

MAPPING OF MIGRATION ASPECTS OF MANPOWER RESOURCES FOR INDIA AND COMPARATIVE COUNTRIES

Indian S&T and Innovation Policy (ISTIP) - 12th Five year plan 2012-2017

Dr. Naresh Kumar
Sudhakar Singh



**CSIR-National Institute of Science Technology & Development Studies, New Delhi
2016**

Acknowledgement

This report is a part of the Indian S&T and Innovation Policy (ISTIP) - 12th Five year plan (2012-2017), hence this work is a team effort and reflects the contribution of all those who are working together. Authors express their deep sense of gratitude and regards to the Director, CSIR-NISTADS and ISTIP co-ordinators for their support for extending required resources and help in the preparation of the report. Data and information was collected for this report from different sources; published/unpublished reports, research articles, online sources etc. and unanimous sources as well, so we acknowledge to the all the sources from where relevant data and information were referred to present the status of human migration. We are thankful to all our NISTADS faculty members and colleagues for their support and finally last but not the least the CSIR for providing required financial resources.

Authors

Executive Summary

Migration of human resource has become an inevitable in this age of global economy, though existed since historical time. Presently, it is not possible to imagine for an economy to grow in isolation. Studies reveals the facts that international migration of human resource has positive as well as negative effect on both countries; country of origin and the country of destination. Therefore, international migration has an enormous potential in coming years due to better opportunities in the global market and imbalance of labour force (skilled, semi-skilled and professional). Historically migration occurred from poor nations to developed nations to meet the demand of labour in the host countries. The most preferred countries of receiving human receiving from other countries are considered as USA, UK, Australia and countries like Germany and other European nations. While Asian countries like India, China, Korea etc. are supposed to be the largest sending countries. Apart from labour and professional supply, mobility of students is also a growing phenomenon. The mobility of students is similar as migration of human resource from developing nations to developed nations. India and China are one of the largest students sending country to the west particularly, USA, UK, Australia and Canada

In both the cases migration of human resource has positive as well as negative aspects. Developing countries, in particular India is the youngest country and has a sizeable base and stock of technical and professional human resource. Hence, India may be the most beneficiary country provided it has good policy of human resources. Developed economies such as USA, UK, Australia and also some African countries may be the potential destination countries for labour force. However, it is significant that UAE is a major source of foreign remittances to India which comes through skilled and semi-skilled labour force. It is important that India receives sizeable amount of remittance from abroad which contributes fairly good share to the Indian GDP. One aspect of the migration is worth mention here that India receives the largest share of its remittances from Middle East countries rather than USA or any other developed country.

According to the MOIA, the migratory flows of the both skilled and the unskilled human resource in India have undergone changes due to the persistent economic restructuring under globalization that created opportunities as well as challenges. In the case of unskilled migrants, the policy responses from public administration, both in the countries of origin and destination, towards safe and adequate legal protection to the migrants, continue to maintain its salience. At the same time, limiting the scope of irregular migration primarily by ensuring transparent systems and regulation for the transnational movement of people continues. Therefore, there is a much need to foster international cooperation amongst countries of origin and destination for greater policy coherence amongst various departments of government, to enhance ability to manage migration better in the medium to long term.

In this context issues of migrations and its impacts on countries of origin and countries of destinations are reviewed and analyzed. Since, Asian and developing countries are supposed to be the largest senders of human resource and students, therefore, in this report status of international migration vis-a-vis comparative countries like Brazil, Russia, India and China is revisited. Data for this purpose is collected from different secondary sources; published reports, papers/articles online resources etc, however, scarcity of up to date data is a bit draw back of the present report. The assumptions that migration takes place generally in a South-North direction is likely does not sustain in the current scenario and it is a merely a misconception. As in the case of India from where a large number of migrants migrates to the Middle East countries. World Bank, in 2010, estimated that South–North movements represent the largest migratory flow, followed by South–South, North–North and North– South. This indicates that developing countries are growing at a faster rate. India and Mexico can be cited, for example, where reverse migration was observed due to the dot-com bubble crisis or slump in the economy that resulted loss of jobs in the United States and some other developed economies. Besides the dot-com bubble crisis, the economic and employment opportunities that emerged in the home country attracted many Indian entrepreneurs to improve the economic development in the home country, which encouraged the number of people abroad to India.

Mapping of Migration¹ Aspects of Manpower Resources for India and Comparative Countries

Introduction

Human migration from one place to another is not a new phenomenon and existed since time immemorial. History of human migration can be traced back from Homo sapiens who migrated from their African homeland to colonize the world; this includes movement of the Neanderthals in Europe and Asia, some scattered pockets of Homo erectus in the Far East and some people from the Indonesian island of Flores through light on human migration (Lüthi, 2010). Over the periods, the 'migration' has been used in different contexts such as invasion, conquest, displacement under force of arms, flight from natural disaster, mercantile outreach, colonial settlement and even slavery. In the modern times the more familiar understanding of migration is discussed as the movement of individuals or families generally in the context of social or economic perspective (IOM). Thus human migration is defined as:

Migration (human) is the movement of people from one place in the world to another for the purpose of taking up permanent or semipermanent residence, usually across a political boundary. An example of "semi-permanent residence" would be the seasonal movements of migrant farm laborers. People can either choose to move ("voluntary migration") or be forced to move ("involuntary migration"). (Human Migration Guide, 2005)

Although, diverse types of migrations are discussed in the literature, however, in this report the term '*Migration*' is referred in the context of migration of human population for the purpose of social and economic purpose; particularly for the purpose of higher and professional education, professional diaspora or migration in search of jobs etc. This is illustrated in the following definitions.

The UNESCO defines the term **migrant** as:

¹ Migration is a general term which is used to define mobility of people from one place to another, from one region to another in a very broad context. The more accepted description of migration, in contemporary days, is the movement of people for economic or social purpose. The activities of migration is governed by the national laws and regulations.

"any person who lives temporarily or permanently in a country where he or she was not born, and has acquired some significant social ties to this country.

Similarly, the UN Convention on the Rights of Migrants defines a migrant worker as a *"person who is to be engaged, is engaged or has been engaged in a remunerated activity in a State of which he or she is not a national."* The broader definition of migrants follows:

"The term 'migrant' in article 1.1 (a) should be understood as covering all cases where the decision to migrate is taken freely by the individual concerned, for reasons of 'personal convenience' and without intervention of an external compelling factor²."

The UN definition, thus, specifies that 'migrant' does not refer to refugees, displaced or others forced or compelled to leave their homes. Migrants are people who make choices about when to leave and where to go, even though these choices are sometimes extremely constrained. Therefore, according to the UNESCO a migrant can be understood as *"any person who lives temporarily or permanently in a country where he or she was not born, and has acquired some significant social ties to this country."*

The Special Rapporteur of the Commission on Human Rights has proposed that the following persons should be considered as migrants (Castles, 2000):

- (a) *Persons who are outside the territory of the State of which they are nationals or citizens, are not subject to its legal protection and are in the territory of another State;*
- (b) *Persons who do not enjoy the general legal recognition of rights which is inherent in the granting by the host State of the status of refugee, naturalised person or of similar status;*
- (c) *Persons who do not enjoy either general legal protection of their fundamental rights by virtue of diplomatic agreements, visas or other agreements.*

² [Measures to improve the situation and ensure the human rights and dignity of all migrant workers](#). 1998. Report of the working group of intergovernmental experts on the human rights of migrants submitted in accordance with Commission on Human Rights resolution 1997/15. COMMISSION ON HUMAN RIGHTS Fifty-fourth session, Intergovernmental working group of experts on the human rights of migrants.

The means of migration is based on *emigration-immigration* dichotomy and may be short or long term. Migration can occur in different stages or in cycles and can be multi-directional i.e. people from one place can move in different geographical region across the political boundaries (Lüthi, 2010). So, migration is an important factor in the erosion of old-fashioned boundaries between languages, cultures, ethnic group, and nation-states. The migration of people also affects the people in their surrounding and of their communities due to the changes resulted by the movements of people out of migration. Therefore, migration of people is not a lone action of flow of people across the national boundaries but rather it is a continuous process. Consequently, over the time the migration of population has become an important determinates of social, political, economic and cultural change in the history of mankind.

Rationale and objectives

Study of human migration is a multifaceted process which includes several social and economic aspects of society. As a rapidly growing discipline, migration has attracted attention of policy makers and the head of several nations. A number of studies analyzed the issues migrations and its scope and effects on sending and receiving countries, as a result, numerous journals are dedicated to the migration study. Migration studies drew attention of the researchers after the process of globalization when the flow of human resource was increased considerable particularly from developing countries like India, China and Brazil etc. to developed countries. The obvious reason behind the migration of people across the country's boundaries was ascribed to seek jobs and better opportunities in the host countries. Besides, migration of job seekers a large number of students were moving away from their countries to another countries for higher and professional education. As a result a huge amount of foreign currency, in the form of fee and other expenses, was transferred to the host countries from the government treasury and thus the migration of students became a big educational industry. Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) estimated that about six out of every ten international migrants reside in the developed regions (OECD. 2013). The United Nations (UN) also estimated that there were about 231.5 million international migrants in 2013. According to the Institute of International Education there were about 4.5 million students studying abroad. In the case of India about 11.4 people emigrated to abroad in 2013. It was estimated that some 2.9 million international migrants from India were residing in the United Arab Emirates and 1.8 million in Saudi Arabia. About 8.05 lakh emigration clearances were granted by the Protector General of Emigrants (PGE) in 2014. This reflects the importance of international migration of people.

Since, India is one of the largest sender nation of people to abroad and has global presence in terms of different profession that necessitates to revisit migration of people from India vis-à-vis International migration. Therefore, the objective of this study is to review the migration of human resource and to provide analysis emerging patterns of migration with comparable economies.

Concepts and Types of Migration

Human migration is an unavoidable and a growing phenomenon. The number of international migrations is increasing every year and has a substantial scope despite its complex in nature. The migration movement affected all the countries across the world. According to the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) migration of people entails the freedom to seek opportunities to improve living standards, health and education outcomes, and/or to live in safer, more responsive communities (UNDP, 2010). Concept of human migration attempts to understand different aspects of human migration across the national boundaries. Newell, Collin (1988) considered migration as one of the important components of population change. The analogy was supported by Kammeyer, and Ginn (1988). According to Demko, Ross and Schnell (1970) migration provides an important network for the diffusion of ideas and information and indicates symptoms of social and economic change, and can be regarded as a human adjustment to economic, environmental and social problems. Thus the human migration is centred about economic and social activities in which people migrate over time from one region to another and accommodates for better life style and economic opportunities despite cultural differences. Migration includes both inflow and out flow of population and is a very complex global issue and no single definition may be given to describe the human migration, however, the UN and UNESCO described broad concept of human migration encompassing appropriate aspects of migration in the context present study.

Therefore, in this report, migrant is represented as emigrant and immigrant in the framework of socio-economic aspect though there may be several types of human migration which are beyond the scope of this study.

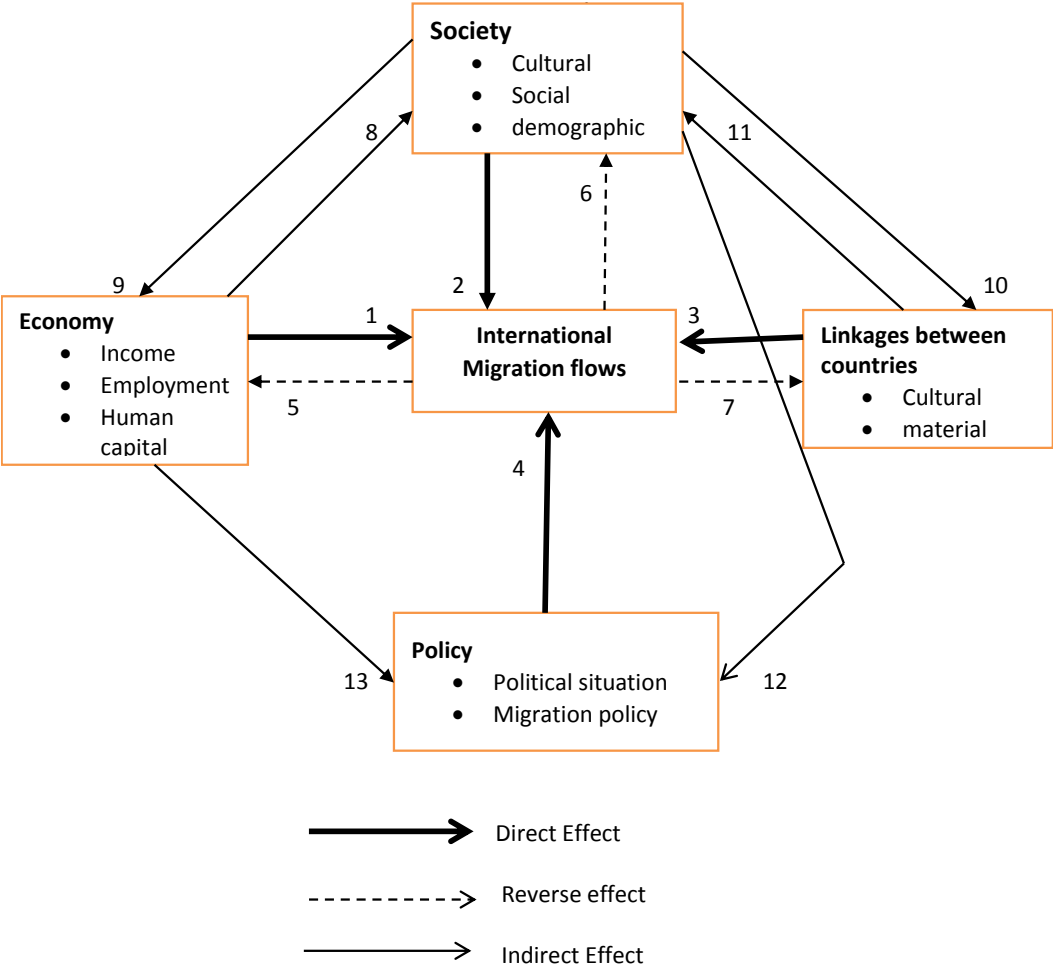
Theories of Human Migration

Human migration is a diverse phenomenon so it is not possible to illustrate migration in a single theory. The theories of migration is important since it shapes and re-shapes societies, making them more diverse and complex. The migration of people also affects cultural and economic aspects of the host country King (2012). Over the years, particularly after the process of globalization, the demand of overseas workers from other nations is increased substantially in order to sustain national economies. The United Nation Population Fund (UNPF) described this

migration as "economic migrants." The migrants are usually from the developing countries who migrates for better job prospective for better life style. Also people migrate or forced to migrate move due to conflict, human rights violations, violence etc. which is not discussed here.

In the literature there are number of theories that describes the process of human migration. The more prevalent theories of human migration are connected to the economic activities. Jennissen (2007) discussed the theoretical framework of international migration and its determinants as depicted in Figure-1.

Figure-1: Theoretical framework of International migration



Sources: Jennissen, R., *Causality Chains in the International Migration, Systems Approach Population policy Review*, pp. 416, (2007).

Theories of international migration propounded by Jennissen (2007) and various scholars are summarized below:

(i) Neoclassical economic theory

Neoclassical economic theory determines prices, outputs, and income distributions in markets through supply and demand. This theory assumes (Weintraub, 2007); (i) people have rational preferences between outcomes that can be identified and associated with values, (ii) individuals maximize utility and firms maximize profits and (iii) people act independently on the basis of full and relevant information. The theory assumes that the labour migration occurred due to wage difference between two geographic locations. The differences in wage are normally associated to geographic labour demand and supply. It implies those areas where there is a shortage of labour but an excess of capital and resources have a high relative wage. On the other hand, areas with a high labour supply and a scarcity of capital and resources have a low relative wage. As a result, working labour tends to flow from low-wage areas to high-wage areas for better earnings. Thus, neoclassical theory supports the view that flow of labour across national boundaries affects economy of both the countries i.e. sending as well as receiving country.

(ii) Dual labour market theory

This theory also referred to as the segmented labour market theory aims at introducing a broader range of factors into economic research, such as institutional aspects, race and gender (Castles and Miller, 2009). Dual labour market theory concerns largely on "primary" and "secondary/tertiary" sectors. This theory assumes that in developed countries the secondary/tertiary sector requires high-skilled labour while primary sector is labour-intensive but requires low-skilled workers. The theory describes that the human migration takes place mainly in terms of pull factors in developed countries. The process of globalization resulted expansion of educational infrastructure boosting enrolment in higher education, particularly in technical and professional education. Expansion of enrolment and good policy in education sector has raised considerable pool of both skilled and high skilled human resource in developing countries. This encouraged migration of workers from developing countries to the developed countries. Thus the human migration is a result of pull factor arises due to need for labour in the developed

economies in their secondary or tertiary market and the migrated workers have been playing a significant role in the host country's economy.

(iii) The new economics of labour migration

This migration theory is one of the contemporary theories based on the idea that the migration is not an individual level process but it happens in human groups also such as families or households. This illustrates that flow of workers must be considered as a wider social entities as the household and not as individual entity. This theory advocates that the household is in need of extra capital that can be realized through remittances which is sent back by migrant labour abroad to their family members. These remittances in turn have a wider effect on the economy of the sending country as a whole as they bring in capital. This is supported by recent research study that revealed a decline in U.S. interstate migration from 1991 to 2011, theorizing that the reduced interstate migration is due to a decline in the geographic specificity of occupations and an increase in workers' ability to learn about other locations before moving there, through both information technology and inexpensive travel (Kaplan and Schulhofer-Wohl, 2015).

(iv) Relative deprivation theory

Relative deprivation is based on the principle of lack of resources to sustain that an individual or group are accustomed to which they belong. Thus, relative deprivation theory explains that awareness of the income difference between neighbors or other households in the migrant-sending community is an important factor in migration. The motivation for migration is higher in areas where level of economic inequality is high. This theory based on that migration intensity is proportional to economic inequality. This theory illustrates two stages of migration for a worker: i) they invest in human capital formation, and then (ii) they try to capitalize on their investments. This includes high-skilled emigrants who aspires serve to enhance their economic level.

(v) World systems theory

World systems theory of migration describes human migration on the basis of global perspectives. It refers inter-regional and transnational division of labor, which divides the world into core countries, semi-periphery countries, and the periphery countries (Barfield, 1997). The core countries focus on higher skill, capital-intensive production, and the rest of the world focuses on low-skill, labor-intensive production and extraction of raw materials (Lechner, 2001) for example the United Kingdom and United States of America. This theory emphasizes that

interaction between different societies are an important factors in social change. This also reflect that trade with one country affects economic activities in another country which in turn creates incentive to migrate to a country with a more vibrant economy. It is, thus, argued that the developed countries import labour-intensive goods, which causes an increase in employment of unskilled workers in the less developed countries, decreasing the outflow of migrant workers. However, on the long run the export of capital-intensive goods from rich countries to poor countries also equalizes income and employment conditions, consequently, the pace of migration comes slow.

In addition, Ravenstein (1834-1913) proposed certain laws of human migration. The laws are as follows:

1. Every migration flow generates a return or counter migration
2. The majority of migrants move a short distance
3. Migrants who move longer distances tend to choose big-city destinations
4. Urban residents are often less migratory than inhabitants of rural areas
5. Families are less likely to make international moves than young adults
6. Most migrants are adults
7. Large towns grow by migration rather than natural increase
8. Migration stage by stage
9. Urban rural difference
10. Migration and technology
11. Economic condition

In general, it may be argued that economic and social inequalities are the main cause effect of human migration.

Indicators of human migration

Quantification of human migration is not an easy task, however, the process of migration may be measured in terms of volume of migration and remittance. As discussed, there are three key factors that are considered responsible for human migration. These factors includes economic, social and political factors. However, the root cause of the human migration is to a major extent economic factors which is generally classified into push and pull factors. Emigration (migration) had a profound influence on the world in the 18th, 19th, and 20th centuries, when millions of poor families left Europe for the United States, Canada, Brazil, Argentina, the rest of Latin America, Australia, and New Zealand (Gyi, 2010). Therefore, purposes of migration can be either incentives attracting people to go another country which is known as pull factors, or circumstances encouraging a people to leave their own country which is known as push factors. The Push Factors generally comprises economic, political, cultural, and environmentally elements similarly the Pull Factors also includes economic, political, cultural, and environmentally as well. Economic dimension of migration prevails due to poor economic situation and poor situation of national market. Consequently, economic reasons are a driving force in all human movements across national boundaries.

The Pull Factors includes:

- More jobs
- Better jobs
- Higher wages
- The promise of a “better life”

Occasionally, it was also encouraged by the host country for example, the 1960’s employment campaign in the Caribbean by London bus companies that actively recruited young men to move to London to work as bus drivers. This was further followed by their families. Similar, another example can be cited the “brain drain” (recently it is termed as *Diaspora*) to America from less developed and developing countries that occurred in the latter half of the 20th century from several other western countries.

On the other hand Push Factors of migration are reversal of the pull factors. The Push factors is based on lack of economic opportunities which tend to push people to look for their better futures to other countries. The main elements of Push Factors which include:

- Overpopulation
- Few jobs
- Low wages

In addition, social and physical factors also play considerable role in the migration process however, these factors are not discussed in detailed in this report. Social factors generally involve forced migration such as Pull factors which is based on principles of religious tolerance, i.e. the US attracted religious refugees, such as the Mennonites, who settled in Pennsylvania. Similarly, the Push factors of social migration involves intolerance towards a certain cultural group and active religious persecution. Examples being the Huguenots in 16th century France, the Puritans in 17th century England and the Jewish refugees from Nazi Germany.

The Physical factors of human migration also includes Pull factors as well as Push factors. The Pull factors are attractive environments, such as mountains, seashores and warm climates, i.e. the Alps pull French people to eastern France. Spain attracts migrants, especially retirees, who seek warmer winters. The Push factors are contrary to this which are primarily based on Natural disasters, i.e. the east African drought of 2011 that led the mass migration from the island of Montserrat leading up to the eruption of the La Soufriere Hills volcano in 1995³.

Hence, the main factors which influence migration are generally grouped into two broad streams (i) economic asymmetries between source and destination countries and (ii) social inequalities between source and destination countries. The quantification of the migration indicators were proposed by Puentes et al (2010) are given in Table-1:

³ The Soufrière Hills volcano is an active, complex stratovolcano with many lava domes forming its summit, on the Caribbean island of Montserrat. After a long period of dormancy, the Soufrière Hills volcano became active in 1995, and has continued to erupt ever since. Its eruptions have rendered more than half of Montserrat uninhabitable, destroying the capital city, Plymouth, and causing widespread evacuations: about two thirds of the population have left the island. (Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Soufriere_Hills; Retrieved on 07.12.2015)

Table-1a: Economic asymmetries between sending and receiving countries

S. No.	Indicators	Descriptions
1.	Relative economic productivity between sending and receiving countries	Indicators to assess asymmetries in productivity could be measured at different levels of aggregation: overall economy, by economic sectors (agriculture, industry, etc.) or even for subsectors.
2.	Differences in economic growth	The gap in economic growth (GDP gap) can be also measured for specific sectors of the economy, or in aggregate. A sectoral analysis is more meaningful because it makes visible the asymmetries that are at the root of the process of transformation of the economic structures at both ends of a migration corridor.
3.	Wage differentials	Salary gaps are frequently mentioned as causes of migration and a major factor when individuals decide to migrate. It is important to describe its evolution in time for different sectors of the economy.
4.	Labor precariousness in sending and receiving countries.	Several countries are developing integrated indicators that estimate the precariousness of employment based on the degree of informality of the economy, level of regulation of labor relations, increased vulnerability, etc. (Goldring and Landolt, 2009; Cranford et al, 2003).
5.	Deficit or surplus in labor force	This indicator measures the capacity of the labor market to absorb the growth of active native population in each country (considering the natural population growth). Such indicator will estimate surplus or deficit of employment in sending and receiving countries.
6.	Gaps in research and development (R&D) investments	Asymmetries in R&D investments could trigger highly qualified migration. These gaps could be accessed through a combination of different indicators such as R&D investments as part of the national GDP, R&D

		investment per scientist, or similar ratios. UNCTAD has developed a composite Innovation Capability Index (UNICI) that integrates different factors (UNCTAD, 2005).
--	--	---

Table-1b: Social inequalities between sending and receiving countries

S. No.	Indicators	Descriptions
1.	Human development index (HDI)	This well-known composite index integrates a set of very relevant indicators of the population's socioeconomic conditions. As UNDP has been measuring the HDI for most countries since 1990, it allows cross-country comparisons as trends and changes with time.
2.	GINI coefficient	This is an indicator of income inequalities. Many countries are computing this index based on households surveys allowing cross-country comparisons. Time series allow longitudinal analysis, measuring the impact of policy changes, etc.
3.	Gender inequalities	The evaluation must consider gender inequalities, which often affect migration processes. Several indices are already available that estimate social and economic inequalities based on gender. The SIGI (Social Institutions and Gender Index), developed by OECD and the Development Centre, is a good example of a composite measure of gender discrimination used for cross-country comparative studies (OECD, 2009).

Sources of international migration data

Sources of data is very important for collecting information to analyse and study of any problem in detail. To have better understanding and to get reliable outcomes through analysis and to get appropriate inferences the authenticity of data is very decisive. Statistical data can be collected from two sources (i) Primary data source and (ii) Secondary data source. Primary data is collected through survey, questionnaires and case studies etc. while secondary data is collected from different reports, monograms or from any other printed documents. To get rational outcomes the data source should be reliable. Since, human migration is considered a complex process so it requires careful selection of data source. There are many agencies which produce and collect human migration data (ION) as listed below:

- United Nations Population Division
- UN Statistics Division
- UN regional economic commission
- Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR)
- International Organisation for Migration (IOM)
- Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD)
- Commission of European Communities
- International Labour Organisation (ILO)
- Council of Europe
- Eurostat

Apart from the above there are other sources from where data can be collected such as:

- Research papers/Articles
- Monograms
- Annual Reports of concerned Ministries/Departments of respective Countries etc.
- Administrative records

Data and information for quantification of migration is extensively referred from the above sources for different type of analysis and studies. However, the United Nations Population Division is one of a leading international agency which compiles data on global and international migration.

International Migration at a Glance

International migration of people is a growing phenomenon which has been affecting almost all countries in the world. The rate of migration was considerable increased after the process of globalisation. The influx of the migration is more towards the developed countries rather developing countries. According to the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2001), the 1980s were characterized by an increase in immigration flows in most OECD countries. However, a declining trend was observed during 1992-93 which was continued until 1997-98, subsequently, immigration began to escalate again in Europe and Japan. Since then, the global migration continues to rise although, a slowdown in the growth of the global migrant stock was observed after 2007 (OECD). According to the UN, there were about 232 million international migrants in the year 2013 with a fact that northern part of the globe is a favorite destination for the migrants. Accordingly, since 1990, the number of international migrants in the northern global increased by around 53 million (65%), while the migrant in the southern global raised by around 24 million (34%). The available statistics show that about six out of every ten international migrants reside in the developed regions. A comparative migrant stock in different region is shown in Table-2.

Table-2: Comparative stock of International migrant (millions)

Region	1990	2000	2010	2013
World	154.2	174.5	220.7	231.5
Developed Region	82.3	103.4	129.7	135.6
Developing Region	71.9	71.1	91	95.9
Africa	15.6	15.6	17.1	18.6
Asia	49.9	50.4	67.8	70.8
Europe	49	56.2	69.2	72.4
Latin America & the Caribbean	7.1	6.5	8.1	8.5
Northern America	27.8	40.4	51.2	53.1
Oceania	4.7	5.4	7.3	7.9

Source: World Migration in Figures, UN: Department of Economics and Social Affairs, 2013

Data shows that during the period 2000-10, the stock of global migrant grew twofold as fast than during the period 1990-2000. Further, during the 1990s, the global migrant stock grew at an average of about 2 million migrants per year while during the decade 2000-10, the growth was faster and the migrant stock accelerated to about 4.6 million migrants per annum. It reveals that the proportion of international migrants continues to rise in the North, it remains stable in the South. According to the report in 2013, international migrants accounted for nearly 11% of the total population in the developed countries which was about 9% in 2000. In the developing countries, the proportion of international migrants to the total population was below 2%. It was observed that about half of all international migrants reside in ten countries among them the USA was the first preference of the international migrants. In 2013, the most preferred destination for were the USA, with the largest number of international migrants (45.8 million or 20% of the global total), followed by the Russian Federation (11 million), Germany (9.8 million), Saudi Arabia (9.1 million), the United Arab Emirates and the United Kingdom (7.8 million each), France (7.5 million), Canada (7.3 million), Australia and Spain (6.5 million respectively). Among the total migrants about 48% comprises women migrants but it was significant that in Europe, Latin America and the Caribbean, North America and Oceania the proportion of female migrants was above 50%. The report also estimated that during the year 2013 South-South migration exceeded South-North migration. The list of top 25 countries by immigration population is given in Table-3:

Table-3: Top 25 Countries by immigrant population during 2013

Sl. No.	Country	Number of immigrants	Percentage of total number of immigrants in the world	Immigrants as percentage of national population
1.	United States	45,785,090	19.8	14.3
2.	Russia	11,048,064	4.8	7.7
3.	Germany	9,845,244	4.3	11.9
4.	Saudi Arabia	9,060,433	3.9	31.4
5.	United Arab Emirates	7,826,981	3.4	83.7
6.	United	7,824,131	3.4	12.4

	Kingdom			
7.	France	7,439,086	3.2	11.6
8.	Canada	7,284,069	3.1	20.7
9.	Australia	6,468,640	2.8	27.7
10.	Spain	6,466,605	2.8	13.8
11.	Italy	5,721,457	2.5	9.4
12.	India	5,338,486	2.3	0.4
13.	Ukraine	5,151,378	2.2	11.4
14.	Pakistan	4,080,766	1.8	2.2
15.	Thailand	3,721,735	1.6	5.6
16.	Kazakhstan	3,476,233	1.5	21.1
17.	Kuwait	2,920,000	1.3	70
18.	Jordan	2,925,780	1.3	40.2
19.	<i>Hong Kong</i>	2,804,753	1.2	38.9
20.	Iran	2,649,516	1.1	3.4
21.	Malaysia	2,469,173	1.1	8.3
22.	Ivory Coast	2,446,171	1.1	12.0
23.	Japan	2,437,169	1.1	1.9
24.	South Africa	2,399,238	1.0	4.6
25.	Switzerland	2,335,059	1.0	28.9

Source: Trends in International Migrant Stock, 2013, The 2013 Revision; <http://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/migration/data/index.shtml>, retrieved on 12.01.2016; and Wikipedia

Top emigration countries

There are some traditional countries of origin for the migrants for the host countries due to several factors as discussed in the beginning. It was believed that people from developing countries emigrate to developed countries for reason as ascribed. According to the World Bank's Migration and Remittances Fact book (Walsh, 2014) Mexico, India, Russia, China and Ukraine were the most country of origin for migration of people as listed in Table-4.

Table-4: Top 5 countries of emigration-2013

Sl. No.	Country of origin	No. of Emigrants (million)
1.	Mexico	11.9
2.	India	11.4
3.	China	11.1
4.	Russia	8.3
5.	Ukraine	6.6

According to the report Mexico was the largest originating country of emigrants which sent about 11% of Mexican population abroad. Most of the Mexican emigrants about 97% went to the United States and they were engaged in generally unskilled jobs, particularly in construction, manufacturing, and service industries. However, a reversal of migration was also observed in 2012 when a number of Mexican left United States than migration there. It was due to improving the economic situation in Mexico.

India was the second largest country of origin for migration of people to the other countries. Although, India's economy is growing fast and it registered significant growth in all spheres of the economy, but the nation continues to struggle against poverty, corruption, malnutrition and insufficient public healthcare. Consequently, during the last couple of years India witnessed substantial amounts of emigration to developed countries. It was estimated that around 2 million people of Indian origin living in the United States, about 1 million in Canada and also around 1 million in the United Kingdom. Among these migrants most of them were highly skilled and well-educated professionals. Also, a large number of Indian migrants went to Australia and New Zealand.

Russia was the third largest country of origin of migrants. The migration of people from Russia accelerated after the collapse of the USSR in 1991. However, most of the Russian migrants reside in the former Soviet States such as Ukraine, Kazakhstan, and Belarus. Most the migrants went to United States.

China was also a largest country of origin of migration despite restriction to control emigration in the past. But currently, a large number of students aspired to leave the country to attend foreign universities and research institutions. In addition, business people and professional are also migrating in search of better job opportunities abroad. However, a number of Chinese migrants are coming back to as the Chinese economy developing very fast.

It was believed that developing or Asian countries are the most originating country but inversely Ukraine (including Crimea) was the largest originating country of migrants entirely within Europe. Migration from Ukraine was observed after the disintegration of the former USSR particularly since 1990s. As a result large number of Ukrainians migrated abroad in search of better living conditions and employment opportunities. They migrated to Canada, United States, Kazakhstan, Australia, Brazil and Argentina.

Pattern of migration in BRICS countries

BRICS is the acronym, came into existence in 2001, comprising five major emerging economies, which is a home of more than 40% population of the world with 20% of the Gross World Product (GWP). However, growth of BRICS economies is developing rapidly but people from BRICS have been migrating continuously to abroad; particularly developed nations such as the US, UK, Australia and other European countries to explore better job opportunities and life style. Among BRICS countries India, China and Russia were the largest country of origin of migration. According to the United Nation (UN), in 2015, India had the largest “diaspora” in the world (16 million), followed by Mexico (12 million). Other countries with large “diasporas” included the Russian Federation (11 million), China (10 million), Bangladesh (7 million), and Pakistan and Ukraine (6 million) UN (2015). Recently, the geography of international migration flows has changed from the Global South to the advanced economies of North America and Europe (Münz 2014). It was observed migrants are attracted to the fast-growing economies of new growth centers in East Asia, South Africa, Brazil and India. pattern of international migrants stock in BRICS nations is given in Table-5 & 6.

Table-5: International migration stock in BRICS countries

Country/Area	No. of International migrants (thousands)		International migrants as a percentage of total population		Female among international migrants (percentage)	
	2000	2015	2000	2015	2000	2015
World	172,703.3	243,700.2	3	3	49	48
OECD	84060.6	123864.4	9	12	52	39
Non-OECD	31318.3	48743.7	12	16	45	40
Brazil	684.6	713.6	--	--	47	46
Russia	11900.3	11643.3	8	8	50	51
India	6411.3	5241.0	1	--	48	49
China^{\$}	508.0	978.0	--	--	50	39
S. Africa	1001.8	3142.5	2	6	40	40

Source: Computed from International Migration Report 2015: Highlights

^{\$}For statistical purpose, the data for China do not include Hong Kong and Macao, Special Administration Region (SAR) of China

Table-6: Pattern of migrants from BRICS countries

Country	No. of diaspora (million)	
	2000	2015
Brazil	1.9	
Russia	11	11
India	8	16
China^{\$}	6	10
S. Africa	--	--

Pattern of International Remittance

A **remittance** is defined as transfer of money by a foreign worker to his or her home country. Money sent to their home country by migrants is considered one of the largest financial inflows particularly to developing countries. Therefore, workers' remittances is a significant part of international capital flows, especially with regard to labour-exporting countries (Ghazi, Al-Malki, 2014). According to World Bank Report, in 2014, about \$436 billion went to developing countries out of total overall global remittances of \$583 billion (World Bank, 2015). Among the recipient countries India and China were the major beneficiaries of the foreign remittance. It was estimated that in 2014, India received US \$71 billion while China received US \$62 billion dollars in remittances from their expatriates. Remittances received from abroad increases Gross National Income (GNI) and Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of the country of origin. List of top 15 remittance recipient countries is given below in Table-7.

Table-7: Top recipient countries of remittances (in billions of US Dollar)

Sl. No.	Country	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015
1	<u>India</u>	49.20	53.48	62.50	68.82	69.97	70.97	72.20
2	<u>China</u>	41.60	52.46	61.58	57.99	59.49	61.49	63.90
3	<u>Philippines</u>	19.96	21.56	23.05	24.61	26.70	27.90	29.70
4	<u>France</u>	16.06	19.46	22.56	22.05	23.34	23.94	24.60
5	<u>Mexico</u>	22.08	22.08	23.59	23.37	23.02	24.50	25.70

6	<u>Nigeria</u>	18.37	19.82	20.62	20.63	20.89	20.88	20.89
7	<u>Egypt</u>	7.15	12.45	14.32	19.24	17.83	19.83	20.40
8	<u>Germany</u>	12.34	12.79	14.52	15.14	15.20	16.60	17.50
9	<u>Pakistan</u>	8.72	9.69	12.26	14.01	14.63	17.80	20.10
10	<u>Bangladesh</u>	10.74	11.28	12.96	14.24	13.86	15.10	15.80
11	<u>Belgium</u>	10.44	10.29	10.98	10.16	11.11	11.11	11.10
12	<u>Vietnam</u>	6.02	8.26	8.60	10.00	11.00	11.80	12.30
13	<u>Ukraine</u>	5.94	6.54	7.82	8.45	7.67	8.45	6.20
14	<u>Spain</u>	8.95	9.10	9.92	9.66	9.58	10.10	10.50
15	<u>Indonesia</u>	6.79	6.92	6.92	7.21	7.62	8.66	10.51

Source: Prospects - Migration & Remittances Data". Retrieved 16 June 2015 & Remittances Data" (PDF). Retrieved 12 Jan 2016, Wiki Retrieved 221.01.2016

It can be observed that the remittances to developing countries such as India and China is continuously rising. Other large recipient countries include the Philippines (USD 28 billion), Mexico (USD 24 billion), Nigeria (USD 21 billion), Egypt (USD 20 billion), Pakistan (USD 17 billion), Bangladesh (USD 15 billion), Vietnam (USD 11 billion) and Ukraine (USD 8 billion). It was estimated that the growth rate in 2014 was substantially faster than growth recorded in 2013, driven largely by remittances to Asia and Latin America.

The report further estimated that the remittances to the South Asia region is likely to increase in coming years as compared to 2013. It was also estimated that as a share of GDP (2013), the top recipients of remittances were Tajikistan (42 per cent), Kyrgyz Republic (32 per cent), Nepal (29 per cent), Moldova (25 per cent), Lesotho and Samoa (24 per cent each), Armenia and Haiti (both 21 per cent), the Gambia (20 per cent) and Liberia (18 per cent).

Among the developing countries, BRICS countries were the most recipient of remittances from abroad. The inflow of remittances to BRICS countries is given in Table-8:

Table-8: Personal remittances⁴ received (US \$)

Year	Brazil	Russia	India	China	S. Africa
2007	3,305,694,000.00	4,666,328,416.90	37,216,755,275.30	6,833,129,702.10	792,351,190.60
2008	3,642,585,000.00	5,736,969,990.00	49,977,276,916.30	9,136,546,899.80	783,693,527.80
2009	2,889,159,500.00	5,105,060,000.00	49,203,912,008.60	9,209,489,821.00	862,051,631.10
2010	2,754,111,178.80	5,250,015,384.90	53,479,960,083.20	13,636,040,942.00	1,069,571,380.60
2011	2,798,456,998.90	6,103,259,945.50	62,499,075,444.70	16,568,371,453.00	1,158,421,806.40
2012	2,582,640,312.70	5,787,735,721.90	68,820,517,837.70	17,065,623,287.00	1,084,534,306.30
2013	2,537,114,311.30	6,750,810,395.50	69,970,360,846.80	17,790,105,219.00	970,655,337.20
2014	2,645,117,591.00	7,776,533,917.80	70,388,642,796.50	29,910,500,593.00	913,403,103.70

Source: <http://databank.worldbank.org/data/reports.aspx?source=2&country=ZAF&series=&period=>;
Retrieved on 25.01.2016

Among BRICS economies India has been a hot spot for receiving remittances from abroad, accordingly the contribution of foreign remittance to Indian GDP was tangible.

The following Table-9 & 10, shows the remittances to India as percent of GDP, 1980–1991 to 2005–2010 and source countries of remittance.

⁴ Personal remittances comprise personal transfers and compensation of employees. Personal transfers consist of all current transfers in cash or in kind made or received by resident households to or from nonresident households. Personal transfers thus include all current transfers between resident and nonresident individuals. Compensation of employees refers to the income of border, seasonal, and other short-term workers who are employed in an economy where they are not resident and of residents employed by nonresident entities. Data are the sum of two items defined in the sixth edition of the IMF's Balance of Payments Manual: personal transfers and compensation of employees. Data are in current U.S. dollars.

Table-9: ⁵Remittance received by India by fiscal year (US \$ bn)

Year	Remittances	Percent of GDP
1990–1991	2.10	0.70
1995–1996	8.50	3.22
1999–2000	12.07	2.72
2000–2001	12.85	2.84
2001–2002	15.40	3.29
2002–2003	16.39	3.39
2003–2004	21.61	3.69
2004–2005	20.25	3.03
2005–2006	24.55	3.08
2006–2007	29.10	
2007–2008	37.20	
2008–2009	51.60	
2009–2010	55.06	
2011–2012	66.10	4.00%
2012–2013	67.60	
2013–2014	70.39	

Table-10: ⁶Remittance Source Countries to India (US \$ mn)

Source country	Remittance amount
USA	10,844
United Kingdom	3,904
UAE	14,255
Singapore	1,113
Saudi Arabia	7,621
Qatar	2,084
Nepal	3,220
Malaysia	493

-
- ⁵ 1. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Remittances_to_India; Retrieved 22.01.2015
2. India Wins the Remittance Race Again". The Wall Street Journal. 2015-04-15. Retrieved on 2015-09-10.
3. Remittances from Indian diaspora on the rise". The Economic Times. Feb 19, 2014. Retrieved on 2014-02-
4. NRIs beat FDI, keep the money coming". Hindustan Times. October 8, 2012. Retrieved on 2014-02-
5. Chishti, Muzaffar (February 2007). "The Rise in Remittances to India: A Closer Look". Migration Information Source. Archived from the original on 2010-12-04. Retrieved 2011-07-28
6. Remittances to India, 1970 to 2008". Migration Information Source. Archived from the original on 2010-12-04d=. Retrieved on 2011-07-28
- ⁶ 1. <http://m.siliconindia.com/news/business/15-nations-sending-highest-remittances-to-india-nid-147478-cid-3.html>; Retrieved on 22.01.2015
2. <http://www.forbes.com/sites/alyssaayres/2014/02/26/indias-stakes-in-the-middle-east>; Retrieved on 22.01.2015
3. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Remittances_to_India; Retrieved on 22.01.2015

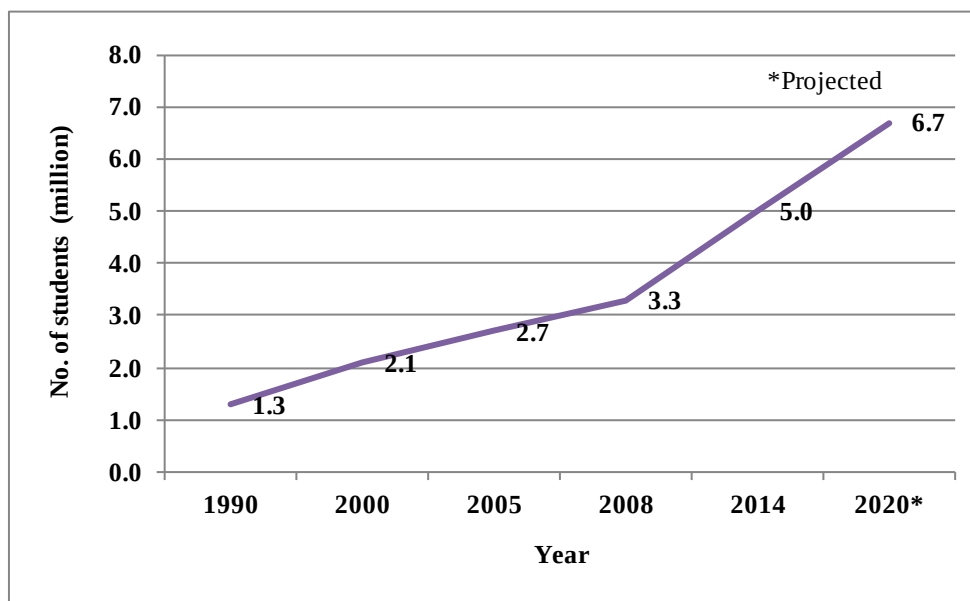
Italy	572
Canada	3,145
Bangladesh	3,716
Bahrain	690
Australia	1,245

Pattern of students' mobility

Mobility of students plays an important role in the process of migration of human resource. Over the past decade international mobility of students has increased considerable. Available data indicates that students from developing countries and under developed countries are opting going abroad for higher and tertiary level studies. The most preferred destination for international students is developed countries such as USA, UK, Australia and Canada and reverse mobility is very meagre.

According to the University World News ((Maslen, 2014) the global mobility of international students more than doubled from 2.1 million in 2000 to about 4.5 million in 2011. The number further increased to 5 million in 2014 with a growth rate of about 10% annually. A snap shot of international students from 1990 onward is depicted in Figure-

Figure-2: Pattern of International mobility of students



Source: Computed from different sources such as <http://monitor.icef.com/2015/11/the-state-of-international-student-mobility-in-2015/>

The United States attracts the most foreign students with 16.5% of the total enrolled overseas followed by the United Kingdom with 13%, Germany 6.3%, France 6.2% and Australia 6.1% in the year 2011. On the other hand China, was the became the world's largest source country of students studying abroad with about 723,000 students undertook degree courses in a foreign universities in 2011 followed by India, with 223,000 South Korea with 138,600, Germany with

132,000 and France with 79,600 students. These five countries accounted for 30% or 1.3 million of the international students away from their countries. Status of mobility of students and changing pattern of their preferences is given in table-11.

Table-11: Top ten sources of internationally mobile students worldwide, 1995, 2005 and 2012

1995		2005		2012	
Country	Number	Country	Number	Country	Number
China	115871	China	403128	China	694365
Republic of	69736	India	146267	India	189472
Japan	62324	Republic of	100895	Republic of Korea	123674
Germany	45432	Japan	64291	Germany	117576
Greece	43941	Germany	64263	Saudi Arabia	62535
Malaysia	41159	Turkey	53402	France	62416
India	39626	United States	50850	United States	58133
Turkey	37629	France	49177	Malaysia	55579
Italy	36515	Morocco	46009	Viet Nam	53802
Hong Kong	35141	Canada	43335	Iran (Islamic	51549
Total	1702788	Total	2830788	Total	4009312

Source: Status of international students in India for higher education, UNESCO & Government of India, 2014 New Delhi

Mobility of students has been a multidirectional process but USA was a favorite destination for foreign students. Academic levels of foreign students in USA is given in Table-12.

Table-12: Academic level of International students in US

Year	Undergraduate	% change	Graduate	% change
2001/02	261,079	2.6	264,749	11.0
2002/03	260,103	-0.4	267,876	1.2
2003/04	248,200	-4.6	274,310	2.4
2004/05	239,212	-3.6	264,410	-3.6
2005/06	236,342	-1.2	259,717	-1.8
2006/07	238,050	0.7	264,288	1.8
2007/08	243,360	2.2	276,842	4.8
2008/09	269,874	10.9	283,329	2.3
2009/10	274,431	1.7	293,885	3.7

2010/11	291,439	6.2	296,574	0.9
2011/12	309,342	6.1	300,430	1.3
2012/13	339,993	9.9	311,204	3.6
2013/14	370,724	9.0	329,854	6.0
2014/15	398,824	7.6	362,228	9.8

Source: IIE, <http://www.iie.org/Research-and-Publications/Open-Doors/Data/Fast-Facts>;
Retrieved on 21.01.2016

Asia has been a major source of international students to abroad; China, India, and South Korea were the world's leading source country of international students. These three country accounted for more than 25 percent of all students studying outside their countries with about 53 percent of all students studying abroad were from Asia.

Status of Students from Brazil, China, India and Russia to USA

It was observed that students from fast growing countries are going abroad for education and USA has been a hot spot of all the potential student. The USA was a host of large numbers of foreign during the 2013-2014 school year, welcoming 886,052 undergraduate and graduate students to colleges and universities throughout the country (Haynie, 2014). According to Haynie students from overseas were about 4 percent of all university students in the USA, which was a host about world's 4.5 million international students than any other country. As discussed BRICS region is a major source of international students to USA, which could be observed from the Table-13 to 17.

Table-13: Pattern of students from Brazil to USA and vice versa

Year	from Brazil	% Change from previous year	US students to Brazil
1995/96	5497	-	386
1996/97	6168	12.20	424
1997/98	6982	13.20	555
1998/99	8052	15.30	594
1999/00	8860	10.00	717
2000/01	8846	-0.20	760
2001/02	8972	1.40	1064
2002/03	8388	-6.50	1345

2003/04	7799	-7.00	1554
2004/05	7344	-7.10	1994
2005/06	7009	-3.20	2328
2006/07	7126	1.70	2524
2007 /08	7578	6.30	2702
2008 /09	8767	15.70	2777
2009/10	8786	0.20	3099
2010/11	8777	-0.1	3485
2011 /12	9029	2.90	4060
2012 /13	10868	20.40	4223
2013 /14	13286	22.20	4223
2014 /15	23675	78.20	n/a

Source: <http://wenr.wes.org/2013/12/indian-study-abroad-trends-past-present-and-future/>;
Retrieved on 28.01.2016

Table-14: Pattern of students from China and vice versa

Year	from China	% Change from previous year	US students to China
1995/96	39,613	-	1,396
1996/97	42,503	7.30	1,627
1997/98	46,958	10.5%	2,116
1998/99	51,001	8.60	2,278
1999/00	54,466	6.80	2,949
2000/01	59,939	10.00	2,942
2001/02	63,211	5.50	3,911
2002/03	64,757	2.40	2,493
2003/04	61,765	-4.60	4,737
2004/05	62,523	1.20	6,391
2005/06	62,582	0.10	8,830
2006/07	67,723	8.20	11,064
2007 /08	81,127	19.80	13,188
2008 /09	98,235	21.10	13,674
2009/10	127,628	29.90	13,910
2010/11	157,558	23.50	14,596
2011 /12	194,029	23.10	14,887

2012 /13	235,597	21.40	14,413
2013 /14	274,439	16.50	13,763
2014 /15	304,040	10.80	n/a

Source: ibid

Table-15: Pattern of students from India to abroad USA and vice versa

Year	from India	% Change from previous year	US students to India
1995/96	31743	-	470
1996/97	30641	-3.50	601
1997/98	33818	10.40	684
1998/99	37482	10.80	707
1999/00	42337	13.00	811
2000/01	54664	29.10	750
2001/02	66836	22.30	627
2002/03	74603	11.60	692
2003/04	79736	6.90	1157
2004/05	80466	0.90	1767
2005/06	76503	-4.90	2115
2006/07	83833	9.60	2627
2007 /08	94563	12.80	3150
2008 /09	103260	9.20	2690
2009/10	104897	1.60	3884
2010/11	103895	-1.00	4345
2011 /12	100270	-3.50	4593
2012 /13	96754	-3.50	4377
2013 /14	102673	6.10	4583
2014 /15	132888	29.40	n/a

Source: ibid

Table-16: Pattern of students from Russia to abroad USA and vice versa

Year	from Russia	% Change from previous year	US students to Russia
1994/95	4832	-	1290
1995/96	5589	15.70	1482
1996/97	6199	10.90	1205
1997/98	6424	3.60	1145
1998/99	6609	2.90	1196
1999/00	7025	6.30	1103
2000/01	6858	-2.40	1152
2001/02	6643	-3.10	1269
2002/03	6238	-6.10	1521
2003/04	5532	-11.30	1797
2004/05	5073	-8.30	1743
2005/06	4801	-5.40	1923
2006/07	4751	-1.00	1716
2007 /08	4906	3.30	1864
2008 /09	4908	0.00	1798
2009/10	4827	-1.70	n/a
1999/00	7025	6.30	1103
2000/01	6858	-2.40	1152
2001/02	6643	-3.10	1269
2002/03	6238	-6.10	1521
2003/04	5532	-11.3	1797
2004/05	5073	-8.3	1743
2005/06	4801	-5.4	1923
2006/07	4751	-1.0	1716
2007/08	4906	3.3	1864
2008/09	4908	0.0	1798
2009/10	4827	-1.7	1828

2010/11	4692	-2.7	1827
2011/12	4805	2.4	n.a

Source: *ibid*

Table-17: No. of Indian students enrolled for higher education in different countries

Year	USA	UK	Australia	Canada	New Zealand	China	Germany	Total
2005	76,503	16,872	22,529	6688	n.a	n.a	3807	n.a
2006	83,833	19,288	25,497	6927	2599	3245	3583	158225
2007	94,563	25,905	27,078	7304	3855	7190	3431	205852
2008	103,260	34,065	28,411	8325	6348	8145	3217	216516
2009	104,857	38,500	28,020	9561	9252	8468	33236	247631
2010	103,895	39,090	21,932	17549	11616	9014	3821	253743
2011	100,270	29,900	15,395	23601	12301	9370	4825	228774
2012	96,754	n.a	12,629	28929	11349	10237	5745	190055

Source: <http://wenr.wes.org/2013/12/indian-study-abroad-trends-past-present-and-future/>;
Retrieved on 28.01.2016

During the last couple of years, it was observed that growth of total Indian students shows a stagnation. The declining trends of students could generally attributed to the global financial crisis, a devaluing rupee and changes to immigration laws in top host nations. It is interesting to note that in the year 2012, rate of students going to USA and Australia declined considerable, while number of students going to China, Canada, Germany and New Zealand were increased significantly (Table-18).

Table-18: Top Ten destinations of Indian students, 2005,2008 and 2012

2005		2008		2012	
Country	Number	Country	Number	Country	Number
United States	84044	United States	94664	United States	97120
Australia	20515	Australia	26520	United Kingdom	29713
United Kingdom	16685	United Kingdom	25901	Australia	11684
United Arab	6684	Russian	4314	Canada	8142
Germany	4339	New Zealand	4094	United Arab	7310

Canada	2829	Germany	3257	New Zealand	7248
New Zealand	1563	Canada	3219	Germany	4312
Kazakhstan	1003	Ukraine	1785	Russian Federation	3351
Ukraine	957	Cyprus	1076	Ukraine	2516
Malaysia	828.5	Malaysia	1065	France	1955
Worldwide	146267	Worldwide	176881	Worldwide	189472

Source: Status of international students in India for higher education, UNESCO, & Government of India, 2014 New Delhi

Foreign students at the undergraduate level to India

India has been a favorite country for foreigners and many scholars visited India since ancient time. Over the last more than two decades Indian economy has registered a significant growth in infrastructure. During the period India education sector also undergone fast transformation in terms of quality and enrolment of students. India has expanded its base in the higher education which resulted one of the largest producers of higher educated professions. As a result India has become a destination of many students from overseas. India has become a preferred destination for SAARC country's students. In 2011-12, India received 25283 (77%) foreign students for under graduate level, out of the highest number of students at this level came from Nepal. A comparative status of SAARC students coming to different countries is given in Table-19.

Table-19: Mobile students from the SAARC Region to India, USA, UK & Australia in 2011-12

Country of origin	Destination countries							
	% in India	% in United States	% in United Kingdom	% in Australia	% in Canada	Total % in USA, UK, Australia & Canada	% in other countries	Total students studying abroad in absolute terms
Afghanistan	16.3	03.6	02.1	01.1	0.7	07.5	76.2	9754
Bangladesh	02.4	14.6	17.4	15.2	6.0	53.2	44.4	21927
Bhutan	71.3	03.0	0.6	11.5	0.9	16.0	12.7	3186
Maldives	14.1	01.5	07.1	11.1	0.4	20.1	65.8	1862
Nepal	18.7	31.9	05.5	21.8	0.4	59.6	21.7	29184
Pakistan	*	11.7	23.1	09.9	5.0	49.7	50.3	37962
Sri Lanka	07.0	17.3	21.6	21.1	0.9	60.9	32.1	16204

Source: Status of international students in India for higher education, UNESCO, & Government of India, 2014 New Delhi; *: Insignificant; -: Zero

Table-20, describes discipline-wise enrolment of students at undergraduate level from different countries in India. India received highest number (92%) of the students in Nursing from Nepal and the remaining were from 23 other countries (Annex 25). However, Afghanistan was the highest contributor for enrolments in commerce (13%) and the remaining students came from 74 other countries (Annex 30). This trend suggests that, India hosted the majority of its foreign students for nursing from Nepal, however in case of commerce the enrolments were more scattered.

Table-20: Enrolment by country of origin in popular subjects at the undergraduate level, 2011-12

Subjects	Total number of foreign Students (2011-12)	Highest three contributing countries by their share in the total enrolment			Number of countries from which students are enrolled in this stream
		1st Country	2nd Country	3rd Country	
Bachelor of Medicine and Bachelor of Surgery (MBBS)	2123	Malaysia (52%)	United States (24%)	Canada (6%)	39
Bachelor of Technology	2874	Nepal (40%)	Bhutan (12%)	Afghanistan (11%)	83
Bachelor of Science in Nursing	1583	Nepal (92%)	Bhutan (2%)	United States (2%)	24
Bachelor of Science	1989	Bhutan (17%)	Sri Lanka (9%)	Nepal (8%)	82
Bachelor of Pharmacy	2051	Sudan (28%)	Iraq (26%)	Iran (15%)	41
Bachelor of Engineering	1746	Nepal (35%)	Mauritius (9%)	Sudan (5%)	65
Bachelor of Dental Surgery	1085	Malaysia (52%)	Iran (24%)	United States (5%)	39
Bachelor of Commerce	2582	Afghanistan (13%)	Bhutan (12%)	Nepal (8%)	75

Bachelor of Computer Applications	1921	Sudan (17%)	Congo (12%)	Bhutan (10%)	62
Bachelor of Business Management	1114	Nepal (20%)	Tanzania (11%)	Bhutan (9%)	58
Bachelor of Business Administration	1494	Bhutan (22%)	Afghanistan (19%)	Nepal (9%)	59
Bachelor of Arts	1959	Afghanistan (23%)	Algeria (13%)	Bhutan (10%)	71

Source: Status of international students in India for higher education, UNESCO,& Government of India, 2014 New Delhi; *: Insignificant; -: Zero

Migration of Indian workers for employment

India is the youngest country in the world and according to the United Nations India has the world's largest youth population with 356 million 10-24 year-olds. The United Nations Population Fund's (UNFPA) estimated that China is second with 269 million young people, followed by Indonesia (67 million), the US (65 million) and Pakistan (59 million), Nigeria with 57 million, Brazil with 51 million, and Bangladesh with 48 million. The Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs (MOIA, 2014) estimated that India may consist of 83% of its total population of 1.4 billion in 2026 in the age group of 15-59. The growth rate of labour force in India will continue to be higher than the population growth rate until 2021. Similarly, the Team Lease, Indian Institute of Job Training's (IIJT) Indian Labour Report 2009, estimated that about 308 million youth would enter the labour force by 2025 and 25 % of the world's workers by 2025 would be Indians. While the developed nations will have ageing populations, India will have the youngest population by 2050, with a median age of 31 years. India will have only 19% of population above the age of 60 years by 2050, as compared to 39% for US; 53% for Germany; and 67% for Japan. According to a US Census Bureau estimate, by 2022, countries like USA, UK and China will fall short of skilled labour by 17 million, 2 million and 10 million respectively while India will have a surplus of almost 47 million in the age group of 19 -59 years. This changing demography of the world can work in India's favour. However, there is a need to train the millions of "working age" youth, willing or wanting to seek employment abroad, to meet internationally acceptable skill standards.

The MOIA supplemented that there are about five million overseas Indian workers all over the world. More than 90% of these workers are in the Gulf countries and South East Asia. During 14, about 8.04 lakh workers emigrated from India after obtaining emigration clearance. Out of this, about 3.29 lakh went to Saudi Arabia, about 2.24 lakh workers to UAE, about 0.75 Lakhs to Qatar, about 0.51 lakhs to Oman, and about 0.22 lakhs to Malaysia. States of Uttar Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Punjab, West Bengal and Rajasthan were the leading sourcing states in that order of the numbers who emigrated. Major outflow of emigrant workers in the last few years from India has been to the Gulf countries where more than five million workers are estimated to be employed. A vast majority of migrants to the Middle East, including Gulf countries, are semiskilled and unskilled workers and most of them are temporary

migrants who return to India after expiry of their contractual employment. There had been a consistent and steady increase in the number of persons emigrating for employment abroad from the year 2009 onwards till 2014. The number of emigration clearances granted by offices of the Protector of Emigrants was 6.41 lakhs in 2010, in the year 2011 the figure was 6.27 lakhs. During the year 2012, 2013 and 2014 emigration clearances granted were 7.47 lakh, 8.17 lakhs and 8.05 lakh respectively. State-wise workers granted emigration clearance/Ecnr endorsement are listed in the Table-21 and destination wise emigration clearance granted to different countries are listed in Table-22.

Table-21: State-Wise workers granted Emigration Clearance/Ecnr Endorsement (2007-2014)

Sl.	State	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
1.	A&N Islands	87	89	75	80	93	97	194	84
2.	Andhra Pradesh	105,044	97,530	69,233	72220	71589	92803	10304	53104
3.	Arunachal	25	244	181	188	175	153	248	69
4.	Assam	1,905	1,517	1,788	2133	2459	3384	3794	4073
5.	Bihar	51,805	60,642	50,227	60531	71438	84078	96894	98721
6.	Chandigarh	9,177	1,768	966	831	861	823	1150	1328
7.	Chhattisgarh	310	80	51	81	114	111	131	203
8.	Daman & Diu	0	27	8	11	13	31	33	23
9.	Delhi	5,327	4,512	2,501	2583	2425	2842	2890	2642
10.	DNH/UT	12	17	3	11	53	20	35	15
11.	Goa	3,102	2,210	1,659	1380	1112	1338	1953	1775
12.	Gujarat	20,066	15,716	9,185	8245	8369	6999	8853	7893
13.	Haryana	1,852	1,779	1,052	958	1058	1196	1735	2178
14.	Himachal	1,119	1,345	776	743	739	847	1256	1288
15.	Jammu &	3,276	3,588	4,307	4080	4137	4737	4532	4441
16.	Jharkhand	3,651	3,561	3,545	3922	4287	5292	6782	7837
17.	Karnataka	27,014	22,413	18,565	17295	15394	17960	17798	15054
18.	Kerala	150,475	180,703	119,384	104101	86783	98178	85909	66058
19.	Lakshadweep	0	23	19	18	11	13	70	15
20.	Madhya	3,616	2,321	1,897	1564	1378	1815	1993	1683
21.	Maharashtra	21,496	24,786	19,128	18123	16698	19259	19579	19110
22.	Manipur	1	30	18	22	11	07	18	10
23.	Meghalaya	7	24	21	11	16	39	78	7

24.	Mizoram	-	8	2	4	0	03	05	1
25.	Nagaland	7	10	5	2	39	03	12	9
26.	Orissa	6,696	8,919	6,515	7344	7255	7478	10608	13046
27.	Pondicherry	45	397	320	223	211	257	347	427
28.	Port Blair	2	0	-	0	0	0	0	0
29.	Punjab	53942	54469	27291	30974	31866	37472	48836	48431
30.	Rajasthan	70896	64601	44744	47803	42239	50295	41676	48123
31.	Sikkim	2	18	12	8	8	13	20	16
32.	Tamil Nadu	150,842	128,791	78,841	84510	68732	78185	83087	83202
33.	Telangana	--	--	--	0	0	0	0	38531
34.	Tripura	121	592	324	454	465	514	530	964
35.	Uttar Pradesh	91,613	139,254	125,783	140826	15530	19134	21829	22944
36.	Uttarakhand	179	523	623	1177	1441	2470	2828	3512
37.	West Bengal	24,817	26,094	21,187	28900	29795	36988	41916	51561
38.	Others	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total		809,453	848,601	610,272	641356	62656	74704	81665	80487

Source: MOIA, Annual Reports, 2009-10 & 2014-15, GoI, New Delhi.

Table-22: Destination Wise Emigration Clearance Granted (2007-2014)

SN	Country	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
1	Afghanistan	0	405	395	256	487	125	153	127
2	Bahrain	29,966	31,924	17,541	15101	14323	20150	17269	14220
3	Indonesia	0	33	9	3	22	11	38	29
4	Iraq	0	0	0	390	1177	917	6577	3054
5	Jordan	1,254	1,377	847	2562	1413	1819	1462	2133
6	Kuwait	48,467	35,562	42,091	37667	45149	55868	70072	80419
7	Lebanon	0	75	250	765	534	288	281	313
8	Libya	3,223	5,040	3,991	5221	477	01	293	122
9	Malaysia	30,916	21,123	11,345	20577	17947	21241	22388	22926
10	Oman	95,462	89,659	74,963	105807	73819	84384	63398	51318
11	Qatar	88,483	82,937	46,292	45752	41710	63096	78367	75935
12	S. Arabia	195,437	228,406	281,110	275172	289297	357503	354169	329937

13	Sudan	0	1,045	708	957	1175	491	144	255
14	Syria	0	74	0	2	118	0	10	0
15	Thailand	0	15	5	05	27	09	15	53
16	U. A. E.	312,695	349,827	130,302	626575	138861	141138	202016	224033
17	Yemen	0	492	421	208	29	0	3	4
TOTAL		809,453	848,601	610,272	641355	626565	747041	816655	804878

Source: MOIA, Annual Reports, 2009-10 & 2014-15, GoI, New Delhi.

Impact of international migration

Over the years, international migration has shown an increasing trends and empirical trends indicates ample potential of international migration. Migration of people plays significant role both in source and destination country's socio-economic and cultural sphere. International migration of people has also important implications for population dynamics. So, migration impacts are heterogeneous across space, socio-ethnic and gender groups, and tend to change over time and household migration cycles. Migration is mainly associated with remittances and may enable people to retreat from, as much as to invest in, local economic activities, depending on the specific development context. Paradoxically, development in migrant-sending regions seems to be a prerequisite for return and investment rather than a consequence of migration (Haas, 2007). Studies and empirical data show that migration trends have substantial economic and demographic consequences, both positively (the contribution to loosening of labour market pressures, poverty alleviation, and an increase of small businesses through remittances) and negatively (the danger of brain drain and depopulation of peripheral regions of the country). Therefore, migration has influence both on a home country and host country in a number of ways depending upon the degree, composition and nature of migration flows, as well upon the specific context from which migrants are originate (Markova, 2010). The factors of international migrations were mostly studied using only a single receiving country. These studies were quite useful, however they were brought to light some issues that were difficult to address in the context of one receiving country, or by focusing exclusively on labor-market effects. The literature recognizes that push and pull factors are the most causal effect of immigrants on economic outcomes in the destination country. As a result labour market has positive impact on home economy by contributing to the GDP and by bridging the gap in demand and supply of labour in the host economy. However, a huge amount of destination country's remittances drained that affects the host economy. Contrary, brain drain and diaspora have negative impact on home country which effect the host country's technical and professional competency while the receiving country has positive impact as it receives highly professional and technical skill without heavy investment. Thus key points of international migration includes:

- migration occurred for many reasons; includes economic or political reasons, family reunification, natural disasters, or the desire to change one's surroundings. Immigration

may include the standard of living not being high enough, the value of wages being low, a slow job market, or a lack of educational opportunities

- Immigration of people generally stands for an expansion of the supply of labor in the host country
- Host countries are faced with a variety of challenges due to immigration including population surges, support services, employment, and national security
- In the long run, large amounts of immigration will weaken the home country by decreasing the population, the level of production, and economic spending

Impacts on the home country

The home country also faces specific challenges in regards to emigration. In many cases, emigrants move to another country to provide positive changes for their future. Reasons to emigrate can include the standard of living not being high enough, the value of wages being too low, a slow job market, or a lack of educational opportunities. A home country must analyze emigration statistics to determine and address why citizens are moving to other countries. In the long-run, large amounts of emigration will weaken the home country by decreasing the population, the level of production, and economic spending. If a country is losing professionals and labour due to economic reasons, the situation will not improve until economic changes and developments are made encouraging for economic growth.

Sometimes, citizens of a country may leave because of non-economic reasons such as religious persecution, ethnic cleansing, genocide, war, or to escape the government (for example, a dictatorship). In these cases, it is not unusual for the citizens to return to the home country at some point once the threat is no longer present. While a citizen is living in another country, if they receive an education and create a solid life, their individual success can also be beneficial to the home country, if they use their acquired skills to make a difference. Many individuals do not forget their home country and continue to support family members financially through the income from the country they migrate to. Therefore, economic point of view emigration is positive and constructive for the source economy.

Impacts on the host country

A host or a destination country experiences both advantages and challenges as a result of immigration. At certain times throughout history, larger migrations have taken place which

created huge population surges. The higher population numbers placed strain on the infrastructure and services within the host country. When immigrants move to a new country, they are faced with many unknowns, including finding employment and housing, as well as adjusting to new laws, cultural norms, and possibly a new language. It can be a challenge for a host country to assimilate immigrants into society and provide the necessary support. Immigration, in addition, causes an increase in the labor force. This can impact on the host economy substantially if the immigrants are normally the same type of worker (e.g. low-skilled) and immigration expands the supply of labor in the host country.

Immigration, therefore, still a seriously debated topic in many host countries. Some believe that immigration brings many advantages to a country both for the economy and society as a whole. On the other hand, some believe that high immigration rate threaten national identity, increase dependence on welfare, and threaten national security in many ways such as illegal immigration or terrorism. It is further argued that high immigration rate cheapens labor that can have unconstructive impact on both emigrants and immigrants. This is substantiated by empirical, research like the Brookings Institute that immigration caused a 2.3% depression in the wages of the host country from 1980 to 2007 while the Center for Immigration Studies found a 3.7% depression in wages during 1980 to 2000.

Opportunities and Challenges of International Migration

International migration of people continues to be one of the most important issues of the global policy agenda because migration causes significant economic, social, and cultural implications in both home and destination countries. Empirical data shows that the developed regions receive generally more migrants each year from the developing and less developed regions. Historically, migration was considered and used as a last resort to maintain a moderate living standard which was deemed impossible to acquire in the countries of origin. The migration in turns responded to significant labor needs of the destination countries. Therefore, migrants had no difficulty to find jobs in host countries. However, migration was adversely affected, for a while, with the economic turbulences fueled by the global oil crises and was concentrated around family and/or humanitarian migration (OECD, 2005). Although after the crises was over and surge in global economic activities and political developments, demand of labour and professionals rose. This led rising concerns over the future of labor supply which draw attention of policy-makers on labor migration issues once again. At the same time, there was the time of good economic climate, high economic growth and lower unemployment rates in some developed countries, on the other hand these countries tended to imply an ageing workforce and ultimately result in a declining population of working age. Consequently, in such setting, employers started to experience difficulties in finding workers with necessary qualifications. This meant a renewed interest in services of migrant workers (OECD, 2003). Accordingly, the need for migrants coincided with the growing global unemployment crisis in the destination countries and the migrants enthusiastically responded to the calls for recruitment by the developed economies. The new immigration policies were targeted those migrants who can fully respond to the labor market needs and easily integrate with receiving communities, causing new challenges for the economies of sending countries (Kul, 2016). Such policies created new implications on the economies of sending countries which resulted the loss of qualified human resources for many countries of origin. This issue needs to be addressed more carefully by the sending countries. In addition, there is a need for formulating effective policies to enable the host governments to reconcile the interests of their populations and the demands of millions who are in search of better living standards. However, it is not a simple issue to be addressed as in such a globally interconnected world any decision taken in one country for action will have may give rise effects in another country.

Studies show that (Kul, 2016; Borjas, 1995 and Chanda, 2000) international migration can have positive impacts on both the countries of origin and the countries of destination, providing the former with remittances and the latter with needed human resources. International migration also has the potential of facilitating the transfer of skills and contributing to cultural enrichment. remittances now play an crucial role in sustaining national and local economies in many recipient countries. Remittances provide an important source of foreign exchange to recipient countries, boost the capacity of the financial sector and help to attract subsequent investment. Remittances thus is the most direct remuneration to the country of origin, generally for the poor countries according to the World Bank (2006). Though, migration in terms of brain drain deprives and prevents countries of origin from gaining an early return on the investment they have made in the education and training of the migrants. Migration can adversely affect the supply and quality of essential services in the country of origin because migration involves the departure of professionals in the sectors such as health, information technology (IT) , management and education.

Conclusions

International migration has an enormous potential in coming years due to better opportunities in the global market and imbalance of labour force (skilled, semi-skilled and professional). As argued that developing countries, in particular India, is the youngest country and has a sizeable base and stock of technical and professional human resource, India may be the most beneficiary provided it has good policy of human resources. Developed economies such as USA, UK, Australia and also some African countries may be the potential market for labour force. It is significant that UAE is a major source of foreign remittances to India which comes through skilled and semi-skilled labour force. It requires an integrated and hassle free emigration policy to encourage the technical and semi-skilled labour to the countries like UAE, Saudi Arabia and Qatar by protecting their interests. One misconception that migration takes place generally in a South-North direction is likely does not sustain in the current scenario. As in the case of India from where a large number of migrants migrates to the Middle East countries. World Bank, in 2010, estimated that South–North movements represented the largest migratory flow (45% of the total), followed by South–South (35%), North–North (17%) and North– South (3%). This indicates that developing countries are growing at a faster rate. India and Mexico can be cited, for example, where reverse migration was observed due to the dot-com bubble crisis or slump and the loss of jobs in the United States and some other developed economies. Besides the dot-com bubble crisis, the economic and employment opportunities emerging resulted many Indian professionals returning back to India to improve the economic development in their home country (Chacko, 2007 & AnnaLee, 2005). A little reversal migration was also observed in the case of Mexico, where several Mexican researchers from 1991–1996 and 2002 shows an increase of more Mexican researchers to return to Mexico.

According to the MOIA, the migratory flows of the both skilled and the unskilled, in India, have undergone changes due to the persistent economic restructuring under globalization that creates opportunities as well as challenges. In the case of unskilled migrants, the policy responses from public administration, both in the countries of origin and destination, towards safe and adequate legal protection to the migrants, continue to maintain its salience. At the same time, limiting the scope of irregular migration primarily by ensuring transparent systems and regulation for the transnational movement of people continues. They spawn creativity, nourish the human spirit

and spur economic growth. They bring diversity, provide innovation and bring about economic development and growth in the host societies. Therefore, there is as much a need to foster international cooperation amongst countries of origin and destination, as also for greater policy coherence amongst various departments of government, to enhance ability to manage migration better in the medium to long term. The approach has been to work towards building a consensus that can transform migration into an orderly and mutually beneficial economic process that is a win-all for all stakeholders in both the countries of origin and destination. India is well placed to contribute to developing a robust, harmonious and efficient migration framework. India can provide the much needed impetus to meaningfully reinforce the symbiotic development-migration paradigm.

In this context researchers (Hanson, 2010) put forwarded two fundamental and interrelated questions about international labor flows; if the movement of (i) skilled worker from a low income country to the United States, and (ii) by how much does US productivity growth change and by how much does the low income country's stock of human capital change? According to them the currently, policy makers are setting immigration policy governing skilled labor flows largely in the dark. So, there is yet to produce compelling empirical evidence on the costs and benefits of skilled migration for either origin or destination countries. Supplementary, given the desire for knowledge among government officials regarding how immigration affects growth, one would expect at least some high income countries to be willing to subject their immigration policies to rigorous analysis involving at least some degree of randomization.

References:

1. Lüthi, B., Migration and Migration History, 2010, https://docupedia.de/images/a/a3/Migration_and_Migration_History.pdf; Retrieved on 20.10.2015.
2. Migration and History, IOM International Organisation for Migration, <https://www.iom.int>; Retrieved on 25/11/2015
3. Human Migration Guide (6-8), XPEDITIONS, National Geography, 2005.
4. International Migration and Multicultural Policies, http://www.unesco.org/most/migration/glossary_migrants.htm; Retrieved on 12.11.2015.
5. Castles, S., International Migration at the Beginning of the Twenty-First Century: Global Trends and Issues, *International Social Science Journal*, Vol. 52(165), pp. 269–281, 2000.
6. OECD, World Migration in Figures, 3-4 October, 2013, <http://www.oecd.org/els/mig/World-Migration-in-Figures.pdf>; Retrieved on 09.11.2015.
7. UNDP, Mobility and Migration, A Guidance Note for Human Development Report Teams
November 2010; http://hdr.undp.org/sites/default/files/nhdr_migration_gn.pdf; Retrieved on 10.11.2015.
8. Newell, C., *Methods and models in Demography*, pp., 82, Belhaven Press, London, 1988.
9. Kammeyer, K. C. W. and Ginn, H. L., *An Introduction to Population*, pp. 108, Archies Books, 1988.
10. Demko, G. L., Ross, H. M., and Schnell, G. A., *Population Geography: A reader*, pp. 286-287, McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1970.
11. King , R., *Theories and Typologies of Migration: An Overview and a Primer*, Willy Brandt Series of Working Papers in International Migration and Ethnic Relations, 3/12, Malmö University, Sweden, 2012.
12. <http://www.unfpa.org/migration>; Retrieved on 13/12/2015.
13. Jennissen, R., Causality Chains in the International Migration Systems Approach." *Population Research and Policy Review*, Vol. 26(4). pp. 411 – 36, 2007.
14. E. Roy Weintraub. (2007). *Neoclassical Economics*. The Concise Encyclopedia of Economics. Retrieved on 26/09/ 2010;

- <http://www.econlib.org/library/Enc1/NeoclassicalEconomics.html>; retrieved on 01.12.2015.
15. Castles , S. and Miller, M. J., *The Age of Migration: International Population Movements in the Modern World*, 4th Edition. Basingstoke, Palgrave Macmillan, 2009, U. K.
 16. Kaplan, G. and Schulhofer-Wohl ,S., *Understanding the Long-Run Decline in Interstate Migration*, Working Paper 697, Federal Reserve Bank of Minneapolis, October 2015, <https://www.minneapolisfed.org/research/wp/wp697.pdf>; Retrieved on 04.12.2015.
 17. Barfield, T., *The dictionary of anthropology*, pp. 498-499, Wiley-Blackwell, ISBN 1-57718-057-7, Google Print, 1997.
 18. Lechner, F., *Globalization theories: World-System Theory*, 2001, https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/World-systems_theory; Retrieved on 22/06/2015.
 19. Gyi's, K. K. (Blog) *Push and Pull Factors in Human migration*; <https://drkokogyi.wordpress.com/2010/01/23/push-and-pull-factors-in-human-migration/>; Retrieved on 07/12/2015.
 20. *The push-pull factors of migration*, <http://www.tutor2u.net/geography/reference/the-push-pull-factors-of-migration>; Retrieved on 07/12/2015.
 21. Puentes, R., et al, *Towards an Assessment of Migration, Development and Human Rights links: Conceptual Framework and New Strategic Indicators*, Peoples' Global Action on Migration, Development, and Human Rights, IV Global Forum, International Network on Migration and Development, Mexico City, November 2010.
 22. *Migration and Statistical data, Essential of Migration Management*, Vol. Two, *Developing Migration Policy*, IOM International Organisation for Migration, http://www.rcmvs.org/documentos/IOM_EMM/v2/V2S01_CM.pdf; Retrieved on 09.12.2015.
 23. OECD, *Trends in International Migration, Annual Report 2001*, <http://www.oecd.org/migration/mig/2508596.pdf>; Retrieved on 27.12.2015.
 24. Walsh, KM., 2014, <http://www.therichest.com/rich-list/the-biggest/5-countries-with-the-most-emigration/?view=all>; Retrieved on 18.01.2016.
 25. *International Migration Report 2015*, UN; http://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/migration/publications/migrationreport/docs/MigrationReport2015_Highlights.pdf; Retrieved on 19.01.2016.

26. Münz, R., The global race for talent: Europe's migration challenge. Bruegel Policy Brief No. 2. Bruegel, Brussels, 2014; www.bruegel.org/publications/publication-detail/publication/819-the-global-racefor-talent-europes-migration-challenge/; Retrieved on 22.12.2015.
27. Ghazi , Al-Assaf and Al-Malki, A. M., Modelling the Macroeconomic Determinants of Workers' Remittances: The Case of Jordan, International Journal of Economics and Financial Issues, Vol. 4 (3), pp. 514-526, 2014.
28. Capital Market, "India receives top remittance of US\$ 70 billion in 2014: World Bank, 14 April 2015.
29. Maslen, Geoff, Mass movement of the world's students, University World News, Issue No. 305, 2014, <http://www.universityworldnews.com/article.php?story=20140129200018337>; Retrieved on 27.01.2016.
30. Haynie, D., Number of International College Students Continues to Climb, US News & World Report, 2014; <http://www.usnews.com/education/best-colleges/articles/2014/11/17/number-of-international-college-students-continues-to-climb>; Retrieved on 14/02/2016.
31. http://moia.gov.in/writereaddata/pdf/Annual_Report_2014-15.pdf; Retrieved on 06.02.2016.
32. India Labour Report, 2009, http://www.teamlease.com/media/1149/teamlease_labourreport2009.pdf; Retrieved on 06.02.2016.
33. Haas, H. de, The impact of international migration on social and economic development in Moroccan sending regions: a review of the empirical literature, International Migration Institute, WP. 3, 2007, Oxford.
34. Markova, Eugenia, Effects of Migration on Sending Countries: lessons from Bulgaria, GreeSE Paper No. 35, LSE, May 2010.
35. OECD, Working Party on Migration, The Labor Market Integration of Immigrants in OECD Countries and Temporary Migration, Paris: France, 2005.
36. OECD, Labor Shortages and the Need for Immigrants: A Review of Recent Studies, Paris: France, 2003.

37. Kul, Y., Opportunities and Challenges of International Migration for Sending and Receiving Countries; <http://www.mfa.gov.tr/opportunities-and-challenges-of-international-migration-for-sending-and-receiving-countries.tr.mfa>; 06.02,2016.
38. Borjas, G. J., The Economic Benefits from Immigration, *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, Vol. (9), 1995.
39. Chanda, R., Movement of Natural Persons and Trade in Services: Liberalizing Temporary Movement of Labor under the GATS, *World Economy*, Vol (24), 2000.
40. World Bank, *Global Economic Prospects 2006: International Remittances and Migration*, Washington, DC: United States, 2006.
41. Chacko, E., From brain drain to brain gain: reverse migration to Bangalore and Hyderabad, India's globalizing high tech cities, *GeoJournal*, 68(2-3), pp. 131-140, 2007.
42. AnnaLee, S., From brain drain to brain circulation: Transnational communities and regional upgrading in India and China, *Studies in Comparative International Development*. 40(2), pp. 35-61, 2005.
43. CONACyT, 1996 & 2003, & Wiki; https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Reverse_brain_drain; Retrieved on 07/02/2016.
44. Hanson, G., UC San Diego and NBER, *Future Directions for Research on Immigration*, September 2010; SSRN-id1889196.pdf; Retrieved on 07.02.2016.
45. http://articles.economictimes.indiatimes.com/2014-10-07/news/54735686_1_other-large-recipients-remittances-migration-and-development-brief; Retrieved on 25.01.2016