has never seen positive net migration rate from 1950-55 to 2005-10 which more out migration happening after 1965-70. The net outmigration may be linked with the political instability; however there might be links with the opening of international borders for Bangladeshi workers who wished to work abroad. The rate of out migration reduces to zero during 1985-90 and started to steadily be more negative and reaches -5 for the period 2005 to 2010. This rate is close to Afghanistan as during the same period, the net migration rate of Afghanistan was just over the NMR of Bangladesh.

According to another report by OECD [2013], there are 528 thousand Bangladeshis living abroad and among them about 34 percent are highly educated the rate of the emigration is about 0.5 while the emigration rate of the highly educated people is 3.2 and in comparison to other countries of the region, the rate is relatively lower except India where it is exactly the same. This rate depends on the overall percentage of the highly educated population in a country and the prevailing trends, opportunities and socioeconomic statuses of the people who are relatively highly educated and skilled. The emigration policies of the country of origin also matter. The migration rates do not vary by gender as well but it is not as high as in the case of Afghanistan. 42 percent of the total Bangladeshi immigrants are women and among them about 29 percent are highly educated.

Remittances flow is reported by Bangladesh to the World Bank. The remittances trend shows an increasing trend over the years. Figure 8 shows the overall remittances flowed from immigration countries to Bangladesh and in 2009; it touched 12 percent point of the remittances and started to converge to some point. There is a linear positive relationship between time and remittances as within a decade time, remittances increased from less than 5000 million to 15000 million, which is more than three times increase.

Figure 8: Remittances Flow to Bangladesh

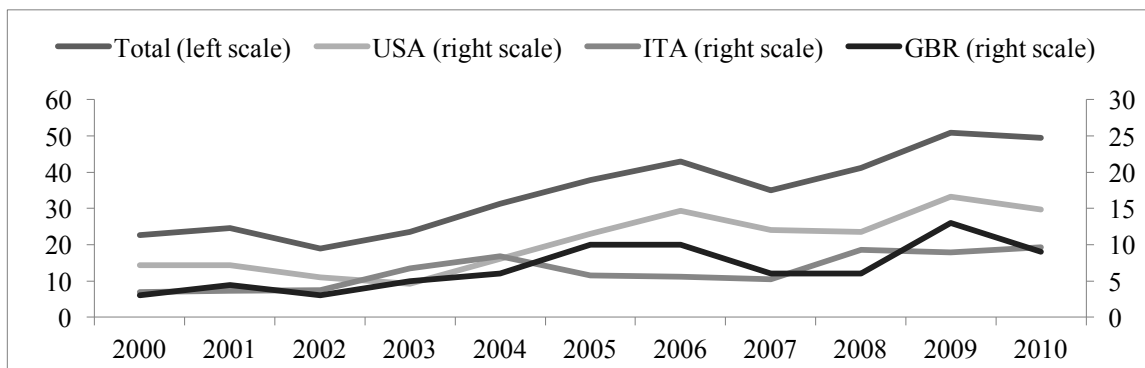


Source: OECD, 2012

In a decade time, the remittances as percentage of the GDP moves up from less than 7 percent to the pinnacle of 12 percent. After 2009, the remittances were trending towards low and this might be due to factors that were halting the emigration rates during the respective years. The use of remittances is linked with the different factors that reflect through change in living standards, education and health outcomes of the receiving families.

The remittances are mostly sent by the unskilled and semi-skilled Bangladeshi workers who are working in Middle East and the gap filled by these remittances is basically to improve the socioeconomic statuses of the receiving families up to the level of the national averages. This means that remittances basically become a source of living rather a source of improvement in the overall socioeconomic statuses of the beneficiaries. However, the remittances sent by the highly educated people are higher in the magnitude and they might be further analysed for their particular impact on the socioeconomic development of the receiving families particularly.

Figure 9: Migrant Flow from Bangladesh to OECD ['000]—Top Receiving Countries



Source: OECD, 2012

The total emigrants were more than 50 thousand in 2009-10, which moved up from as low as about 22 thousands in 2000. The highest increase was seen in USA from below than 10 thousand to more than 15 thousand during a decade from 2000 to 2010. There were also jumps in Great Britain – GBR from 2005 to 2006 [reaching 10 thousands from as low as about 3 thousand in

2000 and the number also lowered to just about 5 thousand during 2007-2008 which again jumped to about 13 thousand in 2009.

The increase in the remittances and increase in population of emigration is linked that it is very much obvious correlation between number of emigrations abroad and magnitude of remittances it is getting back. The overall emigration from Bangladesh remained increasing in the decade and only started to decline from 2006 to 2007 due to the effect of less emigration to other some countries of origin like USA, Great Britain and Italy during the same period.

Young people who wish to move abroad to seek higher education and overall population's intention to emigrate can show as a good source on trending of the emigration prospects. OECD has sorted out the data on these two indicators that are presented below:

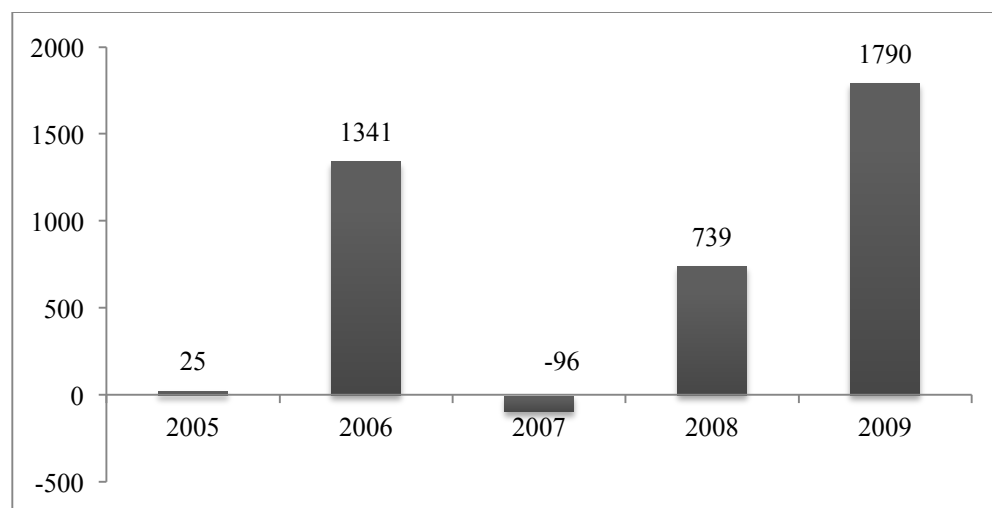
Table 8: Students from Bangladesh with Top 5 Destinations

5 Main Destinations	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
United Kingdom	1721	1947	2222	2675	2817	3488
United States	3198	2881	2673	2463	2307	2662
Australia	2950	3393	3131	2902	2355	2380
Japan	958	1110	1303	1431	1515	1683
Canada	614	-	1266	894	1246	1142
Total	9628	9653	10994	10898	11636	13426

Source: OECD, 2012

Highest number of students from Bangladesh chose United Kingdom as their study destination. Second and third most favourite destinations are United States and Australia. Japan mostly sponsors public sector participants who are given full scholarships through different schemes aimed to improve the efficiency of different sectors of the Government Departments.

Figure 10: Increase/Decrease in Number of Students per Year



Source: Compiled from OECD data, 2012

From 2004 to 2005, the number of students just increased by 25 but from 2005 to 2006, the number of students increased by 1314. The highest increase was seen from 2008 to 2009 where about 1800 more students from Bangladesh to top five study destinations.

Table 9: Labour Market Efficiency of Bangladesh [ranking against 144 economies]

Factor	Ranking [Score]
Pay and productivity	103[3.5]
Reliance on professional management	110[3.6]
Ability to retain talent	115[2.7]
Ability to attract talent	126[2.4]
Women in labour force, ratio to men	98[0.70]

Source: Global Competitiveness Report, 2014

Table 9 shows the Bangladesh's ranking on the indicators that define labour market efficiency. This labour market efficiency also relates to the migration patterns. Efficient labour market policies can respond by retaining the existing talent and by attracting foreign talent-the thing that is being done by developed economies. Bangladesh's overall situation on labour market efficiency does not support the thesis that people would like to stay and would like join the economy of Bangladesh. The worse ranking comes on attracting the talent and to retain the talent, the situation is also not encouraging. The pay and productivity that most of the highly educated labour force attracted is weak, as depicted by the ranking on the indicator as displayed in Table 10.

Table 10: Labour Market Dynamics of Bangladeshi Migrants

Population 15-64		2000			2005/06		
		Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Employment-population ratio [percent]		68.5	25.6	49.5	76.8	30.9	56.4
Unemployment rate [percent]		11.4	16.6	12.6	8.4	15.1	10.1
Participation rate [percent]		77.3	30.7	56.7	83.8	36.4	62.7
<i>Total employed [000]</i>		97.8	29.2	127.0	152.1	49.2	201.3
Employment rates of the highly educated [percent]		80.0	48.7	69.3	90.9	58.6	79.2
Unemployment rates of the highly educated [percent]		6.3	11.4	7.6	4.6	11.3	6.4
Highly-educated in low and medium skilled jobs [percent]		47.2	49.4	47.7	50.1	52.1	50.6
<i>Highly-educated employed [000]</i>		38.7	12.2	51.0	74.9	25.4	100.2
Distribution of employment by occupation [percent] population 15+	Legislators, senior officials and managers	12.7	5.8	11.1	10.1	6.2	9.2
	Professionals	10.1	11.8	10.5	10.6	10.4	10.5
	Life science and health professionals	1.6	2.1	1.7	1.8	3.1	2.1
	Teaching professionals	2.0	5.4	2.7	2.1	2.8	2.2
	Technicians and associate professionals	5.6	10.1	6.6	7.3	11.8	8.3
	Clerks	5.5	19.9	8.8	5.5	17.7	8.3
	Service, shop and market sales workers	37.2	33.4	36.3	11.7	12.6	11.9
	Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.6	8.4	2.4
	Craft and related trades workers	5.6	1.6	4.7	10.6	16.6	12.0
	Plant and machine operators and assemblers	10.2	6.6	9.4	16.3	4.2	13.5

Elementary occupations	13.0	10.6	12.4	20.5	11.0	18.3
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Source: OECD, 2012

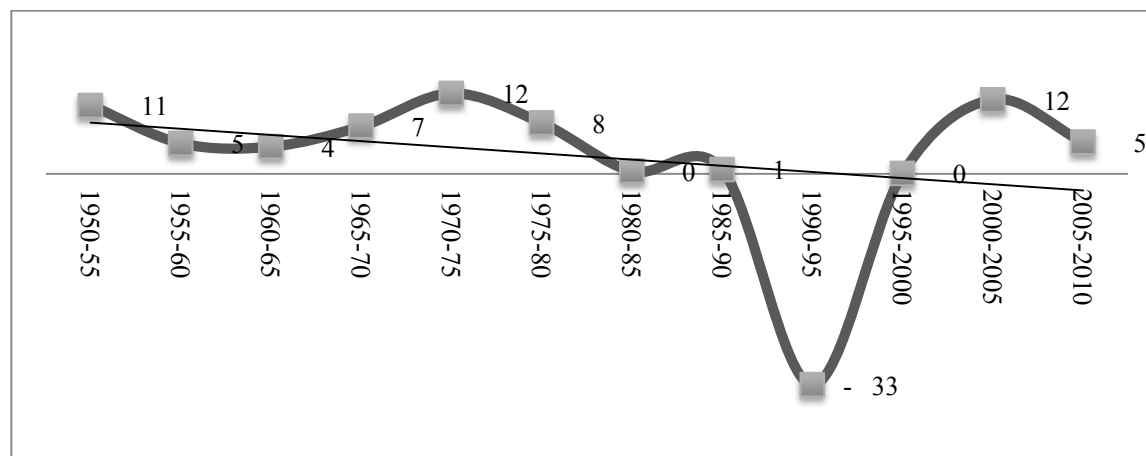
In five years that is from 2000 to 2005/06, the employment indicators improved for Bangladeshis living abroad. Employment to population ratio improved from 49 to 56 percent. The unemployment rates reduced over the period of half of the decade and highly educated performed better than others in terms of employment rates; however the rate of unemployment for educated women has not changed over the period. Highest population of Bangladeshi workers living abroad is from elementary occupations that have increased from more than 12 percent to more than 18 percent and lowest professional category is ‘life science and health professionals’. Another important point is largest cohort of Bangladeshi emigrants were working in ‘service, shop and market sales workers’ category in 2005 [both male and female emigrants] but this proportion reduced to 11.9 percent from 36.3 percent in 2005-06. On the other hand, the total number of Bangladeshi emigrants increased from 51 thousand to more than 100 thousand under the category of ‘highly educated employed’. This shows that either there is enter occupational migration or new migrants are finding appropriate jobs as per their skills or we can also make conjecture that Bangladeshi emigrants are interested to work in the ‘service, shop and market sales workers’ category.

The intention to emigrate is another indicator that determines the scope of emigration from a country. According to a survey reported by OECD [2012], the intention to emigration from Bangladesh was also instrumented. The person who would move permanently, if they had the opportunity to do so are 28 percent in Bangladesh, 21 percent are women and 37 percent are those whose age is from 15-24 years. In overall, 40 percent have already done preparation to get objective of emigration. In this 2008-10 research on ‘desire to emigrate’, three main desired destinations for Bangladesh were United States [25 percent], Saudi Arabia [25 percent] and United Kingdom [11 percent].

Bhutan

Bhutan with population of 717 thousand in 2010 [UN DESA, 2012] therefore its share in overall South Asian Emigration is limited and data is not specifically available.

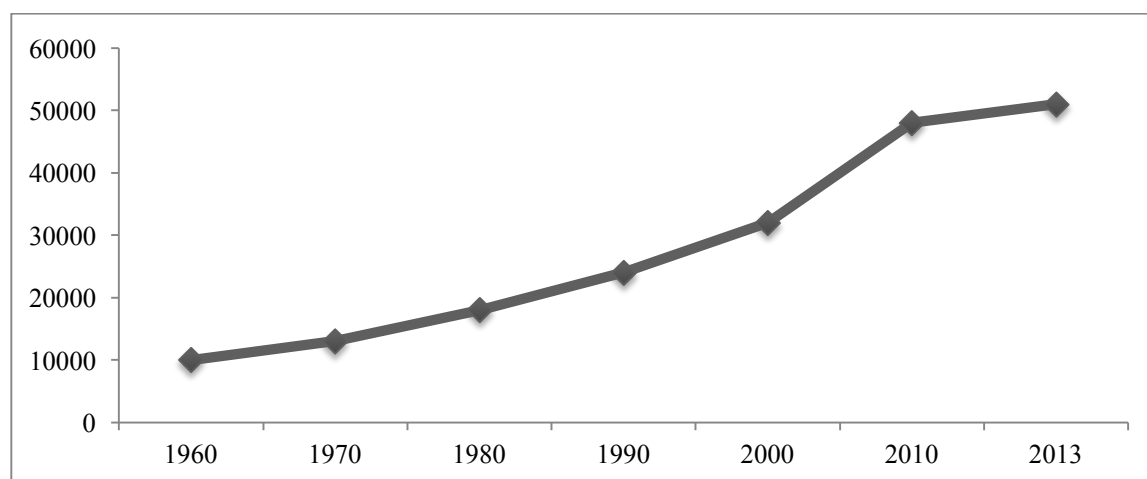
Figure 11: Net Migration Rate of Bhutan



Source: Compiled from UNDESA Estimates, 2012

According to trend apparent in Figure 12, the net migration rate for Bhutan remains positive for most of the time slots except during 1990-95 in which the net migration moved to record low at -33. According to a report “Labour Migration, Skills and Student Mobility in Asia”, Bhutan has no a single inflow to OECD till 2007. From 2007 onward this inflow started and it was 1 thousand in 2008, 3 thousand in 2009, 9 thousand in 2010 and 14 thousand in 2011 [ADB, 2014]. According to United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs [UNDESA, 2013], migration from Bhutan increased from 10,000 in 1960 to 51,000 in 2013. Migration Policy Institute [MPI] also quotes these statistics in “International Migrants by Country of Destination, 1960-2013”.

Figure 12: International Migrant Population by Country of Destination [1960-2013]-Bhutan



Source: UNDESA, 2013

Figure 12 shows the trends of emigration from Bhutan. The characteristics of these emigrants can hardly be found in international databases and in reports etc. due to comparatively low number of Bhutan origin emigrants with respect to other countries of the SAARC.

According to ADB [2014], ‘nine countries also saw a record number of their citizens immigrating to an OECD country in 2011. These countries are Pakistan [105,000 emigrants], Thailand [52,000], and Bangladesh [50,000], followed by Nepal, Afghanistan, Bhutan, Cambodia, Singapore, and Tajikistan.

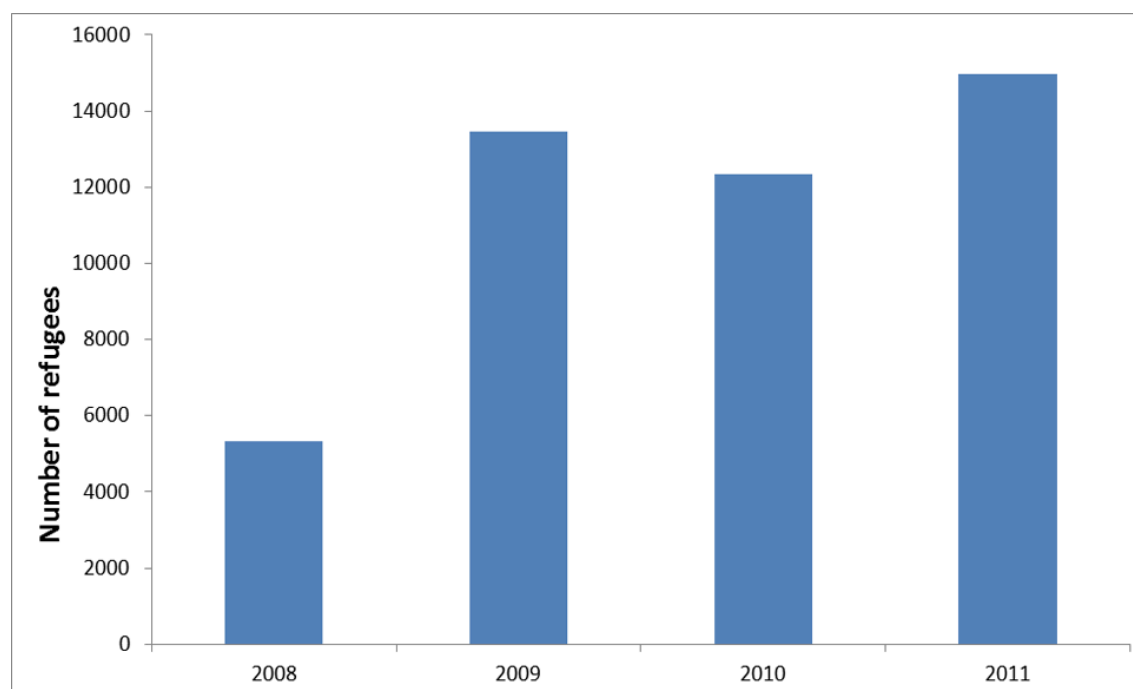
With the increasing number of emigrants from Bhutan to OECD and other countries, there is a certain phenomenon of remittances. Bhutan reports remittances to World Bank. According to World Bank’s 2012 Bilateral Remittances Matrix [World Bank, 2013], there were total 166 million US\$ inflow of remittances to Bhutan from other countries. India is the largest source of remittances for Bhutan [160 million USD] followed by China [4 million] and Nepal [2 million].

According to a report by ADB [2014], the remittances inflow to Bhutan was started in 2006 when Bhutan origin immigrants sent 2 million US\$ remittances. These remittances were increased by one million US\$ each other till 2009 and then in 2010 Bhutanese emigrants sent back 8 million US\$ which increased to 10 million US\$ in 2011-12. The increase in the magnitude of remittances

from foreign-based Bhutanese to their families is linked with the increasing number of outflow of Bhutanese in the corresponding years.

The statistics on Bhutanese moving to other countries as refugees is also remarkable to be mentioned. There are two main destinations for Bhutanese to seek refuge in: Nepal and the United States. According to a report by ‘Centres for Disease Control and Prevention’⁴ the Bhutanese refugees living in refugee camps in Nepal were offered resettlement by United States and other governments. By 2012, about 49,000 Bhutanese were resettled in the United States and about same number were resettled in Australia, Canada and other countries.

Figure 13: Bhutanese Refugees’ Arrival to USA, 2008 - 2011

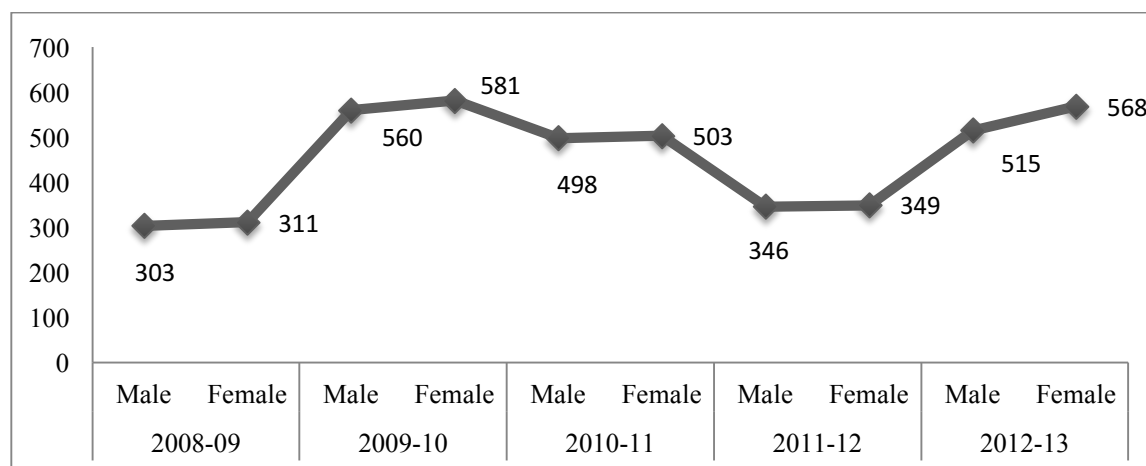


Source: Centres for Disease Control and Prevention, 2014

Australian Government’s Department of Immigration and Border Protection has issued a report Australia’s Migration Trends 2012-13 in which different emigrants are classified by their origin and by type of entry to Australia. According to the data presented in the report 4,534 Bhutanese were given offshore visas under humanitarian programme. Figure 14 reports the trends over the years for male and female resettlement given to Bhutanese population. The resettlement offered fluctuates between genders but in overall, 2,222 were given to male and 2,313 were given to females.

⁴ For more information: www.cdc.gov/immigrantrefugeehealth/profiles/bhutanese/population-movements/

Figure 14: Bhutanese Received Offshore Visas to Resettle in Australia



Source: Compiled from Australia’s Migration Trends, 2012-13

According to report “Migration Trends and Outlook 2012-13” New Zealand granted visas to Bhutanese under two programs: Humanitarian stream; and Refugees Quota stream. Under skilled/business category, there were zero entries or it may be due to lack of skilled/business visa requests from Bhutan. During 2010-11, 189 visas were granted to Bhutanese, 97 in next year and 152 in 2012-13.

The educational and skill wise characteristics of the Bhutanese migration to other countries are not available through any source that the research team exploited to get most up to date and accurate information. The most of migration data from Bhutan is based on refugees who migrated to Nepal and given offshore visas to different developed countries through humanitarian program.

In order to look at the determinants that may have strong relation with the out migration of people who are moving out to work and live in other developed countries, the indicators that define the 7th pillar of economies, as defined by World Economic Forum [2011], can be considered. Table 11 provides the ranking of Bhutan on indicators that define labour market efficiency of the country.

Table 11: Labour Market Efficiency of Bhutan [ranking against 144 economies]

Factor	Ranking [Score]
Pay and productivity	42[4.3]
Reliance on professional management	66[4.3]
Ability to retain talent	36[4.1]
Ability to attract talent	59[3.6]
Women in labour force, ratio to men	44[0.87]

Source: Global Competitiveness Report, 2014

According to this table, the ranking of Bhutan seems encouraging and progressive as well. Bhutan stands at 42nd position against 144 economies with pay and productivity ranking and its ability to retain talent is also exceptional while keeping in view the regional economies, however Bhutan is good on attracting new talent to the country. Women in Bhutan also have better ratio in terms of economic participation, means that labour force is not predominantly defined by men in Bhutan.

These rankings put Bhutan in a situation where living and working are not as discouraging as in other countries of the region.

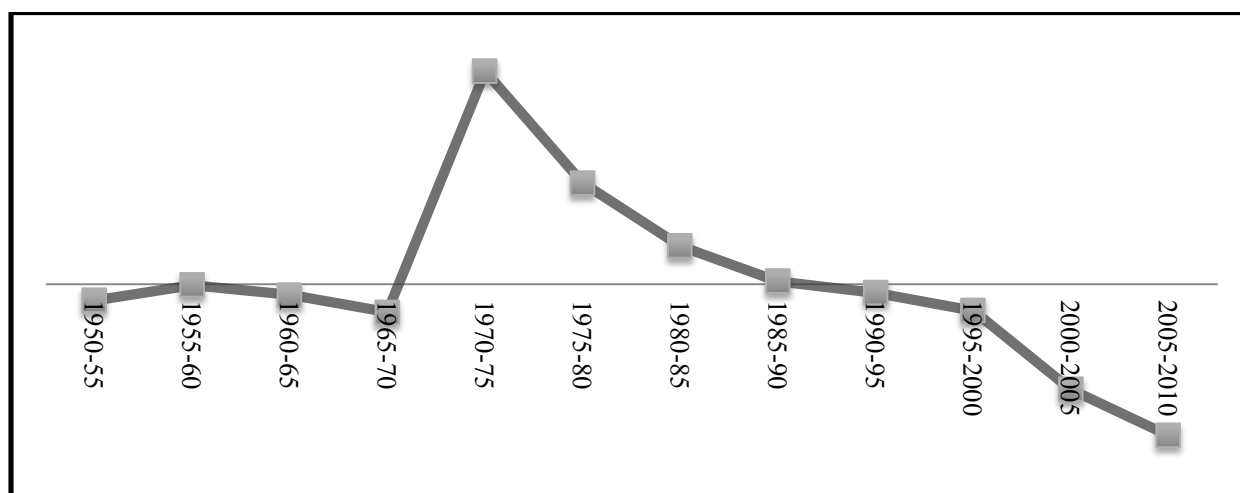
India

India has the largest segment of population in South Asia. India has 75 percent [PRB Datasheet, 2014] of all the SAARC population and being the most populous country of the SAARC sends more people to other countries. The Indian emigrants are from every field of life including unskilled, semi and skilled population. India is top recipient of the remittances in the world and remittances are larger than the IT exports of the country and overall remittances to India were expected to be 71 billion [US\$] in 2013 [Migration and Development Brief 21, World Bank, 2013]. More than 62 percent of South Asian remittance inflow goes to India and rest about 37 percent inflow is for rest of South Asian countries.

According to UK Office for National Statistics [2006], the rate of work permits and first permissions offered to Indians from 1995 to 2005 increased from 8.3 percent in 1995 to 33.9 percent in 2005.

India is the second largest country after Mexico among top ten emigration countries with 11.4 million Indian people living in other countries [World Bank, 2011]. Regarding emigration of professionally qualified and trained individuals; India is at top of the top ten countries of physicians [World Bank, 2011]. In order to look at year wise trends of Net Migration Rate of India, the patterns of out migration would have been suggested.

Figure 15: Net Migration Rate of India 1950-2010



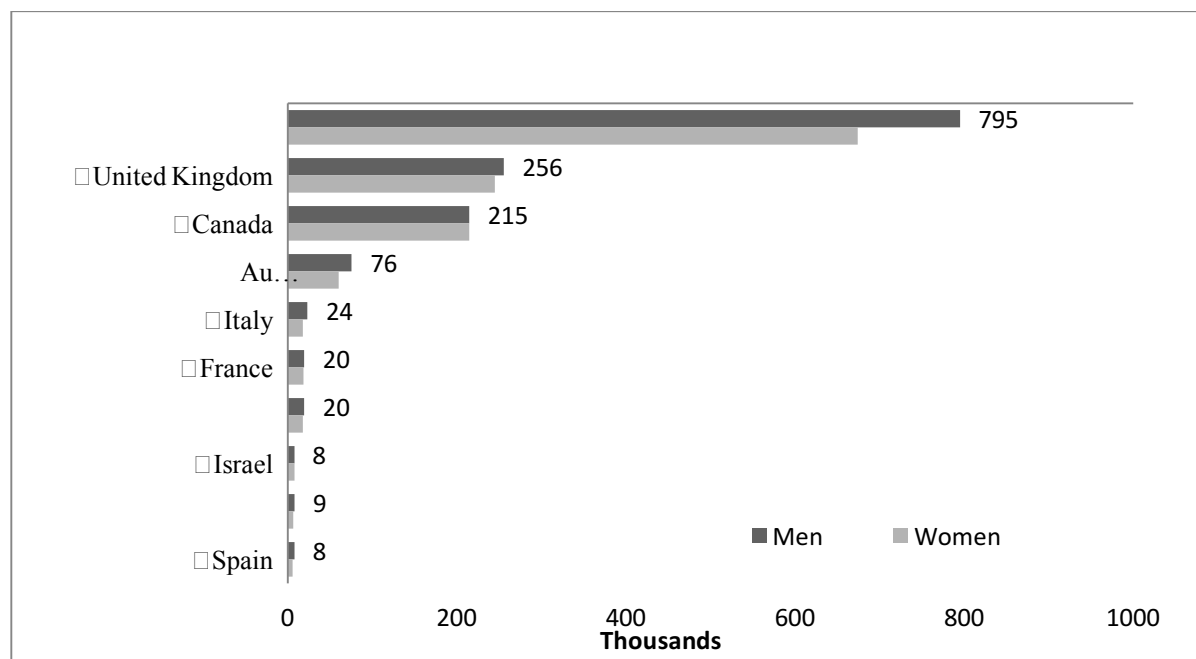
Source: UN DESA: World Population Prospects, 2013

According to Figure 15, the NMR of India was negative from 1950 to 1970 and huge migration was then seen during the period from 1970 to 1975, which later reduced to lowest positive in 1985-90. Afterwards more people were leaving India than were entering and larger number of people started to emigration from 2000 onward till 2010.

According to UNDES-OECD [2013], almost all emigrants to OECD in 2010-11 were highly educated and one-fifth of them were originating from India, China and the Philippines. The total numbers of emigrants from India to OECD are 3.4 million. Among these total 3.4 million emigrants from India, about 2.08 million are highly educated and the emigration rate of highly educated population is 3.2 against common rate of 0.4. About 1.6 million of total emigrants are women among which 0.923 million are highly educated. The emigration rate of highly educated women is 3.8, which is higher than overall rate of highly educated population from India to OECD [World Bank, 2011].

Indian people mostly migrate to OECD countries, particularly the skilled population. The top ten destinations are sorted out by OECD [2012] in a report “Connecting with Emigrants: A Global Profile of Diasporas”. These top countries are given in the Figure 16.

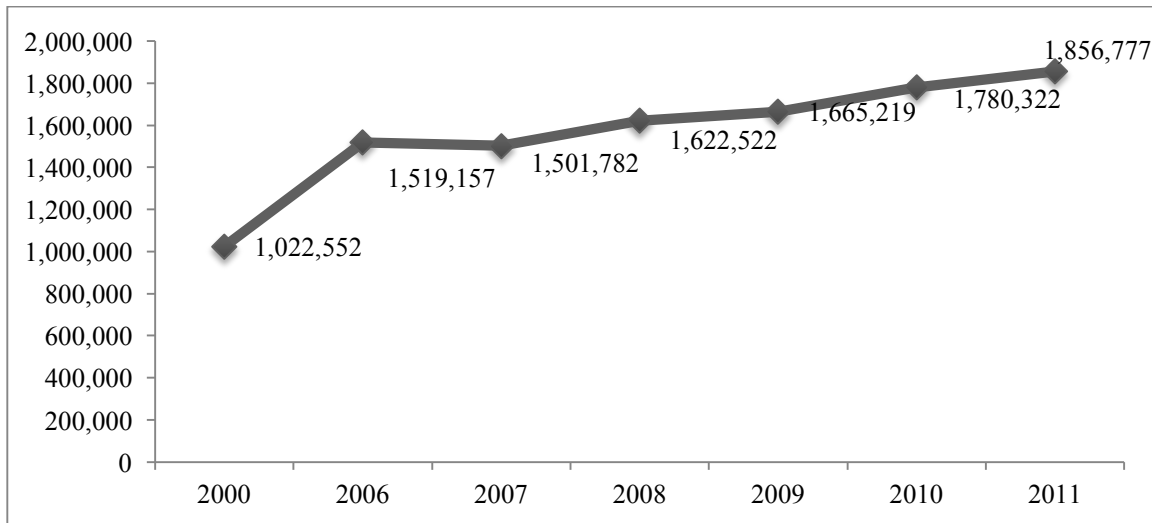
Figure 16: Top Destinations of Indian Emigrants 2005-06



Source: OECD, 2012

United States hosts the largest segment of Indian emigrants. According to Migration Policy Institute [MPI], there are about 1.9 million Indian living in the United States in 2011 and is the third largest immigrant group by country of origin behind Mexico and China. The history of Indian emigration is enriched and different events in the sub-continent have impact on the Indian emigration patterns. The Indian diaspora in the United States is considered people from sub-continent except Pakistan and Bangladesh; therefore it is hard to segregate people from other sub-continent countries like Sri Lanka, Nepal, Bhutan and Maldives. The statistics, given below in the Figure 17, deal with the overall development in magnitude of Indian emigrants to US as per findings of the different surveys of US Census Bureau. There is a constant increase and almost linear increase in the number of Indian emigrants to the United States over the years except 2006 and 2007 when the number of emigrants to United States lowered from the value of previous year.

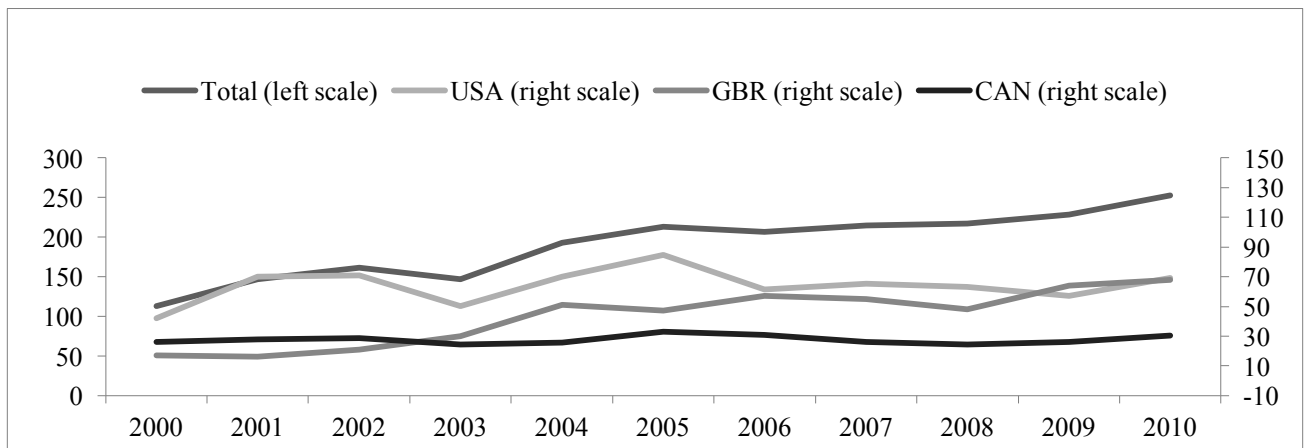
Figure 17: Indian Emigrants to USA 2000-2011



Source: Compiled from MPI's Data Hub: Migration Facts, Stats and Maps, 2011

From the base value of 2000, the number of emigrants increased to almost double and the trend can be predicted as increasing. MPI also have compiled the Indian emigrants' data by their country of destination⁵. Among, total Indian emigrants 49.8 percent were living in the United Kingdom, 18.1 percent in Germany, and 11.7 percent in Italy. Of total outside Europe, the 41.6 percent were living in the United States, 18.6 percent in Canada and less than 4.5 percent in Australia and 3.3 percent in New Zealand. Figure 18 provides the statistics on the legal flow of emigrants to the OECD countries.

Figure 18: Legal Migrant Flows to OECD [in '000]



Source: OECD, 2012

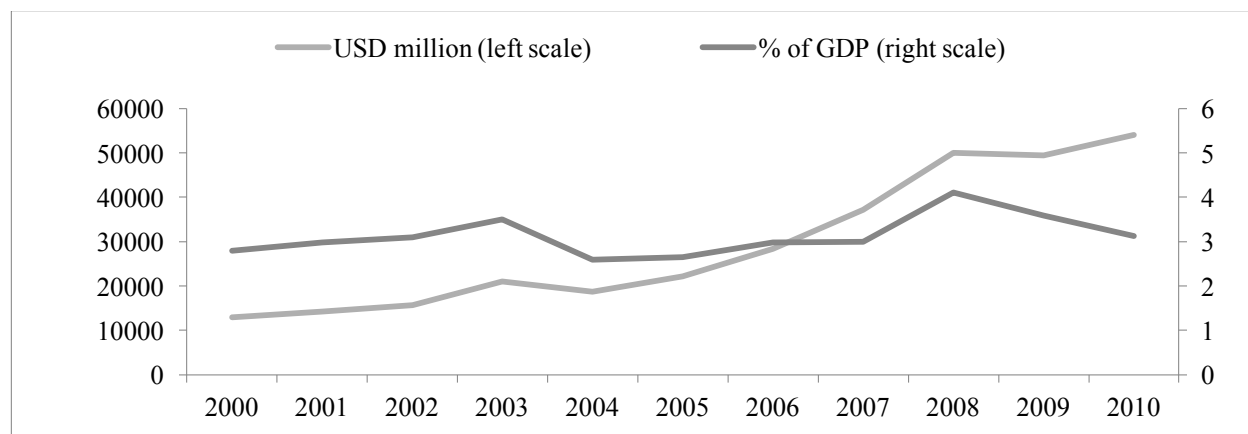
According to Figure 18, the total legal emigration from India to OECD countries increased from about 147 thousand to more than 250 thousand from 2000 to 2010-a full decade. The highest point

⁵ Data can be seen at www.migrationpolicy.org/article/emigration-immigration-and-diaspora-relations-india

for the United States was in 2005 when the about 84 thousand Indian emigrants were in the United States and this number is the highest among other years and in 2010, exactly 68 thousand Indian were living as immigrants in the United States.

This diaspora of emigrants are the vital source of ever increasing remittances that are being influx into Indian economy every year. As reported above, the Indian remittances were estimated to be hitting 71 billion US\$ in 2013, Figure 19 shows the pattern of the remittances for a decade till 2010. The figure also shows the remittances as portion of GDP for the same period.

Figure 19: Remittances Flows and Remittances [percent of GDP]



Source: OECD's report on Connecting with Emigrants: A Global Profile of Diasporas, 2012

According to the statistics, the remittances sent to India increased to more than 54 thousand million US\$ in 2010 from 12883 million US\$ in 2000. This increase is more than 4 times of the value in 2000. The rapid increase in remittances can be seen from 2004 to 2008 when remittances moved up from 18750 million to 49977 million. This pattern remained the same from 2008 to 2009. There is another important story of remittances as percentage of the country's GDP. The remittances are increasing but its percentage revolves around 3 and 4 percent of GDP of India. The ever since highest remittances sent by Indians before 2010 was in 2008 and in this year, these remittances were the highest percentage of GDP i.e. 4.1 percent. After 2008, as the remittances increased from previous values in 2010, the share of remittances as part of GDP reduced to 3.1 percent. This means that Indian overall economic progress has made the remittances as smaller portion of the overall GDP. The Indian economy also flourished during the last six to seven years. The economic growth was estimated to be 8.8 percent in 2010.

Table 12: Labour Market Dynamics of Indian Emigrants [working age]

Population 15-64		2000			2005/06		
		Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Employment-population ratio [percent]		81.9	54.4	68.9	85.7	57.4	72.5
Unemployment rate [percent]		4.7	7.9	5.9	4.6	9.0	6.3
Participation rate [percent]		86.0	59.0	73.2	89.9	63.0	77.4
<i>Total employed [000]</i>		<i>737.7</i>	<i>442.8</i>	<i>1,180.5</i>	<i>1,102.7</i>	<i>640.9</i>	<i>1,743.6</i>
Employment rates of the highly-educated [percent]		88.6	61.5	76.8	95.0	68.8	83.3
Unemployment rates of the highly-educated [percent]		3.0	6.5	4.3	3.3	8.0	5.0
Highly-educated in low- and medium-skilled jobs [percent]		21.7	33.7	25.9	23.6	31.9	26.5
<i>Highly-educated Employed [000]</i>		<i>474.8</i>	<i>254.2</i>	<i>729.0</i>	<i>803.3</i>	<i>442.3</i>	<i>1,245.6</i>
Distribution of employment by occupation [percent], population 15+	Legislators, senior officials and managers	15.0	8.6	12.4	12.9	6.8	10.5
	Professionals	19.8	14.5	17.7	20.9	16.8	19.3
	Life science and health professionals	6.7	4.9	6.0	6.4	6.4	6.4
	Teaching professionals	2.4	5.0	3.4	1.4	4.8	2.7
	Technicians and associate professionals	8.8	10.9	9.7	9.5	15.9	12.0
	Clerks	6.4	19.4	11.7	6.5	18.6	11.2
	Service, shop and market sales workers	8.3	17.2	11.9	10.0	11.6	10.6
	Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	1.3	1.3	1.3	2.5	4.4	3.2
	Craft and related trades workers	10.5	2.1	7.1	8.0	3.9	6.4
	Plant and machine operators and assemblers	17.3	11.4	14.9	16.5	8.4	13.3
Elementary occupations	12.7	14.5	13.4	12.2	13.2	12.6	

Source: OECD, 2012

Table 12 gives comparative statistics on different indicators of labour market dynamics of Indian people living in other countries of OECD. The employment to population ratio of Indian emigrants improved from about 69 percent to about 73 percent from in five to six years from 2000. The economic participation rate also improved from 73 to more than 77 percent in the same period of time. The participation rate of men and women also improved but gender gap remained the same [both male and female participation rates increased by about 4 percentage points in a half a decade].

Unemployment rate increased for women in 2005-6, however this may has links with the increasing number of women emigrants. What particular implication that we can extract from the behaviour of the women emigrant is the sub-continental behaviour where women intends to stay at home when there is a particular or constant flow of income coming from men's participation into economic activities. The women moving or joining their already emigrant men can opt to stay at home and look after for home and children. The unemployment rate for men is unchanged rather removed from 0.01 percent. Total employed Indian emigrants into developed countries increased from 1180 thousand to 1744 thousand from 2000 to 2005-6. This is an increase of 604 thousand or 0.6 million Indian emigrants.

The highly educated group has different employment and economic activity wise characteristics. The number of highly educated Indian emigrants increased from 729 thousand in 2000 to 1246 thousand in 2005-6. This is an increase of 517 thousand or 0.517 million highly educated emigrants from India to developed countries of OECD.

The distribution of different professional cadres remains unchanged significantly on different times of 2000 and 2005-6, however skilled agricultural and fishery workers from 1.3 to 3.2 percent in this period. Most Indian emigrants move in the professional cadres.

Emigrants do have characteristics of no engaged in jobs that they qualify for and are able to do due to lack of home country specific skills, lack of experience and jobs in the market that can be filled from emigrants. The emigrants with documentation issues are most vulnerable to work in cadres that require low skills than the skills emigrants possess. In case of Indian emigrants, 26 percent were working in low and medium-skill jobs and this percentage increased to 26.5 percent in 2005. The employment rates of highly educated have increased significantly from 2000 in 2005-6. The men employment rate has increased to 95 percent from 87 percent and female employment rate is also increased from about 62 to 69 percent in the half a decade. At the same time, the unemployment rate of highly educated Indian emigrants also increased. This may has links with the increasing number of highly educated Indians migrating over the years. Table 32 is based on OECD data for 2000 and 2005-6.

Table 13: Main Destinations for Indian Emigrants 2005-6

Population 15+	Total		Recent Emigrants	Women	Highly-educated	15-24	Total in 2000
	Thousands	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent	Thousands
United States	1469.2	52.9	27.4	45.9	74.2	9.2	958.1
United Kingdom	500.7	18.0	28.8	48.9	54.9	7.2	454.5
Canada	430.1	15.5	26.3	50.0	50.2	9.3	306.9
Australia	136.4	4.9	39.9	44.5	66.5	15.9	88.2
Italy	41.9	1.5	42.5	43.9	4.7	22.5	24.0
France	38.6	1.4	19.3	48.9	23.2	15.4	26.4
New Zealand	37.9	1.4	60.8	47.8	54.1	15.5	18.4
Israel	16.4	0.6	13.6	51.7	20.6	4.2	18.7
Switzerland	15.2	0.5	46.9	43.5	53.3	11.4	7.2
Spain	14.5	0.5	26.6	42.2	29.4	-	7.8

Source: OECD, 2012

Table 13 shows the data on Indian emigrants by the favourite destination. All favourite destinations are from OECD countries and Israel is one of the OECD destinations for Indian emigrants with currently about 16.4 thousand Indians are living in Israel and this number was about 19 thousand in 2000. This means that Israel does not remain the priority destination because except Israel, all other countries have seen more Indian in total in 2005-6 than in 2000. Highest increase was seen in the United States and then Canada have also seen more than 123 thousand more Indian than it was in 2000. United Kingdom has seen a moderate increase of 48 thousand Indian emigrants in the period specified while Australia was the third most favourite destination

measured in terms of magnitude of Indian emigrants who immigrated to Australia from 2000 to 2005-6.

In terms of emigration of highly educated Indians, the top countries appeared as the United States, Australia, United Kingdom, New Zealand and Switzerland. The least number of highly educated Indian moved to Italy. Movement of Indian women reveals interesting statistics. Israel is the top country where about 53 percent of Indian emigrants are women. Second top choice for Indian women is Canada, third is France and fourth is United Kingdom. More young people with of age 15-24 choose Italy as their destination country, second favourite destination for young Indian is Australia. New Zealand and Switzerland are two top countries with recent Indian emigrants.

Students move from all over the world to all over the world. Since India is a largest country in the South Asian region and its higher educational aspirations and statistics are better in the context of South Asia, it would be worthwhile to look at the student movement across the world of Indian origin. Table 14 has specific statistics compiled and reported by OECD [2012].

Table 14: Indian Students Moving Abroad

5 main destinations	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
United States	79 736	84 044	79 219	85 687	94 664	101 563
United Kingdom	14 625	16 685	19 204	23 833	25 901	34 065
Australia	15 742	20 515	22 357	24 523	26 520	26 573
New Zealand	1 698	1 563	1 777	2 452	4 094	5 710
Canada	1 271	..	2 826	1 812	3 219	3 501
Total	114 398	124 536	127 625	141 086	161 902	180 138

Source: OECD, 2012

The main destinations where Indian students move to seek their higher studies are given in table 14. Table shows trending over the year 2009. The increasing number of students moving aboard every year is increasing with some year breakups. For example, for United States, the number of students was more in 2005 as in 2004 but were less in 2006 than in 2005 but in overall the trends for each country has increased in total number of Indian students. In overall, the total students in the above mentioned destinations were more than 0.114 million which increased to more than 0.18 million in 2009. This means that more than 57 percent increase was seen in the period between 2004 and 2009.

At last but not least, we can sort out the trends on desire to emigrate of Indian population. According to the statistics reported by OECD [2012], three percent of women have shown desire to emigrate permanently if they had the chance to do so, 9 percent young people desires so, and importantly highly educated has the highest rate—13 percent. In overall, 11 percent are planning to emigrant in the next 12 months and 40 percent of them have already done some preparations for this move.

According to Global Competitiveness Report 2014-15, the 7th pillar of competitiveness is ‘Labour Market Efficiency’. In the sub-category of 7th Pillar called, ‘Efficient use of talent’ there are two indicators that may have some relationship with the emigration rates of the countries. These

indicators are: country's capacity to retain talent; and country's capacity to attract talent. In addition to these two indicators, there are also indicators like 'pay and productivity', 'reliance on professional management', and 'female participation in labour force'. All of these indicators may be discussed in the overall level of out migration particularly of the productive and skilled labour force. The statistics extracted from the World Economic Forum's [2014, p. 213] 'Global Competitiveness Report' are given in Table 15.

Table 15: Ranking of India on Labour Market Efficiency [total economies 144]

Factor	Ranking [Score]
Pay and productivity	69 [4.0]
Reliance on professional management	77 [4.2]
Ability to retain talent	42 [3.9]
Ability to attract talent	46 [3.8]
Women in labour force, ratio to men	136 [0.36]

Source: Global Competitiveness Report, 2014

The close to one [1] ranking means that country is doing perfectly good on particular indicator. India is worse on 'women in labour force, ratio to men' indicator, which shows that Indian economy is closed for women to participate. India's ability to 'retain' and 'attract' talent are close to each other. Country's ability to retain talent is 42nd in 144 positions which is quite good ranking and to attract talent India stands at 46th position which is also put India to a favourable country to stay and work, however the indicators that are linked with the working environment in the country are not showing good standing, like pay and productivity is at bit lower level and reliance on professional management is also regressed to a more lower rank of 77/144.

The expatriation rate of Indian nurses and doctors to OECD is 8.0 percent and according to a report by OECD [2012] 55,794 nurses and doctors were living and working in OECD countries in 2000.

According to a report by OECD [2013] "International Migration Outlook 2013", the expatriation rate [per million population] in 2011 for India was 196. The Indian emigrants living in OECD were 212 thousand in 2007, 227 thousand in 2009 and 240 thousand in 2011. The Indian emigrants constitute 4.7 percent of the total inflow into OECD in 2011.

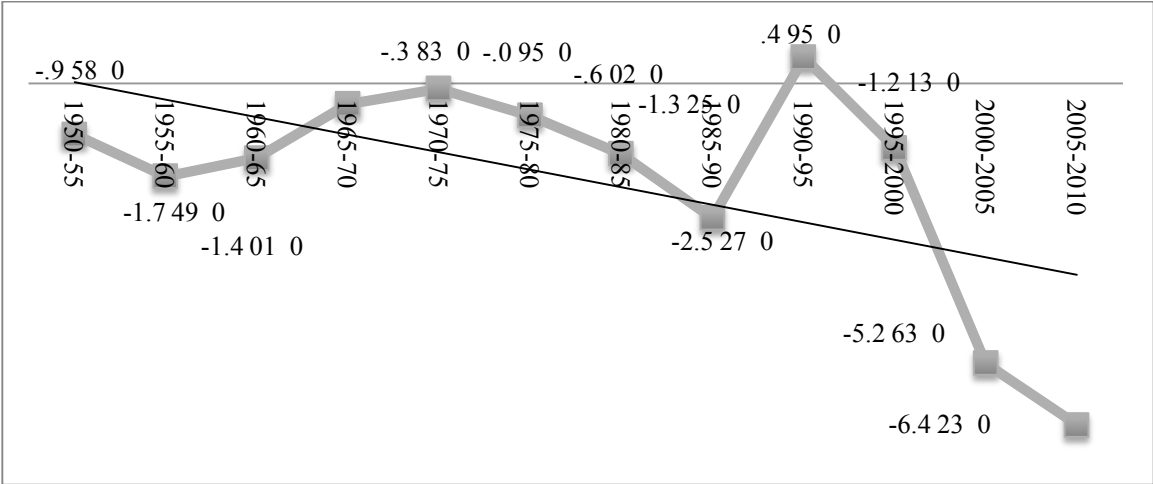
India is the largest country also in terms of sending its people to other countries. The Indian communities in the United States and other OECD countries are well organized and are connected to their homeland through different channels including the channels like diaspora associations/organizations etc. The most of Indian in the United States, for example, are doctors and professionals from Information Technology field. There is also seen the trend of entrepreneurship started in the IT sector by Indian in the countries of destination. The trends show increasing level of precipitation of Indian people in the favourite destinations around the world.

Maldives

The total population of the Maldives is 345,023 with total GDP 2.3 billion US\$ and GDP per capita of about US\$ 6,666 in 2013. The life expectancy of Maldives is about 77.6 years [2012] [World Bank, 2013].

In order to get some basic understanding of the emigration from the Maldives, the best option is to look initially at its Net Migration Rate. Net migration rate is the difference between immigrants and emigrants in a specific period of time, divided by 1000 population members. The NMR with positive value shows that there are more people coming to the country than leaving and if the value is negative, it means that more people are leaving the country than are joining. The data based on UN DESA [2013], the net migration of Maldives revolves around positive and negative values on different times. Figure 20 provides the statistics on NMR for Maldives.

Figure 20: Net Migration Rate of Maldives



Source: UN DESA, 2013

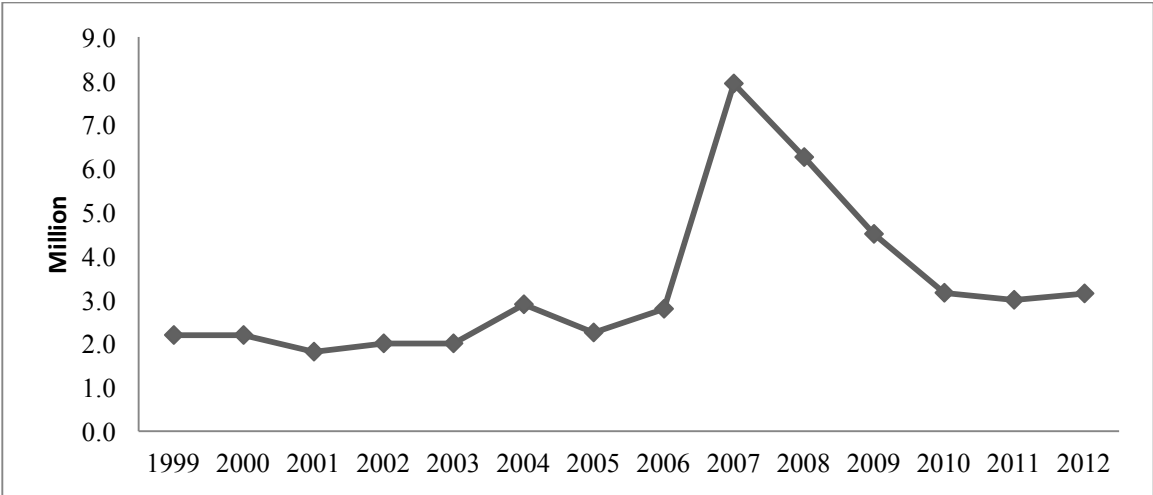
Figure 20 shows that, most of the time from 1950 to 2010, the NMR remains below the reference line i.e. it is negative except during 1970-75 when the people coming to Maldives were more than the people who were leaving. The value 3.89 means that by 1000 people, about 3.89 were coming to Maldives and highest negative value is -5.38 during 1965-70, which means that more than 5 people were leaving Maldives for every 1000 population. The characteristics of the people who leave country do have some specific implications for the overall policies that deal with human resource development and other policies that determine the standard of living and relevant indicators.

According to UN DESA [2013], the total emigrant stock of Maldivians living in other countries was 7097 in 2013. It was 6658 in 2010 and just 4122 in 2000. The emigrant stock in 2013 was 72 percent higher than what was in 2000; however the magnitude of the migrant stock is marginal with respect to the other SAARC member countries. This may be due to the reason that Maldivians emigration is not linked with any conflict or movement of people due to political and/or ethnic issues which is a good condition in terms of people who otherwise would have been refuging and migrating. The expatriation rate for people of Maldives to OECD was 1.9 in 2000 [OECD, 2012].

People, who are living abroad, show affiliation with their home countries by sending remittances. The remittances are sent to family members who are living in home countries. The emigrants who have more affiliations with their home countries due to properties, strong family ties, marriage, and business investment are more intended to send remittances. Emigrants of Maldives also send

remittances to home countries. According to World Bank [2014] data, the remittances sent back to home by Maldivian emigrants is given in the Figure 21. The Figure illustrates on the trends of remittances being sent to Maldives from 1983 to 2012. The remittances are measured in current USD [2012 value]. Highest remittances inflow was seen during the year 2007 which is the only year creating the unusual bounce in the trend-line. Maldivians sent the lowest numbers of dollars in years 1986-87.

Figure 21: Remittances Flow of Maldivian Emigrants



Source: World Bank, 2014

It is hard to find Maldives specific data on emigrants due to small number of emigrants, in compared with other regional countries. Another reason for the lack of specific data is that most of the diaspora is reported as Indian diaspora that includes the emigrants from sub-continent except countries of India, Pakistan, and Bangladesh.

According to a report by Asian Development Bank Institute [2014], there were about 1000 people with age 15+ year emigrants from Maldives to OECD 2005-6, among which 50 percent were men, 7.6 percent were those with low educational background, and 70.9 percent were those with high education. The percentage of young people, aged 15-24 years, was 15.5 percent. The only one thing is remarkable in these statistics and is that of the emigrants with high educational background. The highest portion of Maldivian emigrants to OECD was of those of highly educated.

The same report shows the emigration rates by countries of origin and by their level of education. The overall rate of Maldivian nationals to OECD is 0.5 percent. Emigration rate with low education is 0.1 percent, with intermediate education, it is 0.3 percent and for high education group, the emigration rate is of 24.5 percent which is the second highest after Sri Lanka from the SAARC region [ADBI, 2014].

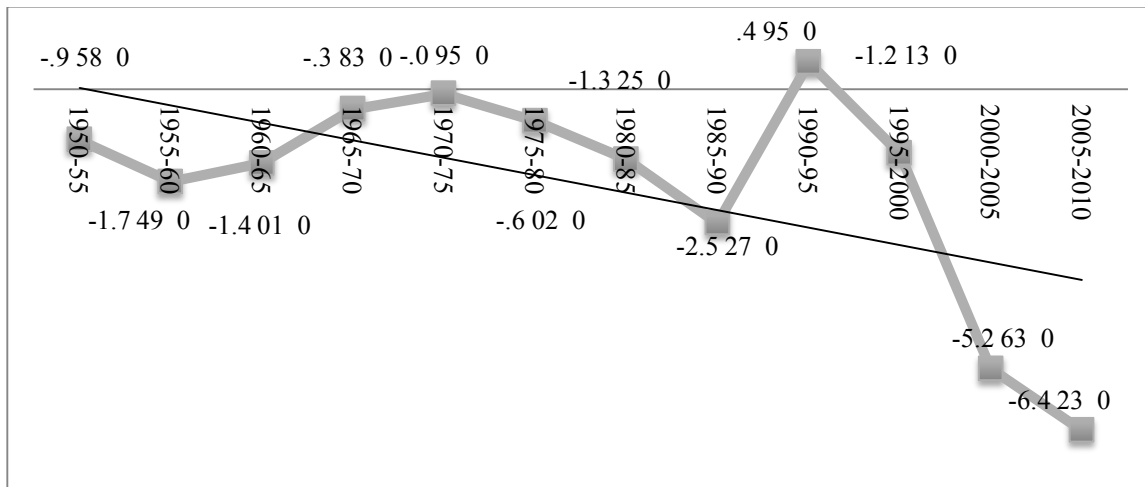
According to Statistics Canada [2014], there were total 3 Maldivians in 2007 and the number remains the same in 2012 as well. This shows that data on Maldivian emigrants is very limited to extract from all reliable and mostly available resources due to their low numbers and distribution across the world.

Nepal

The total population of Nepal is 27.9 million, and its GDP is 19.3 billion US\$ with per capita income of 693 US\$ and its GDP constitute 0.05 percent of the world's GDP [World Economic Forum, 2014].

Net Migration Rate of Nepal can be looked at to reveal the overall migration phenomenon over the years. According to the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs [UNDESA], 2013, the NMR of Nepal is given below in the Figure 22.

Figure 22: Net Migration Rate of Nepal



Source: UN DESA, 2013

Figure 22 illustrates the overall trend of the out and in migration for Nepal from 1950 to 2010. These statistics are reported by UN DESA [2013] under the theme of 'World Population Prospects: The 2012 Revisions. The data shows that never in the history, one can see the positive NMR for Nepal. The people leaving Nepal were always higher than the people coming to Nepal.

Only during the period covering from 1990 to 1995, the NMR was positive but marginal 0.495 means that only 0.4955 people were coming to Nepal against 1000 population of Nepal. The highest out-migration can be seen started right after 1995 and was reached highest in 2010 to more than 6 people leaving Nepal per 1000 Nepali population. There were other patches as well, which have seen about 2 or more than 2 people leaving the Nepal.

Since, it is evident from the data above mentioned that there is a potential out migration happening in the Nepal over the years. This means that socioeconomic indicators might have some relation with the out migration phenomenon. According to the comparative statistics given by OECD [2012], the global and regional ranking is given below.

Table 16: Nepal Social and Economic Comparative Ranking

Nepal compared to:	World	Region
Human Development Index [HDI]	157/187	30/31
GDP per capita	176/194	33/33

Emigration rate	180/203	31/38
Emigration rate of the highly-educated	104/157	14/25

Source: OECD, 2012

The reason for reporting the statistics given in the table above are to look at the determinants of emigration that may be defined by the quality of life in Nepal. Nepal was 157th among 187 countries on Human Development Index and was the second last for regional rankings. The per capita income is low and put Nepal into the low-income countries and it's at the last position for its regional ranking on per capita income. Its ranking regarding emigration rate is 180th among 203 countries and is 31st among 38 regional countries. Most importantly the emigration rate of highly educated people is more than other countries of the region and that's why its ranking has tendency to top the positions.

The ranking developed by the World Economic Forum [2014] for different pillars of the economies of the world, has put Nepal on comparative stage as well. This report considered the 7th pillar of the economy 'The Labour Market Efficiency' as considered and assumed having positive link with the emigration characteristics of the countries. The indicators that define this 7th pillar of the economies of the world are given in the Table 17.

Table 17: Ranking of Nepal on 'Labour Market Efficiency' [total economies 144]

Factor	Ranking [Score]
Pay and productivity	128 [3.1]
Reliance on professional management	118 [3.4]
Ability to retain talent	116 [2.7]
Ability to attract talent	131 [2.3]
Women in labour force, ratio to men	17 [0.93]

Source: World Competitiveness Report, 2014

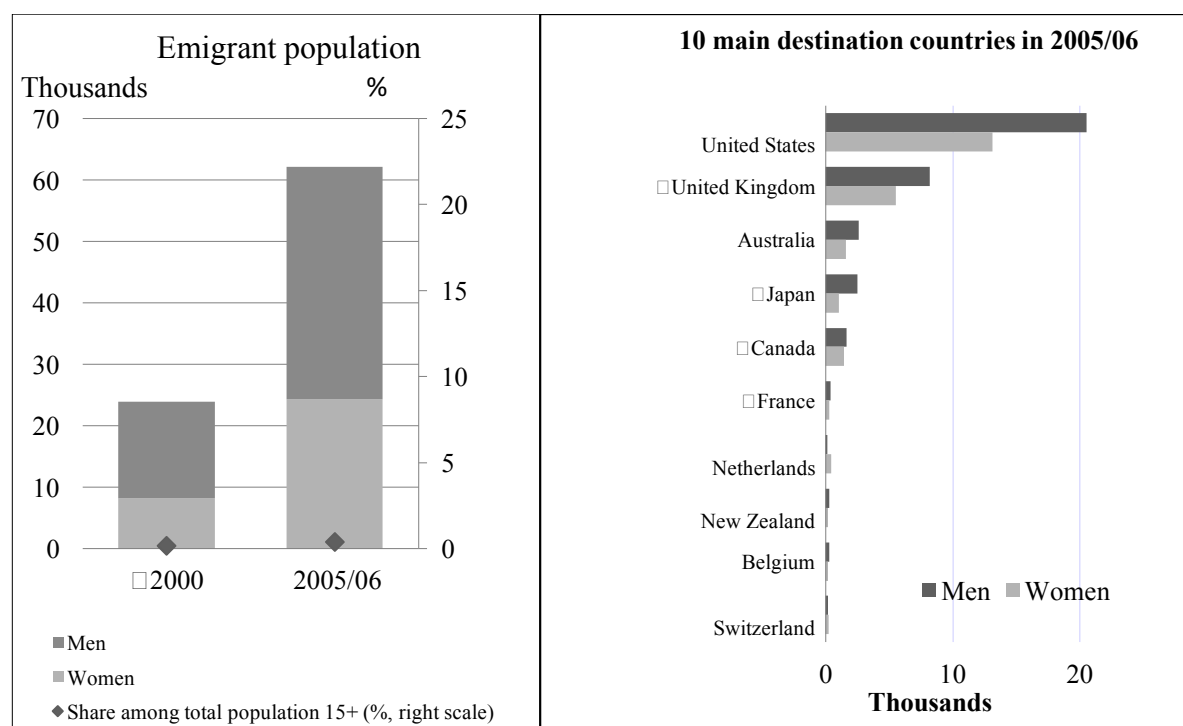
The ranking reported in the Table 17 shows that Nepal is not doing well on all of the factors that determine its labour market efficiency, as defined by World Economic Forum, except for one indicator that is the ratio of women to men in the labour market. The data shows that Nepali women participate in the labour market most closely with men and the gap between male and female participation rates is low. Country is doing badly on retaining its talent and its position is further worsened for the factor to retrain talent. The high rate of emigration for highly educated people is linked with the pay and productivity, and professional management factors of labour market efficiency—which are lowest for people to be attracted and finding professional goals while staying in Nepal.

According to a report by OECD [2013] on 'International Migration Outlook, 2013, the Nepali emigrants in OECD were 17 thousand in 2007, 22 thousand in 2009 and 29 thousand in 2011. Nepali emigrants make 0.6 percent of all inflow to OECD in 2011 and expatriation rate [per million population] in 2011 for Nepali emigrants was 979 which are quite remarkable in the case of South Asian emigration phenomenon.

Another report by OECD [2012] shows the trends on different aspects of migration for 2000 and 2005-6. The figure below shows the emigrant population of Nepal living in different countries of OECD. The men emigrate more than women as we can predict from the data given in first half of

the figure below. The emigrant population of Nepal was 0.16 percent of the total 15+ of year population of OECD and this percentage increased to 0.37 in 2005-6.

Figure 23: Emigration Population of Nepal and Main Destination of Emigrants



Source: OECD, 2012

The first part of the figure also illustrates that total emigrant population of Nepal has increased from 23.78 thousand in 2000 to 62.08 thousand in 2005-6. This means that more than 38 thousand Nepali people emigrated to OECD during this time period. The favourite destinations include United States, United Kingdom and Australia. Japan and Canada do have substantial number of Nepalese living and working there. The trends of women emigrants also follow the same patterns. The following table can provide a great understanding to the overall level and magnitude of the Nepali emigration phenomenon.

Table 18: Emigrant Population: People Born in Nepal Living Abroad

Indicators	2000						2005-06		
	All destinations			OECD destinations			OECD destinations		
Population 15+	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population [000]	314.8	339.7	654.4	15.7	8.2	23.9	37.7	24.4	62.1
Recent emigrants [000]	5.6	3.1	8.7	17.4	14.4	31.7
15-24 [percent]	35.3	33.8	34.6	24.2	23.6	24.0	17.6	26.1	21.0
25-64 [percent]	64.6	66.1	65.4	75.0	75.2	75.0	81.5	73.0	78.1
65+ [percent]	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.9	1.2	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.9
Low-educated [percent]	59.1	80.8	70.3	20.9	26.3	22.8	13.4	23.9	17.5

Highly-educated [percent]	2.3	1.0	1.6	44.3	37.4	41.9	53.9	36.2	46.9
Total emigration rates [percent]	4.3	4.4	4.3	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.5	0.3	0.4
Emigration rates of highly educated [percent]	2.1	4.2	2.5	1.9	3.7	2.2	5.7	7.6	6.2

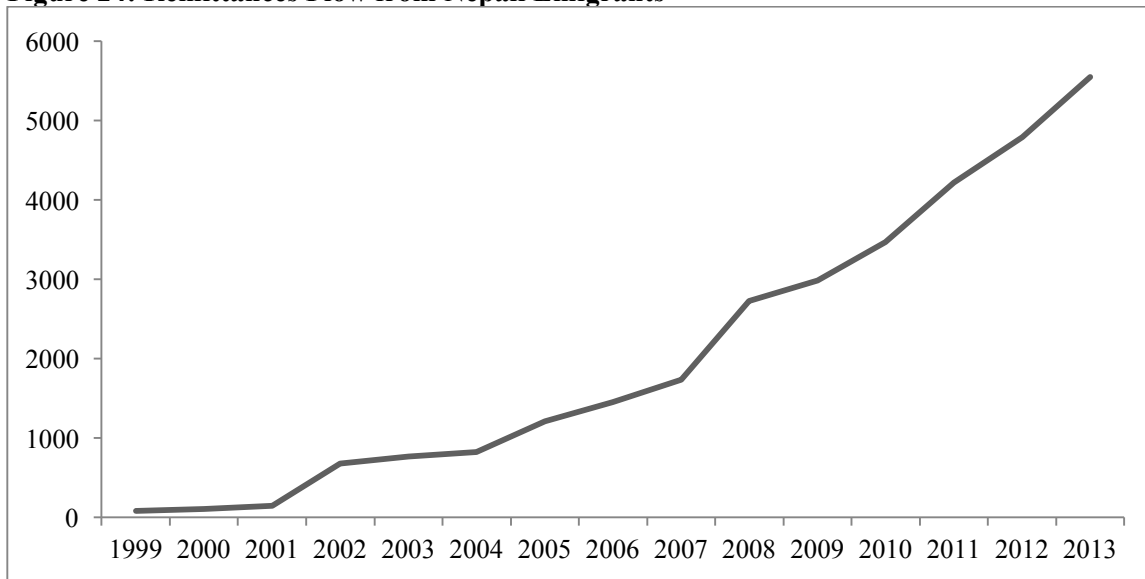
Source: OECD, 2012

Table 18 shows the emigrant population of Nepal at two different times. The 2000 statistics differentiate between total numbers of emigrants living in all over the world and in OECD countries and 2005-6 statistics are reported for OECD countries only. The data does not include children up to the age of less than 15. The data shows that women out-number men for emigration for all destinations across the world as 339.7 thousand Nepali emigrants are women against 314.8 thousand men while in OECD countries, the men out-number women. As other data shows, the Nepali emigrants living in OECD are mostly highly educated therefore; the trends of Nepali emigrants in OECD and other parts of the world differ. It is also important to note that total OECD Nepali emigrants increased more than double from 2000 to 2006. Another important point is to note that number of women in OECD increased substantially from 2000 to 2005/06. The highest percent of the Nepali emigrants are from age 25-64 years and this trend holds for Nepali emigrants in other parts of the world as well. The young Nepali emigrants are about 35 percent living in out of OECD while their percentage is reduced from 24 percent to 21 percent in OECD from 2000 to 2005-06.

Table 18 also shows that highly educated Nepali in OECD increased over the time while the percentage of low-educated is reduced. The out of OECD destinations mostly, more than 70 percent host low-educated Nepali emigrants and host only about 2 percent highly educated emigrants.

Over the year, the emigration rate of highly educated Nepalese also increased substantially. It increased from 2.2 percent to more than 6 percent in the specific period mentioned in Table 18. The emigration rate of highly educated to out of OECD destination was higher in 2000 compared to OECD destinations but in 2005-06, this rate increased from 2.2 percent to 6.2 percent and of women from that of 3.7 percent to 7.6 percent.

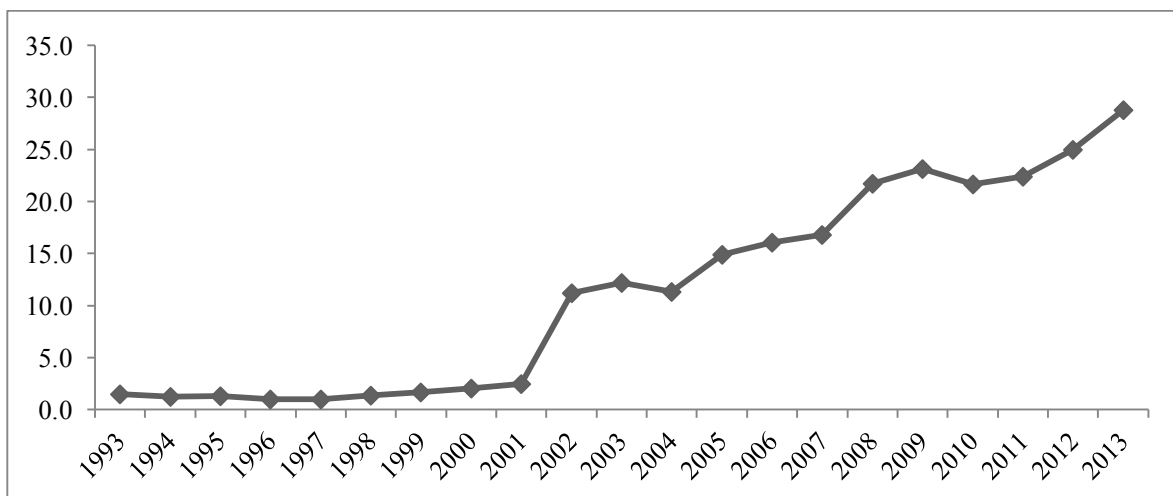
Figure 24: Remittances Flow from Nepali Emigrants



Source: World Bank, 2014

Remittances to developing countries made a substantial part in the overall GDP of the countries. The GDP of the Nepal is also substantially represented by remittances sent back home by people who live and work in other countries. The figure below shows the trends that remittances represent the GDP as percentage of its contribution. The overall remittances sent back to Nepal has increased remarkably, like the total remittances were about 111 million US\$ in 2000 and in 2013, this value increased to more than 5551 million US\$-increase of more than 4900 times in thirteen years.

Figure 25: Nepal Remittances as Percentage of GDP



Source: World Bank, 2013

The Figure 25 displays that there was a steady but consistent share of remittances in overall GDP of Nepal from year 1993 to 2001 and then there is a rapid jump. This jump has obvious reasons

that are linked with the more than 5 times increase in the magnitude of remittances sent in 2002 from its base value of 2001. From 2002 onward there is a regular increase in the remittances and this increase is reflected in the overall increase of it in the share of GDP that reaches to about 29 percent in 2013. The remittances to Nepal are the highest percentage of GDP as compared to other regional countries i.e. the SAARC Member States.

Most of the Nepali emigrants move to destinations in the Middle East and Asia with some countries of OECD but the distribution of Nepalese working in out of OECD is substantially higher. Table 19 given below is from the Nepal Migration Yearbook 2010 [2011] which shows the distribution of the Nepali emigrants by the destination countries. Table 20, however, shows the number of working age population who were born in Nepal but living in OECD. Why not the Nepal Migration Yearbook 2010 report these number, is due to the reason that Nepal issues labour permits to Nepalese going abroad for work but people in living and working in OECD are those who migrated not through labour permits but through skilled stream programs, studies, employment, family channels.

Table 19: Nepali Migrant Workers by Destination

Country	Male	Female	Total
Afghanistan	472	0	472
Algeria	35	0	35
Bahrain	16554	119	16673
Hong Kong	86	32	118
<i>Japan</i>	16	6	22
Jordan	249	0	249
Kuwait	3916	8	3924
Lebanon	756	867	1623
Libya	1185	0	1185
Macau	39	0	39
Malaysia	145,942	996	146,938
Maldives	45	0	45
Mauritius	33	0	33
Oman	1276	2	1278
Pakistan	145	0	145
Poland	27	31	58
Qatar	26964	29	26993
<i>Russia</i>	8	0	8
Saudi Arabia	46040	7	46047
Seychelles	28	0	28
United Arab Emirates	20936	410	21346
<i>United States of America</i>	22	0	22
South Korea	2118	0	2118

Source: Nepal Migration Yearbook, 2010

Table 19 above shows the number of Nepali migrants who moved abroad through Labour Permits issued by departmental authorities of Nepal and it does not show the Nepalese living and working in OECD countries who moved not through labour permits. In order to describe the situation of those Nepalese who are living and working in OECD, this report discusses Table 19. The OECD countries where Nepalese are working through Labour Permits are shown in *Italics*.

For highly educated Nepalese moving out, the data comes from Department of Immigration and Border Protection, Government of Australia [2013]. According to report 'Migration to Australia's States and Territories 2012-13' Nepal is one of the top ten countries for skill stream permanent additions to New South Wales for 2010 to 2012. For 2010-11, 1135 Nepalese were given permanent residence under skilled stream, 1062 in 2011-12 and 1517 for year 2012-13. There were 64 permanent additions to Tasmania from Nepal in 2012-13 and 39 under the skilled stream added to Tasmania. In Northern Territories, 332 permanent residences were awarded to Nepali emigrants under the Skilled Stream while this number was 131 for Australian Capital Territories for years 2010-2013.

Table 20 focuses particularly on Nepali working age population in OECD countries. The employment to population ratio for Nepalese has increased from about 67 percent to about 71 percent from 2000 to 2005-6 and this increase is not evident for Nepali women in OECD and their unemployment rate increased from about 9 percent to 13 percent. The overall labour force participation rate increased from about 72 percent to about 77 percent and there was about 2.8 percent increase in the participation rate of women.

There is no much difference between unemployment rate of overall Nepali labour force and that of highly educated, however the increase for such unemployment rate can be observed for women who had left its impact on overall unemployment rate of highly educated. The percentage of Nepali labour force in OECD who was engaged in low and medium skilled jobs remains the same in 2000 and in 2005-6.

The important point to note is that the numbers of highly educated employed has increased from 6.2 thousand in 2000 to 21.3 thousand in 2005-6 and this increase in employment is mostly observed for men with a moderate increase in employment of women as well.

Table 20: Labour Market Indicators of Persons Born in Nepal Living in OECD Countries

		2000			2005/06		
Population 15-64		Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Employment-population ratio [percent]		74.4	55.1	67.6	81.6	55.5	71.3
Unemployment rate [percent]		5.8	8.9	6.7	4.5	13.0	7.3
Participation rate [percent]		79.0	60.5	72.4	85.5	63.8	76.9
Total employed [thousands]		9.7	4.0	13.7	27.9	12.5	40.4
Employment rates of the highly-educated [percent]		77.7	60.8	72.3	90.0	73.8	85.0
Unemployment rates of highly-educated [percent]		4.8	8.9	5.9	4.9	12.1	6.8
Highly-educated in low & medium skilled job [percent]		39.9	49.6	42.6	42.2	43.0	42.4
Highly-educated employed [000]		4.5	1.7	6.2	15.9	5.4	21.3
Distribution of employment by occupation [percent], population 15+	Legislators, senior officials and managers	9.3	3.9	7.6	20.9	1.2	14.6
	Professionals	16.1	10.2	14.2	8.8	6.6	8.1
	Life science and health professionals	4.1	4.6	4.2	0.5	2.1	1.0
	Teaching professionals	2.2	2.5	2.3	0.4	0.2	0.3
	Technicians and associate professionals	9.1	8.2	8.8	11.4	12.2	11.6
	Clerks	7.6	13.9	9.7	2.9	9.3	4.9
	Service, shop and market sales workers	27.1	36.0	30.0	13.0	16.1	14.0
	Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	0.7	0.2	0.5	0.3	13.1	4.4
	Craft and related trades workers	4.8	0.4	3.3	4.9	15.6	8.4
	Plant and machine operator and assembler	6.3	5.9	6.2	1.8	1.4	1.7
Elementary occupations	18.9	21.4	19.7	27.0	24.5	26.2	

Source: OECD, 2012

Table 21 highlights the top ten districts of Nepal from where people reported in Table 19 migrate. These people are those who are going to other countries through government issued labour permits. The highest percentage is shared by Dhanusa district in all these six districts. We can categorise these Nepali emigrants as unskilled and semi-skilled emigrants who move to countries of destination for time limited period and ultimately returns back, however, the people in OECD can be categorized as skilled and educated to a high level and are those who live there with intention to stay permanently.

Table 21: Percentage Share of Total Migrants in Top Ten Districts of Nepal

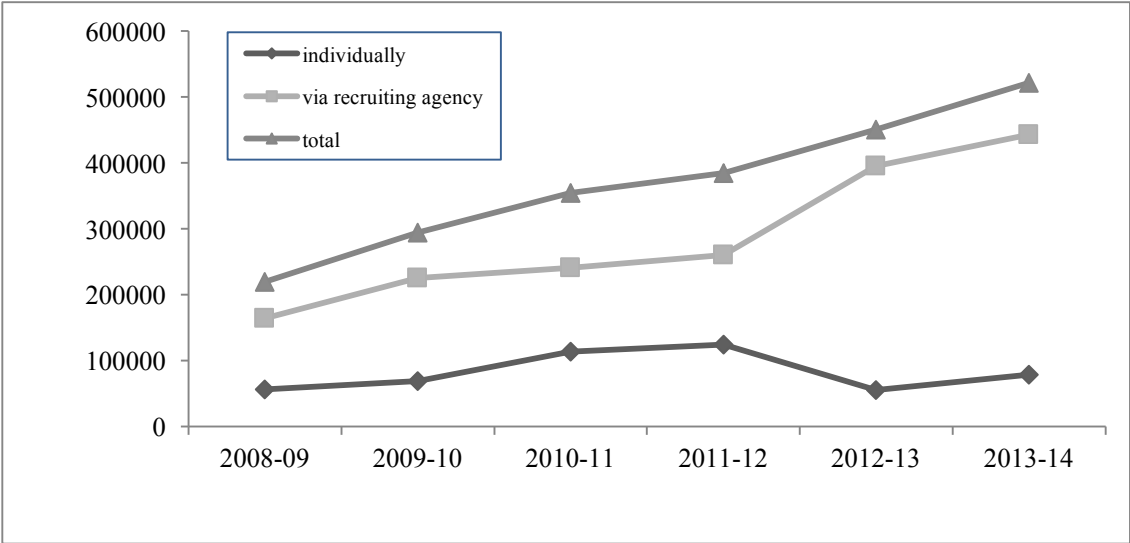
District/Year	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11	2011-12	2012-13	2013-14	Total share in 6 year
Dhanusa	6.1	5.3	4.9	4.5	4.8	4.8	5.0
Mahottari	3.7	11.2	5.7	3.6	3.2	3.5	4.8
Jhapa	5.8	4.7	4.6	4.5	4.5	4.2	4.6
Morang	4.3	4.2	4.3	4.2	4.2	4.0	4.2
Siraha	4.6	4.2	4.3	3.5	3.5	4.0	3.9
Nawalparasi	3.1	2.9	3.3	3.3	3.1	3.0	3.1
Saptari	2.5	3.2	3.1	2.8	2.8	3.1	2.9

Sunsari	2.7	2.6	2.7	2.9	2.9	3.0	2.8
Sarlahi	2.1	2.3	2.4	2.2	2.6	3.0	2.5
Rupandehi	2.1	1.8	2.3	2.3	2.7	2.7	2.4

Source: Ministry of Labour and Employment Nepal, 2014

Figure 26 shows the number of labour permits issued from 2008 to 2014 to Nepali migrants who moved to countries mentioned in Table 19. Recruiting agencies working in Nepal have great impact on the overall labour permits issued because individually less people migrated and this is due to the lack of knowledge on emigration processes and job opportunities at destination.

Figure 26: Labour Permits Issued



Source: Ministry of Labour and Employment Nepal, 2014

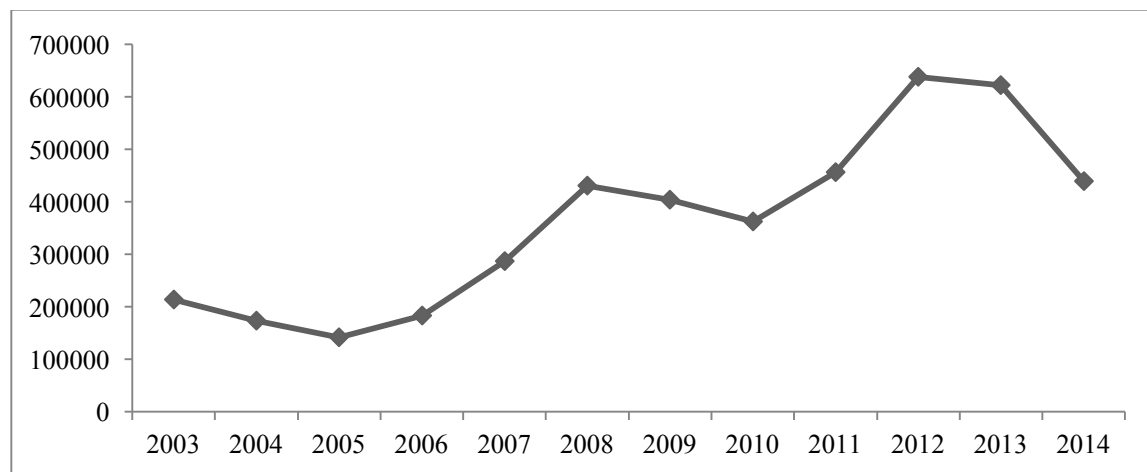
Nepal’s overall economy is heavily dependent on remittances and the number of Nepalese going abroad for work is increasing every year. There is a lack of data at national level on people who migrate with intention to work and live in developed countries and therefore the reports and data issued by Government Departments is limited to those Nepalese who migrate on temporary basis to Middle East, Malaysia and other destinations, not preferably to OECD.

Pakistan

Pakistan is one of the populous countries in the world [6th] while it is second highest in the region as well as Member of the SAARC. A country with more than 183 million people has GDP of 238.7 US\$ billion with 1308 US\$ per capita income [World Economic Forum, 2014]. As developing countries exhibit many issues that pertain to human development, emigration becomes an essential part of the developing economies. Largely populated countries are more prone to emigration phenomenon and according to the availability of the extended and surplus labour, developing countries prefer to send their unskilled, semi-skilled and skilled people to different countries across the world. The emigration of skilled and qualified labour force has particular implications that may act negatively on the overall development trajectory of the emigrant countries. That is why countries specify their emigration policies and monitor the movement of people across the borders. Pakistan mostly sends its surplus labour under unskilled and semi-skilled categories to Middle East countries but country does not have a clear emigration policy before 2009⁶ even people are migrating abroad for economic benefits from about 1971. The current emigration policy focuses on to send people to counties like KSA and UAE. The South East Asian and East Asian countries are described as potential destinations that can host Pakistani emigrants.

Figure 27 shows the trends of the number of Pakistani workers registered for overseas employment through Bureau of Emigration and Overseas Employment during the period 1971 to 2014 [up to July]. But important point to note is that do all of the workers emigrating abroad register and emigrate through BEOE, Pakistan? The answer is definitely no because there are many possibilities through which people can emigrate like direct contact with employer at destination, moving through family reunions etc. and the role of private overseas employment promoters is important as well. The statistics in the figure below show the rapid increase in the overseas employment after 2005 and it reached highest point in history in 2012 and after that its trend reverses back and tends to converge to the point of 2008.

Figure 27: Emigration Pattern of Pakistanis



⁶ For Pakistan emigration policy: [www.tvetreform.org.pk/old/pdf/National_Emigration_Policy_2009\[1\].pdf](http://www.tvetreform.org.pk/old/pdf/National_Emigration_Policy_2009[1].pdf)

Source: Bureau of Emigration and Overseas Employment Pakistan, 2014

The emigration that happens directly to developed countries from Pakistan has different trends and statistics. The people who are highly educated and are skilful tend to move to developed countries. The emigration of professional cadres like doctors, physicians, engineers and professionals from other scientific fields have implications for Pakistan in the long run as it effects the human resource need of the country. The situation in Pakistan regarding ‘labour market efficiency’ which is a part of the 7th pillar of the economies, as defined by World Economic Forum, is given in Table 22. The country is ranked 86 out of 144 for pay and productivity and the ranking for reliance on professional management and ability to retain talent is same, while country is further in recession to attract new talent from other and regional countries or to attract back the already lost talent. The country drops through these ranking into the last half of the ranking. The worse indicator for Pakistan is to have women in the labour force. Women in Pakistan are totally unbalanced on their ratio to men in the economic activity.

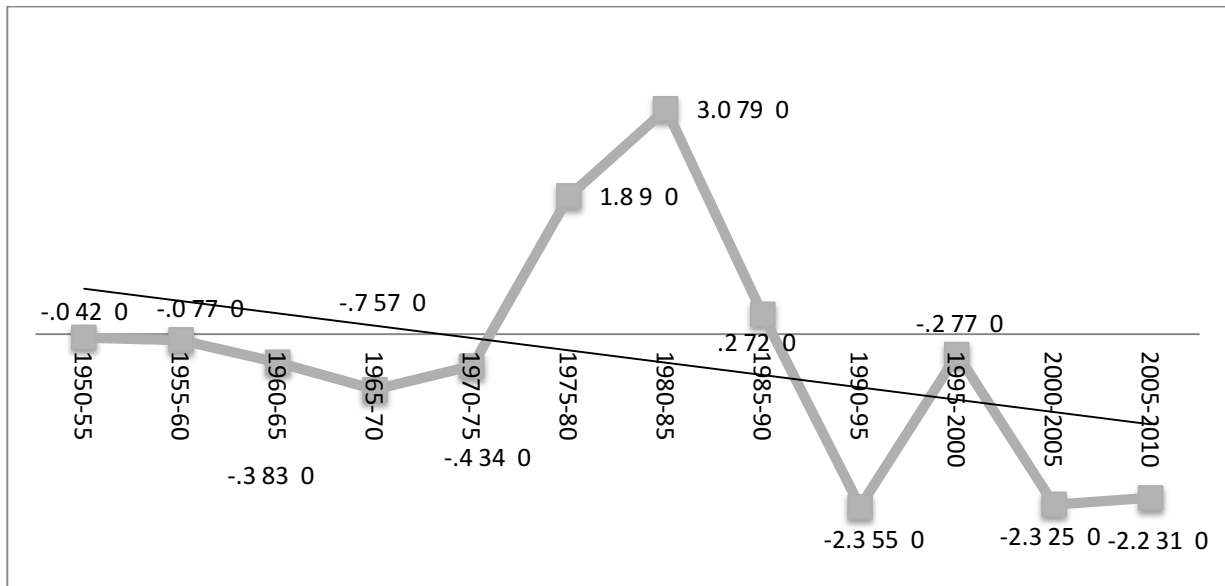
Table 22: Ranking of Pakistan on ‘Labour market efficiency’ [total economies 144]

Factor	Ranking [Score]
Pay and productivity	86[3.8]
Reliance on professional management	87[3.9]
Ability to retain talent	87[2.7]
Ability to attract talent	110[2.7]
Women in labour force, ratio to men	140[0.30]

Source: World Competitiveness Report, 2014

Net migration rate is another indicator that reflects the overall migration patterns of the countries. According to United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2013, the NMR of Pakistan can be seen in the Figure 28. The figure shows that most of the time, the NMR remains negative for Pakistan showing more people moving out of the country than joining. The period from 1975 onward to period 1990, the NMR is positive and after the 1990, the intensity of people moving out of the country has increased. The trend-line on the graph shows that the overall trend is the reflection of out-migration.

Figure 28: Net Migration Rate of Pakistan



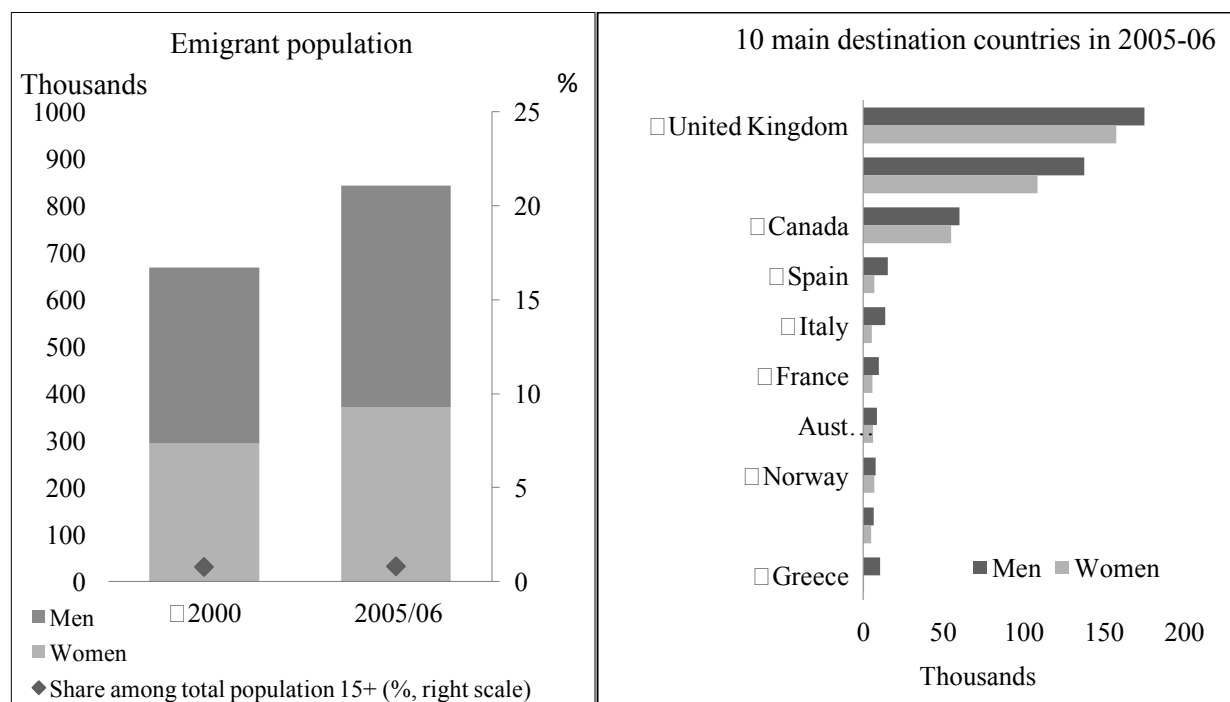
Source: UN DESA, 2013

According to a joint report by OECD and UN DESA, there were total 1088 thousand adult [15+ years] emigrant population of Pakistan living in OECD during 2010-11 with 378 thousand those who are highly educated. The overall emigration rate is 1.0 percent while emigration rate of highly educated population is 5.5 percent which is quite notable and is only after Sri Lanka which has rate of 5.7 percent. About 35 percent of all emigrants in OECD are highly educated Pakistanis.

Of these total emigrants, more than 43 percent are women [468 thousand] with about 31 percent under highly educated category. The overall emigration rate of women is 0.8 while that of highly educated is 5.6 percent, even more than men emigrants.

According to another report by OECD [2013], there were 74 thousand emigrations for Pakistani in 2007, 77 thousand in 2009 and 105 thousand in 2011. These immigrations make 2 percent of all inflows to OECD in 2011 and overall expatriation rate [per million population in 2011] for Pakistan was 605.

Figure 29: Emigrant Population of Pakistan in OECD Countries



Source: OECD, 2012

According to the figure above, the population of the Pakistanis who are living in OECD countries is given at two different times. The figure shows that number of total emigrants has increased from about 669 thousand to about 843 thousand in the specified period. The second point to note is that there is not a much difference between men and women emigrants over the years. The ratio of women to men at two points of time is absolutely same. The second part of the figure shows the 10 main destinations where Pakistani emigrants are living and working. United Kingdom is at top of the destinations, followed by United States and Canada. In Europe, Spain and Italy are the choices of same order. The common patterns are followed by both men and women emigrants.

The ranking of Pakistan regarding emigration rate is 152 out of 203 globally and 24th among 38 regional countries. The emigration rate of highly educated people put Pakistan at a different ranking as it stands at 110th position among 157 countries that send highly educated people to OECD and it is at 16th position in the region among twenty five countries of the region. This ranking is based on the statistics given by OECD [2012].

Table 23: Emigrant Population: Persons Born in Pakistan Living Abroad

Emigrant population	2000						2005/06		
	All destinations			OECD destinations			OECD destinations		
Population 15+	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Emigrant population [000]	1076.4	923.6	2000	375.0	293.7	668.7	471.9	371.2	843.1
Recent emigrants [000]	-	-	-	79.8	60.4	140.2	109.7	80.3	190.0
15-24 [percent]	5.7	6.3	6.0	13.9	15.4	14.5	13.0	14.4	13.7

25-64 [percent]	92.2	91.6	91.9	80.3	78.2	79.3	80.9	78.2	79.7
65+ [percent]	2.1	2.1	2.1	5.9	6.4	6.1	6.0	7.4	6.6
Low-educated [percent]	52.7	76.1	63.5	41.1	51.6	45.7	29.8	40.7	34.5
Highly-educated [percent]	17.8	9.0	13.7	35.8	26.7	31.8	43.9	33.2	39.3
Total emigration rates [percent]	2.4	2.2	2.3	0.9	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.8
Emigration rates of the highly-educated [percent]	4.5	3.9	4.3	3.1	3.6	3.3	5.4	6.4	5.7

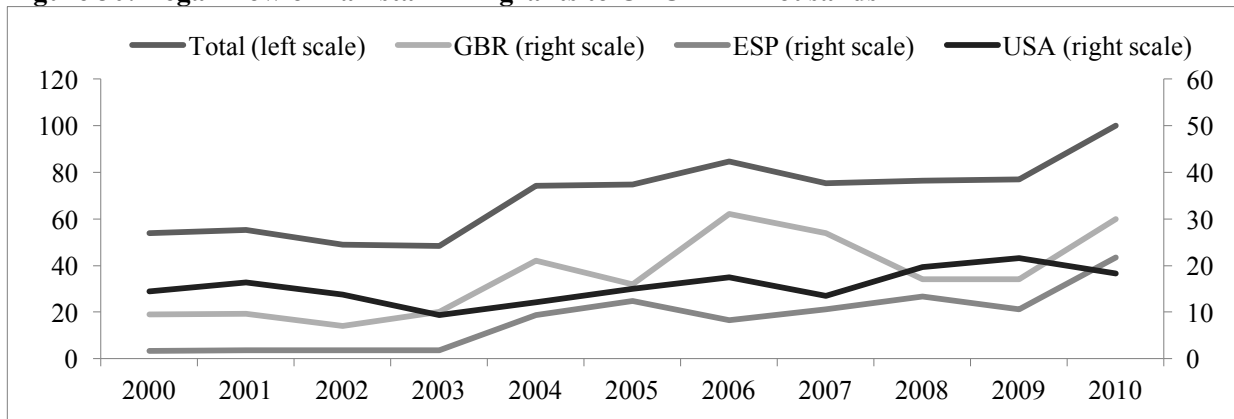
Source: OECD, 2012

Table 23 shows the people who born in Pakistan and were living in OECD at two different times. The overall emigrant population of Pakistan was exactly 2 million in 2000 while in OECD it was about 669 thousand at the same time which increased to 843 thousand in next five to six years. Highest percentage of emigrants is from age group of 25-64 years and this holds both for male and female emigrants. The people with age of over the working age are mostly those who are permanently settled at destination countries. The young population group has reduced percentage as share of total emigrants from 2000 to 2005-6. The distribution of age groups does not change over the time.

The point to be noted from the table above is to learn that low educated emigrant population has reduced over the years substantially and this holds for both male and female emigrants, however at the same time, the share of highly educated population increased substantially and this also holds both for male and female Pakistani emigrants in OECD.

Regarding emigration rates of overall Pakistani community and that of highly educated emigrants, it is evident that highly educated are moving to OECD with much greater rates. Female rate of highly educated reached to 6.4 percent in 2005-6 from 3.6 percent in 2000 while rate for both genders increased from 3.3 to 5.7 percent. The figure shows the trends of Pakistan emigration in the top destination countries. The overall emigration of Pakistani workers has increased over the time from 2000 to 2010. The number of emigrants increased from about 54 thousand in 2000 to exactly 100 thousand in 2010. The emigration to UK crossed the numbers for USA in 2003 and remained the top prior destination till 2010. During 2008-9, the number of people emigration to USA outnumbered those going to Germany or United Kingdom. The number of people in Spain remained constant from 2000 to 2003 and after 2003 there was a rapid increase which put the figure of Pakistani emigrants in the Spain to about 22 thousands in 2010. There was only a top surge in emigration pattern to UK in 2006 where 31 thousand Pakistanis emigrated to GBR in one single year.

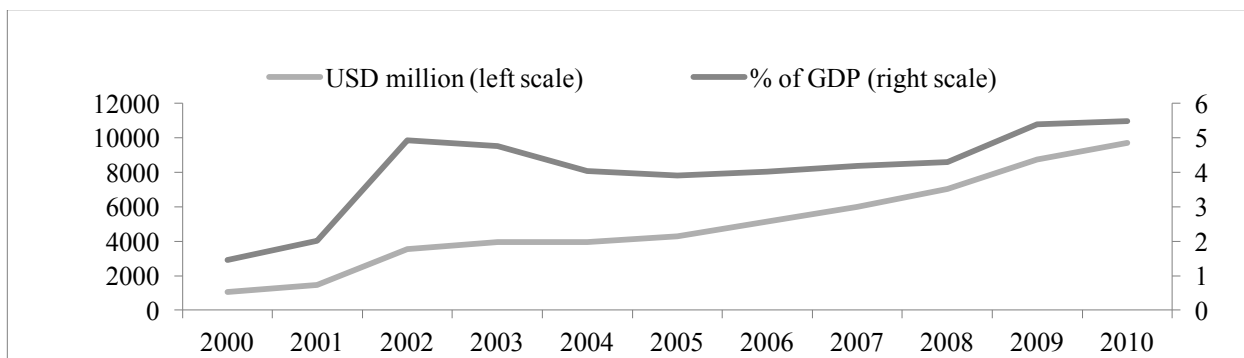
Figure 30: Legal Flow of Pakistani Emigrants to OECD in Thousands



Source: OECD, 2012

Remittances flow is a specific characteristic of all countries that are emigrant countries. The immigration laws in the developing countries are based to attract top talent, investment and movement of resources from developing countries. Remittances play an important role in the overall economic development of Pakistan as it can be seen from the figure below showing two trends over the time: the remittance flow and remittances as percentage of the GDP. The remittances in a decade time have increased from 1461 million USD to about 10,000 million USD. In 2000, the remittances were about 2 percent of the overall country’s gross domestic product.

Figure 31: Flow of Remittances to Pakistan and its Share in GDP



Source: OECD, 2012

Figure 31 shows the data on remittances till 2010. According to recent World Bank [2014] data, Pakistan has received 4936 million USD more in 2013 than it was receiving in 2010. This means that trend is on increase over the years. The remittances share of the Pakistan’s GDP is also showing the increasing trend over the time. The yearly progress of the GDP can also be seen through the variation in its percentage of the overall GDP over the years. The share of remittances in the GDP remained almost constant from 2004 to 2007-8 while at the same time, the remittances were increasing. This means that GDP growth was being contributed by other sectors of the economy. From 2008 onward, the remittances have been on increase and reached to about 5.5 percent of the overall GDP of the country in 2010.

The main destinations of the Pakistani emigrants are discussed below in detail. The details also have the important statistics on the highly educated emigrants. The top country is the United States with total about 333 thousand emigrants from Pakistan in 2005-6 and this number was about 302 thousand in 2000 with an increase of more than 30 thousand emigrants in five years. The 40 percent of total Pakistani emigrants were living in the United States in 2005-6. The table is based on population statistics of Pakistani emigrants with age 15+ years.

More than 47 percent of the emigrants in the United Kingdom are women and 29 percent of all emigrants are highly educated and 10 percent among are youth. There are about 19 percent recent emigrants in the United Kingdom.

Among highly educated emigrants, highest percentage [59 percent] is living in Canada and more than 19 percent are from young cohort of the population. The second highest country with highly educated emigrants is Australia where more than 58 percent of Pakistanis are highly educated. Spain has the least share of highly educated Pakistanis, just 6.3 percent but has the highest youngest Pakistanis living and working there-24.1 percent.

The third and fourth destinations having the highest number of highly educated Pakistanis are United States and United Kingdom respectively. United Kingdom does have the largest portion of Pakistani emigrants but it is not at top to attract highly educated group. The emigration to the United Kingdom is linked with the movement of people mostly to join family member already settled and living there. The highest numbers of women emigrants are found to be living in Canada and Norway.

The working age population in OECD is considered to be 15-64 and the statistics are presented on comparative level of 2000 and 2005-6.

Table 24: Labour Market Dynamics of Pakistani Emigrants

		2000			2005-06		
Population 15-64		Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Employment-population ratio [percent]		71.6	26.8	51.8	77.7	28.5	56.4
Unemployment rate [percent]		9.8	14.3	10.8	7.8	15.4	9.6
Participation rate [percent]		79.4	31.3	58.1	84.3	33.7	62.3
<i>Total employed [000]</i>		<i>239.2</i>	<i>70.8</i>	<i>310.0</i>	<i>331.9</i>	<i>93.4</i>	<i>425.3</i>
Employment rates of the highly-educated [percent]		81.7	45.5	68.1	91.1	52.2	76.7
Unemployment rates of the highly-educated [percent]		6.3	10.3	7.3	6.3	12.6	7.9
Highly educated in low and medium-skilled jobs [percent]		38.9	42.1	39.7	47.6	40.9	46.0
<i>Highly-educated employed [thousands]</i>		<i>98.8</i>	<i>33.1</i>	<i>131.9</i>	<i>161.5</i>	<i>50.4</i>	<i>211.9</i>
Distribution of employment by occupation [%], population 15+	Legislators, senior officials and managers	13.4	10.0	12.7	14.0	9.3	13.0
	Professionals	11.5	14.4	12.1	11.5	12.4	11.7
	Life science and health professionals	2.9	3.2	2.9	2.8	4.3	3.0
	Teaching professionals	1.4	6.6	2.4	1.4	2.4	1.6
	Technicians and associate professionals	6.9	10.8	7.8	4.3	13.7	6.2
	Clerks	5.9	19.4	8.9	7.8	19.6	10.1
	Service, shop and market sales workers	13.2	25.0	15.8	8.5	13.0	9.4

	Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	0.4	0.1	0.3	0.8	6.6	1.9
	Craft and related trades workers	9.7	1.6	7.9	11.8	6.4	10.7
	Plant and machine operators and assemblers	23.8	7.6	20.2	23.9	6.4	20.4
	Elementary occupations	15.1	11.2	14.3	16.1	12.1	15.3

Source: OECD, 2012

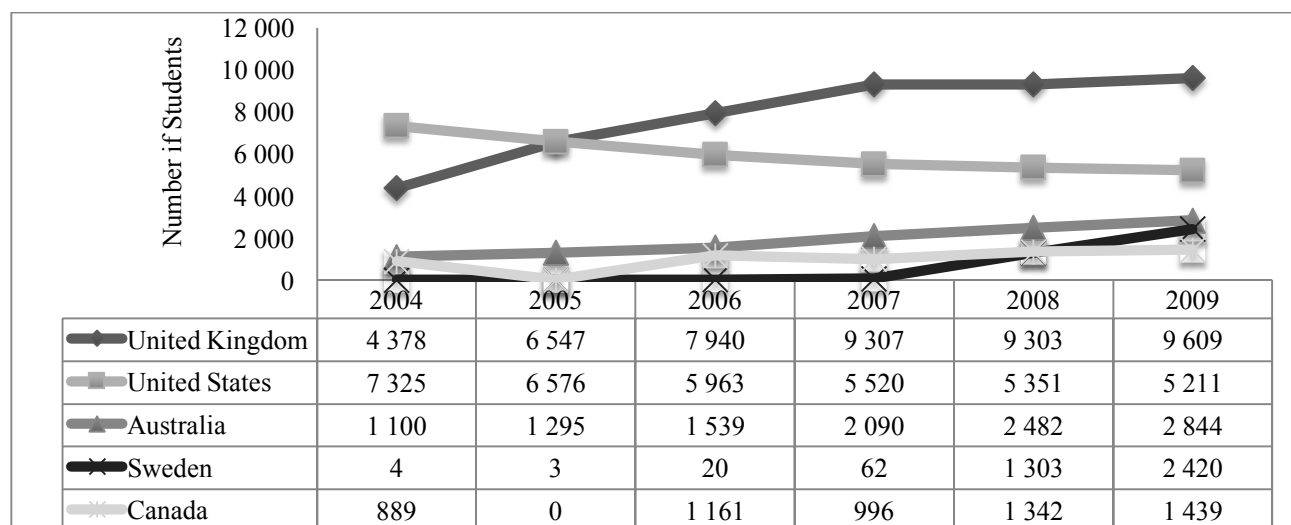
The table shows that overall employment to population ratio for Pakistani emigrants has changed from about 52 percent to just more than 54 percent. More increase has been seen in the male employment to population ratio while there is a just more than one percentage point change in the women employment to population ratio. The unemployment rate has decreased marginally but it increased for women emigrants by one percentage point. The labour market participation rates of men and women also increased but there is not a substantial notable increase.

The total employed population has increased from 310 thousand in 2000 to more 425 thousand in 2005-6 with the increase of more than 100 thousand in the five years. The highly educated has different characteristics. The number highly educated has increased from about 132 thousand to about 212 thousand and this group of highly educated emigrants enjoy better employment rates. More than 91 percent of all highly educated men were employed in 2005-6. Due to low level of women employment rates, the overall employment rates of Pakistani emigrants are not much encouraging; however they improved from 68 percent to about 77 percent with about 9 percentage points of increase.

Pakistanis who are highly educated but working in low and medium skilled jobs have also increased but number of women decreased in this category [40.9 percent in 2005-6 compared to 42.1 percent in 2000]. The highest percentage of highly educated Pakistani emigrants works as ‘Plant and machine operators and assemblers’. This implies they are from engineering background. Least number work as teaching professionals and 13 percent as ‘Legislators, senior officials and managers’.

Movement of Pakistani students can be a good predictor of the emigration of highly educated groups. Figure 32 provides information on number of students by different years at different top 5 destinations. The total number of students shows increasing trends over the years and 24800 Pakistani students were studying in these selected countries in 2009. Just five years back, this number was 14294 thousand.

Figure 32: International Students from Pakistan in OECD



Source: OECD, 2012

United Kingdom is the favourite destination for Pakistani students followed by the United States and Australia. Sweden started to host Pakistani students with higher numbers jumping from just 62 students in 2007 to 1303 in 2008 and 2420 in 2009. There is a decreasing trend of Pakistani students in the United States over the years and the numbers of students studying in the United States in 2004 were the highest for proceeding years. Rest of all countries have been hosting more students over the years each year.

According to a survey on desire to emigrate in Pakistan, reported by OECD 2012, there were 8 percent women, 13 percent youth [aged 15-24 years], and 22 percent highly educated would move permanently to other countries if they had a chance to do so. Twelve percent of whom are planning to move permanently in the next 12 months.

Sri Lanka

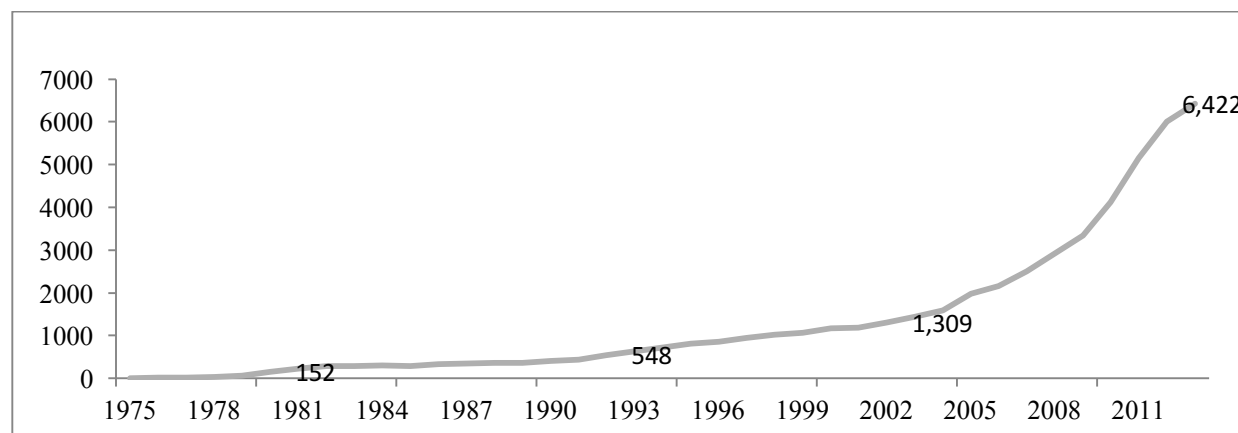
Overseas Migration in Sri Lanka

International labour migration from Sri Lanka to other countries is the part of country's economic, political and social development, especially in employment provision, poverty reduction and economic growth. For Sri Lanka, migrants' remittances are one of the main sources of foreign exchange earnings and national income. According to the World Bank estimates, there are roughly 1.2 million migrants from Sri Lanka in other countries. These numbers does not include unregistered migrants, who could number several hundreds of thousands. The annual average growth rate of remittances inflows in Sri Lanka has remained about 21.6 percent during 1975-2013 periods.⁷ Interestingly the decade growth rate has witnessed rising trend overtime; it was 11 percent in 1980s, 11.4 percent in 1990s and 13.7 percent in 2000s. As shown in Figure 33, the contributed overseas remittances to Sri Lanka were only \$9 million in 1975, but it stood to more

⁷ www.data.worldbank.org/indicator/BX.TRF.PWKR.CD.DT

than \$6.4 billion in 2013 with a sharp rise during 2000s decade. Major share of total remittances in Sri Lanka came from the Middle East which is constituted about 60 percent of the total remittances while the European Union account about 8 percent, and 6 percent from the far East Asian countries. According to the Sri Lanka Bureau of Foreign Employment [SLBEF], overseas remittances inflows of Sri Lanka in 2013 were 61 percent of the total foreign exchange of the country and it accounts 8 percent of GDP. Sri Lanka is also one of the top ten migrant sending countries and it has seen a tenfold increase in migrant numbers during past two decades.⁸

Figure 33: Remittances in Sri Lanka [Million USD]



Source: World Bank, 2013

Typologies of Migration from Sri Lanka

To analyse the overseas migration of Sri Lanka, the on-going study has gathered information mainly from Sri Lanka Bureau of Foreign Employment [SLBFE], while some other secondary sources including the research articles have been used to observe the issues and challenges of overseas migration. Sri Lanka is primarily a labour source country, or in more popular jargon a 'labour sending country'. It shares several common features with other Asian labour sending countries: predominantly temporary and mostly semi-skilled and low-skilled migration and feminisation of migration [Wickramasekara, 2002]. Political, social, and economic reasons lie behind migration of Sri Lankans with the most common reasons being search for more skilled positions, asylum, poverty, better opportunities overseas, educational purposes, and tourism.

International migration from Sri Lanka dates back from 50s and 60s decades during which academics and professionals made up bulk of permanent migrants primarily destined to North America, Europe and Australia. However, a shift in national language policy away from English limited the opportunities of the professional sector to seek trained and better opportunities abroad [Korale, 2004]. During this period, majority of the out-migration was confined to only educated groups which cause brain drain and shortage of professionals, in the fields of education, medicine and engineering. The high outflow of skilled persons from Sri Lanka led to the appointment of a Cabinet Sub-committee in 1974 to report on the problem [Government of Sri Lanka, 1974]. The government opted strict measures to curb outflow using an exit permit system, restricted passport

⁸ www.slbfe.lk/article.php?language=2&article=106

issues and endorsements. Despite these restrictions, appreciable numbers of professionals left the Island [Wickramasekara, 2010].

Non-Alignment Conference held at Colombo in 1976, caused to increase number of foreign employment opportunities for Sri Lankans in Middle East region. This was further strengthened as a result of 1977 liberalized economic policies. As David Soysa [Undated] pointed out: “The liberalization of the economy in July 1977 and restoration of the right to travel outside the country assisted the migratory process”. During this post reform era started from mid 70s to late 80s, Diaspora shifted toward the Middle East and some African countries, after the oil boom in 1970’s, comprised of mainly semi-skilled migrants mainly in the construction industry.

The third phase of overseas migration was started from early 90s when the demand for semi-skilled workers tapered off in the 1980s as construction projects were completed in the Middle East. Now the globalization and local socio-economic condition has created the demand for domestic servants or housemaids in Middle East, and Sri Lanka was one of the first to benefit from the trend. As shown in Table 26, the period 1986 – 1994 saw a dramatic increase in overseas female employment, from 24 percent of total departures in 1986 to nearly 74 percent in 1996 [Rosario, 2008]. Most of them were household maids. The SLBEF [Sri Lanka Bureau of Foreign Employment] statistics revealed that a steady upward trend in departures with proper documentation has been seen since 1986, due to the initiatives taken by the SLBFE after its inception in 1985. The outflow for foreign employment has increased from 14,456 in 1986 to 282,331 in 2012 and this shows 20 fold increases.⁹

Figure 34: Departures for Foreign Employment, 1986-2007 – Annual Averages for Sub-Periods

Year	Male		Female		Total
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	
1986-1989	9665	51.0	9269	49.0	18934
1990-1994	25051	25.5	73190	74.5	98241
1995-2000	50678	30.2	117170	69.8	167848
2001-2008	87632	40.9	126731	59.1	214363

Source: Rosario, 2008

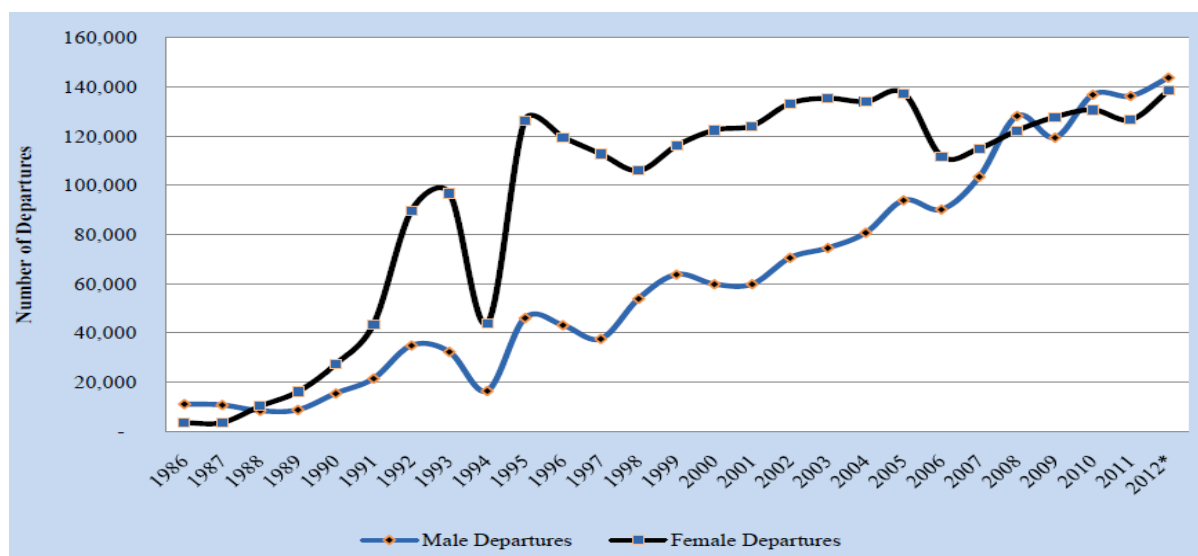
The migrant population in Sri Lanka is mainly female at present. As shown in Figure 33, it has outnumbered males in 1988 and until 2007. The upward trend in the female migration was mainly due to high numbers of departures for employment in domestic and garment sector. The male migration has regained its position by 2010 and has continued even up to 2012 [male 50.9 percent, female 49.1 percent in 2012]. The total departure also increased; in 2012, total departures for foreign employment were 282,331 while it was 262,961 in the year 2011.¹⁰

⁹ www.slbfe.lk/article.php?language=2&article=106

¹⁰ www.slbfe.lk/downloads/status/1.pdf

The increase in female migrant labour as housemaids and unskilled and semi-skilled factory workers is attributed to a number of social, economic and policy factors [Dias and Jayasundere, 2004]. The study of American Solidarity Centre revealed that most women migrants leave home because of poverty and domestic violence; they have never worked before, are unskilled and uneducated and cannot get work in Sri Lanka. Another study of Marga Institute [Gunatilake and Perera, 1995] found that female migration was regarded as a way of earning supplementary income for the household to invest in housing and durables. Nearly 85 percent of women migrants were married and migrated in order to earn as much as they could in as short time as possible [Sriskandarajah, 2002].

Figure 35: Departure of Foreign Employment by Sex 1986-2012



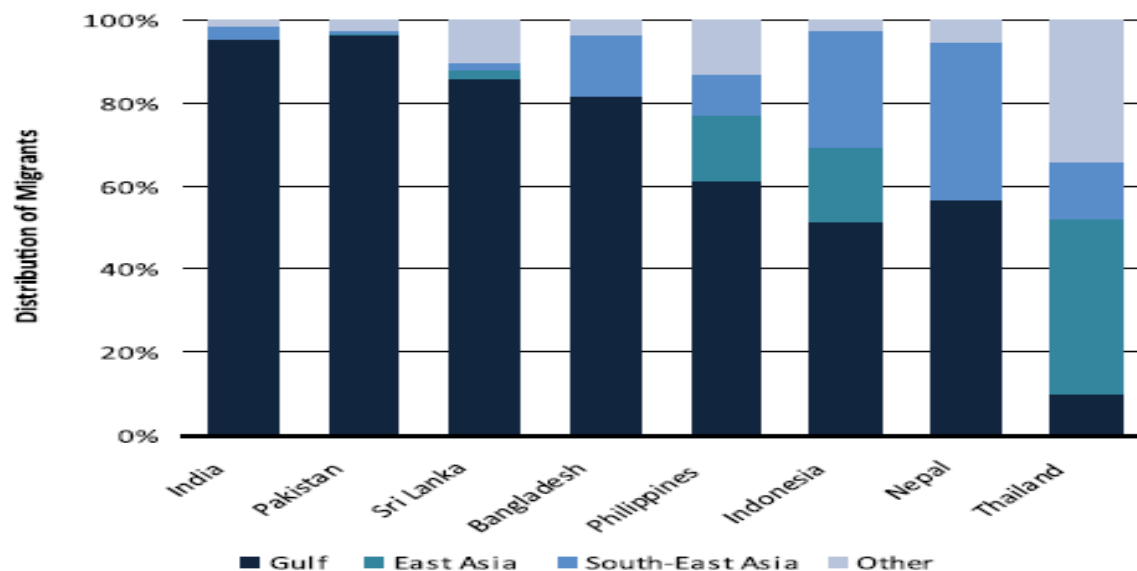
Source: Sri Lanka Bureau of Foreign Employment, 2012

There is now a globally dispersed diaspora of Sri Lankans supporting relatives in Sri Lanka as the number of migrant destinations increased overtime. Although there are some other destinations for Sri Lankan workers – the Republic of Korea, Cyprus, Malaysia, Singapore, Italy and Hong Kong– the numbers admitted to these countries are still too low to affect the domination of GCC countries [Annex - II]. According to the Sri Lanka Bureau of Foreign Employment [SLBEF], around 95 percent of Sri Lankan migrant workers are employed in 8 Middle Eastern countries with an annual outflow of more than 280,000 persons in 2012. Saudi Arabia is the largest destination of Sri Lankan employees which accounts for 35 percent of the total departures in 2012. State of Qatar and Kuwait are the 2nd and 3rd largest destination. Approximately 25 percent of the Sri Lankan are abroad; this percentage is 17 for Afghanistan, 11 percent for Philippines, 8 percent for Pakistan and 7 percent for Bangladesh and Nepal. Indonesia has only 3 percent of its labour force abroad; India and Thailand have only 2 percent and China just 1 percent.

As shown in Figure 35, in 2010 nearly all regular migrants from India [95.2 percent] and Pakistan [96.5 percent] went to Gulf Cooperation Council [GCC] countries, as did the vast majority from Sri Lanka [85.6 percent]. The largest concentrations of temporary migrants from India are in Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates [UAE]; significant numbers are also present in Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman and Qatar. Almost all migrants from Pakistan are working in Saudi

Arabia and UAE, with a smaller number in Oman. Migrants from Sri Lanka are more evenly distributed across GCC countries, although Saudi Arabia is the primary destination. Labour migration to the GCC countries is also substantial from Bangladesh [81.7 percent], the Philippines [61.3 percent], Indonesia [51.1 percent] and Nepal [56.10 percent].

Figure 36: Distribution of Migrants by Region of Destination, 2010



Source: Agunias and Christine, 2012

In summarize, the 50s and 60s out-migration comprised of skilled persons and permanent migration, mainly to the developed countries while since 70s, destination shift to the Middle Eastern countries with a distinct stream of temporary migration. Second, the gender dimension is important because of different choice sets and problems faced by male and female workers. Third, majority of the Sri Lankan migrate for employment, while some also migrate as asylum seekers to seek refuge. The local ethnic conflict has encouraged such migration in the past, especially since the late 1970s mostly the Tamil diaspora populations currently in Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom, France and Switzerland. However, the refugee population decline over time; it was 122,287 in 1997 and 108,139 in 2005, while asylum applicants have shown a drastic decline from 18,324 in 1997 to 6,298 in 2005 [UNHCR, 2008]. The outflow of asylum seekers also grew due to the civil war between the government and the Liberation Tigers of Tamil Eelam [LTTE]. The Tamil Diaspora is estimated at roughly half a million people; the largest populations are in developed countries, mostly in Canada, UK and Australia. There are also large Diasporas in Norway, Switzerland and South Africa [Deshingkar and Aheeyar, 2006].

Skill-Level of Migrants

Majority of the overseas migrants are low skilled workers, which is a major challenge and resulting low remittances. The data given in Table 27 shows that the SLBFE not follow the ILO 1988 International Standard Classification of Occupations as the ‘middle level and clerical and related’ seems to include technicians and other skilled workers while a separate ‘skilled’ category is also included. Data pertaining to the 1990s and 2000s disclose that share of professionals has increased overtime [1995 – 0.5 percent, 2012 – 1.5 percent], Clerical and related workers [1995 –

2.7 percent, 2012 – 5.7 percent], skilled workers [1995 – 15.8, 2012 – 23.8 percent] and unskilled workers other than housemaids [1995 – 13.6 percent, 2012 – 24.8 percent] while a significant decreased is shown in the departures of Housemaids [1996 – 66.0 percent, 2012 – 40.9 percent].

Table 25: Migrant Workers Deployed by Skill Level, 1995-2012

Year	Professional	Middle Level	Clerical and Related	Skilled	Low and Skilled	Housemaid
1995	0.5	1.4	2.7	15.8	13.6	66.0
1996	0.4	1.2	2.1	14.9	13.5	67.9
1997	0.4	1.1	2.4	16.3	13.7	66.1
1998	0.4	1.8	3.1	19.9	21.4	53.4
1999	0.7	1.8	3.5	20.7	24.3	49.0
2000	0.5	2.1	3.2	20.0	19.6	54.6
2001	0.7	2.0	3.3	20.0	18.1	55.9
2002	0.7	2.2	3.6	22.3	17.9	53.3
2003	0.7	3.6	3.2	22.8	21.1	48.6
2004	0.9	3.0	3.1	21.4	20.1	51.5
2005	0.6	3.5	3.3	20.2	18.1	54.3
2006	1.0	3.3	3.9	22.3	20.2	49.3
2007	0.8	1.8	2.1	22.8	25.5	46.8
2008	1.1	3.6	2.7	23.7	25.6	43.3
2009	1.1	3.5	2.7	23.8	25.8	43.1
2010	1.1	2.6	2.7	24.8	22.7	46.0
2011	1.5	2.3	3.8	25.8	25.8	41.2
2012	1.5	3.2	5.8	23.8	24.8	40.9

Source: Sri Lanka Bureau of Foreign Employment, 2012

Welfare Impact of Remittances to Sri Lanka

Overseas remittances have contributed significantly to Sri Lankan Population both at the micro and macro level. At micro level, the presence of remittances income in home has negatively corresponds with poverty reduction and has a positive impact on education and health outcomes, especially for children. Infants in remittances receiving households of Sri Lanka have been found to have higher birth weights and lower rates of infant mortality [Nicole and David, 2005]. Visiting and returning migrants may also bring back health improving practices. Migration has also been seen to improve the educational attainment of children for households in the sending countries. Remittances received households invest more heavily on children education and they have less dropout rates and are more likely to be enrolled in private and good quality education [Seife and Susan, 2005]. The effects of foreign employment on household welfare are mixed. Around 10 percent of all households receive remittances, amounting to a significant proportion of their income. These households invest more in health, education and productive assets, which, in turn, produces an increase in incomes [UNDP, 2012].

At macro level, remittances have a positive impact on economic growth, rural development, poverty reduction as well as reduction in trade deficit. Remittances have also provided capital to

small entrepreneurs, reduce credit constraints, and increase entrepreneurship. It also has a significant impact on poverty reduction. In 2002, private transfers, primarily from housemaids in the Middle East, were sufficient to finance 90 percent of the combined deficit on trade, services and income accounts [EIU, 2004]. In 2004, remittances offset around 60 percent of the trade deficit [Amjad, 2004].

The study of Sriskandarajah [2002] found that the absolute and relative importance of private remittances has increased significantly as levels of foreign aid have declined, and foreign direct investment has grown only slowly. The study showed that the macroeconomic impact of migration has been substantial, and much of Sri Lanka's development spending will continue to be financed directly or indirectly by remittance flows. Very poor overseas migrants may not be able to send remittances to their homes in the initial years after their migration. Similarly the remittances of very rich migrants may be smaller than the loss of income due to migration. But for the middle-income groups, remittances enable recipients to move up to a higher income group [MPI, 2007]. The estimates of Sri Lanka suggest that households from the third to eighth income decile moved up the income ladder due to remittances.

Workers' remittances to Sri Lanka are the highest in South Asia on per capita basis. Using 2001-02 Sri Lankan household survey data, Lasagabaster et al. [2005] found that remittances are particularly significant for poor households: almost 45 percent of recipient households belonged to the lowest two income quintiles. Remittances are generally 'counter-cyclical': the flow of remittances increases during times of crisis. This is potentially enormously beneficial to poor economies and communities in trouble. Migrant remittances have contributed to the survival of hundreds of thousands of people in conflict-ridden areas of the northeast of Sri Lanka [Van Hear, 2002] and during the 2005 Tsunami disaster [Deshingkar and Aheeyar, 2006].

Major Challenges Facing Sri Lanka

Sri Lanka is also facing the similar migration problems as the other South Asian countries are facing [Wickramasekara, 2010]. There are two major issues that are; protection and governance issues.

Protection Issues

According to the 2007 National Policy for Decent Work in Sri Lanka [MLRFE, 2007], risky and unsafe out-migration is common despite of all safeguards introduced.¹¹ The core issue behind it is inadequate migration opportunities for low skilled workers. High migration costs and lack of awareness about the working conditions in host countries raise the vulnerability of workers. Housemaids are among the most vulnerable categories in this respect. The National Policy for Decent work [MLFER, 2007] refers to the poor quality of migrant work in low-skilled jobs such as domestic workers/house maids. It adds: "Given the inherently difficult working conditions associated with these types of jobs, the over reliance on low skilled employment makes decent work principles unrealistic in practice".

¹¹ National Policy for Decent Work, Ministry of Labour Relations and Foreign Employment, Sri Lanka, August 2006

Governance Issues

The state's open economy reforms has facilitated and promoted the private sector to enhance overseas migration. However, a major governance issue with the role of private sector including the recruitment agencies is the high costs of migration and vulnerability of migrant workers. Though foreign Employment through "Self-Basis" has been increasing since 2007 but still private agencies have 62 percent share in 2012.¹² The Association of Licensed Foreign Recruitment Agencies [ALFEA] has developed a code of conduct in 1980s, but it is usually not monitored and followed. The transfer of responsibility on migration from the Ministry of Labour to a separate Ministry for Foreign Employment Promotion and Welfare has also implications for governance [Wickramasekara, 2010].

Governance issues are more prominent in destination countries, particularly in Middle East countries where migrant workers are at the mercy of private employers and sponsors with little government intervention. The government has now signed bilateral agreements and Memoranda of understanding with a number of countries including Bahrain, Jordan, Libya, Qatar, and UAE in the Gulf, and the Republic of Korea and Malaysia. But they may not protect well when the private sector recruits the migrants [Wickramasekara, 2005]. Sri Lanka along with other major Asian countries of origin also faces difficulties in enforcing minimum standards given conditions in the international labour market with competition from other labour source countries [Wickramasekara, 2010].

¹² www.slbfe.lk/downloads/statis/3.pdf

5. Migration Policy Framework in South Asia

Legal and Institutional Framework

A firm understanding of the legal system and administrative bodies that affect the emigration process is necessary before reviewing the actual policies that have been devised by the SAARC Member States for the promotion of overseas employment and welfare of their emigrants.

Most of the South Asian nations started their migration related legislation from the colonial Emigration Act of 1922. The rudimentary act describes the duties and responsibilities of Government authorities concerned with the process of emigration such as Protector of Emigrants, Medical Inspectors, Agents and Advisory Committees. The Act also lays down the conditions under which the emigration of skilled as well as unskilled manpower can take place.

1980's witnessed major updates in the legislative framework of the region with country after enacting new migration laws to meet the challenges arising out of increased demand for human resources abroad, especially the demand for labour in Gulf countries. Pakistan came up with a refined Emigration Ordinance in 1979. Bangladesh repealed Emigration Act of 1922 and replaced it with Emigration Ordinance of 1982. India did the same in 1983. Sri Lanka and Nepal introduced their Foreign Employment Acts in 1985. Bhutan and Maldives have yet to draft any comprehensive legislation regarding emigration of their workers.

A recurring theme in these region-wide legislative updates was provision for the establishment of private firms that could offer overseas recruitment services to general public in lieu of service charges. The conditions for obtaining license as a private recruitment firm were clearly laid out in the acts or ordinances along with the code of conduct that such agencies needed to maintain. The respective governments' had retained the right to cancel a private firm's license should there be a dire need to do so. In addition, the private firms could only charge their clients as per the limits imposed and prescribed in the rules or procedures associated with the legislation.

It is important to note that since the legislative efforts were mainly driven by the exodus of semi-skilled and unskilled labour to the Gulf region, the bulk of the ordinances or acts mainly addressed issues pertaining to the same categories of labour. Such labour was being sent abroad either through the government or its licensed agents. Yet, none of these legislations barred high skilled people from moving abroad on a personal basis provided they complied with the requirements of their respective government. Generally, a letter of appointment from the overseas employer or a recruiting agent was required. In some cases, the government had also declared its right to restrict or ban the movement of personnel belonging to particular professions or holding specific qualifications.

While Nepal and Bangladesh have revamped their emigration laws in 2007 and 2013 respectively, other countries have only followed through with updates and amendments. A keen observation points out that the bulk of these updates address protection issues as well as concerns regarding the operations of private recruitment agents. Still a lot of agents, actors such as middlemen and various others remain outside the purview of these laws. Acharya [2012] justly calls it 'Regulating

the unregulated industry’ and lists as one of the main challenges of migration governance in South Asia.

With a view to meet the contemporary requirements of safe and decent overseas employment, protection of migrants and to promote a healthy environment for foreign employment business, Nepal enacted Foreign Employment Act 2007 to repeal the earlier legislation. The Act draws special attention towards meritocracy in selection of workers to be sent overseas. A steering committee composed of eleven members from various ministries that are stakeholders in the process of emigration has been prescribed in the law, which will formulate policies and oversee arrangements related to the sending of workers by the Government. The licensed private agents are also required to follow a strict procedure in the advertisement of foreign jobs and selection of workers. Special emphasis is drawn on the aptness and appropriateness of terms and conditions given in the employment contract, which is required even in the case of those going abroad on personal basis. A specific chapter is dedicated to issues related with training of workforce. A foreign employment welfare fund has also been established for various purposes including training of workers going abroad, dealing with cases of repatriation and integration of those who return to the homeland. The law requires the Government to act proactively towards the monitoring of private recruitment firms and describes in detail at least fifteen cases of violations where severe punishments have been prescribed.

Bangladesh has taken a step further by enacting the rights-based Overseas Employment and Migration Act 2013. The act repeals the Emigration Ordinance 1982 and makes provisions in conformity with international labour and human rights conventions especially the International Convention on the Rights of Migrant Workers and the Members of their Families 1990, a convention ratified only by Sri Lanka and Bangladesh in the whole region of South Asia. The Act urges the Government of Bangladesh to act proactively and establish Labour Welfare Wings in all countries where it is necessary for expanding its reach as well as for the protection of migrant workers. The Act also promotes the signing of Memorandum of Understanding [MoU] with different countries and lays down the guiding principles for the Government to follow while formulating such MoU’s. For the first time, migrant workers are now legally empowered with the right to information, right to legal aid, right to file a civil suit, right to return home and access to financial and other welfare programs. Penalties related to unlawful activities by any person or a recruiting agent have been described in detail and are much severe now.

Table 26: Emigration Laws in SAARC Region

Member State	Legislative Framework
Afghanistan	Regulation for Sending Afghan Workers Abroad 2005
Bangladesh	Overseas Employment and Migration Act 2013
Bhutan	Nil
India	Emigration Act 1983
Maldives	Nil
Nepal	Foreign Employment Act 2007
Pakistan	Emigration Ordinance 1979
Sri Lanka	Sri Lanka Bureau of Foreign Employment Act 1985

Legislation becomes wishful thinking without corresponding institutional capacity and administrative structures that can implement the laws. Increasingly, the region is witnessing

separation of migration from labour ministries [Wickramasekara, 2011] and evolution of ministries dedicated to the cause of overseas employment and migrant workers. Various diaspora-centric institutions are being established for capitalizing upon the global opportunities.

Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs [MOIA] was established in 2004 by the Government of India to act as the nodal point for all stakeholders involved in the process of migration. It disseminates information, builds partnerships and provides facilitations for all matters related to Indians working and residing abroad. It boasts of a small and lean design, one of the smallest ministries in India, offering four primary functions of diaspora services, financial services, emigration services and management services. The basic idea behind the development of MOIA is to tap upon the large and global diaspora of India and to ensure the involvement of the same in the socio-economic development of the country. Through the creation of MOIA, India has also addressed the issues related to the lack of inter-governmental coordination required for the formulation of migration policies [Agunias and Newland, 2012].

MOIA through its Emigration Policy Division is in process to draft new legislation to replace the Emigration Act 1983. Special emphasis is drawn on replicating the best practices of other countries such as Philippines and on undertaking research studies to come up with fresh perspectives on migration management. The latter is achieved through establishment of India Centre for Migration, a think tank working in partnership with reputable international research institutes. Particularly relevant to high skilled migration is Centre's initiative towards development of a knowledgebase for migration policy making for the India-European Union corridor. In addition, the Centre has conducted a Labour Market Assessment of six European states. The second phase of the assessment will include further EU member states, Australia and Canada.

Bangladesh established the Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment in December 2001 as the main administrative body that is responsible for the welfare of emigrated personnel as well as for achieving overseas employment goals. The Bureau of Manpower Employment and Training [BMET] within the ministry strive for creation of skilled manpower that is in-sync with foreign labour demands. For this purpose, the bureau operates Employment and Manpower offices in 42 districts and a similar number of Technical Training Centres across the country. The bureau also provides entrepreneurial training to the returning migrants. Among other key responsibilities of the bureau is to improve the overall governance of overseas recruitment industry via monitoring and regulating the activities of private firms.

A welfare board has also been established under the Ministry to extend welfare services to the migrant workers. The welfare board especially looks after the interests of the family members of the workers who have passed away abroad. It provides monetary, legal as well as technical support to these families. In addition, it also helps the returnees integrate back in the society, socially and economically.

Following example of Philippines, Sri Lanka has also established a Bureau of Foreign Employment [SLBFE] in 1985, as a centralized agency dedicated for dealing with migrant issues. The Bureau administers matters related to the promotion of foreign employment as well as protection of workers who go abroad. It maintains comprehensive databases of Sri Lankans

residing in foreign countries, jobs that are available overseas, as well as of private agents licensed with the task of promoting foreign employment. All such private agents are required by law to obtain membership of Association of Licensed Foreign Employment Agencies [ALFEA] which is monitored and supervised through the SLBFE. The Bureau also operates 29 training centres across the country that provides pre-departure orientation services to those emigrating from Sri Lanka. In addition, it develops standard employment contracts and negotiates Memorandums of Understanding with foreign countries. The Bureau also runs a scholarship program for the children of emigrants and offers services related to the resettlement of migrants who return to the country.

Overall, South Asian nations have mostly established institutes at the national level dedicated to the cause of migrants. Regulating the private recruitment industry, promoting overseas employment, resolving the complaints of emigrants and taking steps for their welfare generally come under the purview of these institutes. However, there is a need to incorporate more stakeholders, especially the civil society institutions within these governmental bodies.

The table below lists emigration / diaspora related ministries and their key administrative bodies operating in South Asian countries:

Country	Ministry and Key Administrative Bodies
Afghanistan	Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs, Martyrs and Disabled
Bangladesh	Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment -Bureau of Manpower, Employment and Training -Probashi Kallyan Bank -Bangladesh Overseas Employment and Services Ltd. -Wage Earners Welfare Board
Bhutan	Nil
India	Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs -Protector General of Emigrants -India Centre for Migration -Indian Community Welfare Fund -Overseas Workers Resource Centre -Overseas Indian Facilitation Centre -India Development Foundation of Overseas Indians -Global Advisory Council of Overseas Indians
Maldives	Department of Immigration and Emigration
Nepal	Ministry of Labour and Employment - Department of Foreign Employment - Foreign Employment Promotion Board
Pakistan	Ministry of Overseas Pakistani and Human Resource Development -Bureau of Emigration and Overseas Employment -Overseas Pakistanis' Foundation -Overseas Employment Corporation
Sri Lanka	Ministry of Foreign Employment Promotion and Welfare -Sri Lanka Bureau of Foreign Employment -Sri Lanka Foreign Employment Agency

Policy Review

Having built an understanding of the legal framework as well as the administrative institutions related to the process of emigration in South Asian region, we can now turn our attention towards the actual policies.

A list of official emigration policy documents is available as under:

Country	Policy Document
Afghanistan	National Emigration Policy [Draft] Working Group Paper on Economic Development [Labour Migration]
Bangladesh	Foreign Employment Policy 2013 [Draft] Foreign Employment Policy 2006
Bhutan	Nil
India	Nil
Maldives	Nil
Nepal	Foreign Employment, Policy No. 2068 [Draft]
Pakistan	National Emigration Policy 2009
Sri Lanka	National Labour Migration Policy for Sri Lanka 2009

Earlier, our literature review has informed us that migrant receiving countries are increasingly hunting for and welcoming high skilled people. Very often, the high skilled enjoy a favourable position in these destination countries and hence do not struggle through the protection issues that the low skilled have to face. Hence high skilled migration is a way out for the developing countries from confronting the dilemma of ‘promotion’ and ‘protection’ which was highlighted by Wickramasekara [2011].

The scope of our review includes policies that either promote or restrict high skilled migration. It extends towards the very significant policies for engaging the diaspora and addressing the migration-development nexus. It also covers policies devised for inducing return of high skilled emigrants. It is interesting to see how South Asian nations have coped so far with the pressures of international high skilled migration and what scope of improvement exists in their policies.

Regarding the promotion or restriction of high skilled migration, South Asian countries are mostly inclined towards the former. While a complete shift towards high skilled migration is not realistic given the high percentage of unskilled and semi-skilled labour in overall composition, policy documents actively highlight a desire of up-gradation in the skill set of emigrants.

Pakistan’s National Emigration Policy, through aggressively promoting migration of vocationally or professionally qualified migrants, endeavours to change the mind-set of foreign employers who view Pakistani personnel as mostly illiterate or low-skilled. The proposed mechanism for implementing this policy goal, Priority Area No. 3, are road shows, job fairs, trade shows, invitations to key employers, deployment of country-specific strategies and establishment of public-private partnerships.

Since 2007, Sri Lankan Government has been actively pursuing a policy of changing the profile of Sri Lanka's migrant workers so that the percentage of skilled migrants increases and that of low skilled workers decreases. The Government deems it necessary for linking development and migration processes and for avoiding problems related to the harassment and violation of human rights overseas, over which it has little control. Tertiary and Vocational Education Commission [TVEC] is the apex body in charge of implementing a nationwide training program for the up gradation of migrant skills.

Engaging the diaspora seems to be the dominating theme in emigration policies and programs of South Asian countries. Diaspora is now considered a valuable asset and indispensable resource in the long-term socio-economic development of the country.

Despite a lack of India's comprehensive policy on emigration, Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs has launched a series of diaspora centered programs and initiatives since its inception in 2004. The ministry has been very successful in establishing an environment conducive for engaging the diaspora, especially in the development of a globally bonded community or what Lum [2012] calls an 'emotional citizenship'. Various programs facilitate the engagement of diaspora members in the socio-economic development of India such as Overseas Indian Citizenships, Know India, Study India, Overseas Indian Youth Club etc. In addition, heavy emphasis is placed on the recognition of diaspora's contributions through prestigious awards given every year at Pravasi Bharatiya Divas [PBD] conventions.

Overseas Indian Facilitation Centre [OIFC] could be termed as a model institution in the region that makes use of web technology to foster relationships with Indian diaspora. Apart from disseminating useful information, it offers customized advice to overseas Indians planning to make an investment or start a business in India through its 'Ask an Expert' program. The centre boasts of an active portal that has registered more than 22,500 overseas members online. Murti [2013] has conducted an insightful case study that assesses the effectiveness of OIFC in making use of the digital media. The study highlights that among the three layers of monologic, dialogic and collaborative communication, OIFC's portal is geared towards monologic communication, i.e. bulk of the messages generate from a single source, mostly in the form of electronic newsletters, brochures, publications and press releases. This "allows for very little or limited ability for audience participation" [Murti, 2013]. That's not to say that OIFC's portal lacks dialogic elements that allow for visitor interaction but that there is very little genuine engagement on part of the visitors as gauged by the number of comments in the online forum or on OIFC's Facebook page. The key recommendation of the study is that there's a need to consider dialogue as an end in itself and not just means, to assess the situation of dialogic communication with the diaspora, and build policies for developing a genuine two-way communication. This is important for other South Asian countries too that are involved in or are planning to engage diaspora through social media.

Pakistan's policy also envisions effective integration of diaspora resources as Priority Area No. 7. The policy aims to establish country-specific diaspora networks that are linked with the business and academia of the host country. These networks would be leveraged for improving country's image abroad, obtaining foreign investment and reaching out to further employment opportunities existing overseas. In addition, Overseas Pakistanis' Foundation in collaboration with Board of

Investment develops special plans for facilitating emigrants in making investments in the local economy or for conducting business or trade.

Migration policy of Sri Lanka also gives due regard to the expertise, skills and resources of its transnational communities and diaspora. The policy aims to develop a culture for 'giving back to the country' so that these communities are engaged in making investments, transferring knowledge and skills, and involved in the national development process.

When it comes to returnee migrants, there are two types of policies. First are the reintegration policies that generally apply to migrant workers who are coming back after the completion of their overseas contracts. Governments actively support the reintegration of such returnees so that they are able to continue to contribute productively in the economy.

Pakistan's policy seeks reintegration of the returnees through dissemination of information and by promoting special financing schemes for the migrants or their families to start up new business / self-employment ventures. In addition, the Overseas Pakistanis' Foundation prepares area-trade specific feasibility studies which are made available to the returnees on payment of nominal charges. Sri Lanka also offers such reintegration services through Migrant Resource Centres.

The second types of policies are those that induce return of earlier emigrated professionals. These are applied in cases where a country is facing shortage of highly qualified or skilled personnel in meeting its development goals.

Afghanistan's Government in cooperation with International Organization for Migration, after the fall of Taliban, designed a program for the return of highly educated and skilled Afghan nationals living abroad so that they could play their role in the revival of country's economy [Agunias and Newland, 2012].

India's case is very different; over here, high skilled emigrants have returned without any specific intervention for inducing those returns on part of the Government. Giordano and Terranova [2012] have reflected upon this case in detail and assert that it is the overall economic environment that has pulled people towards their homeland, especially the availability of jobs with high salaries and entrepreneurial opportunities in information technology, biotechnology, research and development, textiles and business process outsourcing sectors. A study funded by Swiss Network for International Studies [2013] also found similar reasons for the return of Indian high skilled emigrants. The study highlighted that emerging economic opportunities and the overall enabling environment of India are the key pull factors. That majority of the returnees' find themselves attracted towards cities with cosmopolitan environment also corroborate with the above. However, the study also finds re-unification with the family as an important factor in this decision to return.

Naim and Iftikhar [2010] also reported a significant number of high skilled emigrants from Bangladesh and Pakistan desirous of working at home provided competitive salaries and better research facilities are available to them. Coincidentally, family reasons are an important factor here too.

Over the time, South Asian nations have mostly embraced the migration-development nexus and are looking forward to deepen these linkages. Migration policy is making its way to the mainstream development policy and is being integrated with labour and human resource development policies. This is also evident from the evolution of diaspora-centered ministries and institutions.

On the legislative side, there is a need for updating in most of the countries, firstly with reference to the ratification of international agreements on migrant rights and secondly to address issues specifically related to high skilled mobility in an increasingly globalized world.

High skilled migration provides a way out from the protection vs. promotion dilemma. Positively, the reviewed policies are in favour of high skilled mobility with countries envisioning measures for upgrading the skill set of their emigrants. However, there's a difference between wishful thinking and effective implementation. Policies need to be translated into successful programs for achieving the goals.

It is interesting to see how India has managed to effectively engage its diaspora despite the lack of a comprehensive emigration policy. The promotion of emotional citizenship pays off in terms of engagement in national development and the enabling economic environment becomes a sufficient condition for inducing returns.

5. SAARC Labour Market Information System

This chapter deals with the overall situation of labour market information in the SAARC countries. Since all of the SAARC countries are labour exporting countries with specific emphasis given to India, Pakistan and Bangladesh, the major labour exporting countries, there is a clear lack of centralized data management system. Individually countries may have been compiling, storing and using migration data through different Ministries/departments but no any country in the SAARC has a centralized data management system at regional level.

The role of regional organizations is imperative in many ways: the organizations like OECD is one of the best examples with ability to collect, compile, store and publish labour market data for all OECD member countries. Most part of this report is also coming from the reports and data published by OECD. Taking into consideration the roles, the SAARC may play in coordination and management of the migration related data for its Member States. There is a need to make a particular cell in the SAARC body and the cell may be working with all governments to compile vital data on labour migration. This would have been a milestone towards better human resource management in the region.

SHRDC and Labour Market Statistics

The SAARC is one of the biggest labour markets of the world where labour with different characteristics is available in surplus and most is willing to relocate. The highly educated are intended to move toward developed countries. The destination countries are mostly the members of OECD. Most of the SAARC emigrants in the developed countries are both the highly educated and skilled or semi-skilled but least number can be found under unskilled category.

Labour market information system exists to some extent in different countries of the SAARC but there is a clear lack of emphasis on the information management for the movement of highly educated and skilled labour. This type of work opportunities, which are identified themselves or through information channels between employees and employers is, not possible without consent and knowledge of the immigration and passport departments. The destination countries do have system by which they monitor and compile data on immigration of the workers coming from developing countries but the origin countries, particularly the SAARC countries lack data on such movements. This is the reason that most of the content of this report is filled by the sources developed and published by the developed countries.

According to the review and critical analysis of the labour market information from the different SAARC countries, there is a strong need and gap to be filled by Labour Market Information System [LMIS] at the SAARC level. The LMIS is not a new term as it has been a part of the human and institutional development for many policy documents and is already developed and used by different countries at individual or regional level. OECD is one of the best examples where efficient labour market information system works and is embedded at policy level the data feeds up into the main data repositories managed by the related authorities.

The seven fundamentals for an optimal labour market information system can be sorted out as:

1. Governance and cost effectiveness

2. Timely, accurate, and relevant data
3. Information must be easily accessible
4. Intermediaries should be regarded as part of LMIS

LMI is mostly considered as a source of information that tracks the movement, demand and supply of labour within a country. The labour dynamics within a country are mostly collected and compiled by labour force surveys that are done every year or with a certain gap but such surveys are not able to cover the emigration dynamics.

Since the SAARC nations are emigration countries and keeping in view the demand of trained and qualified human resources of different sectors in future, it will be highly difficult for the SAARC nations to devise a policy that determines the movement of the people as per needs of the time, in the absence of key statistics.

The role of organizations that provide employment opportunities, particularly to highly qualified and trained individuals should primarily be part of the Human Resource Management [HRM] strategies of the South Asian countries. According to a research by Khan, Miha and Manzoor [2014], there are different HRM practices being applied in South Asian countries. The authors have outlined the following matrix that distinguish between different HRM practices by country and highlights the key issues.

Table 27: Human Resource Practices and Key Issues across SAARC Countries

Country	Frequent HR Practices	Cases	Key Issues
Bangladesh	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Job Description ○ Recruitment Training ○ Development Promotion & Rewards ○ Gender Equity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Defining the job and its responsibilities ○ Following a structured way of Recruitment Meeting the industry demand for T&D Based on performance & experience ○ Usually for many posts it is equal 	Following true HRM practices is not possible for various organisation, because the management follows its experience
Bhutan	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Training and Development ○ Skills Management ○ Performance Improvement ○ Process Improvement 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Central training initiatives ○ Measuring unique skills ○ Monitoring and evaluation ○ Close monitoring on the work process 	Monitoring human development in the country and being successful in activities
India	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Job Description ○ Recruitment ○ Compensation ○ Training/Development ○ Performance appraisal ○ Promotion & Rewards ○ Gender Equity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Formally defining the job ○ Following a structured way of recruitment based on high performance; on merit ○ Security and lifetime employment 	Retaining workforce based on the evident performance and compensation by direct monetary rewards

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Institutionalized training ○ Low coverage of formal action ○ Moderately variable across industries ○ Usually admissible by court ruling 	
Maldives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Training/Development ○ Skills Management 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Employee Training Need Assessment ○ Enhancing employee skills 	HR Policies are dependent on traditional beliefs
Nepal	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ HR Planning ○ Recruitment ○ Performance evaluation ○ Rewards 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Forecasting future needs ○ Hiring right type of employees ○ Raw and theoretical evaluation ○ Compensation on basis of performance 	Partially dependent on managerial activities as still the base is agricultural labour
Pakistan	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Job Description ○ Recruitment ○ Compensation ○ Training/Development ○ Performance appraisal ○ Promotion & Rewards 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Minimum approach to defining a job ○ Shifting to HRD to recruit ○ Based on merit/service ○ Applying modified/new version of training ○ Appraisal based on previous practices based on performance evaluation 	HR could not be frequently used in all organisations, as the community resists and fails to understand the true spirit of HR
Sri Lanka	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Job Description ○ Recruitment ○ Compensation, benefits, rewards 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Minimal job definition ○ Traditional recruiting process ○ Traditional compensation policies; based only on the visible performance 	HR functions are merely based on the human need rather than employees satisfaction

Source: Khan, Miah, and Manzoor, 2014

According to the Table 28, the human resources practices vary across the countries and they are not common. One thing is common and it is HR that is not a key part of the relationship between employees and organizations. The issues identified in the last column of the table provide evidence to the fact that HR is not a key policy topic in the labour abundant nations across South Asia. The policies and practices discussed above have a strong relation with the emigration of trained and qualified human resources because living and working in these countries does not support and fulfil their professional growth.

The authors further suggest that HR policies should act in South Asia in a way that the final results are aimed to ensure the following components of human resources:

1. Personal growth
2. Organizational growth
3. Social advancement

These components are linked with the reasons that people specified as the reasons of emigration. Personal growth is one of the motivational components that employees require to achieve while spending their precious time of their career. Organizational growth is a factor that deals with the progress of the organizations. These two factors are interlinked through effective HR policies that are being adopted at national or at organizational level. If employees are getting their objective of personal growth, the organizations can also achieve their objective of organizational growth. The last component is the result of the first two components in a way that when employees are achieving their growth objectives and organizations are also achieving their growth objectives, the end result is social development or advancement because better economic environment and rewarding opportunities are the key determinants for effective social uplift.

In the absence of any of the first two components, social development cannot be ensured. The foreign direct investment is also linked with the characteristic of the labour force and the labour laws. Developing countries have comparative incentive of cheap labour and land for foreign companies to get benefit. The countries that receive foreign direct investment, they also develop the skills and productivity of their labour force and overall socioeconomic development through such investments.

The Labour Market Information System has many advantages, particularly in the context of the future human resource demand that may arise in the SAARC due to economic development in different sectors of the economy.

The need of the LMIS in the SAARC countries is eminent and lack of information for different cadres of the labour force is missing at country level. Most of the research that uses labour market data of highly qualified South Asian relies on data compiled by World Bank and OECD. Sri Lanka, for example, has a basics already established. There is a 'Tertiary and Vocational Education Commission' [TVEC] and it is different from 'Technical Vocational Education and Training' [TVET], for example, in Pakistan because it covers the tertiary educated labour force while TVET is only limited to labour force who is, on most, not well educated and has only basic secondary or lower than secondary education and chose to get some technical training to secure employment.

Sri Lankan LMIS can be utilized to assess human resource demand estimation. LMIS covers the tertiary educated labour force, data may be used to find at the HRD trends and needs for any particular sector of the economy like education, health, manufacturing, and engineering and other service based professional occupations. The variation in the industry call is also one of the reasons that LMIS should assimilate highly qualified labour force because this labour force is prone to expatriation. The LMIS is also vital to take record of the existing, employed, unemployed and surplus labour force for highly educated.

Economic Statuses and LMIS

International countries can be categorized into three groups as per their economic statuses:

1. Factor Driven Economies
2. Efficiency Driven Economies
3. Knowledge Based Economies [Innovation driven]

Table 28: Stages of Economic Development of SAARC and South East Asian Countries

Countries		Stages of Development				
		Factor driven 1	Transition 1-2	Efficiency driven 2	Transition 2-3	Innovation driven 3
SAARC	Afghanistan	-	-	-	-	-
	Bangladesh					
	Bhutan					
	India					
	Maldives	-	-	-	-	-
	Nepal					
	Pakistan					
	Sri Lanka					
South East Asia	Thailand					
	Singapore					
	Philippines					
	Malaysia					

Source: World Economic Forum Report, 2014-15

Table 28 shows and compares the stages of the development for the SAARC countries with that of South East Asian countries. The difference is clear that stages of the economies show the overall human and economic development of the countries. It is also notable that two of the SAARC countries have already moved out of the first stages, Sri Lanka has already in the second stage. Keeping in view the stage of Sri Lanka, it is also a fact that Sri Lanka has comparatively good Human Resource Management procedures in the country.

As the countries desire to move from one initial stage of development to next, there is a must need to revitalize the role of human resources. The existing human resources play a vital role to provide labour needs for the changing economic sectors that require more trained and qualified human resource. In this context, effective LMIS is the only way to device a responsive labour market policy well in advance before the shortage of the particular labour category deteriorates the economic transition from one stage to another.

According to Woods and O’Leary [2006], an optimal LMI provides a data foundation and this data can be categorized into six categories:

1. Core labour data and market data
2. Demand data
3. Occupational supply
4. Occupational characteristics
5. Education and training information, and
6. Crosswalks and linkages across different data sets

Unless data on labour market is well managed and kept updated, there is no way to provide effective labour supply to changing scenarios of the economic development. The efficiency and innovation driven economies rely heavily on the trained and qualified human resources who are able to adapt technological changes and can reflect productivity through employability and enhancement of skills.

According to Oxford Economics [2012] report on ‘How the new geography of talent will transform human resource strategy’, the future demand of talent will be changing across different regions of the world. Table 30 is reproduced from the report by Oxford Economics.

Table 29: Landscape for Talent Change in Future 10 Years [percent]

Column	Western Europe	North America	Developed Asia	Eastern Europe	MENA	Latin America	Emerging Asia
Total [percent change]	3.50	6.10	10.00	10.00	12.70	13.00	22.20
Industrial	-0.50	-2.40	11.40	2.40	28.70	17.10	37.70
Emerging	26.10	38.30	8.40	19.80	6.30	10.20	13.30
Heavy manufacturing	24.60	1.70	1.70	33.20	10.30	17.80	60.30
Business services	-4.40	0.30	51.40	6.80	30.10	-0.60	40.00
Financial services	13.20	-8.10	4.90	-9.90	31.60	48.60	20.90
Energy	-11.30	22.70	8.00	8.70	12.20	-11.90	33.00
Travel & transport	-9.30	-1.40	36.50	5.00	14.10	32.90	32.60
Life sciences	-4.10	4.20	8.20	19.70	8.60	20.40	16.60

Source: Oxford Economics, 2012

The SAARC countries come under the Emerging Asia, the last column of Table 30. The statistics given in last column are empirical evidence that there will be a change in talent need in the next half to full decade. In overall, there will be 22.2 percent more demand for talent in Emerging Asia and the highest need will be for heavy manufacturing sector, followed by Business services.

The role of LMIS becomes essential component to meet the projected and transitory need of the talent and this is not possible unless emerging economies of Asia, particularly the SAARC countries which have taken specific measures to develop an optimal LMIS that not only provides data at national but also at regional level.

SHRDC and LMIS

The SAARC countries have a well-established institution that is already mandated to work on Human Resource Development at regional level. According to the mandate of the SHRDC, the institute was established with the aim to provide HRD related research and training services that may reflect better Human Resource management in the region. The following paragraph highlights the emergence of the SHRDC in Islamabad:

“The Heads of the States are Governments of the SAARC Member Countries emphasized the need to progressively carry out the SAARC activities with a broad framework of a long term perspective and to harmonize their effects to ensure tangible benefits to the people of the SAARC region. Towards this end, they recognized that

HRD is one of the means of realizing the SAARC objectives. They agreed to establish the SAARC Human Resource Development Centre [SHRDC] with main object to undertake research, impart training and disseminate information on HRD related issues and advise the Member States on HRD related policies and strategies. The Government of Pakistan offered to host the Centre at Islamabad in Pakistan” [SHRDC, 2014].

This reflects that SHRDC to be regional focal institution for establishment and management of LMIS for all the SAARC countries. This objective can be achieved by utilizing the HRD experience of the SHRDC and already well-established institutional contacts in all of the SAARC countries. Most importantly, the SHRDC also has relationship with both public and private sector institutions and this can help to get the objective of the establishment of the optimal LMIS at regional level. The data then can be used by different public and private sector institutes, researchers, and policy makers to reflect policies regarding human resource requirements of the region in the future.

6. Results and Discussion

The people who migrated out of the SAARC to different countries with tertiary level of educational background were sought for the survey on a set questionnaire (Please refer to the annexure below) that was finalised in consultation with the SHRDC and was designed in a way that it becomes appropriate for all nationals of the SAARC countries. The questionnaire was pre tested as well. The questionnaire was mounted through website¹³ and different diaspora groups were invited to participate in the survey; different team members in origin as well as destination countries were also hired to contact and complete interviews from qualified nationals of the SAARC countries. The numbers of interviews from each SAARC diaspora members reflect the overall percentage of emigrants of that country into the developed countries. The survey was stopped after required numbers of interviews were achieved.

In this chapter, detailed section wise analysis is presented on the findings of the survey. Since the participation in the survey was voluntary and respondents were free to choose to answer any or all of the questions, therefore there might be missing values varying question-by-question or section-by-section.

Section I: Background and Demographic Information

This section is based on the questions that were asked on background and some selected indicators under demographic theme. Table 30 shows the number of interviews that were completed from the SAARC region's emigrants living in different countries across the world. The table shows the sampled respondents by country of the origin – the SAARC countries.

Table 30: Frequency of Respondents

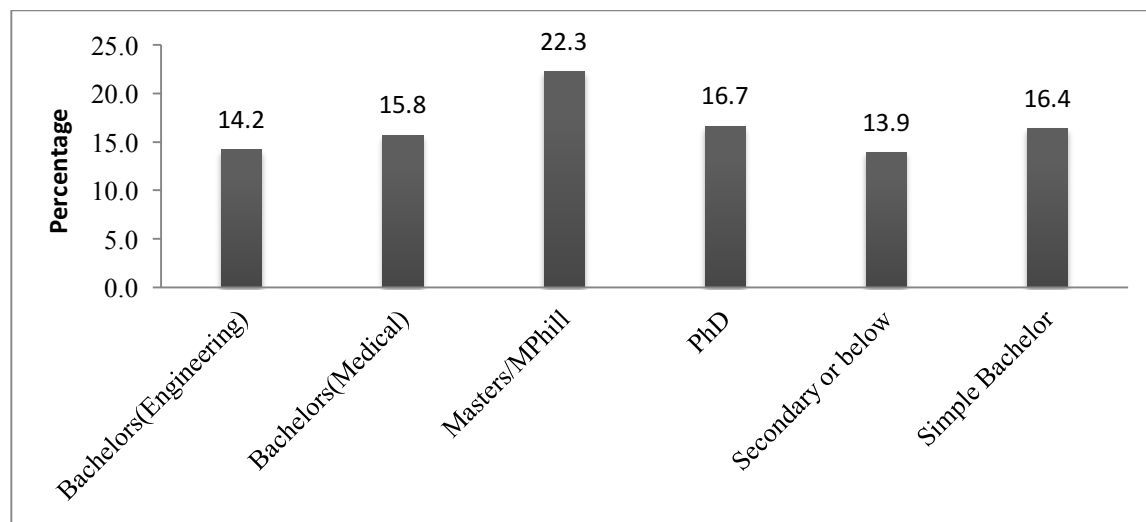
Countries of Origin	Percent
Afghanistan	4.2
Bangladesh	30.2
Bhutan	1.5
India	37.4
Maldives	1.5
Nepal	2.0
Pakistan	20.6
Sri Lanka	2.6
Total	100.0

¹³ www.saarc.researchanalyticsintl.org; www.surveys.researchanalyticsintl.org.

1. Current Educational Qualification of Emigrants

Figure 37 shows the current educational characteristics of the emigrants. The highest percentage is of the respondents who were qualified up to Masters/MPhil level. More than 14 percent were engineers and about 16 percent were medical professionals. A notable percentage of the emigrants were PhDs [17 percent] while about 14 percent are those who were educated up to secondary or below level while about 16 percent are qualified with a simple bachelor degree.

Figure 37: Current Educational Qualification of Emigrants



The less educated or emigrants with non-professional degrees were mostly settled in Italy and Greece while highly qualified were mostly living in the United States, Canada, Australia and other European countries.

2. Educational Attainment in Foreign Country

Table 32 shows the educational qualifications that were achieved and attained by the emigrants while living in the destination countries. Out of 660 total emigrants interviewed, 392 were those who were received their respective degrees while staying in foreign country.

Table 31: Educational Attainment in Foreign Country

Education Level	Percent
Masters/MPhil	17.9
Bachelor	5.1
Bachelors [Medical]	26.3
PhD	17.1
Secondary or below	11.5
Bachelors [Engineering]	22.2
Total	100.0

The survey also covered the diaspora members and their children. About 18 percent were those emigrants who have received their masters/MPhil degrees while living abroad. The highest

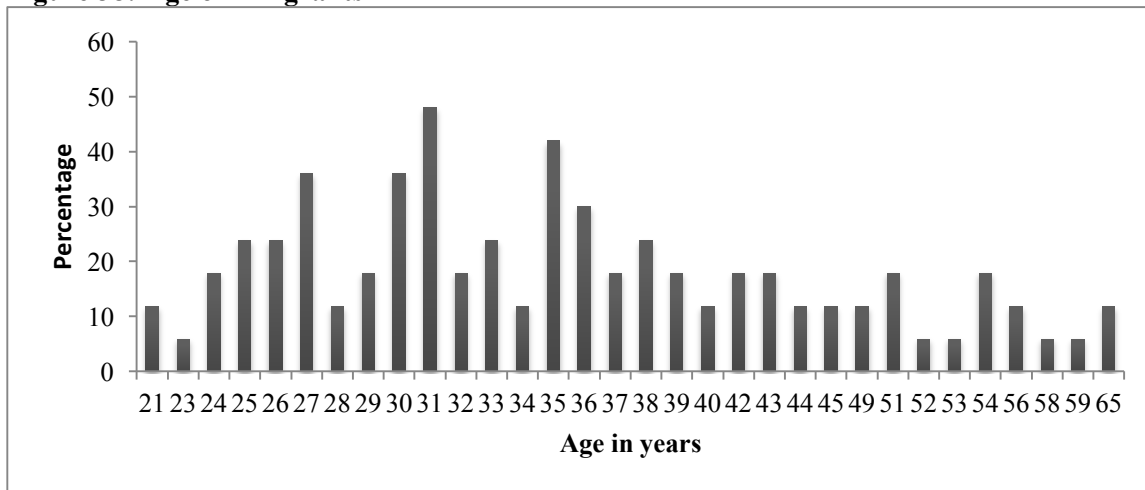
percentage of emigrants received their degree in Medical field while 17 percent received their PhD degrees while living abroad. Twenty two percent have received their Engineering degrees from abroad. In overall, about 59 percent of all interviewed emigrants have received their highest and last degrees while living abroad.

Throughout the globe, there was a hunt for talent and competition among the industrialized states to attract the highly skilled professionals from abroad including the South Asian region [Khadria, 2009]. High skilled immigrants provide the requisite resources and building blocks for this knowledge hub, especially in science, engineering and technology related sectors [Kaushal and Fix, 2006].

3. Age of Emigrants

Figure 38 shows the age of respondents in single years. The mean age of the respondents is about 39 years of age. The highest numbers of people are from age of 31, then 35 and then 27. This age distribution reflects the data by OECD on South Asian emigrants in the OECD countries. As per the educational qualifications of the respondents, the mean ages do confirm the level of educational attainments.

Figure 38: Age of Emigrants



4. Professionals Sectors of Emigrants

In response to the question about professional sector in which respondents were working, 13 percent responded as working in agriculture sector, 12.7 percent employed in Oil and Gas industry, 13.5 percent works in Medical Field, while 14.8 percent work in Information Technology and, 17.6 percent in Engineering, 12.7 percent in Telecommunication, and 15.6 percent in Services Sector.

Table 32: Professionals Sectors of Emigrants

Professional Sector	Percent
Services	15.6
Agriculture	13.0
Oil and Gas Industry	12.7
Information Technology	14.8
Medical field	13.5
Engineering	17.6
Telecommunication	12.7
Total	100.0

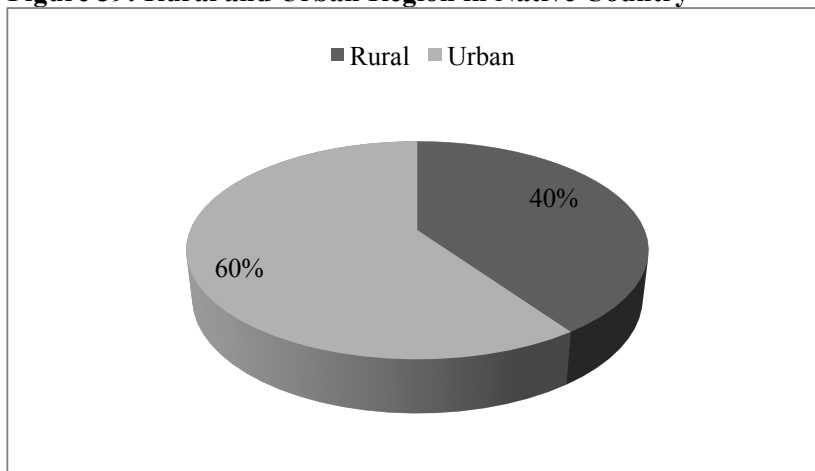
South Asian immigrants to US in particular, with 75 percent holding tertiary education, were mainly employed in education, health, social services, professional scientific and management services, manufacturing and retail trade [Mohapatra and Ozden, 2010].

Literature also draws interesting case studies such as that of ‘brown skinned specialty’ of Geriatrics in UK. A marginalized area of medicine came to be dominated by doctors from South Asia as they could find relatively easier opportunities for progression in this domain as against the limited opportunities in mainstream specialties [Bornat, Henry, and Raghuram, 2008].

5. Rural and Urban Region in Native Country

As shown in Figure 39 that 60 percent of total respondents/ emigrants belonged to urban area in their native country whereas 40 percent belonged to rural area.

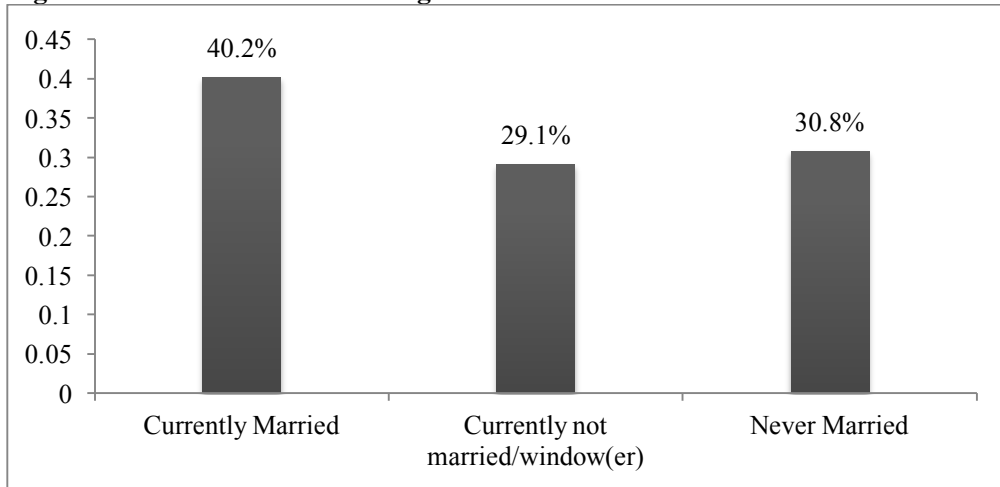
Figure 39: Rural and Urban Region in Native Country



6. Marital Status of Emigrants

Marital status of emigrants, as shown in Figure 40, narrates that 40.2 percent of total respondents were married, 29.1 percent were either not currently married or window[er] while 30.8 percent were never married. Currently not married also included all those who were not in marriage bond.

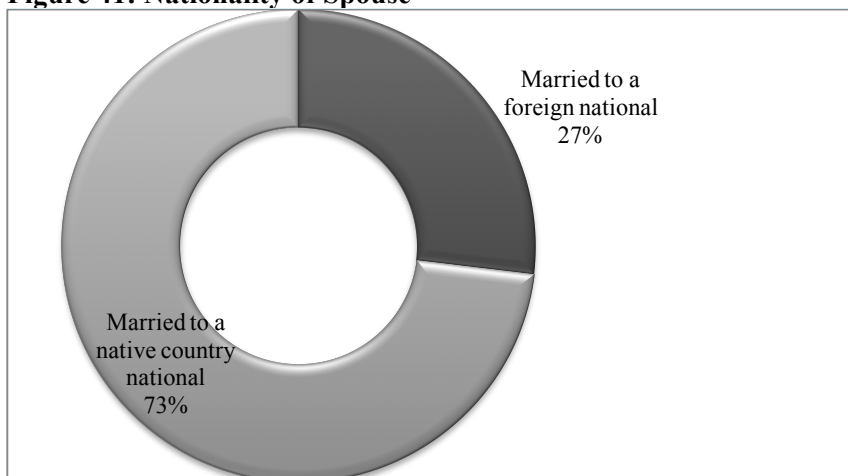
Figure 40: Marital Status of Emigrants



7. Nationality of Spouse

Nationality of their spouses was also inquired from the emigrants. It was inquired if respondent has married to a native country national or a foreign national. Above figure shows that about 73 percent of total respondents married to a native country national and 26.9 percent married to a foreign national. This figure shows that there was a trend for emigrants to marry their native country nationals. This is particularly a trend for the sub-continent to marry their back home relatives. Among reasons for emigration, there was a factor called ‘family reunion’ and under this category most of the emigrants reunited under the marriage ceremonies which often happen in the native countries. However the substantial numbers of emigrants have married to foreign nationals. Such types of emigrants might be those who were either trying to settle down in the destination countries or they were from already settled diaspora members in the destination country.

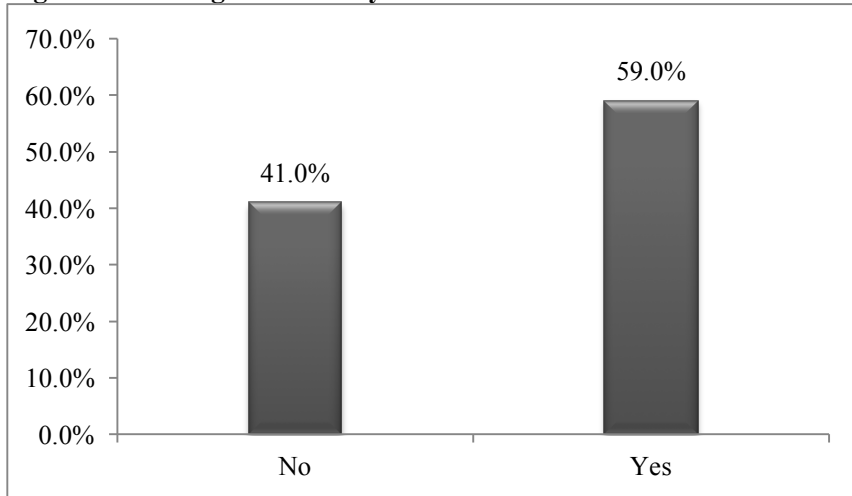
Figure 41: Nationality of Spouse



8. Living with Family Members

In a response to the question about residence of immediate family [spouse and children] of respondents, 59.0 percent responded that their family was currently residing with them abroad whereas immediate family of 41.0 percent does not reside with them abroad. The emigrants whose family members were residing with them is a proof that they were part of the well settled emigrants' community while rest of the emigrants were either living abroad on temporary basis or have not yet decided to shift their family members with them.

Figure 42: Living with Family Members



Mohapatra and Ozden [2010] highlighted that highly skilled migrants enjoyed a better standard of living than the semi-skilled or unskilled migrants. They were able to bring their families along their new destinations and have more chances of settling permanently in the industrialized nations. They were also in a better position to assimilate in the new environment as they were highly educated and hold the necessary linguistic skills.

9. Traveling Frequency to Home Country

Emigrants' frequency of visiting home country shows the strong or weak affiliation with their respective countries or family and relatives. Out of total respondents, 21.7 percent travels to their native country once in a year, 18.5 percent once in two years, 18.5 percent once in three years and 17.3 percent once in five years whereas 20.6 percent respondents did not go back since migrated. One in fifth emigrants has never gone back to their native country. These emigrants were those who have recently migrated or have moved with their family members permanently to destination country. Some respondents also added that they want to spend required number of days in the foreign country to avail full-fledged facilities offered by foreign Governments to the citizens.

Figure 43: Traveling Frequency to Home Country

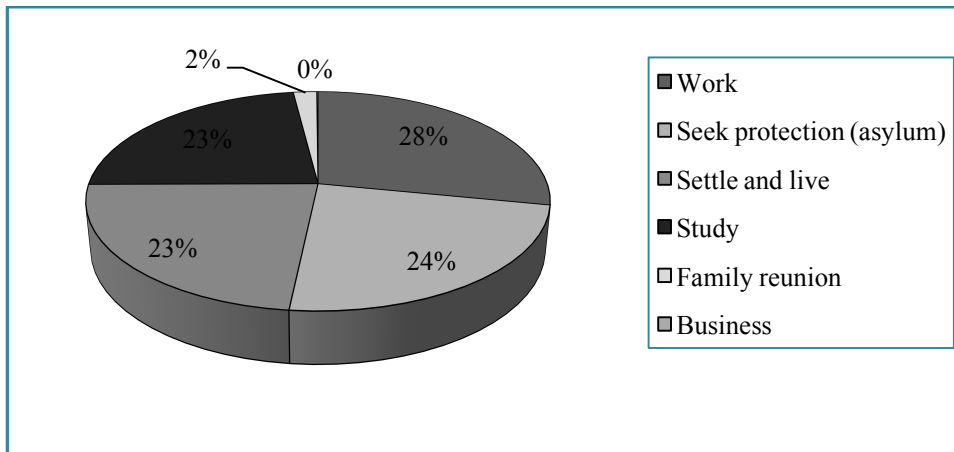
Response	Per cent
Never gone back since migrated	20.6
Once in a year	21.7
Once in two years	18.5
Once in three year	17.3
Once in five years	17.3
Any Other	4.7
Total	100.0

Section II: Emigration and Working Abroad

10. Reasons of Emigration

This section deals about certain factors that determine about reasons of emigration, working conditions and other factors that distinguish the South Asian emigrants. According to the Table 35, the highest numbers of emigrants [28 percent] have emigrated to work, the second highest reason surprisingly is to seek protection/ asylum [24 percent], however about the same number [23 percent] emigrants have moved to settle and live in the destination countries. According to literature and situation analysis of the emigration situation of the individual SAARC countries, people from Afghanistan, Sri Lanka, and Maldives have emigrated under the asylum category mostly. The findings further show that emigration with the initial objective ‘to study’ is also substantial [23 percent] while ‘family reunion’ also appeared as a reason to emigrate [2 percent]. There are different dimensions of family reunion. Some families have already settled there, travelled back to their home countries with their children to find their matches. This culture was common in all of the South Asian countries. An evident example was of the Muslim Pakistanis living in the United Kingdom who travelled back to Pakistan to get their children married and then relocate the new family members back into the United Kingdom.

Figure 44: Reasons of Emigration



South Asian nations must cautiously monitor the effects of the transition towards a knowledge-based economy and the ensuing competition for human resources because it is expected to exacerbate the flight of human capital from East to the West [Chalamwong, 2004].

Naim and Iftikhar [2010] have identified a comprehensive list of push and pull factors for high skilled migration. They listed underemployment, security issues, feeble education system and lack of strong institutions for scientific research and innovation as the primary push factors for the flight of human capital from South Asian countries such as Pakistan and Bangladesh. In addition, there were factors such as stagnant careers, insufficient funds for research, an environment that did not fully utilize intellectual and other resources, low social capital, political instability and law and order issues that are pushing the professionals out. Among the pull factors were “better learning opportunities as members of international networks, access to high quality scientific infrastructure and frontier technologies, higher salaries, competitive job environment, access to better education and health facilities for family and availability of funds for research and innovation”. Visa relaxation policies of host countries were also playing an important role as a pull factor. Interestingly, they argued that unemployment was not the key factor in migration because World Development Indicators acknowledge that the unemployment rate of tertiary educated professionals was only 22 percent of total unemployment rate. It was other factors associated with overall career progress and the macroeconomic environment that result in high rate of emigration. Their argument was further substantiated by the results of an OECD study that found no strong correlation between the emigration rate of the highly skilled and conditions of unemployment in the source countries [Dumont and Lemaître, 2005]. Hence, when it comes to high skilled migration, the developing countries were not benefitting from the export of surplus labour as in the case of semi-skilled or unskilled labour migration.

11. Satisfaction Level on Professional Growth

The emigrants were asked about their satisfaction with respect to professional growth as per education and experience. The responses are provided in the Table 33 below.

Table 33: Satisfaction Level on Professional Growth

Response	Percent
Satisfied	33.9
Very Satisfied	34.7
Neutral	28.3
Dissatisfied	0.3
Very Dissatisfied	0.5
Total	100

Most of the respondents were satisfied with their professional growth in foreign countries, 33.9 percent found as satisfied and 34.7 percent were very satisfied. A few [0.8 percent] said as very dissatisfied or dissatisfied. In all this perspective, 28.3 percent replied that they were neutral.

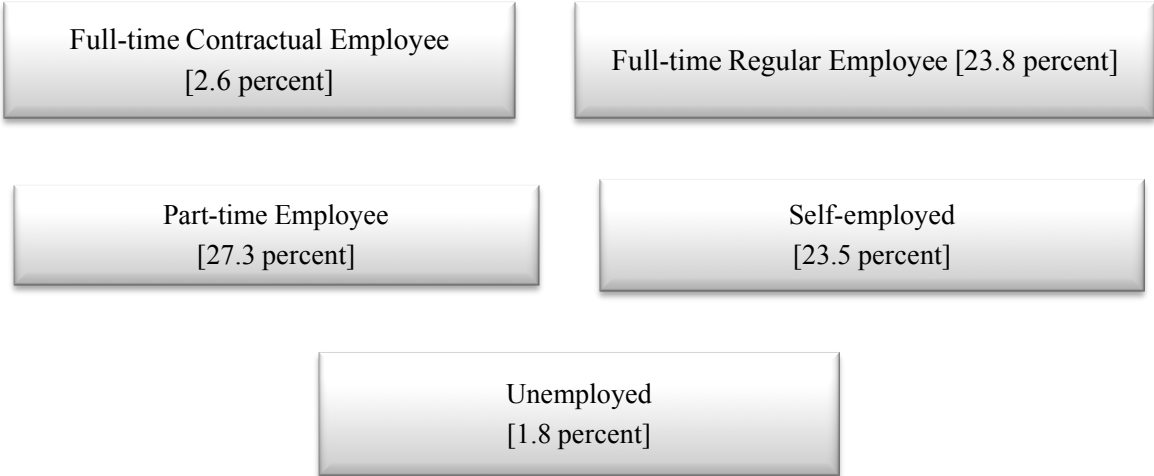
Mohapatra and Ozden [2010] highlighted that highly skilled migrants enjoyed a better standard of living than the semi-skilled or unskilled migrants. They were able to bring their families along

their new destinations and have more chances of settling permanently in the industrialized nations. They were also in a better position to assimilate in the new environment as they were highly educated and hold the necessary linguistic skills.

12. Employment Status of Emigrants

Respondents, about their employment status in foreign countries said that they were self-employed [23.5 percent] and 27 percent were part time employed. Full time employment can be of two types: full time contractual employee [2.6 percent]; and full time regular employee [23.8 percent]. It was very interesting to see that all respondents of this survey reported lowest unemployment only 1.8 percent.

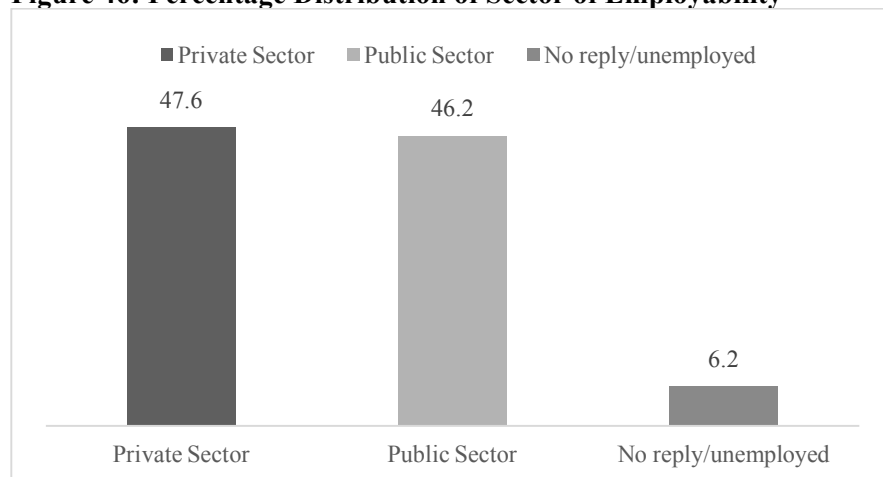
Figure 45: Employment Status of Emigrants



13. Sector of Employability

All those who are employed were asked to comment whether they work in public sector or private sector. There was almost equal distribution across the public sector and private sector, 46.2 percent and 47.6 percent respectively. Since private sector in developed countries constitutes a great part of the overall economic sectors/development, the employment in the private sector was evident.

Figure 46: Percentage Distribution of Sector of Employability



14. Comparison of Home and Foreign Countries

The respondents were asked to compare on the indicators shown in Table 39, in respect of home and foreign countries. Most of the respondents showed their satisfaction on availability of these factors in foreign countries as 95.5 percent said that in foreign countries they have better employment opportunities, better socio economic freedom reported by 96.2 percent, better social justice replied by 97.3 percent, better security as replied by 98.3 percent, better education facilities said by 94.2 percent, and better infrastructure as told by 98.1 percent.

In all of the indicators, there was not a single indicator reported to be good comparatively in home country. Highest numbers of emigrants reported the security as the comparatively worse in the home countries. The security issues were reflected from the situation in the Afghanistan, Pakistan and Sri Lanka.

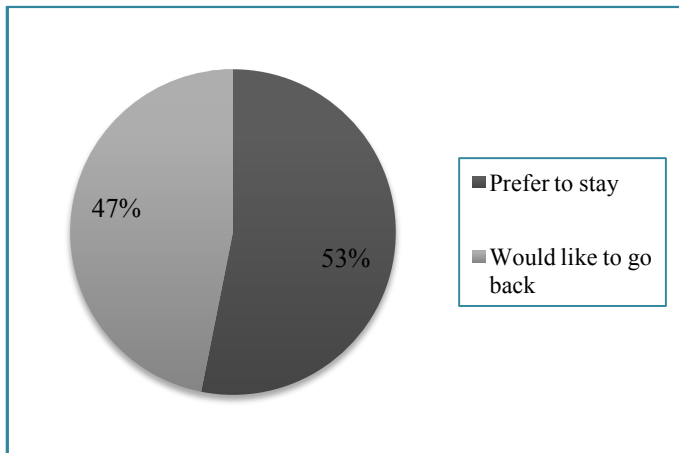
Table 34: Comparison of Home and Foreign Countries

Indicator	Home Country [percent]	Destination Country [percent]
Employment opportunities	4.5	95.5
Socioeconomic freedom	3.8	96.2
Social justice	2.7	97.3
Security	1.7	98.3
Education	5.8	94.2
Infrastructure and development	1.9	98.1

15. Preference of Emigrants to Stay Abroad

More than half [53 percent] of the respondents preferred to stay in the foreign countries, as shown in Figure 43, rest of 46.9 percent replied that they would like to return back if certain circumstances and opportunities available in their home countries.

Figure 47: Preference of Emigrants to Stay Abroad



The emigrants, who invest in their home country through different channels and means like investment in the property and through other commercial activities, have more odds to go back to their home countries provided there are no security and related issues.

Islam and Mayer [2013] presented very different findings related to professional opportunities for South Asians residing in Greater Toronto Area. According to Islam and Mayer findings, 57 percent of the respondents could not get their professional degrees recognized in Canada, 59 percent had trouble getting their work experience recognized, 64 percent had to switch their career to a different field and 70 percent reported the feelings of unhappiness, frustration, anxiety and depression because of their underemployment.

Section IV: Remittances

Remittances are an important part of the economy of the receiving countries. All of the SAARC countries are remittances receivers. The survey inquired on couple of important questions regarding remittances, their use and impact in the receiving countries.

16. Frequency of Remittances Sent

Table 40 shows the frequency of the remittances that were sent by the emigrants. About 19 percent of the emigrants sent remittances on monthly bases [18.9 percent], while 17 percent sent remittances as per the need of their family in their home countries. Similarly, 17.4 percent of the respondents sent bi-annually, 16.8 percent never sent, 13.5 percent sent on quarterly bases, and 13.8 percent of the respondents replied that they sent money once in a year. The data confirms that more than 85 percent of the total emigrants send remittances back to their families.

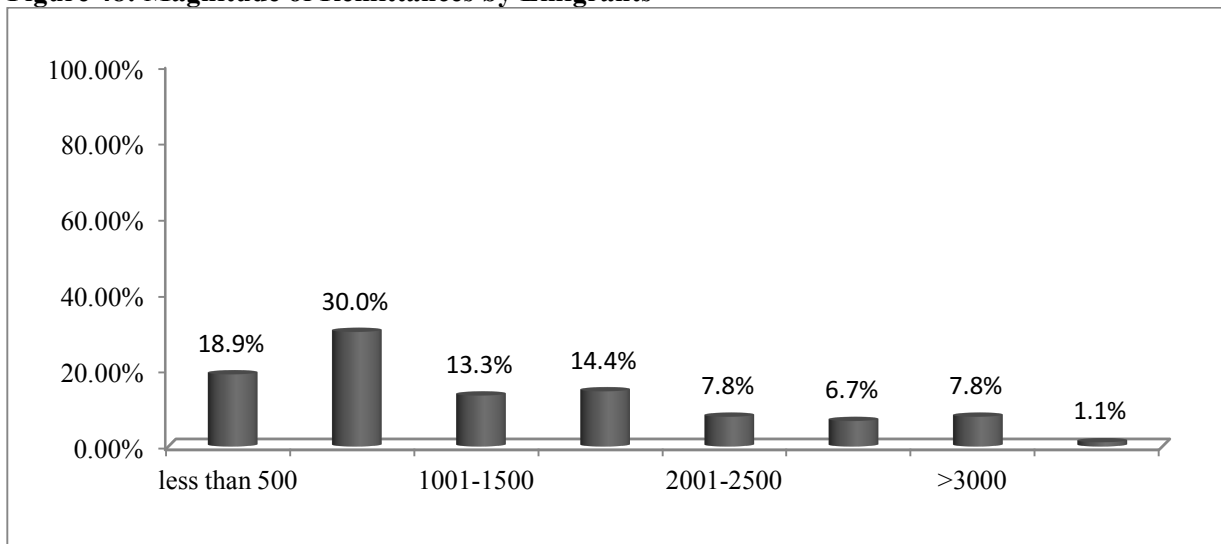
Table 35: Frequency of Remittances Sent

Frequency	Percent
Bi-annually	17.4
Never sent	16.8
Monthly	18.9
Quarterly	13.5
As per need	17.0
Yearly	13.8

17. Magnitude of Remittances by Emigrants

A diversified scenario emerged in response to know magnitude of remittances. Figure 44 shows that 30 percent of the respondents were sending remittances to their home countries in the range of \$500-\$1000, 27.7 percent were sending in the range of \$1001-\$2000 and 14.5 percent were sending in the range of \$2001- \$3000. Around 7.5 percent were sending more than \$3000.

Figure 48: Magnitude of Remittances by Emigrants



Naim and Iftikhar [2010] concur with the popular view that since high skilled emigrants maintained better quality of life in destination countries and spent a huge sum on the education of their children overseas; they were not in a position to contribute much in the shape of remittances.

18. Income Source of Families in Home Country

Families living in home countries have other sources of income too. In a response to the question about sources of income of respondent's back home, 19.8 percent families [in their home countries] of the respondents earned from agriculture, 19 percent from employment, 18.7 percent from pension, 2.3 percent each from rents and business, 17.8 percent from services and 16.9 percent have no other sources of income. Around 3 percent did not answer the question [multiple answers].

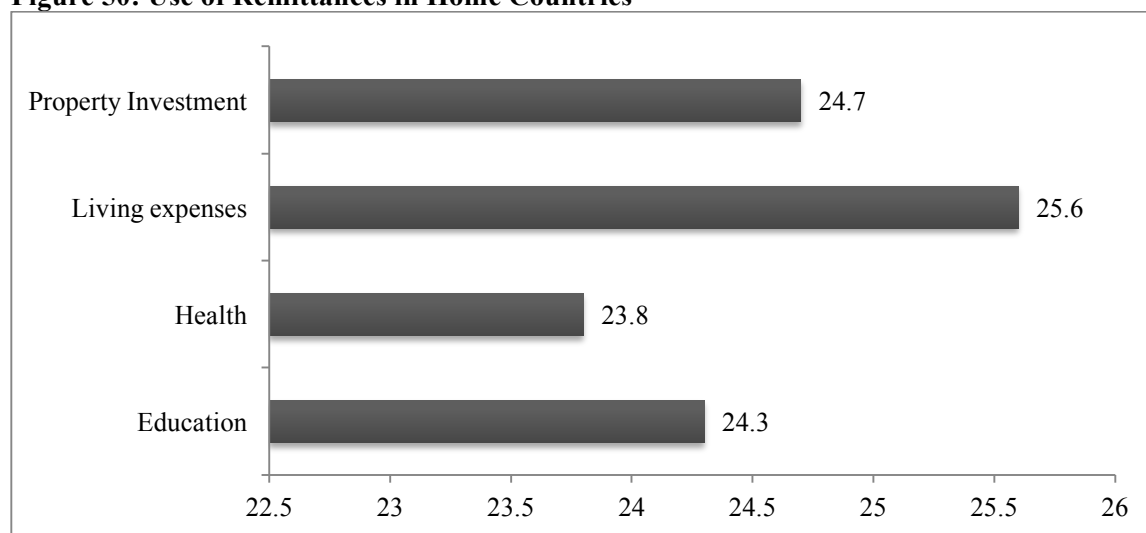
Figure 49: Income Source of Families in Home Country

Response	Per cent
From Agriculture	19.8
From Employment	19.0
From Pension	18.7
From Rents	2.3
From Services	17.8
Business	2.3
No other source	16.9
Missing Value	3.3
Total	100.0

19. Use of Remittances in Home Countries

Spending of remittances was an important indicator to reflect its possible impact on socioeconomic indicators. Families have spent on education as replied by 24.3 percent of respondents, 23.8 percent on health, 25.6 percent to meet day to day expenses and 24.7 percent on property investment. Remaining 1.7 percent of total did not answer the question.

Figure 50: Use of Remittances in Home Countries



Spending of remittances on day to day expenses became major part of total remittances and expenses on education and property investment are approximately equal. Important aspect of the remittances was their use on education and health, which in both cases constitute marginally less than half of the use of total remittances.

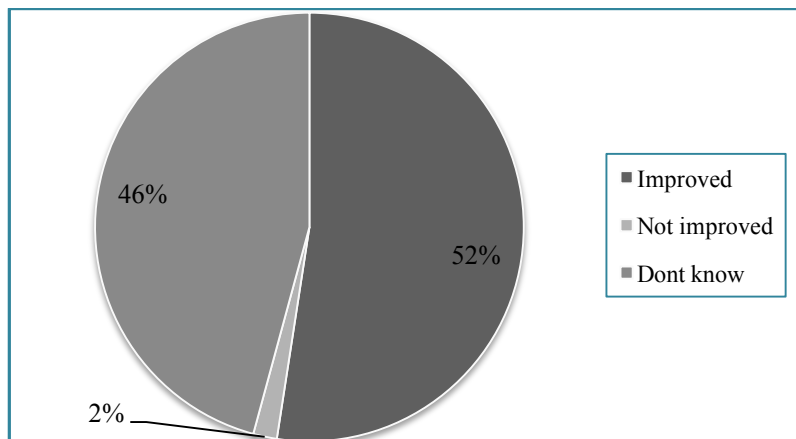
A number of studies acknowledge arguments rose in favour of remittances being used lavishly in household consumption and hence not playing the significant role they could in long-term

development of these households [Dhar and Samanta, 2014; Chalamwong, 2004]. The behaviour of South Asian households needs to be deciphered in these regards.

20. Impact of Remittances on Socioeconomic Development

Due to remittances, socioeconomic development of families has improved or not improved was also inquired from the emigrants. About half of the respondents [48.9 percent] reported that the socioeconomic condition of their back home families has improved, while substantial numbers of the emigrants [42.7 percent] have replied that they were uncertain and don't know to report improvement. About 2 percent reported situation as not improved.

Figure 51: Impact of Remittances on Socioeconomic Development

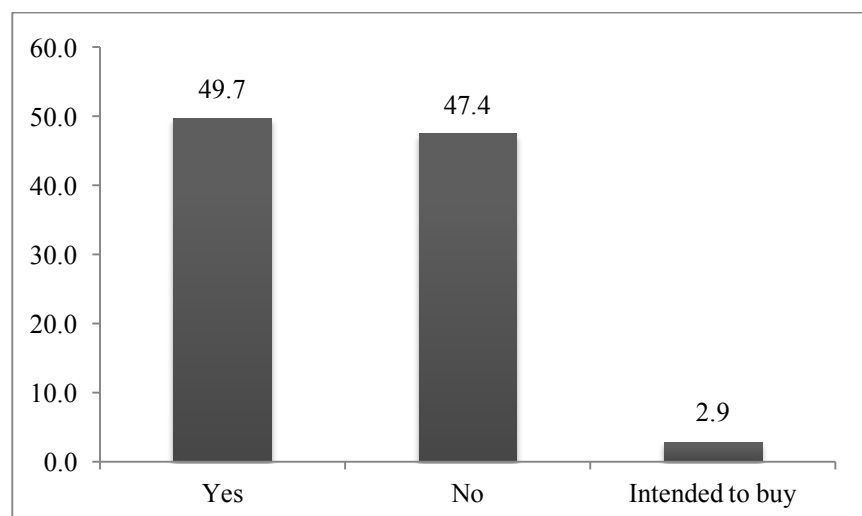


21. Emigrants Property in Foreign Country

Respondents were asked about their property in foreign country to analyse their affiliation with that country. The property can act like a real magnet for emigrants to settle in any country. The emigrants who do have properties in the foreign country, they have more odds to stay and settle abroad than those who do not have any property and or not intended to buy any property.

In response, 49.7 percent responded that they have purchased property in the destination country and 47.4 percent responded that they have not bought any property. About 3 percent have reported that they have intention to buy some property in near future in foreign countries. Overall, we can identify that about 52 percent of the emigrants have more odds to settle there and/or they do have plans to settle in the foreign country.

Figure 52: Percentage Distribution of Emigrants having Property in Foreign Country



Section V: Engagements

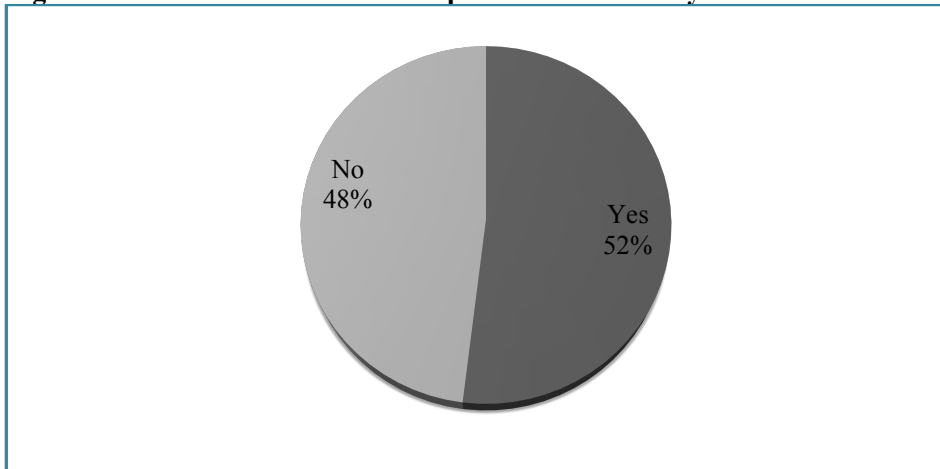
This section deals with the engagement of the emigrants with the home country through different means which are identified below. Since the target of the survey was the trained and highly educated emigrants from the SAARC countries, so they were asked about their professional memberships with professional bodies/organisations in the home country.

21. Professional Memberships in Home Country

One of the key aims of the survey was to know the emigrants who have professional membership with professional organisations/association in the home countries. More than half respondents [52 percent] have reported to have such membership, while 48 percent have not membership.

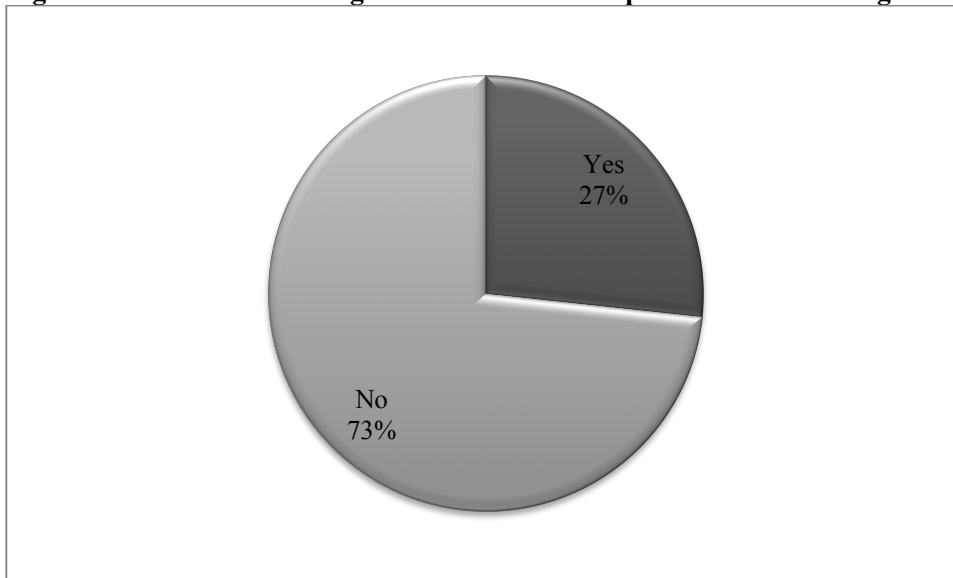
The membership with the professional bodies in the home countries shows an engagement that was linked in the knowledge and skill transfer from developed to developing countries. The emigrants who were working in the universities and other education and training institutes were more linked with home countries through such memberships.

Figure 53: Professional Memberships in Home Country



The emigrants who were not member of any association/organisation, 73.3 percent were not intended to be member of any such organizations/associations, while remaining 26.7 percent were intended to be member of a professional organisation.

Figure 54: Intention of Emigrants for Membership in Professional Organisations

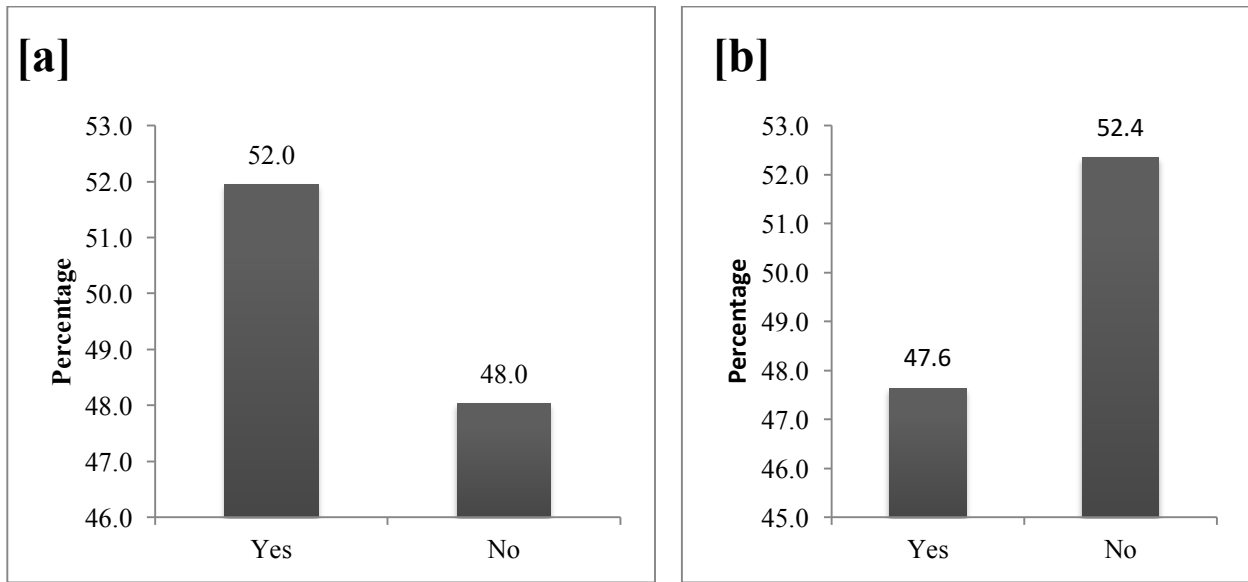


22. Emigrants Registered with Embassy

In response to registration with their home country's embassy or consulate, 52.8 percent replied in affirmative and 48.0 percent responded to have no registration with embassy or consulate of home country in the destination country.

Similarly, 52.4 percent of the total respondents have not attended different events organized by their country's embassy/consulate, whereas about 47.6 percent attended such events.

Figure 55: [a] Emigrants Registered with Embassy [b] Attend Embassies Events



Section VI: Settling Back

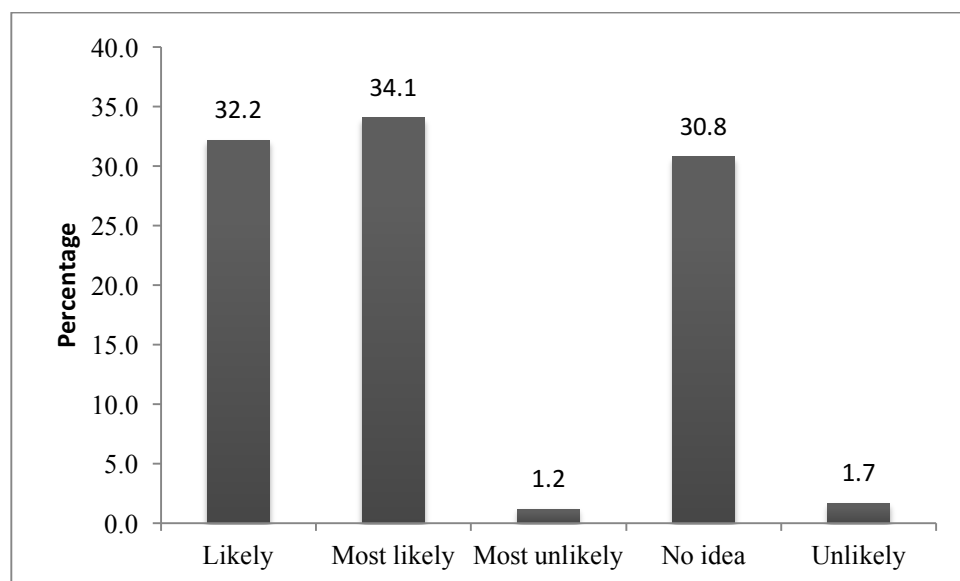
Settling back to home countries is another important aspect regarding emigration of trained and qualified human resources. After meeting their objectives of emigration, if people settle back to their home countries, it might give a great edge to the countries of origin. This was important particularly when origin countries were suffering from brain drain and shortage of skilled human resources in sectors which are important part of the domestic economies.

23. Plan to Settle Back

It was most likely that the respondents may consider practicing their current profession in their home countries in future as replied by 34.1 percent of total respondents, whereas 32.2 said its likely to do so, only 2.9 percent emigrants do not think so. Around 30.8 percent of the respondents said that they have no idea to practice their current profession in their home countries in future.

It was evident from the responses that emigrants were inclined to work in their home countries but there might be factors that did not permit them to follow their intentions.

Figure 56: Plan to Settle Back



24. Emigrants Contribution to Home Countries

Respondents said that they were contributing to their home countries by transfer of knowledge/expertise, as stated by 22.8 percent, 21.4 percent said they do so by investing in home countries' economy, 18.5 percent by bringing the remittances, 18.4 percent by charity, 17.3 percent by advocating social changes and only 0.1 percent replied that they contribute in home countries by facilitating bilateral trade; 1.5 percent of respondents did not answer to this question.

Table 36: Emigrants Contribution to Home Countries

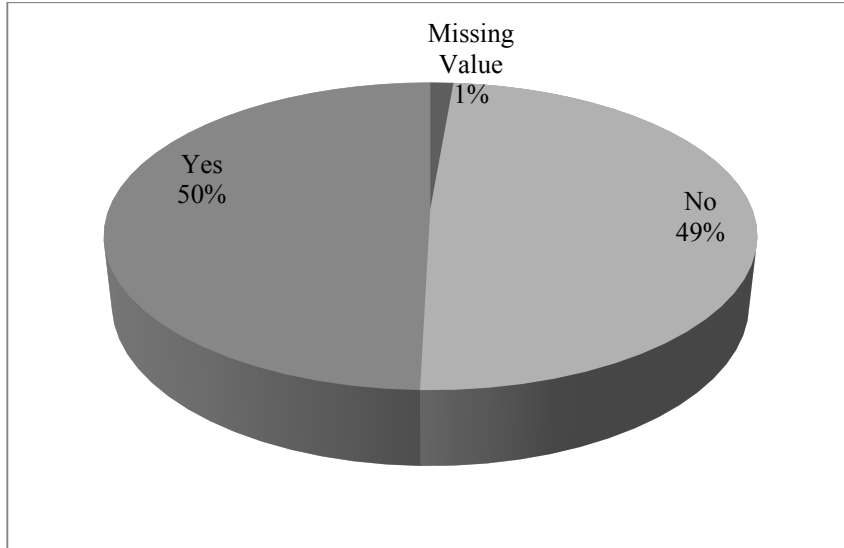
Response	Percent
Transfer of knowledge/ expertise	22.8
Investing in home economy	21.4
Bringing the Remittances	18.5
Charity / Philanthropy	18.4
Advocating social changes	17.3
Facilitating bilateral trade	0.1
No response	1.5

Various costs are associated with the exodus of scientists, engineers, physicians and other professionals. First of all, the cost incurred in the shape of education and training of human resources was lost because the emigrated professionals were no more participating in the local job market. The situation was worse for developing countries that subsidize public education because to cover the skills deficit, additional funds were required that can only be raised through increased taxation or reduction in educational subsidies and other public expenditure [Schiff, 2005]. None of these measures was conducive to the promotion of higher education.

25. Aware of Employment Opportunities in Home Countries

Half of all respondents [50 percent] reported to have knowledge of such opportunities and about same number of emigrants [49 percent] did not have such information.

Figure 57: Aware of Employment Opportunities in Home Countries

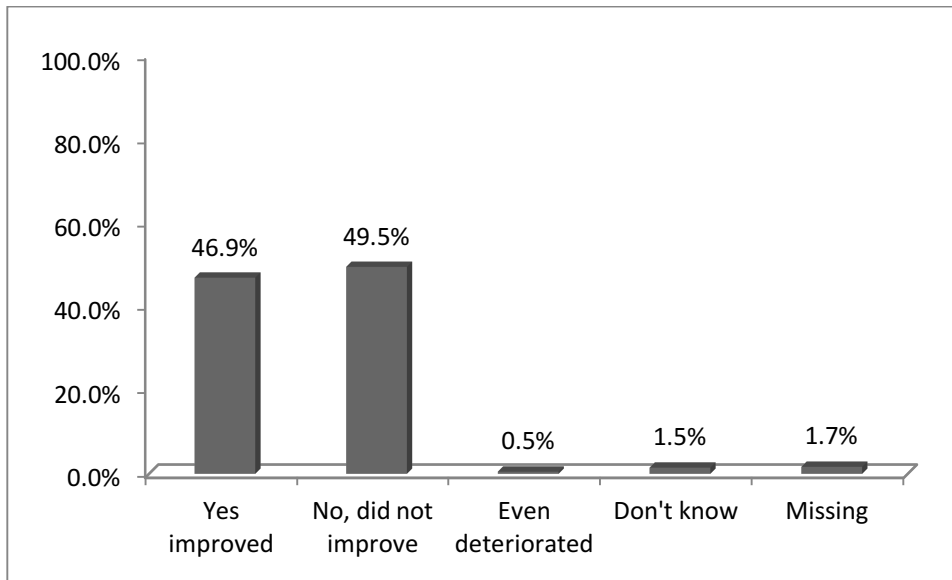


26. Knowledge on Employment Conditions in Home Countries

Working conditions or policies are important part of the overall human resource management. Better working conditions are linked with better talent retaining prospects, particularly in developing countries. As South Asia is linked with many socioeconomic and political issues that have negatively impacted number of the SAARC countries, the emigrants who have intention to work back in their home countries cannot move back unless they are able to see positive changes and improvements in the working conditions across different professions.

Half of the respondents [46.9 percent] replied that employment conditions in the home countries has improved, on the other hand 49.5 percent said that working conditions were not improving and 0.5 percent said that it has even deteriorated. There were 1.5 percent respondents who did not know about the situation, whereas 1.7 percent did not answer.

Figure 58: Knowledge on Employment Conditions in Home Countries

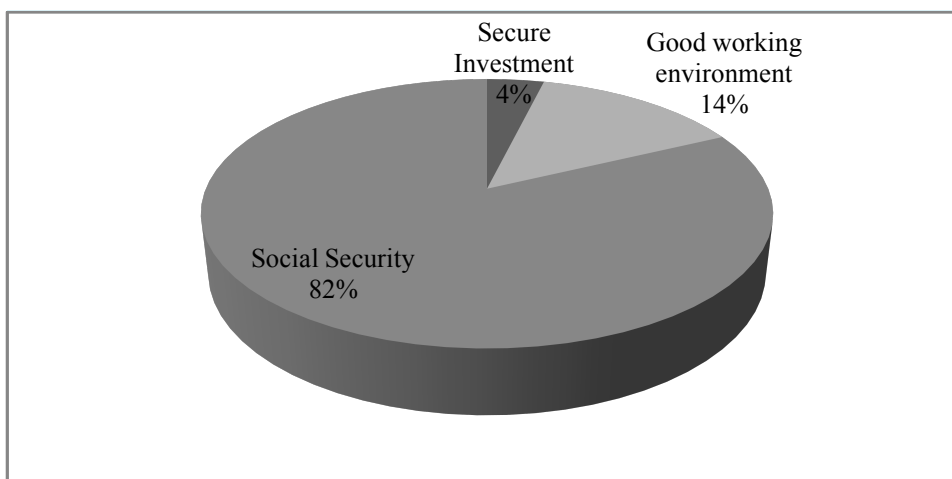


27. Important Indicators to Settle Back

Emigrants were requested to select any three indicators that they considered as most important which can lead them to settle back to their home countries. There is clear evidence that social security is a top indicator which is required and considered to settle back to their home countries.

Most of the respondent [82 percent] replied that social security is key indicator to monitor once before shifting back to home countries, 14 percent said good working environment and 4 percent said for secure investment.

Figure 59: Important Indicators to Settle Back



The overall results of this primary research component reflect the findings of the secondary research component of the report. Since emigration is a regular and most important phenomenon,

it thus required to be considered as an important policy option. In the immigration countries, the countries that receive emigrants, the importance of policy is well recognized. As a result to that need, the data on emigration is well managed and well analysed with the objective to reflect on timely, vital and inevitable policy responses that are required to streamline human resource policies, in addition to other policy challenges that have arisen due to inflow of the emigrants from different developing part of the world.

On the other hand, emigration countries, the countries which send emigrants, particularly the SAARC countries lack on common as well as individual policies which are clear reflection on the current and future need of their human resources.

6. Recommendations

In context of this research study outcomes, following recommendations are suggested:

1. The SAARC Governments are following various policies of migration and HRD. It is imperative to join the SAARC countries to increase their population capability and skills. This will develop their human capital and a definite source of earning remittances.
2. A joint SAARC migration and remittances policy can better help policy makers and Government functionaries to share information and develop policies and programs accordingly. This policy will help Members to benefit from regional high skilled labour at affordable cost.
3. All related policies i.e. education, labour, women, health etc. may be devised considering local and foreign demands of unskilled, semi-skilled, and skilled workers. Human resource development programs can be more focused to fulfil first the local demand, and then to supply to the rest of the world.
4. High skilled labour can be called back as per international pay scales to develop capacity of the local labour market. University professors, trainers, instructors, mentors etc. can be engaged for imparting skills as per various local markets. Globally recognized trainers in specialist areas may be engaged to train the domestic workers and to produce master trainers.
5. Connect local HRD sector with the international standards to increase migration of high skilled labour to attract more remittances. The SAARC region attracts lots of remittances even comparing with other regions. But number of earners is more, in contrast with remittances inflow, because of unskilled or semi-skilled workers abroad.
6. Vocational and technical education is uncommon and unattractive cadre for youth, but in many cases technicians earns more than graduates. Hence, the SAARC region should focus on advancement of TVET.
7. Study suggests that emigrants have tendency to return back to their home countries if certain favourable parameters prevails. Each Member State should prove this issue further to plan their future strategies for provision of complimentary atmosphere to emigrants. Lots of emigrants return back for family reunions, marriages, spending post-retirement lives etc. they may be engaged in the professional careers as advisers, members of committees, supervisors to learn from their life long experiences and skills.
8. More strong linkages should be established with already existing diaspora through engaging them in events and seminars organized by the embassies and consulates of the SAARC countries in top destination countries.

9. The sectors of economy where the SAARC emigrants work in destination countries should be replicated in terms of socioeconomic benefits in home countries so that people who are already emigrated can opt out to work in their home countries.
10. Since India, Pakistan and Bangladesh, including Afghanistan do have demographic transition; there should be policy options to get maximum benefit from increasing young labour force at regional level.

7. Conclusion

Migration is a phenomenon that existed in all parts of the human history. People move with clear objectives unless they are forced to migrate. Human settlements have histories. Since economies depend on human resources, the movement of humans do have impact on economic development. The modern day economies are linked with human resources, particularly during their inception and transition from one phase to another. For example, from factor driven economy to an efficiency driven economy and from efficiency to an innovation driven economy. These transitory phases are not possible without investment and engagement of human resources.

Being the largest labour force market, the SAARC is one of the potential regional economies that can flourish and ensure socioeconomic development of the regional countries. Currently the bright talent from the SAARC is being diffused to developed countries. The result is the fulfilment of trained and qualified human resources requirement of the development countries that drives their economic development. Developing countries get fruits of this emigration in the form of remittances and knowledge/skill transfer but for economies that are looking to see major transition in them [from low income to high income], the dependence of remittances cannot do more than just to share the burden and sustain the existing patterns of development of receiving countries. Some developing economies depend so heavily on in-flow of remittances that without them they simply collapse.

The emigration from the SAARC countries happens for all types of human resources but emigration of skilled and highly qualified human resources do have negative impact on the SAARC countries. Such type of human resources receives theirs' basic to high level of education and particular professional training/skills in their home country that costs to national economies. The national economies do not get in response to such investment because people emigrate to developed countries and start contributing to their developed economies.

Various dimensions of skilled emigration were complex to underpin, however recent literature guides to understand and analyse this phenomenon. Trebilcock and Sudak [2006] assert that emigrants are not viewed as sunk cost rather a resource to be cultivated. This is particularly important for emigration countries where this resource has often been ignored. This report will analyse it in the context of 'Brain Drain', 'Brain Gain', 'Brain Circulation', and 'Brain Reversal'.

Migration and its impact was a hard-core policy research topic and it has attracted attention of private sector as well as Governments. Migration has now become key policy issue both for sending and receiving countries, more and more Government institutions like universities, media, migrant support groups and trade unions have become important stakeholders. Public and private sector stakeholders in the SAARC region are required to be identified and mobilized to effect long-term emigration policy in the Member States for future regional integration and HRD.

The study analysed the dynamics of overseas skilled labour migration over time including the type of migration diaspora, remittances and type of skills. The study concluded that Countries of Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development OECD have attracted about 24 percent of the SAARC region's emigrant stock, which ultimately become the second most preferred region in the world. But important was that the SAARC region's people migrating towards the

OECD countries and especially towards the traditional destinations such as USA, UK and Canada are mostly highly qualified professionals. The period 1990 – 2000 has witnessed 63.7 percent rise in the figure of tertiary-educated immigrants to OECD as against a 14.4 percent rise in the number of unskilled immigrants.

Labour market information system exists to some extent in the SAARC region but there is a clear lack of emphasis on the information management for the movement of highly educated and skilled labour. This type of work opportunities, which are identified themselves or through information channels between employees and employers is, not possible without consent and knowledge of the immigration and passport departments. The destination countries do have system by which they monitor and compile data on immigration of the workers coming from developing countries but the origin countries, particularly the SAARC Member States lack data on such movements. This is the reason that most of the content of this report is filled by the sources developed and published by the developed countries.

In terms of emigration of highly educated people, the top countries appeared as the United States, Australia, United Kingdom, New Zealand and Switzerland. Movement of emigrant women reveals different statistics. More young people with of age 15-24 choose high developed countries as their destination countries. Students move from all over the world to developed countries mostly. Since region is largest populous in the world and its higher educational aspirations and statistics are better in the context of the world, it would be worthwhile to look at the student movement across the world of the SAARC region.

Much of Afghanistan's emigration story is filled with data on mass movement of people out of borders of Afghanistan to secure themselves from war, drought and resultant poverty. The conflict has uprooted the institutions that develop human resources, as it is evident from the profile of Afghanistan compared to other lowest developed countries in the world. Bangladesh has enriched profile on emigration and its remittances were estimated to be US\$13779 million in 2013. Its net migration rate [NMR] is -2.6 migrants per 1,000 population. The negative NMR is characteristic of most of developing countries. Bangladesh comes among one of the populous countries in the world with successful implementation of population policies. Currently it stands as the 8th populous country in the world [Official Population Clock, 2014] and 3rd populous in the SAARC region. According to trend apparently, the net migration rate for Bhutan remains positive for most of the time slots except during 1990-95 in which the net migration moved to record low at -33. According to a report "Labor Migration, Skills and Student Mobility in Asia", Bhutan has no a single inflow to OECD till 2007. From 2007 onward this inflow started and it was 1 thousand in 2008, 3 thousand in 2009, 9 thousand in 2010 and 14 thousand in 2011 [ADB, 2014]. According to United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs [UNDESA, 2013], migration from Bhutan increased from 10,000 in 1960 to 51,000 in 2013.

India has the largest segment of population in South Asia. India has 75 percent [PRB Datasheet, 2014] of all the SAARC population and being the most populous country of the SAARC sends more people to other countries. The Indian emigrants are from every field of life including unskilled, semi and skilled population. India is top recipient of the remittances in the world and remittances are larger than the IT exports of the country and overall remittances to India were expected to be 71 billion [US\$] in 2013 [Migration and Development Brief 21, World Bank,

2013]. More than 62 percent of South Asian remittance inflow goes to India and rest about 37 percent inflow is for rest of South Asian countries.

According to UN DESA [2013], the total emigrant stock of Maldivians living in other countries was 7097 in 2013. It was 6658 in 2010 and just 4122 in 2000. The emigrant stock in 2013 was 72 percent higher than what was in 2000; however the magnitude of the migrant stock is marginal. This may be due to the reason that Maldivians emigration is not linked with any conflict or movement of people due to political and/or ethnic issues which is a good condition in terms of people who otherwise would have been refuging and migrating. The expatriation rate for people of Maldives to OECD was 1.9 in 2000 [OECD, 2012]. According to OECD [2013], the Nepali emigrants in OECD were 17 thousand in 2007, 22 thousand in 2009 and 29 thousand in 2011. Nepali emigrants make 0.6 percent of all inflow to OECD in 2011 and expatriation rate [per million population] in 2011 for Nepali emigrants was 979 which is quite remarkable in the case of South Asian emigration phenomenon.

According to a joint report by OECD and UN DESA, in Pakistan, there were total 1088 thousand adult [15+ years] emigrant living in OECD during 2010-11 with 378 thousand those who are highly educated. The overall emigration rate is 1.0 percent while emigration rate of highly educated population is 5.5 percent which is quite notable and is only after Sri Lanka which has rate of 5.7 percent. About 35 percent of all emigrants in OECD are highly educated Pakistanis. In Sri Lanka, majority of the overseas migrants are low skilled workers, which is a major challenge and resulting low remittances. The data shows that the SLBFE not follow the ILO 1988 International Standard Classification of Occupations as the 'middle level and clerical and related' seems to include technicians and other skilled workers while a separate 'skilled' category is also included. Data pertaining to the 1990s and 2000s disclose that share of professionals has increased overtime [1995 – 0.5 percent, 2012 – 1.5 percent], Clerical and related workers [1995 – 2.7 percent, 2012 – 5.7 percent], skilled workers [1995 – 15.8, 2012 – 23.8 percent] and unskilled workers other than housemaids [1995 – 13.6 percent, 2012 – 24.8 percent] while a significant decreased is shown in the departures of Housemaids [1996 – 66.0 percent, 2012 – 40.

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Appendices

Annex - I

Figure 60: Afghanistan Migration Flow Patterns/Destinations



Figure 61: Bangladesh Migration Flow Patterns/Destinations

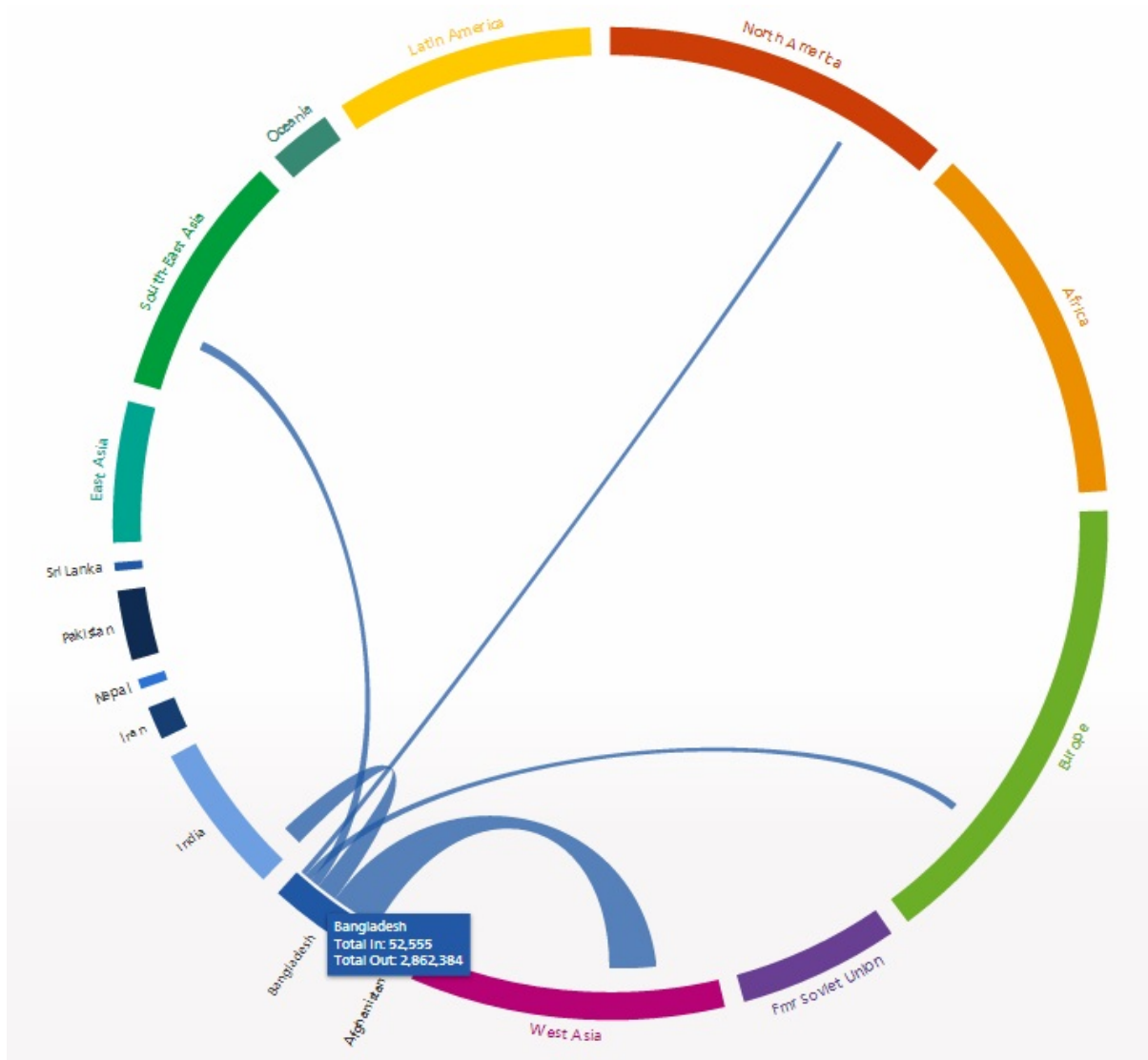


Figure 62: Indian Migration Flow Patterns/Destinations

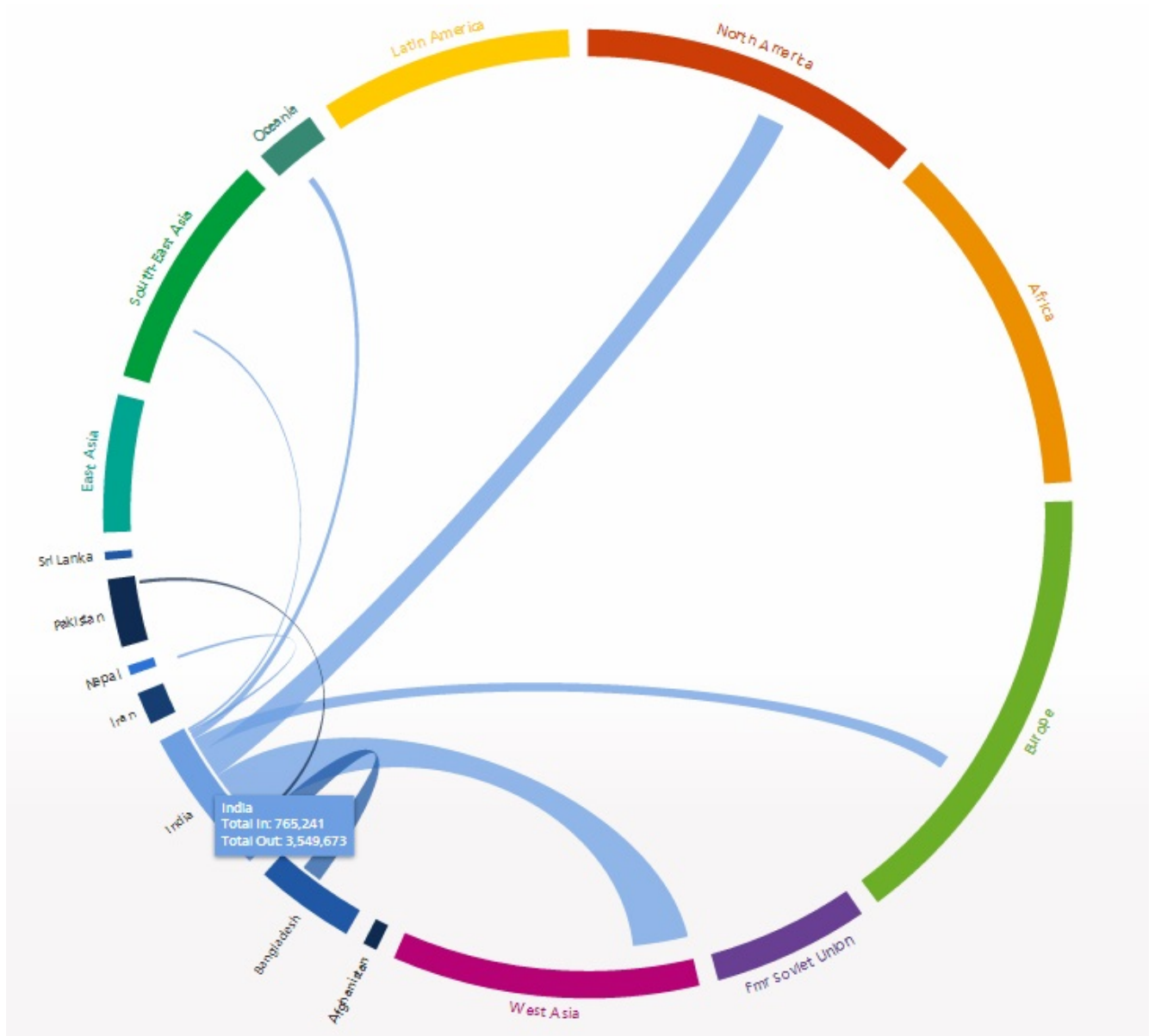


Figure 63: Nepal Migration Flow Patterns/Destinations



Figure 64: Pakistan Migration Flow Patterns/Destinations

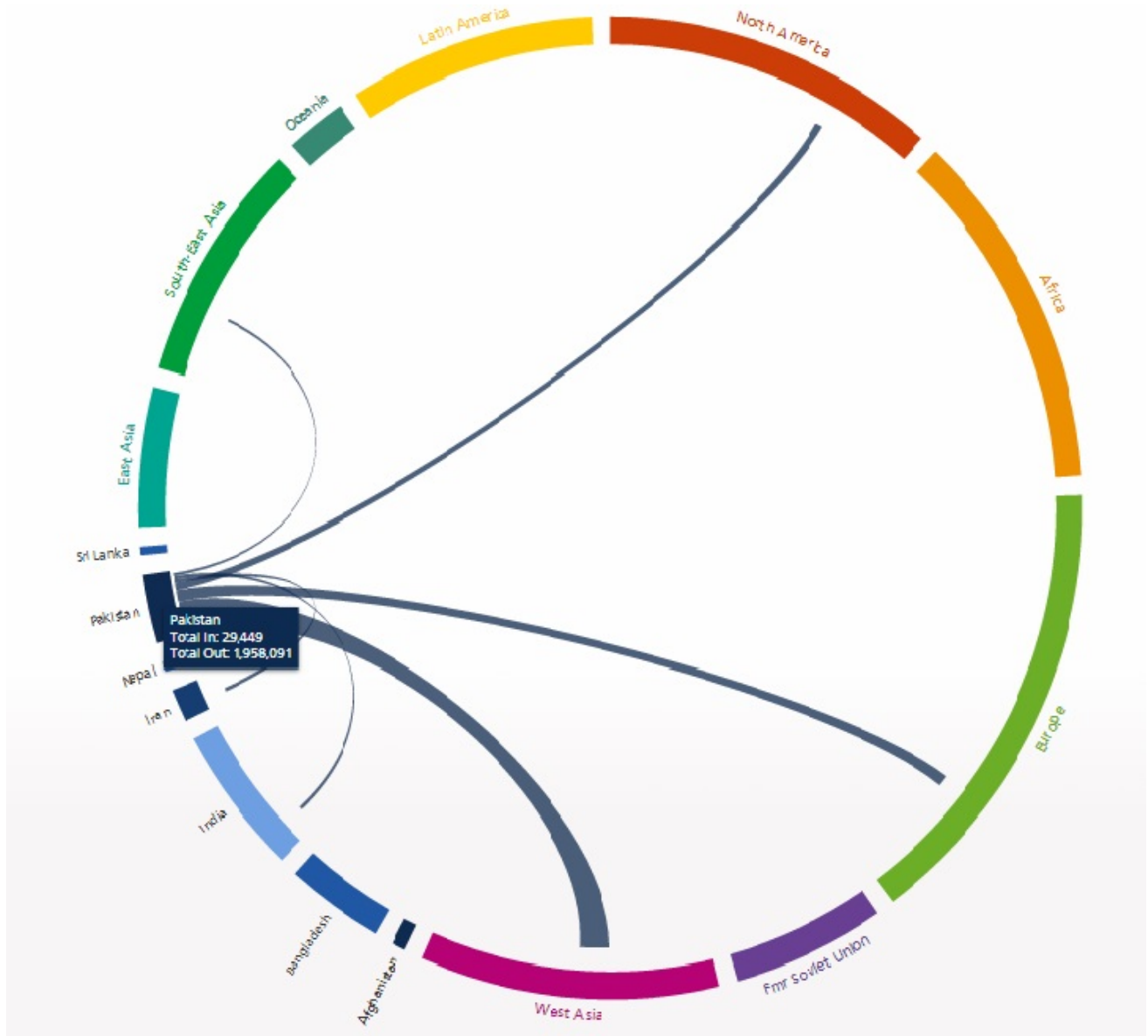


Figure 65: Sri Lanka Migration Flow Patterns/Destinations



Annex – II

Total Departures of Foreign Employment by Countries, Sri Lanka

Countries	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Saudi Arabia	26.92	31.48	26.48	26.07	34.71
Kuwait	18.74	17.15	17.98	19.26	15.67
UAE	20.43	16.03	15.82	14.95	13.54
Qatar	15.76	17.76	20.44	20.06	20.36
Lebanon	1.98	2.39	2.27	1.96	1.4
Jordan	4.14	3.65	3.52	4.99	3.68
Oman	1.9	2.16	2.38	2.05	1.73
Bahrain	1.86	2.4	2.64	2.06	1.61
Maldives	1.69	1.58	1.56	1.59	1.43
Cyprus	1.13	1.19	1.04	1.15	1.02
South Korea	2.79	1.62	1.97	2.82	1.99
Singapore	0.43	0.42	0.39	0.41	0.35
Malaysia	0.52	0.42	1.38	0.94	0.95
Hong Kong	0.12	0.14	0.11	0.14	0.16
Mauritius	0.14	0.26	0.12	0.14	0.1
United Kingdom	0.01	0.03	0.01	0.01	-
Australia	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01
South Africa	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.02	-
Canada	0.01	0.02	-	0.01	-
Others	1.4	1.28	1.87	1.36	1.29
Total [in numbers]	250,499	247,126	267,507	262,961	282,331

Source: Sri Lanka Bureau of Foreign Employment, 2013

Annex – III Questionnaire

Informed Consent

Research Analytics International is part of a research study on “Emigration of Trained and Professionally Qualified Man-Power from the SAARC Countries to Developed Nations” on behalf of the SAARC Human Resource Development Centre [SHRDC], Islamabad, Pakistan. The research has specific objective to understand the dynamism of emigration of trained and professionally qualified individuals out of their native countries. We encourage you to record your responses. All the responses recorded will solely be used for research purposes and your personal information will never be disclosed at any level.

If you are ready to be part of this research activity, please respond to the below sections. Try to respond to each section and question. We are grateful for your time in advance.

Section 1: Personal Information

1. Name:			
2. Present Address:			
3. Email:			
4. Phone:			
5. Age [years]:			
6. Gender:		Male <input type="checkbox"/>	Female <input type="checkbox"/>
7. Native country			
8. Year of Emigration			
7. Marital Status:		Un-married <input type="checkbox"/>	Married <input type="checkbox"/>
9. You married a foreign national or native country national		Foreigner <input type="checkbox"/>	Native country <input type="checkbox"/>
11. Is your family currently residing with you?		Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>
12. From which area do you belong in your native country?		Urban <input type="checkbox"/>	Rural <input type="checkbox"/>
13. Your educational background at the time of emigration:			
Secondary or below <input type="checkbox"/>	Graduate <input type="checkbox"/>	Bachelor [Engineering] <input type="checkbox"/>	Bachelor [Medicine] <input type="checkbox"/>
Masters/MPhil <input type="checkbox"/>	Ph. D <input type="checkbox"/>	Other [specify]	
14. Have you improved your qualification?		Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>
If yes. Tick the appropriate box :		Secondary or below <input type="checkbox"/>	Graduation <input type="checkbox"/>
Bachelor [Medical] <input type="checkbox"/>		Masters/MPhil <input type="checkbox"/>	PhD <input type="checkbox"/>
		Other [specify]	
15. In which professional sector do you work?		Medical field <input type="checkbox"/>	Oil and gas <input type="checkbox"/>
		Agriculture <input type="checkbox"/>	
Engineering <input type="checkbox"/>	IT <input type="checkbox"/>	Services <input type="checkbox"/>	Telecommunication <input type="checkbox"/>
		Others [specify]	
16. How often do you visit your native country?			
Once in a year <input type="checkbox"/>		Once in two years <input type="checkbox"/>	Once in three years <input type="checkbox"/>
Once in five years <input type="checkbox"/>		Never since migrated <input type="checkbox"/>	Other [specify]:

Section II: Reasons of Emigration

17. Main reason for migration?			
Work <input type="checkbox"/>	Study <input type="checkbox"/>	Business <input type="checkbox"/>	Family reunion <input type="checkbox"/>
Seek protection [asylum] <input type="checkbox"/>	To settle <input type="checkbox"/>	Others [specify]	

18. Are you satisfied with the present job, considering your education/ experience?	
Satisfied <input type="checkbox"/>	Not satisfied <input type="checkbox"/>
If No. Why?	

19. Employment status in this country?			
Regular Employee <input type="checkbox"/>	Contractual Employee <input type="checkbox"/>	Part-time Employee <input type="checkbox"/>	Self-employed <input type="checkbox"/>
Unemployed <input type="checkbox"/>	Others [specify]:		

20. Are you working in public or private sector?	
Public Sector <input type="checkbox"/>	Private Sector <input type="checkbox"/>

21. With respect to emigration, how do you rate the following in your home country and in country of emigration? [Multiple responses] Tick the relative column	Indicator	Native country	Country of emigration
	Employment opportunities		
	Social and economic freedom		
	Social justice		
	Security		
	Education		
	Infrastructure and development		
Others [specify]:			

22. Would you prefer to go back or not?		
Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>	If yes, why?

Section III: Remittances

23. Frequency of sending remittances to your home country?			
Monthly <input type="checkbox"/>	Quarterly <input type="checkbox"/>	Bi-yearly <input type="checkbox"/>	Yearly <input type="checkbox"/>
As needed <input type="checkbox"/>	Never sent <input type="checkbox"/>	Reason, if any:	

24. Amount of money sent?			
Less than US\$ 500 <input type="checkbox"/>	US\$ 500-1000 <input type="checkbox"/>	US\$1001-1500 <input type="checkbox"/>	US\$1501-2000 <input type="checkbox"/>
US \$ 2001-2500 <input type="checkbox"/>	US\$ 2501-3000 <input type="checkbox"/>	US\$>3000 <input type="checkbox"/>	

25. Do your family have other source of income back home?			
Agriculture <input type="checkbox"/>	Services <input type="checkbox"/>	Employment <input type="checkbox"/>	Rent <input type="checkbox"/>
Pension <input type="checkbox"/>	No other source <input type="checkbox"/>	Others [specify]:	

26. Where does your family spend remittances in the native country? [multiple answers]			
Living expenses <input type="checkbox"/>	Education <input type="checkbox"/>	Health <input type="checkbox"/>	Property investment <input type="checkbox"/>
Business development <input type="checkbox"/>	Others [specify]:		

27. Do you think that remittances have improved the socioeconomic condition of your family?		
Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>	Don't know <input type="checkbox"/>
If yes. How?		

28. Do you have any property in the country where you are living?		
Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>	Intend to buy <input type="checkbox"/>

Section IV: Engagements

29. Do you have any professional membership with organizations/associations in your home country?	
Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>

30. If yes, please list the name/s of organizations/associations of membership.

31. If no, do you intend to be a member of any professional organizations/associations at your home country to return back?	
Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>

32. Are you registered in your home country's embassy/consulate?	
Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>

33. Do you attend different events/seminars organized by your country's embassy/consulate?	
Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>

Section V: Settling Back

34. While living abroad, do you think you are contributing to your home country via any of the following? [select multiple answers, if required]		
Transfer of knowledge / expertise <input type="checkbox"/>	Facilitating bilateral trade <input type="checkbox"/>	
Advocating social changes <input type="checkbox"/>	Charity / Philanthropy <input type="checkbox"/>	
Investing in home economy <input type="checkbox"/>	Others [specify]	
35. Do you know about the employment opportunities back home?		
Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>	
36. Tick at least 3 important indicators you want in your native country that can encourage you to come back:		
Social security <input type="checkbox"/>	Good salary <input type="checkbox"/>	Good working environment <input type="checkbox"/>
Job opportunity <input type="checkbox"/>	Secure investment <input type="checkbox"/>	Others [specify]:
37. If opportunities are provided to work in your native country, would you like to continue to work as an emigrant?		
Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>	If No, why?
38. Would you encourage your other family members or friends to emigrate?		
Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>	If No, why?