



International Marriage and Labor Migration in Asia and the Pacific

Edited by Sun-Jae Hwang



Statistics Korea

ASIA PACIFIC
POPULATION INSTITUTE

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Preface

In the twenty-first century, the Asia-Pacific region has been going through dynamic demographic changes including imbalances in the size of women and men at marriageable ages as well as replacement labor migration due to the relative abundance or shortage in the working-age population, resulting in varying degrees of sizes, diversity, or influences of international migration by country.

Statistics Korea and the Asia Pacific Population Institute (APPI) conducted a series of joint research projects on the international marriage and labor migration in the Asia-Pacific region. In collaboration with National Statistical Offices and renowned institutes from four Asian countries including the Philippines, Vietnam, Thailand, and Korea, the primary goal of the research project was to promote regional cooperation and develop mutually supportive international migration policy.

Based on the results of research conducted in 2016 on Asia-Pacific international migration practices and policies, the joint research developed a comparative study among the four participating countries. The results and implications of the study were shared with academics and the general public at an international seminar held in Seoul in November 2016 and were published as country reports. The titles of the country reports include ‘Characteristics of Couples in International Marriages in the Philippines’, ‘International Labor and Marriage Migration: Vietnam Country Paper 2016’, ‘At the Bottom of the Labor Market: Occupational stratification among immigrants in Thailand’, and ‘The Labor Market Integration of Migrants in S. Korea: A Comparison by Ethnicity or Source Country’.

The joint research is expected to bring practical help to identify characteristics of demographic transition in the Asia-Pacific region and lay a cornerstone for developing in-depth studies on

marriage and labor migration that has an augmenting influence over our society and promotes necessary policy initiatives.

Upon the publication of this book, I would like to thank Dr. Tai-hun Kim, head of the Asia Pacific Population Institute, and Dr. Sun-Jae Hwang, professor of Chungnam National University, for coordinating the project and a seminar, and my fellow researchers from the National Statistics Offices and institutes of the Philippines, Vietnam, Thailand, and Korea. My gratitude also goes to the Survey Management Bureau of Statistics Korea for its overall organization. Finally, but not least, I also wish to thank the invited guest editors, discussants and other participants who contributed to the research papers.

Handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read '김현아' (Kim Hyun-ae).

Hyun-Ae Kim

Director General
Survey Management Bureau
Statistics Korea

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Introduction: The Variety of International Migration in Asia and the Pacific

Sun-Jae Hwang¹

Currently, more than sixty percent of the world's population lives in the Asia-Pacific region (United Nations, 2017). Ranging from China, Japan, and Korea in the East to India, Pakistan, and Iran in the South-West Asia, the region is not only economically vibrant and culturally diverse but also hosts many countries of dynamic population changes. Various population issues related to birth, death, and migration are fundamentally altering the demographic as well as socioeconomic landscape of the region and will continue to shape the future of the Asia-Pacific countries in a much unprecedented but rather expected way.

Of those challenges and opportunities associated with the demographic changes, a substantial increase in international migration within and outside the Asia-Pacific region has attracted much attention of international communities recently (Asia-Pacific RCM Thematic Working Group, 2015). According to UN statistics, there are about 244 million international migrants in the world with 40 million residing in Asia and the Pacific, and approximately 74 million migrants originate from the region (UN, 2015). As such, countries in the Asia-Pacific region were conventionally known as 'sending/origin' countries in terms of international migration, but rapid socioeconomic development coupled with demographic challenges in some parts of the region has changed their status from the sending to 'receiving/destination' countries. For instance, China and India have become countries of origin, transit, and destination for international migration in recent years, and more countries in Asia and the Pacific are experiencing the status change due to widening

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economic disparities and demographic necessities within and outside the region (IOM, 2017).

Particularly noticeable is an increase in intra-regional migration in the Asia-Pacific region. It is estimated that forty three percent of Asian migrants move within the region, and the figure is only to increase with the rise of socioeconomic status of the region in the future (IOM, 2017). In addition, the unprecedented level of population aging and low fertility in relatively developed countries of the region promotes further intra-regional migration: Aging populations of relatively developed economies demand young migrant workers from less developed countries, and a substantial decrease in marriage and fertility necessitates marriage migrants outside the country but inside the region of similar cultural background.

The social, economic, and demographic impacts of the intra-regional migration in Asia and the Pacific is substantial (Castles, Haas, and Miller, 2013). For instance, the most common form of the intra-regional migration is temporary migrant workers, and remittance they receive from the destination country and send to their home country is significant for both the origin and destination countries. In 2015, there were five Asian countries (India, China, Philippines, Pakistan, and Bangladesh) among the top ten remittance receiving countries, and in case of Philippines, the region's largest labor-sending country, remittance inflows accounted for about 10 per cent of GDP in 2014 (World Bank, 2015). Aside from the remittance, migrant workers in the region also make an enormous development contributions to the regional economies: they provide skills, labor, services and competitiveness in countries of destination by filling labor market niches that nationals do not want or cannot fill and return to their countries of origin with skills and knowledge.

Accordingly, studies on intra-regional migration, particularly on labor and marriage migration, became essential to fully understand the changing socio-demographic dynamics of the region. Research on these issues, however, have been rather limited due to data limitations and a lack of international cooperation on this matter. This international research project on the International Marriage and Labor Migration in the Asia-Pacific Region, therefore, is a serious attempt to fill the gap in the existing literature on the intra-regional migration of Asia and the Pacific, particularly focusing on marriage and labor migration in the Philippines, Vietnam, Thailand, and South Korea. Although the imminent migration issues of the four participating countries differ from each other, our collaborative work on the same issues of marriage and labor migration discovered much to

learn from each other's experiences, only to illuminate the areas and issues of intra-regional migration for the present and future.

In this introductory chapter, we will summarize the major findings and issues of marriage and labor migration for each participating country, which is further discussed in detail in the following chapters of this volume. Before the summaries, a brief description of the country profile of Philippines, Vietnam, Thailand, and South Korea follows first.

I. Country Profiles of the Philippines, Vietnam, Thailand, and South Korea

Table 1-1 summarizes the country profiles of the four participating countries relevant to the aims of this research project. The countries in the table are arranged primarily by population size from the largest to the smallest, but it also coincides with the relative status of each country in the intra-regional migration dynamics from the mostly 'sending' to 'receiving' countries.

Although the four countries are not representative enough to fully capture the dynamics of intra-regional migration in Asia and the Pacific, they are good examples of social, economic, and demographic varieties of the region. First, the Philippines has the largest population among the participating countries and is also one of the largest migrant-sending countries in the region. The level of socioeconomic development measured by GDP per capita and Human Development Index is relatively low compared to other countries, but its impacts on intra-regional migration is not negligible. With its negative net migration rate, the Philippines has been a major migrant-sending country both inside and outside the region, and the level of remittance is of high impact not only in its total amount but in its contribution to the entire economy.

The status of the Vietnam is similar to the Philippines in this regard, but Thailand and South Korea are somewhat different. South Korea, being the most advanced economy in this group, has become a major destination country for work and marriage in the Asia-Pacific region, attracting many international migrants both within and outside the region. As a result, South Korea registered a positive net migration rate in 2015 with an increasing presence of immigrants in Korean society. Thailand is located somewhat midway between South Korea and the two Southeast Asian countries, and its demographic and socioeconomic conditions are also positioned in between. With this basic

information on the four participating countries, we now turn to the summaries of each country's research findings for this project.

Table 1-1 Country profiles of Philippines, Vietnam, Thailand, and South Korea

	Philippines	Vietnam	Thailand	South Korea
Capital	Manila	Hanoi	Bangkok	Seoul
Population (2015, m.)	100.7	93.4	68.6	51.5
Languages	Filipino, English	Vietnamese	Thai	Korean
GDP per capita (PPP/USD/2014)	\$6,916	\$5,629	\$14,390	\$36,528
HDI Rank (2014)	115	116	89	17
Remittances (USD/2014 estimates, m.)	\$28,403	\$12,000	\$5,555	\$6,481
Net migration rate (per 1000/2015- 2020)	-1.1	-0.4	0.3	0.8
Immigrants (2015)	0.2%	0.1%	5.6%	2.6%
Women as a percentage of immigrants (2015)	48.2%	42.1%	49.6%	43.9%

Source: International Organization for Migration (<http://www.iom.int>)

II. The Variety of Migration Issues in the Philippines, Vietnam, Thailand, and South Korea

Between 2015 and 2016, the four participating countries conducted coordinated but independent research for this collaborative project on the international migration in Asia and the Pacific. Although their geographic and cultural distance is not far from each other, each country's primary

concerns regarding international migration greatly vary as much as the languages they speak and food they enjoy. The differences as well as similarities between these countries are closely related to the relative socioeconomic positions, thus differential demographic demands in the region, and the research focus of each country also differed, reflecting its unique concerns and issues of international migration. In this section, we provide a summary-cum-preview of the research findings prepared by each country, acknowledging the generality and variety of international migration issues in the region.

1. “Characteristics of Couples in International Marriages in the Philippines” by Kabamalan and Villaver

Along with migrant workers, marriage migrants are the primary agents of international migration across the world and the intra-regional migration in the Asia-Pacific region. It is no exception to the Philippines, and the Chapter 2 written by Kabamalan and Villaver explores the nature and characteristics of the international marriages in the Philippines based on census data.

While overall marriage rates in the Philippines have consistently dropped over the past decades, the international marriages have been on the rise and particularly so for Filipino women. Motivated by this increasing trend, Kabamalan and Villaver investigate if there exists much difference between couples of international marriages involving Filipinos (‘international couples’ hereafter) and native Filipino couples. Utilizing the 2010 census data of the Philippines, they compare various characteristics of the international couples with native couples, such as age, religion, education, and work status, and conclude that the dissimilarity of such characteristics is larger for international couples than native couples, particularly for a Filipino wife and foreign husband combination. For instance, the mean age difference between older foreign husband and younger Filipino wife is almost three times larger than the average of native couples, and dissimilarities in religious affiliation, education, work status are also noticeable for this type of international couples. The authors argue that this is primarily due to the fact that the majority of foreign husbands in Philippines are pensioners married to Filipino wives, living off their pensions after retirement. Implications of this trend are further discussed in Chapter 2.

2. “International Labor and Marriage Migration of Vietnam” by Mai and Huong

Vietnam is another major country of international migration in the Asia-Pacific region, and Mai and Huong provide detailed information on the current status and trends of international migration to and from Vietnam, focusing on labor and marriage migration.

According to author’s estimation, the size of the international migrants in Vietnam is almost twenty percent of the entire population in 2015, and the majority of them are either 1) entry/exit migrants for neighboring countries, 2) migrant workers, or 3) marriage migrants. Based on various sources of international migration, such as census, labor force surveys, and administrative data, they document and analyze increasing trends of international migration for the past decades by various characteristics of the migrants. For instance, the majority of Vietnamese labor migrants working abroad are males, and their most popular destinations are within the Asia-Pacific region, such as Taiwan, Japan, Malaysia and South Korea. On the other hand, the primary agents of rising international marriages between Vietnamese and foreigners are females, accounting for almost eighty-five percent of international marriages in 2015.

What is common to both types of international migration is, however, a search for a better life, and the authors pay due attention to economic drives behind the labor and marriage migration of Vietnamese people. In particular, they focus on the socioeconomic impacts of remittance from abroad on the various layers of Vietnamese society, including individuals, families, communities, and the entire nation. The remittance, according to their analysis, not only accounts for a substantial amount of the national economy (approximately seven percent in 2015), but it fundamentally defines and alters the lives of individuals, family members, and communities between those who receive it and those who do not.

3. “At the Bottom of the Labor Market: Occupational Stratification among Immigrants in Thailand” by Sunpuwan and Poonsab

As shown in the country profile, Thailand is one of the migrant-receiving countries in the Asia-

Pacific region with a relatively developed economy in the region: its net migration rate is positive and the proportion of immigrants in the population is approximately six percent in 2015. Since most of the immigrants in Thailand are migrant workers from neighboring countries, Sunpuwan and Poonsab investigate the status and conditions of the migrant workers, particularly paying attention to their occupational status in Thai labor market.

Despite its significance, research on the socioeconomic status of migrant workers in Thai occupational structure has been sparse, and even more so for their gender and ethnic divisions in the stratification system. In order to fill the gap in the existing literature, the authors utilize 2010 Thai census and examine the occupational status and rankings of migrant workers in the labor market by gender and ethnicity. According to their analysis, the majority of migrant workers (96.7%) are from other Asian countries, and most of them occupy lower positions in Thai occupational structure. The specific conditions and status of those Asian migrant workers differ by their gender, place of origin, and skill levels, the difference in the distribution of occupational positions between Asian migrant workers and Thai natives or non-Asian migrant workers is striking. Since occupational structure is a well-known factor for further socioeconomic inequalities and stratification, the authors demand for more proactive immigration policies to reduce the existing but less acknowledged ethnic and gender inequalities among and between migrant workers in Thai labor market.

4. “The Labor Market Integration of Migrants in South Korea: A Comparison by Ethnicity or Source Country” by Lee and Kim

Over the last few decades, South Korea has undergone a rapid demographic transition of low fertility and population aging. Although common to most advanced economies, these demographic trends are occurring at an unprecedented level and speed in Korea, thus fundamentally altered the social and economic dynamics of Korean society in a relatively short period of time.

Of those major consequences of the demographic changes in Korean society, a substantial increase in migrant workers and marriage migrants has attracted much attention recently due to its demographic significance and policy implications. This trend has also generated various issues of

immigration and immigrants in Korea, and the role and status of immigrants in the labor market have become of particular interest. In this vein, Lee and Kim investigate the current status and conditions of immigrants in the Korean labor market, particularly paying attention to the level of their labor market integration.

Based on both administrative data and large survey datasets on migrant workers, the authors examine the labor market integration of immigrants in Korea from both a ‘quantitative’ and ‘qualitative’ aspect: for the former, they focus on migrant workers’ labor force participation rates by gender and ethnicity while they further analyze the qualitative aspect of migrant workers’ labor market integration, such as employment status, occupation, working hours, and wages, in detail also by gender and ethnicity. According to their findings, migrant workers’ visa status is the single most important factor for their patterns of labor force participation, and the overall quality or working conditions of immigrants in Korea, particularly female marriage migrants, are worse than their Korean counterparts even if it significantly varies by their country of origin.

In this introductory chapter, we had a brief overview of the major issues and implications of labor and marriage migration in the Philippine, Vietnam, Thailand, and South Korea. Although the four countries share growing concerns of increasing international migration for work and marriage in their territories, each country also has unique problems, depending on their current level of socioeconomic and demographic development. The details of the generality and variety of immigration issues in the four countries will further be discussed in subsequent chapters with its implications and suggestions for future immigration policies in the final chapter.

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Characteristics of Couples in International Marriages in the Philippines¹

Maria Midea M. Kabamalan², Marjorie Villaver³

This paper follows the earlier paper we prepared on international marriages involving Filipinos using vital statistics data on marriage (Kabamalan & Villaver, 2016). In that paper, we found that marriage rates hovered at five to eight per 1,000 population but for the first time since the 1960s, the rate dropped to less than five in 2013. Coupled with this drop is the increasing proportion of the population who are forming marital unions but not getting married formally. Alongside this trend is the general increase of international marriages over time, especially involving Filipino women more than Filipino men.

In our earlier study, we found that the age difference between a Filipino and a foreign national is much larger than the age difference between couples who are both Filipinos and they vary by the nationality of the foreign spouse. Moreover, more couples with a foreign spouse have been in a marriage prior to their current marriage. We were not able to examine this further due to limited data from the vital statistics so we now turn to another data source, the census, for further examining age differences between couples in international marriages, as well as other characteristics such as education and work.

Literature on marriage suggest that persons often marry within their social circle or someone

1 Paper prepared for the 2016 Joint Research on International Marriage and Labor Migration in the Asia-Pacific Region, Seoul, South Korea, on 10-11 November 2016.

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3 Philippine Statistics Authority

close to them in status but there is an indication that this has become less important over time (Kalmijn, 1998). Marrying someone from a different nationality or ethnicity, religion, and socioeconomic status could spell adjustments to either the bride or the groom or both. It was also noted that intermarriage and divorce are often positively related.

This paper, thus, describes the couples in terms of the characteristics of the husband and wife. Their characteristics are then compared against each other and presented by type of couple, that is, if the husband and wife are both Filipinos, or if one of them is a foreign national.

I. Data and Methodology

The census is perhaps one data source that is regularly collected but has not been tapped for examining marriage beyond describing the marital status and estimating singulate mean age at marriage in demographic studies. In the Philippines, the latest census of population and housing (CPH) was conducted in 2010 and it remains an important source of data for the analysis of important demographic events. By using the census, restructured so that the characteristics of the husband and the wife are matched, we are able to examine to what extent the husband and wife are similar or different. As in the earlier paper, the analysis will be based on couples who were included in the Philippine census and, thus, excludes Filipinos married to foreigners who are living abroad and do not maintain a household in the Philippines.

This paper uses the Philippines' 2010 CPH public use data on household population and on the basis of the variable on relationship to household head, restructured the data following these steps:

1. Prepare a file with only the first member of the household (the household head)
2. Prepare a file with only the second member of the household (ensuring that the variables for the second file, specific to the second member of the household is given a different variable name to avoid overwriting the variables referring to the first member of the household when the files are matched in the next step)
3. Match the two files in (1) and (2).
4. From the matched file, select only the cases where the second member of the

household is the “spouse” of the head.

Since the focus of this paper is to examine international marriage, we further excluded couples who are both non-citizens of the Philippines (which is about 2,609 couples or 0.1 percent). This resulted to 3,175,716 couples for analysis.

There are two limitations that need to be mentioned. First, the analytical number of couples used in this paper only includes those where one is the household head, because it is not possible to ascertain on the basis of the variable on relationship to household head as to who among the other household members are couples or are married to each other. Second, there is no data from the census on the duration of marriages and, hence, the couples being studied here may have been married for just a few months or for several decades.

Given the large number of cases being analysed here and since the number of couples included in the data are disproportionately both Filipinos (99.9 percent), the overall profile will mimic that of the profile of couples who are both Filipinos. Thus, the focus will be on how different or similar couples with a foreign spouse are.

II. Results

As previously mentioned, almost all of the couples are both Filipinos, which is expected since the data was based on the census of the Philippines in 2010 (Table 2-1). Among those who are married to foreigners, there are more Filipino women married to foreign husbands (81.3 percent) than there are Filipino men married to foreign wives (18.7 percent) living in the Philippines (see Figure 2-1). Most foreign husbands are citizens of the U.S.A., Japan, China, Germany, and the United Kingdom. There is more diversity in the citizenship of foreign wives although they mostly come from the U.S.A, China, and Japan (Table 2-2). However, there is a large percentage of foreign wives whose citizenship was not reported.

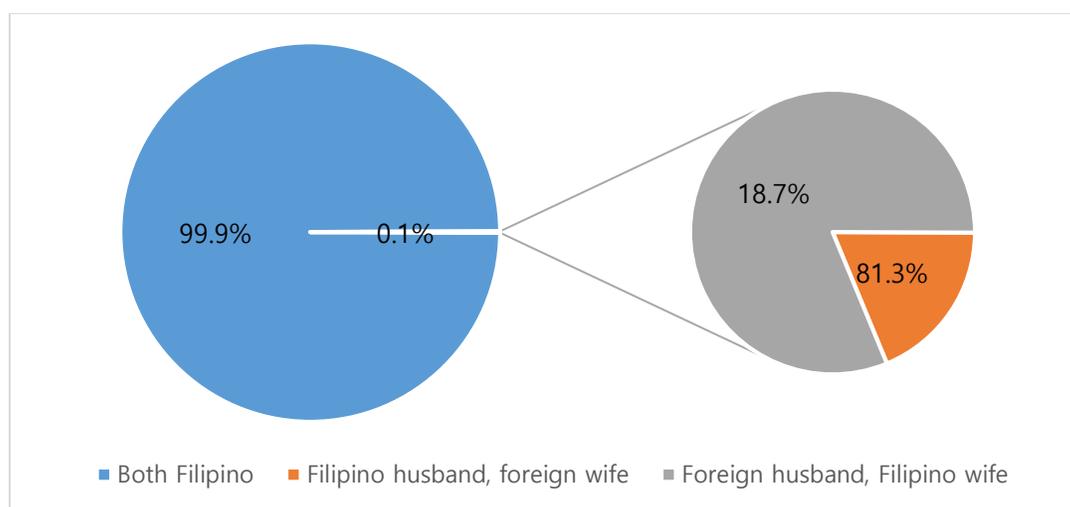
Note that collectively, both the formally married and those “living-in” or are in common-law marital unions and have not formally married, are considered in this paper as “married”. Table 2-3 shows that of the couples in this study, almost 91 percent are formally married and the remainder

are “living-in” or are in common-law marital unions. Comparing couples with a foreign wife with couples with a foreign husband (see Table 2-3), we find that there are relatively more of the latter who are not formally married (16 percent) compared with the former at just three (3) percent.

Table 2-1 Percent distribution of couples by type

Type of Couples	Number of Couples	Percent
Both Filipinos	3,171,700	99.9
Filipino husband, Foreign wife	751	0.0
Foreign husband, Filipino wife	3,265	0.1
Total	3,175,176	100.0

Figure 2-1 Distribution of couples by type of spouse



Husbands are generally older than their wives. For couples who are both Filipinos, the mean age difference is 2.8 years. For couples with a foreign wife, the mean age difference is slightly larger (3.1 years) than both Filipino couples. For couples with a foreign husband, the husbands are on average older than their Filipino wives by 13 years, a finding that validates the vital registration data in our earlier paper that couples with a foreign spouse have a mean age difference about four times the mean age difference from Filipino couples (Kabamalan & Villaver, 2016). These age

differences are shown by country of citizenship of the foreign spouse in Figures 2-2a and 2-2b. Both figures likewise validate results from the vital statistics data except for an American wife where the husband is older than their Filipino husband, on average.

Table 2-2 Percent distribution of foreign spouses by country of citizenship

Country of Citizenship	Foreign Husband	Foreign Wife
United States of America	21.4	4.0
Japan	12.6	1.9
China	6.8	3.9
Germany	6.7	0.7
United Kingdom	5.7	1.5
India	4.9	0.7
Australia	3.9	0.4
South Korea	2.3	0.4
Canada	1.9	0.4
Switzerland	1.3	0.1
France	1.1	0.0
Singapore	1.1	0.0
Other	21.4	13.8
No information	8.8	72.6
Total	100.0	100.0
Number of Couples	3,265	751

Presented differently and assuming that an age difference of two years makes the couples about the same age, we find that in 47 percent of Filipino couples the husbands are older than their wives, 42 percent are of the same age, and for the rest (10 percent) the wives are older (see Table 2-3). The same pattern and about the same levels are found among couples with a Filipino husband. However, among couples with a foreign husband, more than three-quarters (77 percent) of the husbands are older than their wives.

The religious affiliation of the couples is generally the same but one in five couples with a

foreign husband are of different religions. Less than five percent of couples with a Filipino husband have different religious affiliations.

Figure 2-2a Average age difference (in years) between Filipino wife and foreign husband

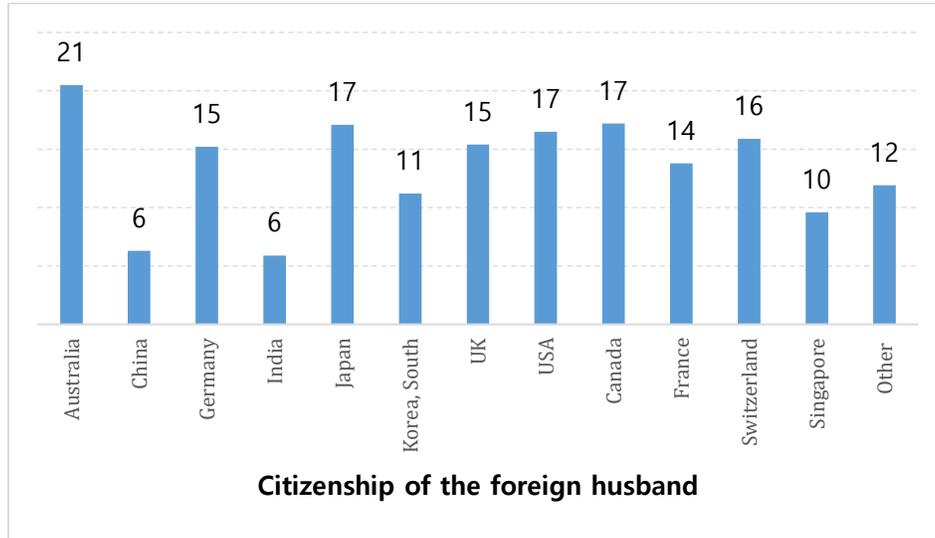


Figure 2-2b Average age difference (in years) between Filipino husband and foreign wife by citizenship of wife



In terms of educational differences, Filipino couples are mostly of the same educational attainment (47 percent) and relatively more wives have higher education levels than their husbands

(30 percent) than the converse (23 percent). We find the same pattern for couples with a Filipino husband but this is not the case among couples with a foreign husband. Forty-two percent of the couples are of the same educational level and the same percentage are with husbands who have higher education levels than their wives. In 16 percent of the couples, we find wives who have higher education levels than their husbands.

It is also important to examine the work status of the couples, especially if one is living in a country that is not their native home. First of all, 93 percent of the husbands are working while only 24 percent of the wives are (Table 2-4). Putting their work status together, we find that in 71 percent of the couples only the husbands are working. We also find that in 22 percent of the couples both the husband and the wife are working. A small percentage (2 percent) are couples where only the wife is working. Interestingly, five percent of couples have neither one of them are working.

Examining this by the type of couple (see Table 2-5), we find that among couples with a Filipino husband, in 73 percent of the couples, only the husband is working whereas among couples with a foreign husband, only in half of the couples do we find that only the husbands are working. There are about the same percentage of couples with a foreign spouse where both the husband and wife are working. Interestingly, we find the highest percentage of wives who are working among couples with a foreign husband (6 percent) compared with couples who are both Filipinos or couples with a Filipino husband. We also find the highest percentage of couples who are both not working (24 percent) among those with a foreign husband.

These patterns seem curious so we checked the ages of these couples by their work status. As shown in Table 2-6, on average, the husband in couples where both the husband and wife are not working is aged 63. What this could imply is that these couples are probably living off the husband's retirement pension. Among couples with a foreign husband, and the wife is the only one working, the wife is, on the average, younger than the husband by about 16 years suggesting that the wives, being younger, are still active in the labor force.

Table 2-3 Percent distribution of couples by couple characteristics

Characteristics	Both Filipinos	Filipino husband, foreign wife	Foreign husband, Filipino wife	Total
Marital status				
Formally married	90.7	97.2	84.5	90.7
Living-in/Common-law	9.3	2.8	15.5	9.3
Age difference				
Wife is older	10.3	7.8	4.7	10.3
About the same age	42.4	44.9	18.0	42.4
Husband older	47.3	47.3	77.3	47.3
Mean age difference	2.8	3.1	13.0	2.9
		11.1		
Religion difference				
Same religion	98.2	95.7	80.0	98.2
Different	1.8	4.3	20.0	1.8
Education difference				
Wife's education is higher	29.9	24.4	15.8	29.9
Same education level	46.8	53.2	42.2	46.9
Husband's education higher	23.3	22.4	42.0	23.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of couples	3,171,700	751	3,265	3,175,716

Table 2-4 Work status of husband and wife

Work Status	Husband	Wife
Working	92.0	24.3
Not working	7.0	75.0
No information	1.0	0.8
Total	100.0	100.0
Number of couples	3,175,716	3,175,716

Table 2-5 Percent distribution of couples by work status by type of couple

Work Status of Couples	Both Filipinos	Filipino husband, foreign wife	Foreign husband, Filipino wife
Both working	22.2	19.4	19.4
Only husband working	70.8	73.3	50.3
Only wife working	2.2	1.8	5.8
Both not working	4.8	5.5	24.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of couples	3,119,608	655	3,098

Table 2-6 Mean age of husband and wife by work status and type of couple

Work Status of Couples	Both Filipinos	Filipino husband, foreign wife	Foreign husband, Filipino wife	Total
<i>Mean age of husband</i>				
Both working	43.4	43.7	48.9	43.4
Only husband working	42.2	41.0	47.8	42.2
Only wife working	51.3	43.6	59.2	51.3
Both not working	63.8	65.3	63.1	63.8
Total	43.7	42.9	52.4	43.7
<i>Mean age of wife</i>				
Both working	41.1	41.2	40.7	41.1
Only husband working	39.3	37.8	36.3	39.3
Only wife working	47.9	40.0	43.0	47.8
Both not working	60.1	60.3	43.3	60.0
Total	40.8	39.7	39.3	40.8

The educational difference between couples can also be juxtaposed against the work status of the couples to examine whether one whose educational attainment is higher will also translate to a

higher possibility of working. The next table (Table 2-7) shows that this is the case. Among couples where the husband has a higher education level than the wife, more than three-fourths have only the husband working. The percentages are lower among couples with the same educational level or where the wife has more education than her husband. The same general pattern is found when examined by type of couple.

Table 2-7 Percent distribution of couples by work status by educational difference

Type and Work Status of Couples	Wife's education is higher	Same education level	Husband's education higher
Both Filipinos			
Both working	24.9	22.8	16.6
Only husband working	69.1	70.2	76.2
Only wife working	2.5	1.9	1.5
Both not working	3.4	5.2	5.7
Filipino husband, foreign wife			
Both working	20.4	21.8	12.9
Only husband working	69.1	72.3	82.6
Only wife working	2.0	1.8	0.8
Both not working	8.6	4.0	3.8
Foreign husband, Filipino wife			
Both working	20.2	24.6	12.3
Only husband working	45.6	49.4	55.2
Only wife working	7.9	5.1	3.6
Both not working	26.3	20.9	28.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of couples	917,121	1,432,357	712,468

Filipinos are known to have close-knit families and extended family households are not uncommon. In 2010 more generally, the average household size in the Philippines is about 4.6

persons (<https://psa.gov.ph/content/highlights-household-population-number-households-and-average-household-size-philippines>), thus the average household size of households with foreign spouses are relatively smaller at just around four persons. Interestingly, couples who are both working have larger household sizes than couples with just one working spouse. While we have seen earlier that couples who are not working are relatively older, too, their smaller household sizes may also imply an empty nest household.

Table 2-8 Mean household size by work status and type of couple

Work Status of Couples	Both Filipinos	Filipino husband, foreign wife	Foreign husband, Filipino wife
Both working	4.8	4.3	4.5
Only husband working	4.8	4.0	4.1
Only wife working	4.5	3.5	3.9
Both not working	4.4	4.1	3.7
Total	4.8	4.1	4.0
Modal household size	4.0	2.0	3.0

We examine the work differences further by comparing the occupation of the husband and the wife for couples who are both working. We use Ganzeboom’s hierarchical classification of occupations (Ganzeboom, 2010), and assigned scores to the occupations of the husband and the wife. Comparing their scores among couples who are both working, we find that wives generally have higher occupational levels than their husbands (48 percent), another 20 percent are of the same occupational level, and in 32 percent of the couples, the husband’s occupational level is higher than their spouse’s (Table 2-9). Among couples with a foreign wife, this is almost equally distributed and among couples with a foreign husband, there are more couples with husbands who have a higher occupational level than their wives (39 percent); and in 26 percent of the couples we find wives with a higher occupational level than their spouse.

III. Summary and Discussion

Based on census data in 2010, there are more couples with a foreign husband living in the Philippines than there are couples with a foreign wife. Moreover, the former exhibits patterns different from couples who are both Filipinos or couples with a Filipino husband. We find an age difference that is significantly larger than the age difference between the two other types of couples, and higher percentages of common-law/living-in couples with foreign husbands which could imply tentativeness of the marriage. This might, however, be due to their previous marital status (but which we could not examine using census data) as was found by Cruz (2013) where larger age differences between the wife and the husband are more common among those in their second marriages.

Table 2-9 Percent distribution of couples by occupational difference by type of couple

Occupational Difference	Both Filipinos	Filipino husband, foreign wife	Foreign husband, Filipino wife	Total
Wife's occupation higher	47.8	33.8	26.1	47.8
Same	20.0	32.3	35.1	20.0
Husband's occupation higher	32.3	33.9	38.8	32.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of couples	691,845	127	601	692,573

Couples with a foreign husband are also more dissimilar, trumping classic beliefs of homogamy in marriage. Compared with couples with a Filipino husband, couples with a foreign husband are more different in terms of their religion, educational attainment, and work, which is probably one of the things that attracts Filipino women to foreign men, because they do not have to marry someone of the same status, but rather, can marry someone with a better status. Notable, too, is the finding that in terms of work status, a lower percentage of these couples have foreign husbands who are working compared with the other two types of couples but a larger percentage are not working, who are probably living off the retirement pension of the husband, being older on the

average and opting to retire in the Philippines, a phenomenon often found among Filipinos who lived overseas for many years.

With the use of census data, we are able to examine the characteristics of couples in international marriages. However, there are still other aspects of this study that could have been explored further given the availability of more data. We suggest therefore, that in-depth data regarding international marriages be collected in the future if we are to understand this further.

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International Labor and Marriage Migration:

Vietnam Country Paper 2016

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I. Introduction

1.1. Background

1.1.1. Country context

Table 3-1 below shows some information on the population, labor force, and employment in Vietnam for the period 2006-2015. Over the past ten years, the population has grown at a rate of 1.08% per year (with a rate of 1.05% for women compared to 1.12% for men). The total working age population grew at a rate of 1.46% per year (with a rate of 1.41% for women compared to 1.51% for men).

Table 3-2 illustrates the labor and employment trend over 2006-2016. In relative terms, the labor force grew at a rate of 1.83% per year (with a female growth rate of 1.96% compared to 1.72% for men); employment grew at a rate of 2.05% per year (with a female growth rate of 2.19% compared to 1.94% for men); the employment/population rate increased from 53% in 2006 to 58% in 2015. The employment ratio increased from 95% in 2006 to 98% in 2015. The impact of an aging population resulted in decline of youth labor force and employment.

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Table 3-1 Population in Vietnam, 2006-2015

	TOTAL (all ages)			Working-age (15+)		
	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
Population						
2006	83,083,125	40,886,910	42,196,215	61,279,802	29,635,786	31,644,016
2007	84,295,586	41,485,170	42,810,416	63,178,641	30,411,311	32,767,330
2008	84,898,828	41,849,894	43,048,934	63,702,050	30,775,278	32,926,772
2009	86,175,432	42,597,475	43,577,957	64,436,283	31,232,878	33,203,405
2010	86,927,697	42,990,650	43,937,047	65,710,424	31,872,644	33,837,780
2011	87,840,038	43,444,777	44,395,261	67,165,309	32,608,021	34,557,287
2012	88,775,523	43,917,695	44,857,828	68,195,475	33,131,976	35,063,498
2013	89,715,637	44,383,151	45,332,486	68,687,487	33,352,452	35,335,035
2014	90,728,941	44,758,132	45,970,809	69,344,012	33,563,327	35,780,685
2015	91,703,811	45,243,959	46,459,852	69,735,982	33,776,379	35,959,604
2. Annual growth rate, %	1.08	1.12	1.05	1.46	1.51	1.41

Source: General statistics office, GSO, 2016

Table 3-2 Labor force and employment in Vietnam, 2006-2015

	TOTAL (all ages)			Youth (15-24)		
	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
1. Labor Force						
2006	46,238,710	24,613,892	21,624,818	9,151,147	4,851,979	4,299,168
2007	47,176,827	23,956,013	23,220,814	8,628,120	4,498,030	4,130,089
2008	48,216,802	24,652,942	23,563,860	8,839,341	4,631,102	4,208,239
2009	49,300,394	25,290,382	24,010,013	9,180,707	4,783,746	4,396,961
2010	50,837,275	26,125,388	24,711,887	9,326,913	4,880,037	4,446,876
2011	51,723,928	26,635,864	25,088,064	8,518,856	4,626,579	3,892,277
2012	52,348,041	26,918,524	25,429,516	7,887,794	4,328,987	3,558,807

	TOTAL (all ages)			Youth (15-24)		
	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
2013	53,245,559	27,370,564	25,874,995	7,916,138	4,353,696	3,562,442
2014	53,747,997	27,560,579	26,187,418	7,585,155	4,120,390	3,464,765
2015	53,984,214	27,843,631	26,140,582	8,012,404	4,371,601	3,640,803
2. Employment						
2006	43,980,300	23,338,420	20,641,880	8,560,100	4,508,987	4,051,113
2007	46,020,235	23,355,412	22,664,823	8,000,654	4,165,237	3,835,417
2008	47,069,212	24,207,728	22,861,483	8,285,291	4,382,671	3,902,620
2009	48,011,950	24,647,948	23,364,002	8,614,029	4,483,552	4,130,477
2010	49,493,696	25,535,617	23,958,079	8,671,270	4,591,881	4,079,389
2011	50,678,617	26,193,509	24,485,108	8,078,419	4,427,697	3,650,722
2012	51,422,441	26,499,245	24,923,195	7,455,724	4,130,909	3,324,816
2013	52,207,782	26,830,214	25,377,568	7,427,908	4,117,661	3,310,247
2014	52,744,545	27,025,798	25,718,747	7,110,306	3,893,251	3,217,055
2015	52,840,046	27,216,731	25,623,314	7,448,909	4,074,732	3,374,176
Annual growth rate, %						
1. Labor force	1.83	1.72	1.96	-1.92	-1.33	-2.59
2. Employment	2.05	1.94	2.19	-1.88	-1.19	-2.67

Source: General statistics office, GSO, 2016

1.1.2. Overview of the international migration trend

In the period 2012-2015, the number of Vietnamese people exiting from and entering Vietnam tended to rise steadily. In 2015, there were more than 6 million people exiting from Vietnam and nearly 6 million people entering Vietnam. If we include the number of unofficial immigrants through cross-border roads, the overall figure of Vietnamese people (both exit and entry) every year can be up to 20% of the total population of the country.

These exiting people are often those in the most active working ages (from 20 to 40 years old). Females have a lower share among exiting and entering than male.

International migration for the purpose of livelihood is the most common form of migration. This includes the migration of Vietnamese going abroad to work under fixed term labor contracts and the self-supporting migration of workers to neighbouring countries through cross-border roads. The number of migrants in both forms is likely to increase in the 2012-2015 period. In 2015, the number of overseas migrants under labor contracts with a term was up to 119,530 people in 22 countries/territories around the world. The proportion of women in the labor migrants by contract was rather low, just over one-third of the total number of overseas migrants under labor contracts with a term. Countries receiving many Vietnamese workers are Taiwan (China), Japan, the Republic of Korea, Malaysia, and Saudi Arabia. Overall, labor migrants under contract with a term abroad have higher salaries than the average wage level in the country.

For the self-supporting migrants across the road border to the neighbouring countries to work (China, Laos and Cambodia), many people go with the legal documents, but there are also quite a lot of people going unofficially through the cross-border trails. The unofficial migrants face many potential threats: unsafe conditions, lack of legal protection, vulnerable to exploitation, abuse, more likely to become victims of human trafficking. In fact, only a small number of unofficial migrants have become victims of the above-mentioned risks.

Another form of international migration is marriages with foreign nationals. In the period 2012-2015, marriages with foreign citizens were noted in all of the 63 provinces and cities nationwide. In 2015, 18,726 Vietnam citizens married foreign nationals with females totalling 85.4%. Overall, the rate of women marrying foreign nationals tended to decrease while this rate of men tended to increase. The United States of America, the Republic of Korea, Taiwan (China), China, and Australia are countries with many foreign nationals married to Vietnamese citizens over the years.

1.2. The purpose and scope of the report

This is the second report on migration in Vietnam.

The purpose of this paper is to update the trends and volume of Vietnamese international

migration, including Vietnamese and foreign migration; analyzing the factors underlining the situation, the impact on the country and individuals, and their challenges to make recommendations for better management and protection of the migration flows.

The scope: The paper includes only three types of migration: entry/exit migrants, labor migration, and cross-border marriages.

Follow the structure of the first report, we will update the data on migration and add more information on the impact of migration while removing part of the policy framework.

1.3. The methodology

To this purpose, we use the following methods:

- a) Literature review: To update the studies/researches on migration on Vietnam (domestic and international studies) to highlight the scope, contents, factors underlying the trends of migration; impacts and issues.
- b) Statically collation and depiction: to collect and use the data (national) to highlight the trends, types of migration
- c) Analytical work: To analyze the reasons of migration, features of migration; the benefits/impacts of migration on Vietnam's economy, the social and economic welfare of migrants and their households; identifying the issues and challenges of migration

1.4. The data used

The data for international migration is not easy to collect. In Vietnam, there are several possible sources of data: from population censuses, labor force surveys, migration surveys, international marriage research, and emigration administrative reports/records (exit and entry reports or border control).

a) Data on population, labor and migration

Population surveys related to migration conducted by the General Statistics Office of Vietnam, such as:

Population and Housing Censuses takes every 10 years (conducted in 1979, 1989, 1999 and 2009).

The time-point of the survey is 1st April;

- Inter-censal Population and Housing Survey: Vietnam conducted the first survey in 2014. The time-point of the survey is 1st April;
- Annual Population Change and Family Planning Survey: Vietnam has conducted this from 2001 up to now, except in the years when the Population and Housing Censuses and Intercensal Population and Housing Surveys are taken. The time-point of the survey is 1st April;
- Annual Labor Force Survey: The GSO has conducted the survey since 2007. The time-point of the survey is the first day of the month
- The 2004 and 2015 National Internal Migration Survey
- The 1997 and 2002 Vietnam Demographic and Health Survey.

These surveys only refer to internal migration or domestic migration, and do not include international migration due to the small number of international migrants as compared to the population and the limited capacity for collecting data of international migration statistics. Therefore, the number and rate of international migrants is considered zero.

b) Data on Vietnamese Migration Abroad

In Vietnam, international migration outflows are the responsibility of different agencies:

- The Ministry of Foreign Affairs (Immigration Department and checkpoint agencies: through airports, land points, and sea) is responsible for recording Vietnamese citizens going out of and back into the country.
- Ministry of Labor, Invalids and Social Affairs (Department for Overseas Labor) is responsible for contact-based labor migrants working overseas.
- Ministry of Education and Ministry of Science and Technology are responsible for Vietnamese students studying overseas through the Education Coordination Plan (official).
- Ministry of Justice is responsible for international marriages and child adoptions (official)

- Ministry of Defense (Border Guard Command) is responsible for controlling travelling across borders
- Ministry of Home Affairs is responsible for human trafficking
- Ministry of Planning and Investment (General Statistics Office) is responsible for national data sets: Population and housing censuses and household surveys; sampling surveys
- Research Institutions and Universities: Carry out the research and surveys on migration and particular subjects and interests.

The main issues are, data from administrative sources have not been available widely, systematically, and consistently. Many data are not disaggregated by sex and other demographic characteristics.

However, there is no detailed breakdown and disaggregation of available statistics on Vietnamese nationals migrating abroad.

Moreover, access to this data is very limited. Regulations on the release and use of this data are unclear and inconsistent. These limitations severely hamper the development of a database of Vietnamese nationals migrating abroad. Existing data sources can be listed as follows:

Contract-based workers working overseas: Figures showing the number of Vietnamese contract-based workers working abroad are obtained through reports from labor export enterprises. These enterprises periodically report on the situation and the number of migrant workers they are dealing with to the Department of Overseas Labor (DOLAB). This data is only compiled and classified by destination, date, and occupation and is organized to show how it matches up with the targets set by these enterprises. However, it does not cover migrants who manage to get work abroad by their own means or via individual channels. (According to an unofficial estimate, this category represents about three to five percent of overseas labors). In principle, MOLISA only deals with data on overseas labor managed by the government. In fact, it mainly manages data and information on workers who are sent abroad by service companies and public organizations. However, it lacks comprehensive data on other categories of overseas migrant workers hired through bid winners, contractors, overseas investment undertakings, or under trainee programmes

and individual contracts.

International marriage: This is a data source related to Vietnamese women who marry with foreigners. The Ministry of Justice is responsible for managing processes regarding international marriage and child adoption. Current legal requirements specify that couples must register their marriage with the Department of Justice, which keeps appropriate records of such marriages. These records are divided into seven main groups: women marrying Koreans, women marrying Chinese, women marrying citizens of Chinese Taipei, women marrying Americans, women marrying Canadians, women marrying French, and women marrying men from other countries. Similarly, data on internationally adopted Vietnamese children are reported by local judicial administrations to the Department of Adoption (Ministry of Justice), which is responsible for State management of child adoption, including international foster child cases. In addition to the data reported by judicial administrations, information on international foster children is also compiled by international adoption agencies located in Vietnam. So far, 10 countries have signed agreements on international adoption with Vietnam, although some agreements have expired; relevant agencies usually compile these statistics based on destination countries.

Sample surveys and research: A number of sample surveys on international migration and related issues were carried out during the past five to ten years, mostly within the framework of research projects financed by foreign funds. Research institutes, NGOs, and several universities have conducted surveys related to international migration. The targets of these surveys are very diverse, comprising households, migrant women, children of workers working abroad under labor export programmers, returnee skilled workers, expatriate Vietnamese nationals, and remittances from international migration. The findings of these sample surveys clearly indicate key characteristics of international migration, but are not comprehensive enough to measure the full scope of migration from Vietnam. Nonetheless, combined with other information sources, the findings constitute important complementary data on the nature and scope of international migration from the country.

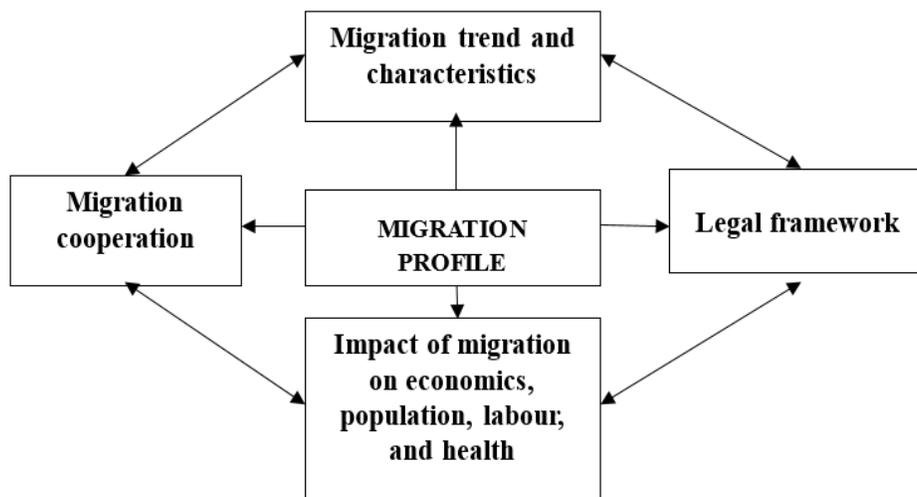
Other sources: Coupled with the rapid development of information technology, the Internet has become an abundant source of secondary information. The capacity for storing archived and accessible information on the Internet is now very large, providing relevant data and information

on the situation of migration and residence of Vietnamese nationals overseas. Electronic newspapers collect and release news together with other illustrated data on issues related to Vietnamese nationals overseas. Websites of international organizations; the electronic gateways of government, ministries, and agencies; research institutes; and universities, both in Vietnam and around the world, publish articles or data on Vietnamese migration and the Vietnamese Diaspora. Certainly, accessing and studying relevant data and information via the Internet requires a lot of time, effort, and caution due to the fact that concepts, definitions, criteria, and content on migration are not always consistent.

c) Migration profile

Following the ideas of the European Commission (EC) in 2005, many countries have developed migration profiles with an aim to better manage migration flows. The First Migration Profile of Vietnam was set up in 2010 and the report was published in 2012. The Second Migration Profile was set up in 2015. The reports were done by the Foreign Department, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs with technical and financial support from the International Organization on Migration (IOM) and the EC. The reports provided comprehensive pictures on the migration of Vietnamese people. Details look into the characteristics of migrants, their motivations, and the impact of migrations.

Figure 3-1 Migration profile model



Source: Vietnam Migration Profile, 2015.

II. Concepts and Definitions of Migration

2.1. International migrants

The United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs has built up an international database on international migration, based on the datasets of population censuses of countries, statistics on citizenship status, and refugees (United Nations and Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2015). According to this database, an international migrant is defined as a person who was born in another country (country of departure) but was settling in a host country (country of destination). If the place of birth is not available, the status of citizenship will be based on the citizenship of another country (country of departure) before resettling in the host country (country of destination). The statistics will be estimated at the midpoint of the reference years.

2.2. International labor migration mentioned in this report includes:

2.2.1. International labor migration under an overseas labor contract

Workers working overseas under a contract must be in accordance with Article 6 of the Law on Vietnamese people working overseas under the contract, adopted on 29/11/2006 by the Eleventh National Assembly (Law No. 72/2006/QH11). It often applies to those people working under fixed-term contracts signed between the licensed enterprises in accordance with Vietnamese law and the enterprises of the labor-receiving countries. This form of migration is officially registered at the enterprises operating/providing services for sending people to work overseas under contract and is managed by the Department of Overseas Labor Management (Ministry of Labor, Invalids and Social Affairs). In addition, the enterprises for assigning people to work overseas, banks giving loans, and embassies of receiving countries may have information on this group.

2.2.2. International labor migrants by their own arrangement formally or informally cross Vietnam - China, Vietnam - Laos, Vietnam - Cambodia borders

This migration is regarded as the most complex and the most diverse by occupation and industry, the length of stay, number of trips in a year, and the purpose. It can be divided into two basic forms

of migration: (1) migration for employment or income-generating activities (paid working, trade, business, service ...), and (2) migration for other purposes (marriage, family, travel ...). These two forms of migration are difficult to distinguish, the statistics may be overlapped for those people who travel many times, with different durations of time, or different purposes), and it is also difficult to separate those people migrating for work or other purposes. The data on this form of migration can be taken from Border Checkpoint Authorities, Border Guard High Command, the Ministry of Defence, the Immigration Department, or the Ministry of Public Security.

2.2.3. Marriage with foreign citizens

Ministry of Justice tracks marriage cases with "foreign nationals," including: (i) cases of Vietnamese residing in the country marry foreign nationals who reside in Vietnam; (ii) Vietnamese marry citizens residing abroad; (iii) Vietnamese residing abroad marry foreigners in Vietnam. The first case is not always associated with migration abroad, when the couples continue to live in Vietnam; while the rest of marriages often accompany with migration of the couples abroad.

The problem is, there is no agency has accurate data on migration abroad because of marriage. The record on marriage with foreign nationals only limits to data on Vietnamese who marry foreign nationals.

III. Overview of the Trends of International Migration

3.1. Vietnamese people residing abroad

Information about Vietnamese residing abroad showed the migration situation of Vietnam for a quite long time and is not easily accessible. However, changes in the number of Vietnamese who settle in the country from year to year can tell us statistically about the migration situation of Vietnamese people to that country in the period between the two years. Census population data of these countries often does not take into account short-term or long-term migrants, who do not intend to settle in the host country, and it is often brings lower rating numbers than actual migration in a particular year. Despite these limitations, statistics data about Vietnamese residing abroad

gives us a better understanding of the situation of the international migration of Vietnamese citizens.

With its open-door policy during the Doi Moi era (1986 to present) and international integration intensifying in recent years, international migration in Vietnamese has been increasing greatly. According to statistical data from the Department of Economic and Social Affairs, the United Nations in 2015), the number of Vietnamese residing abroad has been constantly increasing over time since 1990 (Figure 3-2). Overall, in recent years the number of men and women overseas has been equivalent to each other. Vietnam ranked 4th among ASEAN countries for having the most citizens overseas, after the Philippines, Indonesia, and Myanmar (International Labor Organization 2015). Table 3-3 shows 19 countries that were major destination of Vietnamese migrants in 2015.

Table 3-3 Major destination countries of Vietnamese people to settle abroad, 2015

Unit: Person

No	Settlement places	Male	Female	Total
	Total	1,261,883	1,296,795	2,558,678
1	USA	637,765	665,105	1,302,870
2	Australia	104,690	122,608	227,298
3	Canada	86,419	96,428	182,847
4	France	56,606	69,125	125,731
5	Korea Republic	55,878	58,120	113,998
6	Germany	51,815	61,143	112,958
7	Malaysia	54,211	33,061	87,272
8	Japan	32,392	40,228	72,620
9	Czech Republic	27,510	19,965	47,475
10	Cambodia	19,175	17,261	36,436
11	England & North Ireland	14,317	18,112	32,429
12	China	19,731	8,364	28,095
13	Bangladesh	23,721	3,800	27,521
14	Sweden	7,861	9,143	17,004
15	Norway	6,236	7,562	13,798

No	Settlement places	Male	Female	Total
	Total	1,261,883	1,296,795	2,558,678
16	Russia	8,553	5,118	13,671
17	Holland	5,768	7,032	12,800
18	Ukraine	7,130	5,260	12,390
19	Swiss	5,362	6,689	12,051

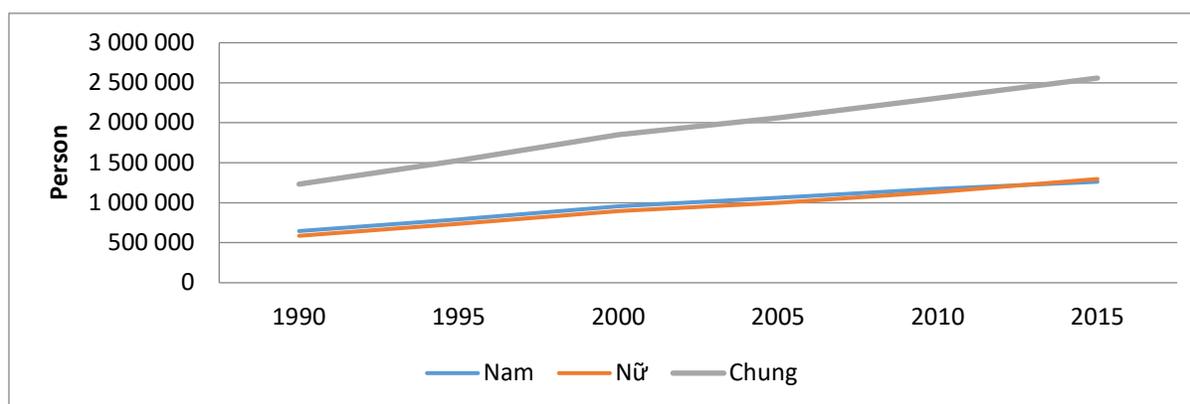
United Nation and Department of Economic and Social Affairs. 2015. Trends in International Migrant Stock: The 2015 revision (United Nations database, POP/DB/MIG/Stock/Rev.2015).

The number of Vietnamese people residing abroad increased for five years and is equal to the number of new settlers minus the number of people who settled previously, but others have moved back to Vietnam or died. Because the number of settlers who died or moved is generally not high, so the number of Vietnamese people residing abroad increasing for five years mainly reflects the out migration flows from Vietnam abroad to reside. Vietnamese people are mainly migrating developed countries in Europe, North America, and Australia. The United States of America is a country with the most Vietnamese people settling, with 1,302,870 people in 2015. The next five countries with more than 100 thousand Vietnamese people settling in 2015 were Australia, Canada, France, the Republic of Korea, and Germany. Notably, Cambodia ranked 10th as the country with the most settled Vietnamese and China ranked only 12th on the list.

3.2. Vietnamese existing and entering though official borders over the years

Figure 3- 2 and Table 3-4 show the number of Vietnamese people who either exited or entered official Vietnamese borders with passports over the years by sex. It can be seen that the number of Vietnamese people entering and exiting increased steadily over the time from 2012 to 2014, but slightly declined in 2015. For the period from 2012 to 2015, there were 873,000 people entering compared to 859,000 By sex, for the 2012-2015 period, there were 461,000 female people exiting and 444,000 people entering, compared to the male figures which were lower (411,000 and 425,000 respectively). As a result, although the share of female among migrants was lower than that of males but it tended to increase over the years.

Figure 3-2 Vietnamese persons residing abroad over time



Source: Vietnam Migration Profile, 2015

Table 3-4 Number of Vietnamese citizens entering and exiting over the years

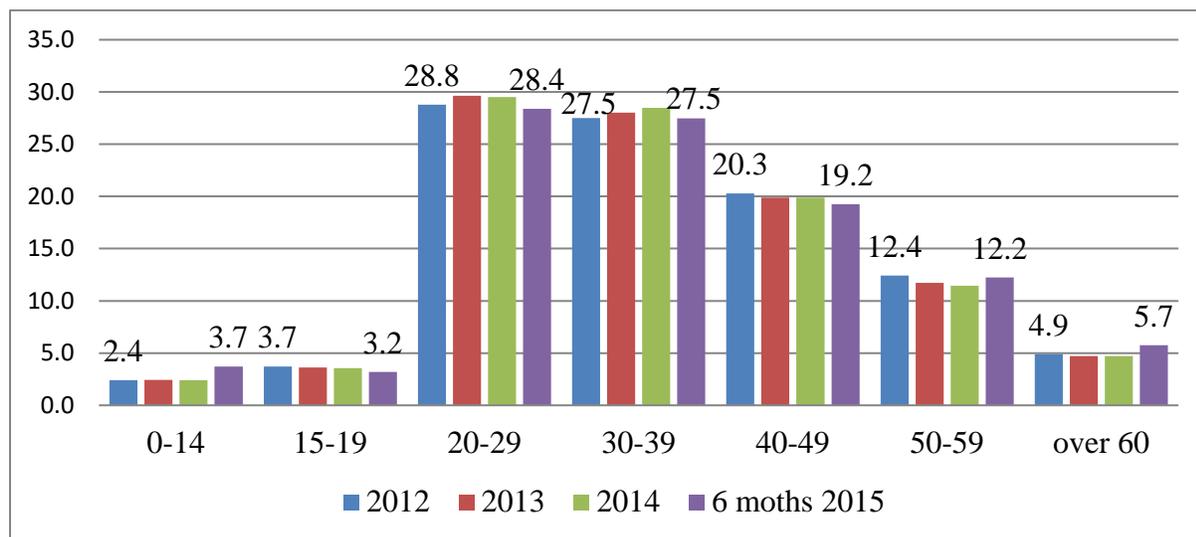
Unit: person

	Total number				Net Increase			
	2012	2013	2014	2015	2013/2012	2014/2013	2015/2014	2012 to 2015
Exit								
Male	2,718,523	3,159,123	3,336,895	3,129,549	440,600	177,772	-207,346	411,026
Female	2,628,316	2,977,092	3,236,792	3,090,034	348,776	259,700	-146,758	461,718
Total	5,346,839	6,136,215	6,573,687	6,219,583	789,376	437,472	-354,104	872,744
Entry								
Male	2,592,887	3,010,391	3,114,133	3,018,031	417,504	103,742	-96,102	425,144
Female	2,495,390	2,846,461	3,006,551	2,939,434	351,071	160,090	-67,117	444,044
Total	5,088,277	5,856,852	6,120,684	5,957,465	768,575	263,832	-163,219	869,188

Source: Department of Immigration Management, Ministry of Polices 2015, 2016.

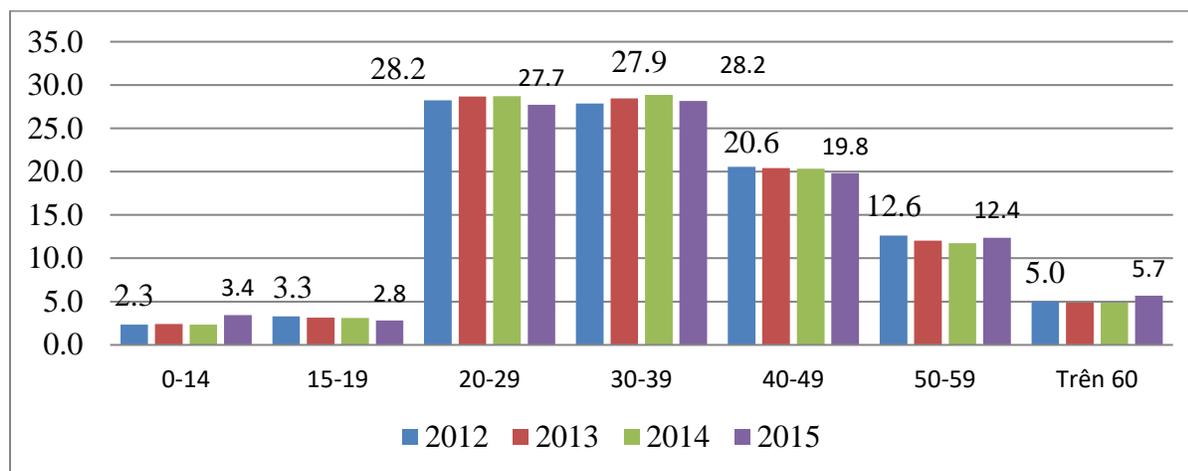
The distribution of both exiting and entering people by age groups was similar: the group aged 20-39 took the highest share, but was decreasing over the years, while the share of under 14 and over 50 people was increasing (figure 3-3 and 3-4).

Figure 3-3 The distribution of existing people by age, 2012-2015, percentage



Source: Department of Immigration Management, Ministry of Polices 2015, 2016.

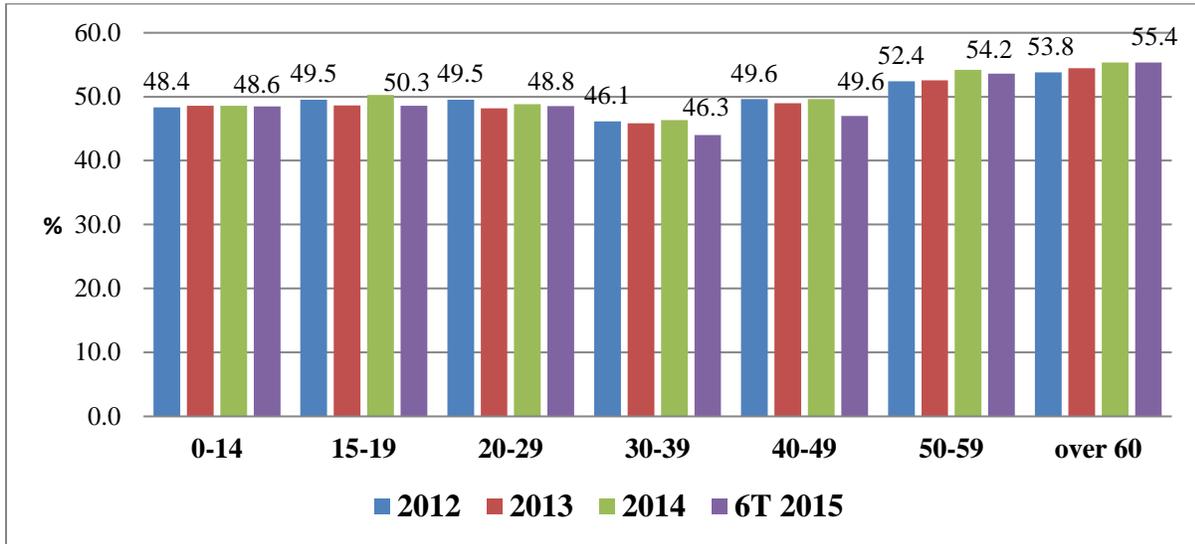
Figure 3-4 The distribution of entering people by age, 2012-2015



Source: Department of Immigration Management, Ministry of Polices 2015, 2016.

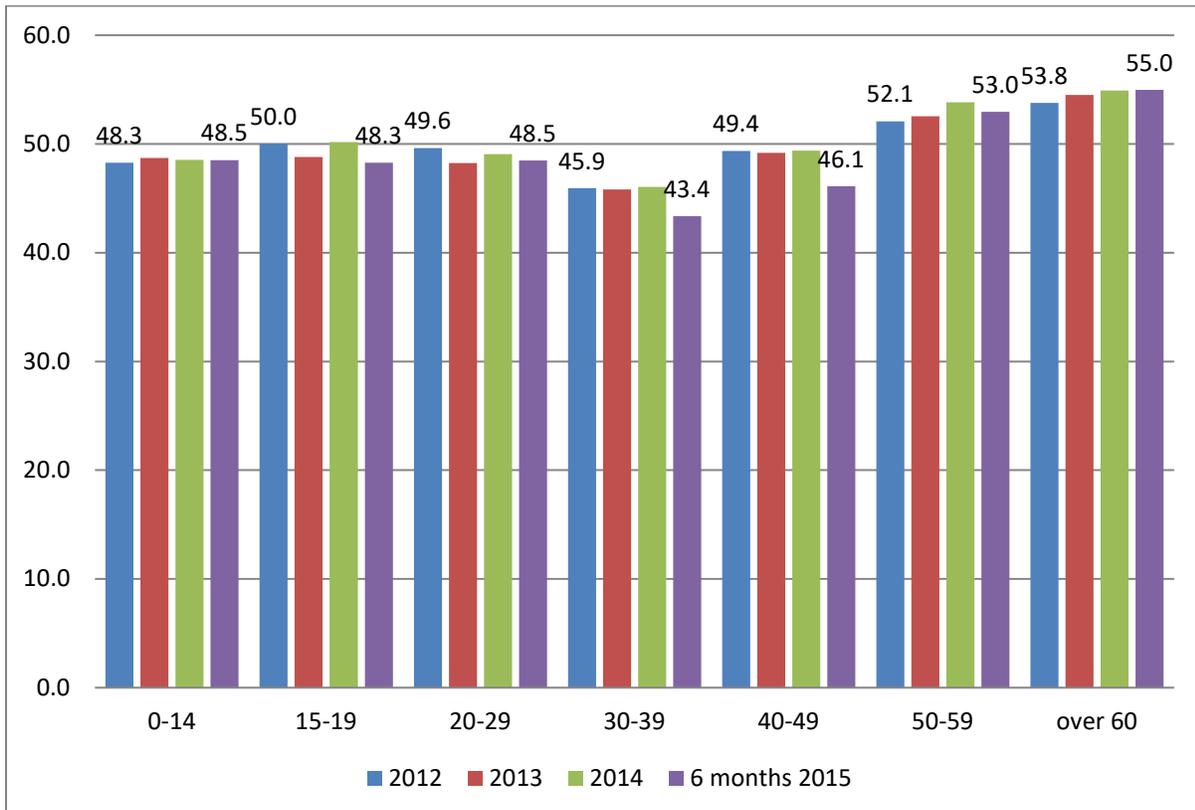
By sex composition of age group, the share of females among both emigrants and immigrants has been increasing as the age increases, especially after 50 years of age (figure 3-5 and 3-6). It should be noted that, the above figures are only for those who enter or exit by official passports (through land, air, sea). They not include number of people who use day pass to cross the borders between Vietnam, China, Laos and Cambodia.

Figure 3-5 Share of female of exiting people by age group, %



Source: Department of Immigration Management, Ministry of Polices 2015, 2016.

Figure 3-6 Share of females of entering people by age group, %



Source: Department of Immigration Management, Ministry of Polices 2015, 2016.

3.3. Vietnamese migrants by other means

According to the Department of Borders, the High Command of the Border Guard, and the Ministry of Defence, the number of Vietnamese using day passes crossing the land borders increased rapidly for the years 2012-2015. Of these, the number of exiting people increased from 1.64 million people (2012) to 2.5 million people (2014). The annual rate increase per annum was 23.59%, when broken down shows from 2012 to 2013 (17.6%); from 2013 to 2014 is 29.8%, and especially from 2014 to 2015 and increase of 144.4%.

The net increase of entering is lower than that of exiting, but also increased rapidly. The total number of entering people increased from 15.5 million to 2.2 million people over the period 2012-2015, with an increase rate of 18.5% (between 2012 and 2013) and 20.1% (between 2013 and 2014).

Table 3-5 Vietnamese migrants using day passes for crossing borders

	Exiting (people)	Increase, %	Entering	Increase, %
2012	1,639,219		1,549,427	
2013	1,928,527	17.6	1,835,673	18.5
2014	2,503,812	29.8	2,204,628	20.1

Source: Department of Borders, the High Command of the Border Guard, and the Ministry of Defense, Taken together, the number of Vietnamese exiting and entering borders (both by passport and day pass) increased rapidly over the years 2012 to 2014 (from 13.6 million to 17.4 million). As a result, the share of migrants (both exiting and entering) in the population increased from 15.35% to 19.18% for the same period (Table 3-6).

Table 3-6 Vietnamese migrants with both passports and day passes crossing borders

	2012	2013	2014
a) Using passport			
Exiting	5,346,839	6,136,215	6,573,687
Entering	5,088,277	5,856,852	6,120,684
b) Using day pass			
Exiting	1,639,219	1,928,527	2,503,812
Entering	1,549,427	1,835,673	2,204,628

c) All migrants (a+b)			
Exiting	6,986,058	8,064,742	9,077,499
Entering	6,637,704	7,692,525	8,325,312
<i>Total emigrant and migrant</i>	<i>13,623,762</i>	<i>15,757,267</i>	<i>17,402,811</i>
Population	88,775,523	89,715,637	90,728,941
Share of total migrants/population, %	15.35	17.56	19.18

Source: Author' calculation.

IV. Vietnamese Labor Migration

4.1. Vietnamese labor migrants abroad under the oversea contracts

According to statistical data from the Department of Overseas Labor Management and the Ministry of Labor, Invalids and Social Affairs, the total number of Vietnamese employed persons working abroad rose steadily from 80,320 workers in 2012 to 119,530 workers in 2015 (Table 3-7). Note that some countries/territories mentioned in Table 3-7 show the number of countries/territories where workers went in the above-mentioned years, not the total of countries/territories where Vietnamese workers are currently residing.

In 2014, for the first time, the total number of workers moving overseas exceeded 100,000 people and increased to 120,000 people in 2015 (Table 3-7).

Table 3-7 Total number of Vietnamese employees working in foreign countries/external territories

Year	Total (People)	Number of destination countries/territories
2012	80,320	33
2013	88,155	38
2014	106,840	29
2015	119,530	22

Source: Department of Overseas Labor Management, Ministry of Labor, Invalids and Social Affairs

Table 3-8 below shows the top 15 Vietnamese labor destination countries in the 2012-2015 period. Taiwan (China), Japan, Malaysia, the Republic of Korea, and Saudi Arabia were the countries receiving the most Vietnamese labor and the large numbers remained relatively stable over the last four years. In 2015, Algeria emerged as a country receiving more Vietnamese workers (1,963 people compared to 547 people in 2014). Some countries have significantly reduced Vietnamese labor such as Macau (reduced from 2,516 persons in 2014 to 493 people in 2015); the United Arab Emirates was down from 2,075 people in 2013 to 831 people in 2014 and to 286 people by 2015. Lao PDR, Cambodia, and Libya did not receive any Vietnamese workers in 2015. Note that Vietnam's labor figures in the countries/territories referred to in Table 3-8 show the number of migrants that started to work during the year. If we include those who had already been working in each country, the number of Vietnamese workers in the country is much larger.

Although Australia was not in the list of top 15 Vietnamese labor-receiving countries, according to data from the Australian Embassy, in 2013-2014 there were 483 skilled workers having work visas in Australia (that figure is higher than many other countries in Table 3-8).

Migrant workers from Vietnam to the countries of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) increased during the period 1995-2012, and in 2012 it reached 1.3 workers for every 10,000 people of a working age (the average figure for the 10 ASEAN countries was 1.9), ranking only after Malaysia, Thailand, and Brunei (International Labor Organization 2015).

The proportion of women of total labor migrants with overseas contracts was quite low, but tended to increase over the years between 2012-2015: from 33% (2012), to 36% (2013) and 37.5% (2014), but declined to 33.6% in 2015.

Figure 3-7 shows the rate of female workers in 15 countries, which received the most Vietnamese labor 2012-2015.

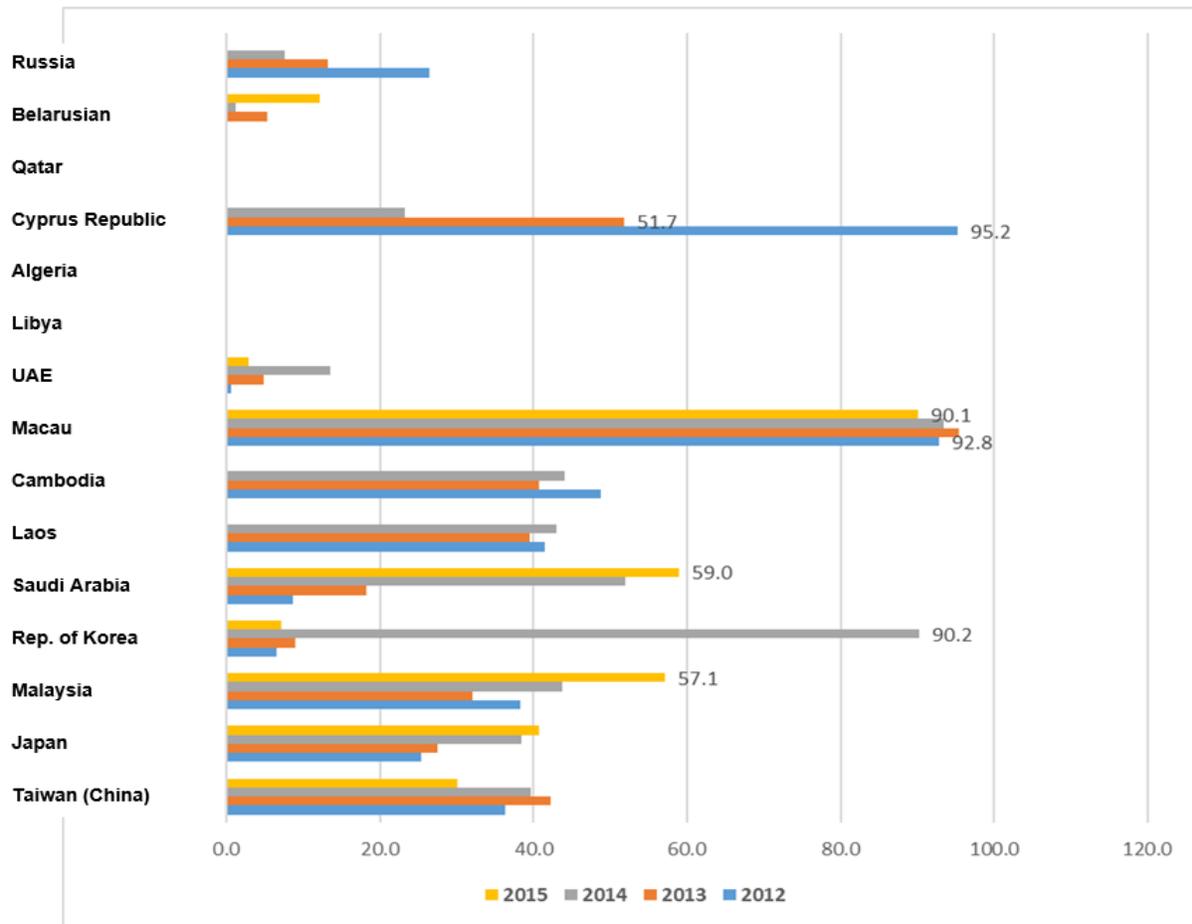
The percentage of Vietnam female workers working abroad was generally quite low, except for Macau (all four years from 2012 to 2015), Cyprus (2012, 2013), Saudi Arabia (2015), the Republic of Korea (2014) and Malaysia (2015). Countries such as the Russian Federation Republic, Belarus, the UAE, and the Republic of Korea (except 2014) have a female labor rate that is very low. Countries such as Qatar, Algeria, and Libya have no Vietnamese female workers.

Table 3-8 Top 15 countries/territories
receiving the most Vietnamese workers in the 2012-2015 period

No	Countries/territories	2012	2013	2014	2015	Total 2012-2015
1	Taiwan	30,533	46,368	62,124	67,621	206,646
2	Japan	8,775	9,686	19,766	29,810	68,037
3	Malaysia	9,298	7,564	5,139	7,454	29,455
4	Korea Republic	9,228	5,446	7,242	6,019	27,935
5	Saudi Arabia	2,360	1,703	4,191	4,125	12,379
6	Laos	6,195	4,860	200	0	11,255
7	Cambodia	5,215	4,250	50	0	9,515
8	Macao	2,304	2,294	2,516	493	7,607
9	UAE	1,731	2,075	831	286	4,923
10	Libya	645	1,201	1,005	0	2,851
11	Algeria	38	158	547	1,963	2,706
12	Cyprus Republic	1,699	143	56	43	1,941
13	Qatar	105	206	850	455	1,616
14	Belorussia	0	403	774	91	1,268
15	Russia	439	476	253	81	1,249
Total of 15 countries/territories		78,565	86,833	105,544	118,441	389,383
Rate to 15 countries/territories, %		97.8	98.5	98.8	99.1	98.6

Source: Department of Overseas Labor Management, Ministry of Labor, Invalids and Social Affairs

Figure 3-7 Percentage of female workers in 15 countries/regions that receive a lot of Vietnamese labor in the 2012-2015 period



Source: Department of Overseas Labor Management, Ministry of Labor, Invalids and Social Affairs

Table 3-9 shows the number of Vietnamese workers working abroad. It could be seen that wages and other income levels of Vietnamese working abroad are much higher than the average wage in Vietnam, especially in countries like the Republic of Korea, Japan, Germany, and Australia.

It shows that, the economic contributions of workers working overseas to their families and for the country are significant. In 2014, it was estimated that approximately 3,278,000,000 US Dollars were sent by workers to their families. This is a huge amount to contribute to families, and local and national governments.

In addition to official migrants, there are a number of Vietnamese crossing borders to work in borders-provinces of China, Laos, and Cambodia.

Table 3-9 Income of Vietnamese workers in foreign countries/territories, 2014

No	Countries/territories have Vietnamese workers	Number of Vietnamese workers	Average salary (USD per month)	Other average income (USD per month)
1	Taiwan (China)	138,926	650	200
2	Republic of Korea	54,392	1,000	250
3	Japan	26,164	1,400	200
4	Malaysia	20,108	300	111
5	Saudi Arabia	16,251	320	100
6	Laos	15,532	300	113
7	Macao	13,205	550	160
8	Cambodia	12,335	250	94
9	UAE	9,137	320	100
10	Cyprus Republic	2,809	491	200
11	Russia	1,452	800	200
12	Qatar	1,153	320	100
13	Libya	883	350	130
14	Belarusia	680	491	200
15	Singapore	399	700	
16	Italia	355	875	200
17	Portugal	145	620	100
18	USA (only boat members)	129	400	300
19	Denmark	129	2130	
20	Germany	102	1,137	
21	Australia	101	4,000	800
22	Slovakia	26	450	100
23	Malta	10	650	100
24	Poland	7	446	100

Source: Department of Overseas Labor Management, Ministry of Labor, Invalids and Social Affairs

4.2. Foreign labor trends in Vietnam in the 2001-2015 period

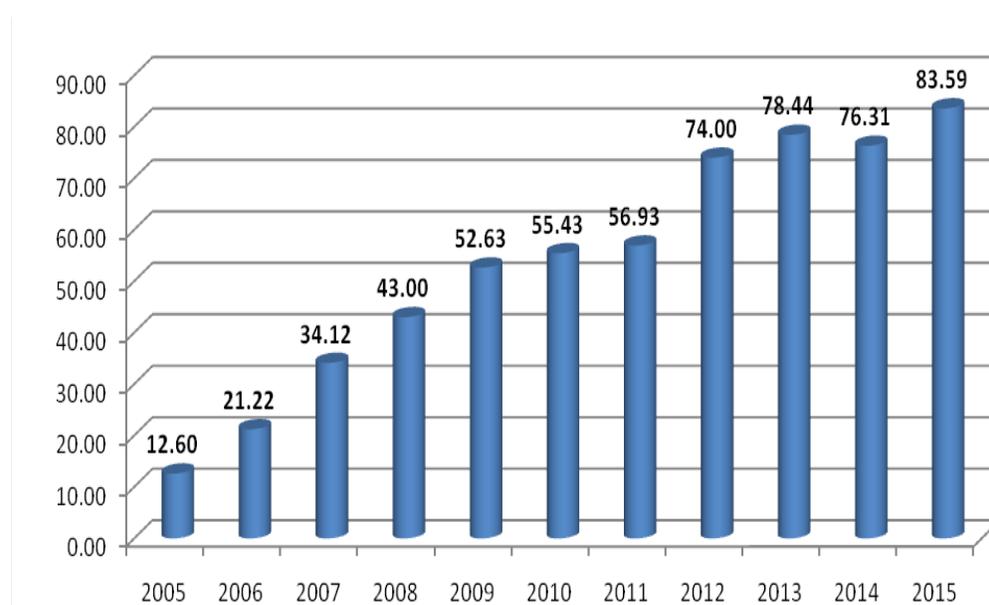
a) The trend of foreign workers in Vietnam

In recent years, the number of foreign workers employed in Vietnam has been increasing in terms of the number with diverse types and forms of employment. Vietnamese law does not encourage unqualified foreign workers to work in Vietnam.

According to MOLISA's official data, the number of foreign workers in Vietnam grows rapidly from 12,600 people in 2005 to 83,580 in 2015 (6.6 times); the absolute number increase by 7,099 people per year or 18.04% (figure 3-8).

Figure 3-8 The number of foreign workers in Vietnam

Unit: 1000 persons



Source: Department of Employment, Ministry of Labor, Invalids and Social Affairs, 2016

There are two fundamental factors that significantly influences on the influx of foreign workers into Vietnam, namely: (i) Economic growth and increased foreign direct investment in Vietnam; (ii) the birth of various new professions and sectors requiring experienced and technically-qualified workers to undertake tasks which the domestic workforce has not been able to fulfil.

b) Characteristics of foreign workers in Vietnam

- By qualification

Of total 83,588 foreign workers, more than 54% of the foreign employees hold a bachelor's and/or a higher degree; nearly 38.6% have obtained a diploma or certificate, and around 7.4% are artisans of work in traditional arts and crafts. While degrees and diplomas/certificates are verifiable, the "artisan" criterion is extremely hard to verify, and this is a gap in the legislation of Vietnam.

- By employment position

Almost 35.5% of the foreign workforce is managers working under foreign investment projects; just over 46% are technical experts, while the remaining 30.1% work in other positions, including unskilled jobs with limited income (Table 3-10).

Table 3-10 Structure of the foreign labor force in Vietnam

	2012	2013	2014	2015
Total number of foreign workers in Vietnam	74,000	78,440	76,309	83,588
1. Qualification (%)				
1. Bachelor's and higher degree	48.3	48.3	49.3	53.9
2. Technical diploma/certificate	34.6	34.6	35.3	38.6
Other	17.1	17.1	15.3	7.4
2. Employment positions (%)				
3. Managers	31.8	31.8	32.5	35.5
4. Technical experts	41.2	41.2	42.1	46.0
5. Others (primary skilled, unskilled workers,...)	27.0	27.0	27.6	30.1

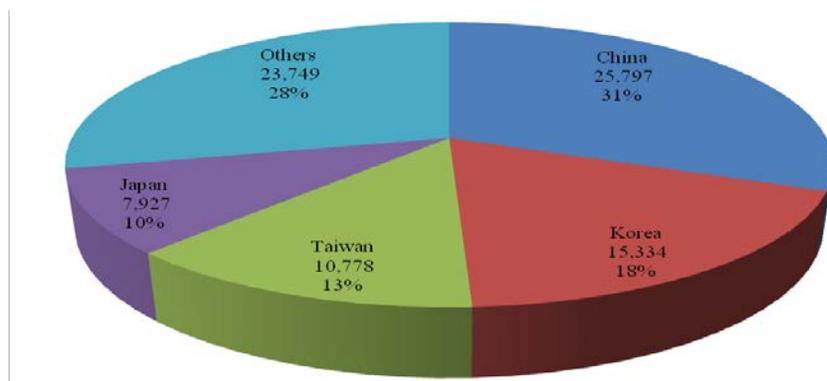
Source: Department of Employment, of Labor, Invalids and Social Affairs, 2016.

- By country of origin

The majority of current foreign workers in Vietnam are of Asian nationalities, mainly Chinese (accounting for 31% of total foreign workers in Vietnam), Korean (18%), Taiwanese (13%), and Japanese (10%). The rest (28%) come from 50 other nations in the world, such as the United States,

the United Kingdom, France, Germany, Russia, etc... Particularly, in recent years (2010 onwards), there has been a considerable inflow of unskilled workers from China following contractors winning projects in Vietnam (Figure 3-9).

Figure 3-9 Foreign workers by source country, 2015



Source: Department of Employment, Ministry of Labor, Invalids and Social Affairs, 2016

- By sex and age group

Table 3-11 shows that, the overwhelming majority of foreign workers in Vietnam are males, accounting for nearly 90% of the total foreign workforce, while the opposite sex makes up only 10%. Most of the foreign employees are aged 30 or older (86%), compared to 14% under the age of 30.

Table 3-11 Foreign workers by sex and age

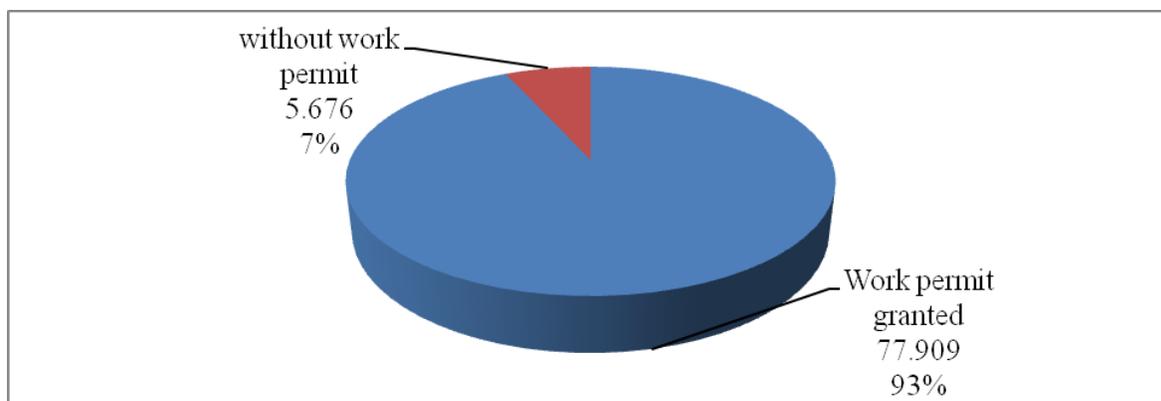
No	Category	Percentage
1	Male	89.9
2	Female	10.1
3	Under 30 years old	14.0
4	30 years old and older	86.0

Source: Department of Employment, Ministry of Labor, Invalids and Social Affairs, 2016

- By work, permit status

As of 2015, most of the foreign workers (93%) have been granted work permits, while the rest (nearly 7%) have not been granted a work permit or are not qualified for work permits (unskilled foreign workers, overstays).

Figure 3-10 Foreign workers by work permit status, 2015



Source: Department of Employment, Ministry of Labor, Invalids and Social Affairs, 2016

V. Marriage with Foreign Nationals

In 2015, in all 63 provinces/cities, there were Vietnamese citizens married with foreign nationals, including Vietnamese people residing abroad. Table 3-12 shows the number of Vietnamese people married with foreign nationals over the years (foreigners include Vietnamese people who settled abroad). It can be seen that, the number is not stable, but tends to reduce over the years.

The great majority of Vietnamese people who married foreign nationals (including marriage to Vietnamese residing abroad) are women. In the last five years, the number of Vietnamese women married to foreigners has tended to decrease while the number of Vietnamese men married to foreigners has tended to increase. In 2015, the country recorded 18,726 cases of marriage with foreign nationals, in which the proportion of female Vietnamese citizens married with foreign nationals was 85.4%.

Table 3-12 Number of Vietnamese people who married with foreign nationals over the years by sex

Year	Total	Male	Female	Percentage of female
2008	21,805	1,624	20,181	92.6
2009	19,795	1,527	18,268	92.3
2010	20,802	1,520	19,282	92.7
2011	18,420	1,730	16,690	90.6
2012	17,891	1,550	16,341	91.3
2013	18,636	2,318	16,318	87.6
2014	17,746	2,572	15,174	85.5
2015	18,726	2,733	15,993	85.4

* Figures for 2008-2012 do not include data from Nghe An.

Source: Department of Civil Status, Nationality and Authentication, Ministry of Justice, 2015 and 2016.

The majority of these cases are foreigners marrying Vietnamese women. The proportion of Vietnamese people to marry foreigners in all cases of marriages involving foreign nationals tend to rise in recent years: accounted for 63% in 2013; 62.4% in 2014 and increased to 71.4% in 2015.

Table 3-13 shows the number of foreign citizens married to Vietnamese people. The United States of America, the Republic of Korea, Taiwan (China), China, and Australia are the countries with many citizens married to Vietnamese people over the years. Data from 2013-2015 showed that Canada is also a country with many citizens who married Vietnamese people (the figure in 2013 was 737 people, 533 people in 2014, and 599 in 2015). A small number of Vietnamese people also married citizens of other neighbouring countries as Cambodia and Laos. Japan, did not merit a separate column in Table 3-13, however, according to the Vietnam Embassy in Japan, in 2015 there were an estimated 3,400 Vietnamese people who married Japanese people and settled in Japan.

In provinces in the Mekong River Delta and the Southeast, there are more cases of marrying Americans or Taiwanese (Chinese) than other regions in the country, while the geographic distribution of those who marry people from the Republic of Korea or China is somewhat more spread out from the North to the South?

Some cases involved trafficking women. Women and children being cheated and sold overseas is old practice, but many women and children are still being trapped. A common form of this is faking marriage or pretending to fall in love and then abusing the women's love to take them away.

Table 3-13 Number of Vietnamese people who married with foreign nationals over the years by the concerned countries/territories

Year	Total	China	Cambodia	Taiwan (China)	Korea Republic	Malaysia ^a	Europe	USA	Australia ^a	Canada	Others
2008	21,805	222	10	4055	7655	30	1887	4472	874		2600
2009	19,795	206	26	3252	6623	36	1763	4569	901		2419
2010	20,802	257	17	3139	8425	43	1793	4198	905		2025
2011	18,420	210	22	3019	6957	61	1345	3925	698		2183
2012	17,891	270	15	2579	6343	53	1246	4136	771		2478
2013	18,636	255		2950	6066			5105		737	3523
2014	17,746	339		3208	4374			4786		533	4506
2015	18,726	555		3840	4158			5119		599	4455

* Figures for 2008-2012 do not include data from Nghe An; 2013 figures for Can Tho

* Figures for 2013, 2014 and 2015 in the "Other Countries" including Cambodia, Malaysia, Europe, Australia, and other country/territory;

Source: Department of Civil Status, Nationality and Authentication, Ministry of Justice, 2015 and 2016.

VI. Push Factors for International Migration

6.1. Push factors for labor migration

Naturally, international labor migration is an economic issue. Therefore, economic causes play the most important role in promoting international labor migration.

Economic factors such as low incomes, poverty, lack of employment, and livelihood options are regarded as the main motive powers of migration decisions. The differences in living standards and employment opportunities with higher incomes as compared to those of the country of departure have prompted migrants to find new opportunities, though only temporary ones abroad. Migration for economic purposes is the dominant type of migration, especially in the context of

globalization and economic liberalization.

This opinion has also maintained intact. The surplus of labor supply in the country, number of underemployed, and unemployed persons in populous countries, especially in rural areas of the Red River Delta, the North Central and Central Coast, and the Mekong Delta regions are objective factors pushing people to seek their livelihood in the international labor market. The above-mentioned regions are also the ones occupying the most international migrants.

Countries of destination have meet the shortages of labor supply, especially of skilled labor, or labor in occupations that local people do not want to take in due to various reasons (such as low occupational prestige or low wages or hard, hazardous, monotonous, boring work etc ...). The shortages of labor supply in the countries of destination along with the higher living standards in Vietnam have created the more attractive power for the international labor market bringing out much higher wages and income as compared to those of workers in countries of departure (Vietnam), especially in the labor markets of OECD countries.

Institutional factors and policies in Vietnam and in countries receiving migration workers have been creating more favourable conditions for migrant workers under fixed-term contract abroad and also regarded as an important push element for the labor migration flow abroad. Owing to a more sufficient policy system in Vietnam, costs and risks for workers abroad are declining while economic benefits from working abroad are increasing. The State management apparatus has increasingly created more favourable conditions for enterprises and businessmen and laborers to legally work abroad.

The strong development of information technology, communication and transportation means, banking services, money transfers given locally, neighboring countries as well as countries receiving immigrants all over the world has increasingly lowered the expenses on travel, transactions, and fund transfers. This has also created more advantages for the international labor migration.

The network of migrants is another important factor contributing to international migration in general and overseas labor migration in particular. Many research results around the world have indicated that the developed network of migration in countries of departure will lower the cost of migration considerably, while in countries of destination; the presence of immigration

communities along with their own networks has created more advantages for newcomers on migrating and integrating into the destination country.

6.2. Push factors for marriages involving foreign nationals

Studies on marriage involving foreign nationals in the last 15 years have often mentioned two kinds of marriages with foreign nationals.

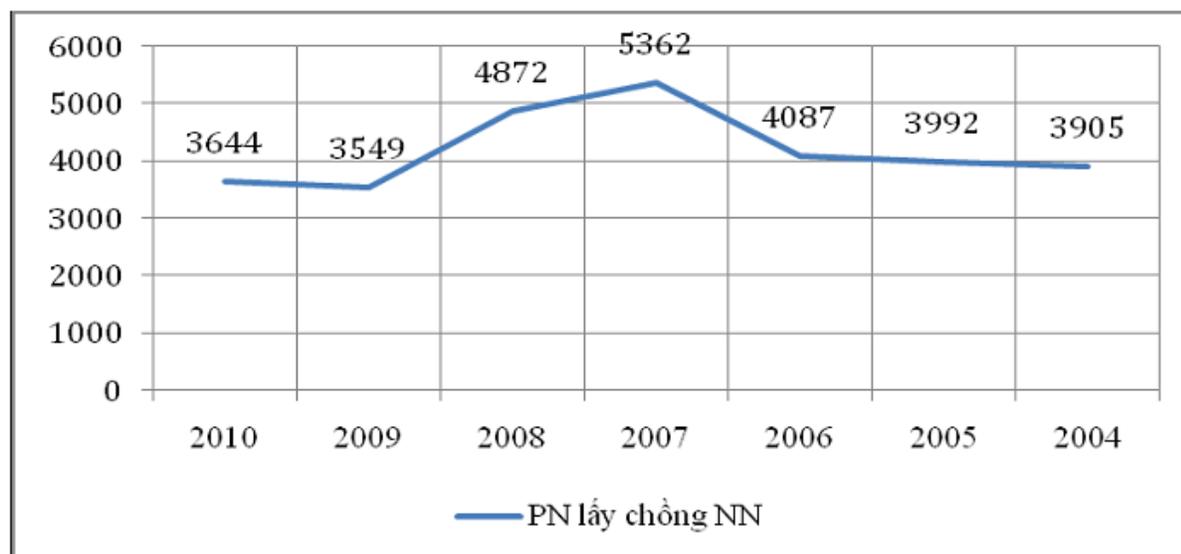
The first one refers to those marriages set up with foreigners (including Vietnamese foreigners) for economic purposes. Their partners consider marriage as a means of economic achievement. The economic purpose might be derived from him/herself or their families that forced him/her to marry with a foreigner. Many marriages of those women come from the Mekong Delta provinces or Quang Ninh, Hai Phong with Chinese, Taiwanese, and South Korean men could be classified into this category. This kind of marriage can take place so quickly through an intermediately; the bride does not even know the foreign language and the groom does not know Vietnamese, and they do not have much time to know each other.

The second one resulted from intensively increasing international integration. Young people from different countries meet, work, and live together, resulting in marriage. This type of marriage is based on love, even if economic factors could also be considered important. Characteristics of this type are that the couples could be able to communicate well with each other before marriage, and the Vietnamese husband/wife could often speak/understand the language of the country where their wife /husband comes from or the foreign wife /husband are good at Vietnamese.

Some social impacts: The case study

In 2011, the Institute of Labor Science and Social Affairs (ILSSA) conducted a survey in five provinces on women who married with foreigners (sample is 3%): Ca Mau, Hau Giang, Tien Giang, Long An, Quang Nam and Lao Cai.

Figure 3-11 Number of women who married with foreigners in five provinces



Source: Institute of Labor Science and Social Affairs (ILSSA) Survey, 2011

- Disparity of age between groom and bride is up to ten years.

- Nearly 30% of grooms are 10 – 14 years old older than the bride;
- 27.2 % of grooms are 15-19 years old older than the bride.
- In a few cases (1.5%), the disparity of age is 30 years.

- Reasons for marriage

- Economic purpose: Marriage for economic reasons remains the choice of many women and their parents, due to difficult economic conditions, especially in rural areas.
- A group of young people want to easily change from “toiling and moiling in the fields” to a better life by choosing to get married to foreigners as an “outlet”.
- Low level of education, wrong awareness of marriage and family, easy to be attracted to social trends. The percentage of such marriages contracted through brokerage services is very high.
- Lack of knowledge and social experience, a number of young girls are attracted by the trend to get married to foreigners with the illusion of a “new horizon”.
- There are also a number of marriages deriving from love: women in these marriages have certain advantages such as higher education, better income, wealthier families, etc.

- Education levels of Vietnamese brides, %

Table 3-14 Education of Vietnamese brides, %

Education Level	Dong Thap	Tien Giang	Bac Lieu	Hai Phong	Total
Primary not completed	14.8	5.6	38.7	5.7	15.5
Primary completed	59.0	42.6	38.7	27.3	40.4
Lower secondary completed	14.8	40.7	17.7	30.7	26.0
Upper secondary completed	11.5	11.1	4.8	36.4	18.1
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Source: Institute of Labor Science and Social Affairs (ILSSA) Survey, 2011

-The groom's education qualifications

- The groom's qualifications are much higher than that of the bride at the time of marriage.
- 6% of grooms graduated from colleges, universities or higher education, no bride makes the match.
- Number of unskilled grooms (untrained) is only 24.2%, while the relative proportion of brides is 86.4%.

- 83.6% of Vietnamese brides are happy with their marriages, for the following reasons:

- Already lived well with husband /husband's family; many of them gain emotional affection, caring from her husband's family
- Already integrated into social community in the host country; equally treated and respected;
- The children are treated equally as the others, are recognized as citizens of the country;
- Husband's families support their Vietnamese wives to keep contact with their Vietnamese relatives regularly. A big number of Vietnamese women getting married to foreigners have come back to visit their hometown one or more times.
- 83.5% can materially support their relatives in the hometown such as sending money to Vietnam to help parents and siblings and to help their families in Vietnam out of poverty, even building a house, buying furniture, investing for development, etc.

- Case of marital failures

- There are 29 break-up cases out of 262 marriages between Vietnamese women to foreigners (11.1%) and the women had to return to their hometowns.
- Causes of marital failure:

- ✓ Due to improper purpose of marriage, (marry for leisure life, rich, get money to support parents, brothers in Vietnam, etc.)
- ✓ The women failed to get used to the culture and lifestyle of the husband's family and social community in the host country (staying at home to do the housework, serve her husband's family, under management of mother-in-law, etc.);
- ✓ Wives have been economic dependent; have not been allowed to work or send money to family in Vietnam, etc.
- ✓ They are discriminated against in the family and the community; they are abandoned, beaten, abused; exceptionally, there are some cases of being closely confined, being treated as sexual slaves, etc.
- ✓ Some women are tricked into getting married to a husband who is disabled, having health and mental problems, etc.
- ✓ There is a lack of experience or relatives who live nearby to confide, teach, consult, etc.

VII. Impact of Migration

7.1. Impact on migrants

Many of the research in the world and Vietnam shows that both migration in general and international migration in particular, are mostly derived from economic motives. Migrants desire to find better jobs and better incomes as compared to those in their hometowns. For most migrants, these expectations have been met. Getting employment and a higher income are the most common effects. These migration workers have earned a much higher level of income as compared to the average wage in their country.

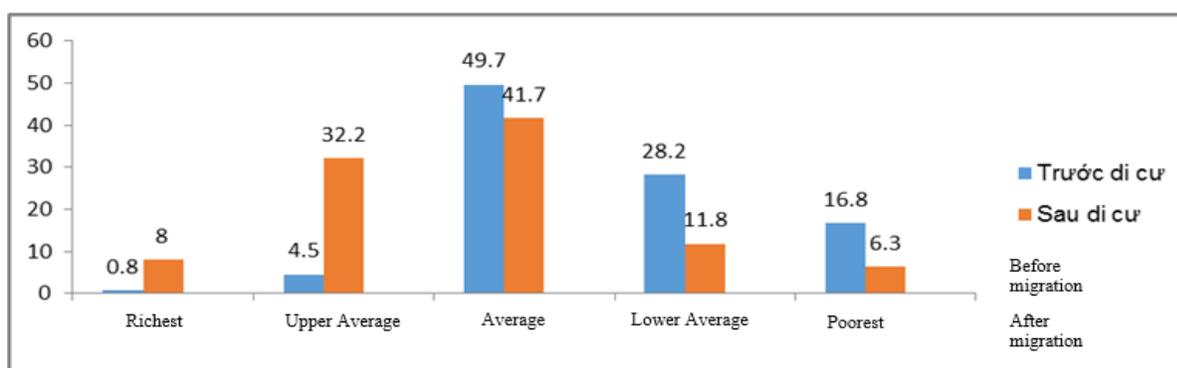
Along with the employment opportunities and high level of income, international migration workers have also learned many other things in the host country, such as a foreign language, professional skills, skills of living and working in the highly industrialized societies, as well as the culture of host countries, to enrich their individual awareness of the world.

7.2. Impact on family

International migration has a positive impact on the economy of the family. Figure 3-12 shows that, for household level, remittances have contributed to make the living standards of households

at a level of upper average and higher increase by 10 times and the level of upper average living standards increase by seven times compare with before migration. At the same time, number of poor households has fallen almost three times.

Figure 3-12 Proportion of household's living standards before and after migration, 2010



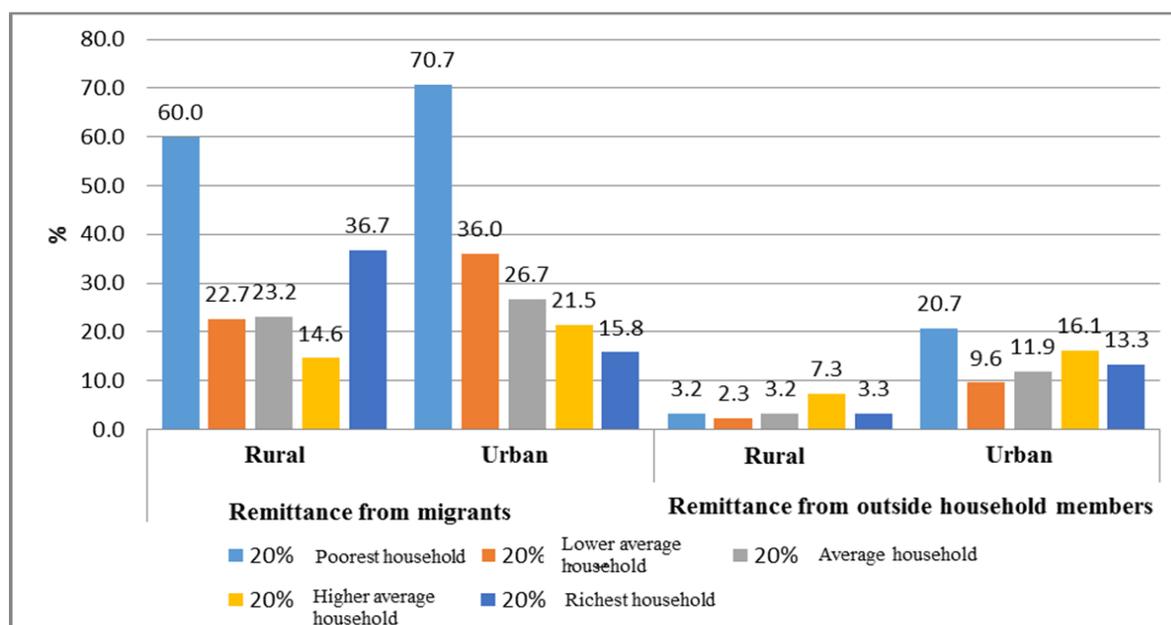
Source: Institute of Sociology, 2010.

A study measuring the social and economic impacts of international migration in six Vietnam provinces in 2010³ also showed that the families of international migrants have received a great deal of help from the remittances of migrants. Notably, a high proportion of poor in both urban and rural areas in the study have received remittances from international migrants⁴ (Figure 3-13). International migration, as such, has positive impacts on poverty reduction in the country. A significant proportion of households without migrants still receive support from international migrants that are not members of their families (perhaps their relatives). Thus, international migration not only has a direct impact on the economic situation of households with migrants, but also has a direct economic impact on a number of other households in the country. In other words, the economic impact of international migration is not only limited to the migrant households.

³ Sample of 1508 households in six provinces: Hanoi, Hung Yen, Nghe An, Da Nang, Ho. Ho Chi Minh City, and Can Tho. The research sample was divided among three types of households including households with migrants abroad, households with international migrants but have returned back to live in household, and households without international migrants.

⁴ Results of the Vietnam Household Living Standard Survey in 2006, Abella and Ducanes (2006) show that national wide, only 7.6% of households in the poorest quintile received remittances versus 48.5% of the richest quintile. Note that this is the analysis of remittances from abroad, not only from the international labor migration.

Figure 3-13 Percentage of households receiving remittances from international migrants



Source: Dang Nguyen Anh, et al. (2010). Development on the Move: Measuring and Optimizing Migration's Economic and Social Impacts in Vietnam, Global Development Network (GDN) and the Institute for Public Policy Research (ippr).

Remittances from international migrants are used for many different purposes, but its impact is often referred to as advancing capabilities of families for their children's education, reducing schoolchildren's dropout rates, improving the capacity for accessing to health services, health care for family members, and improving the living standards of the family in general.

International migration also has a positive impact on changing gender stereotypes. International migration creates educational opportunities for women and most returning migrants have discovered the importance of gender equality. In areas where a large number of Vietnamese women married a foreigner successfully and bring more benefits to the family and the community, the people and the families tend to change from son preference to daughter interests and contribute to the promotion of gender equality at local level.

However, not every family of migrants has benefited from international migrants. There are a proportion of households with international migrants that does not (or has not) receive remittances. The investment for international migrants through fees and deposits also consumes migrant

family's economic resources and not every family can be repaid. For the case of unofficial migrants through travelling whom then stay abroad and work illegally, the risk of economic damage for the family is very high. In addition, as mentioned above, international migration also led many couples to live apart for a long time, father/mother far away from children, no chance to care for children, or elderly parents at home. The price to pay in terms of family love and spirit is great. Many families even turn to divorce.

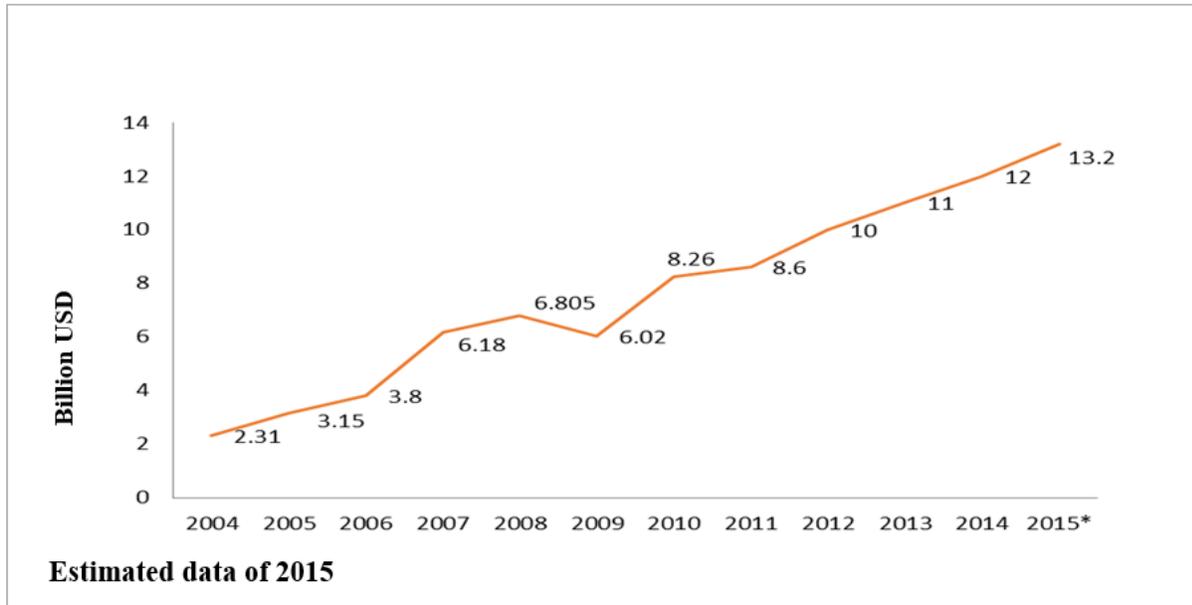
7.3. Impact on community in original areas

International studies show that international migration contributes to the economy in the original country significantly. Worldwide, the amount of remittances was more than 50 billion USD in 1990 and the number surpassed 400 billion USD in 2010. It is estimated that, in 2016, migrants sent approximately 417 billion USD back to Vietnam. The UN report also showed that South Asia and East Asia are benefiting the most from the remittances of migrants.

In Vietnam, during the Innovation Period, remittances from Vietnamese always played an important role for the recipient families as well as for the country's development in general. Figure 3-14 shows remittances from overseas Vietnamese over time. It can be seen that the amount of remittances is very large and has been constantly increasing over time. The amount of remittances dropped only slightly in 2008 due to the impact of the world economic crisis, but this decrease occurred for only a short time, then rose back strongly again. In 2014, the amount of remittances was 12 billion US dollars, accounting for 6.4% of GDP, and in 2015, it was an estimated 13.2 billion US dollars, accounting for about 7% of GDP⁵. In ASEAN countries, the proportion of remittances when accounting for the GDP of Vietnam is higher than most of the others except the Philippines – the country where the rate reached 10% of GDP (International Labor Organization 2015). For many years, remittances have far exceeded ODA.

⁵ According to the notice of the General Statistics Office, Vietnam's GDP in 2015 was 4192.9 trillion, equivalent to about US \$ 186.5 billion (<https://www.gso.gov.vn/default.aspx?tabid=621&ItemID=15507>).

Figure 3-14 Remittances from overseas Vietnamese living aboard



Source: <http://www.worldbank.org/migration>.

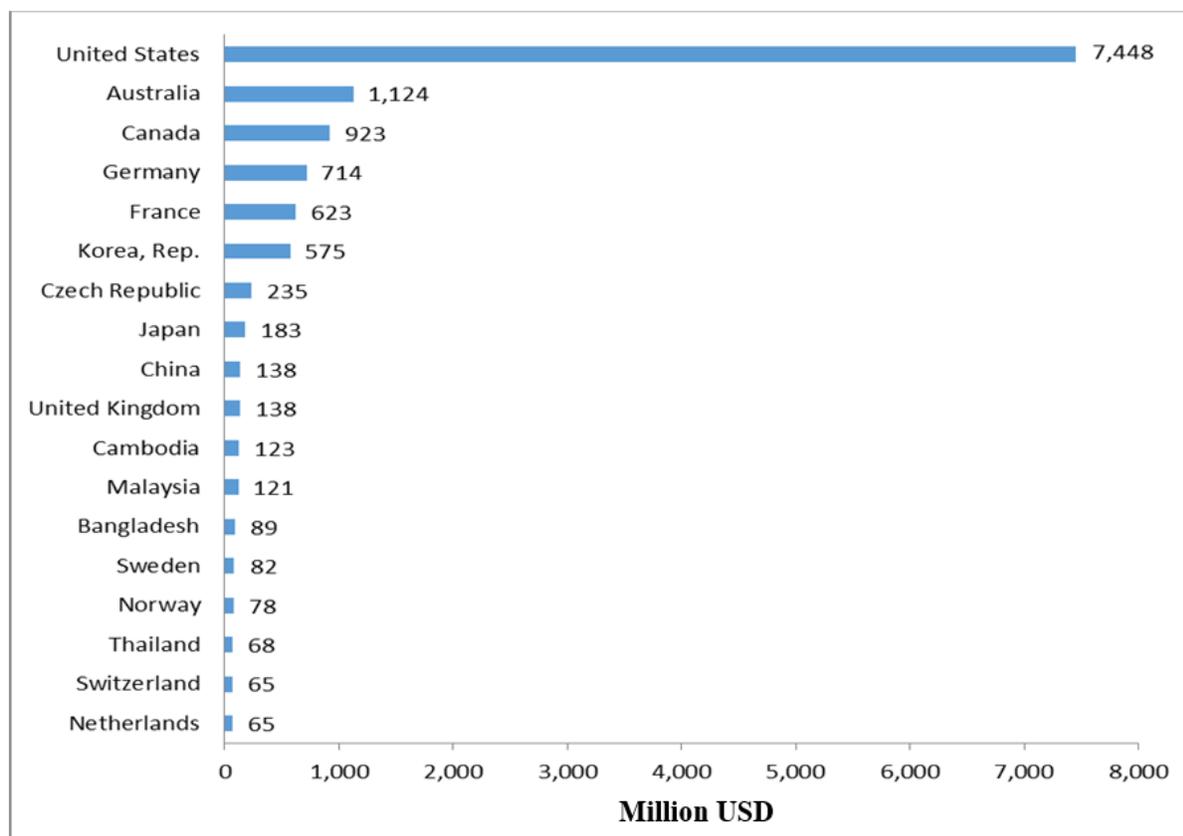
Figure 3-15 shows that the flow of remittances from Vietnam migrants from countries around the world by 2015. The data shows that there was a huge amount of remittances from countries with large numbers of Vietnamese migrants. The 12 countries with the largest number of immigrants and also remittances (over 100 million US dollars) included the US, Australia, Canada, Germany, France, Korea, the Czech Republic, Japan, China, Britain, Cambodia, and Malaysia. Particularly in the United States, in 2015, there were about 1.4 million Vietnamese people and the remittance was more than US\$ 7 billion (World Bank Group, 2016).

Figure 3-16 presents the comparison of remittances from several countries. The data shows that Vietnam is a country that has received more remittances than other Southeast Asia countries. The amount of remittances sent to Vietnam in 2015 accounted for 7% of GDP.

A comparison of remittances to ODA and FDI indicates seven good financial impacts for the country: (1) is a stable source of foreign currency, not refundable, and creates a capital source for economic development; (2) not necessary to invest or no significant investment; (3) avoids many negative impacts that often accompany FDI (environmental pollution, not creating competitive products with domestic products ...), or ODA (no debt, payment of interest); (4) contributes to

poverty reduction, improves livelihoods, enhances production capacity and competitiveness of Vietnam; (5) supports the national balance of payments; (6) contributes to an increase of national savings; and (7) contributes to financial markets positively. The amount of remittances has positive impacts on economic growth, both at the national and provincial level.

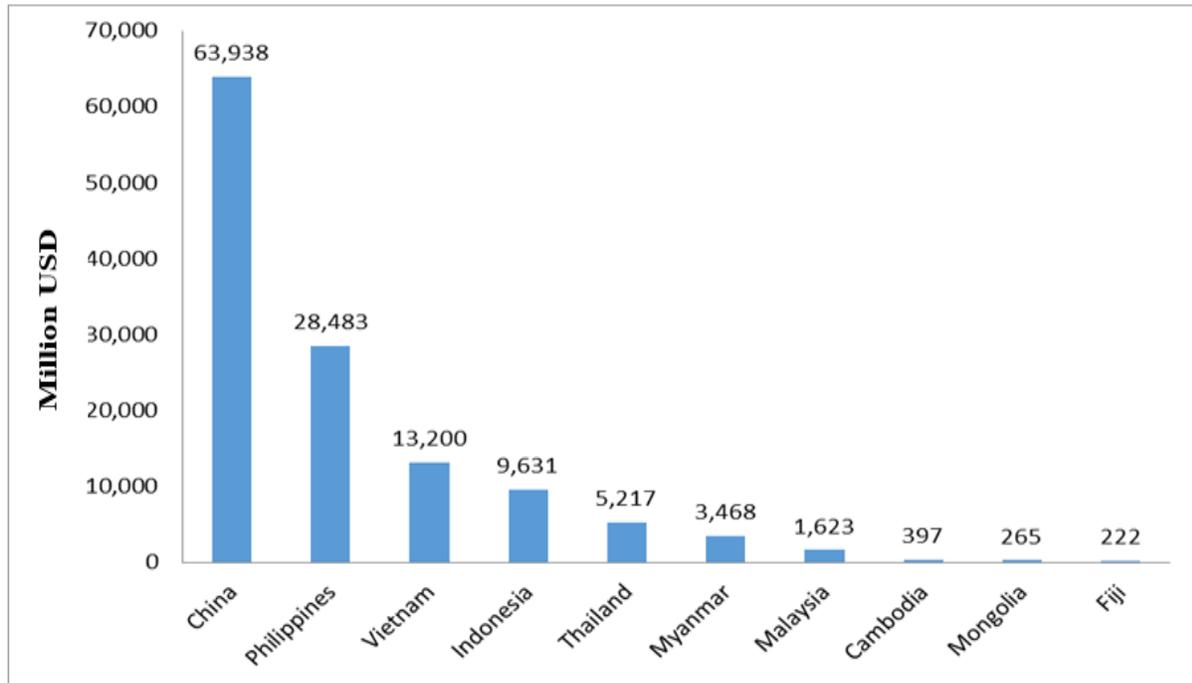
Figure 3-15 The stream of remittances to Vietnam from Vietnamese people



Source: <http://www.worldbank.org/migration>.

Of course, remittances are not only from international migration workers but this accounts for a significant proportion in total remittances. As mention above, based on data about wages and income levels of migrant workers in formal sectors according to official statistics from the Ministry of Labor, Invalids and Social Affairs, the estimation of the amount of remittances from migrant workers, in 2014, is more than 3 billion US dollars. This is a huge remittance and has great significance for the socio-economic development of the country.

Figure 3-16 Remittances by some countries (estimated in 2015)



Source: <http://www.worldbank.org/migration>

Besides the economic benefits, international labor migration under contract with a term also brings many other benefits through technical transfer's related to international migration, creates jobs, and eradicates poverty. At the same time, international migration also has many positive effects on cultural exchanges, science and technology, learning, and improving the skills and qualifications of the people.

Vietnamese who emigrated abroad, whether in the form to work or school or for marriage reasons, have contributed to promote the image and culture of Vietnam to international friends positively, collect the essence of the culture of the world, become a bridge to the Vietnamese community in the world, and are an important force in the international integration process of Vietnam.

Besides that, developing countries have more international migrant workers and have to face the difficulties of managing their foreign employees, maintaining family cohesion and community solidarity, reducing inequalities between population groups, preventing human or women and children trafficking and the spread of disease, as well as social problems related to international

migration wave, which is growing and difficult to control. In areas of Vietnam where a high proportion women marry foreigners (as some areas in the Mekong Delta, Quang Ninh, Hai Phong), young men are finding it difficult to get married because of the lack of women at a marrying age.

International migration is a reason for the "brain drain" problem through the migration of highly qualified professionals. In fact, many experts from developing countries immigrate to developed countries to work. The US, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand are examples of countries with policies attracting immigrants who have highly-specialized skills and limit immigrants who have no professional qualifications (OECD, 2011). Immigration policies of European countries are more flexible. European countries import more unskilled labor and they are considered an "indispensable" part because they are accepted to do work which the natives do not want to do. They have contributed more than they are entitled to from social security systems because they have fewer demands for social security benefits (OECD, 2011).

Currently, with the rapid development of information technology and the strong development of modern transportation, economic development, and increasing globalization, "brain drain" issue have brought many changes to the outlook of the country. Foreign investment from developed countries to developing countries increased rapidly, accompanied by the demand, which brought many experts from developed countries to work in developing countries. At the same time, many experts from developing countries, as successful immigrants into developed countries, also invest back or build socio-economic networks in their original country, creating the "transnational community". These days, governments in both developed countries and developing countries have found benefits from international migration, linking and connecting the labor markets of both unskilled and qualified labors.

Many studies on the international migration of Vietnamese indicated that international migration is still growing and the reasons for this migration are increasingly diverse, especially with the increased migration of women and children. International migration has a positive impact on the income and expenditures of families with migrants than families without migrants. Migrants, generally, have multiple channels to send money back to their families. Households with migrants have a higher level of savings than households without migrants. Migration also has a positive impact on the investment of the family for the education of children. However, there are unwanted

effects of international migration such as destabilizing families and migration tends to increase the rate of divorce or separation.

VIII. Conclusion and Recommendations

8.1. Conclusion

Vietnamese citizens go abroad in many forms and for many different purposes. Going abroad for economic purposes is the most common form of exit. For many years, Vietnam had policies to encourage labor migration under overseas term contracts. The number of labor migrants under this form increased steadily over the years. In 2014, for the first time, the number of migrant workers under contract with a term abroad passed the threshold of 100,000 people; in 2015, the number of migrant workers under labor contracts abroad went up to 119,530 people. In the coming years, the trend will continue to increase and the number of labor migrants with contracts for a term abroad, when Vietnam integrates more deeply with the world, will be difficult to reverse. The proportion of women as labor migrants under a contract with a term abroad is quite low, just over one-third (1/3) of the total number of workers on contract abroad, and is much lower than that for males. The majority of labor migrants by contract with a term abroad belong to the provinces from Nghe An to the North of Vietnam. There are fewer export workers from the Southern provinces. Taiwan (China), Japan, Korea, Malaysia, and Saudi Arabia are countries those are receiving the most Vietnamese workers. This number of workers has been relatively stable over the last four years. In general, labor migrants under contract with a term abroad have a much higher level of salary than the average level of salary in Vietnam.

Besides labor migration under contract with a term abroad, many workers from the provinces of Vietnam emigrated to neighbouring countries such as China, Laos, and Cambodia to earn their living. Forms of immigration to these neighbouring countries are also very diverse in composition, purpose, and method of travel. A small portion of migrants cross the road-border legally and go through the customs gate. The majority of them went unofficially through trails in the woods along the border. These unofficial migrants have to face threats/risk, are unsafe, lack legal protection, are vulnerable to exploitation and abuse, and are more likely to become victims of human trafficking.

In fact, only a small number of unofficial migrants became victims of the above-mentioned risks. The huge demand for unskilled workers in the provinces along the border to neighbouring countries with a salary higher than the income that workers can get at home is the main attraction for this large workforce. Underemployment and low incomes at home create demand to cross the border into neighbouring countries to search for work. However, the existing policy of Vietnam and bordering countries does not facilitate labor migrants. The existing policy also interferes with many employees. Therefore, many workers have chosen to go the unofficial way though they may face more risks. These workers often only engage in cross-border labor for a short time and then they come back home. They are still inextricably linked with their homeland. Due to the pendulous nature of this kind of migration, social networks have been formed in both Vietnam and the neighbouring countries to support their unofficial migration. This makes unofficial migration more complicated over the coming years.

Migration due to marriage with foreigners or overseas Vietnamese is also a quite popular form of migration. Every year, there are tens of thousands of cases of marriage with foreigners, including marrying Vietnamese living abroad. The majority of cases marrying to foreigners are women. In the last five years the number of women married to foreigners has tended to decrease while the number of men married to foreigners has tended to increase. Korea, the United States of America, Taiwan (China), and Australia are the countries with many citizens who married to Vietnamese people over the years. The Mekong River Delta's provinces have many cases of Vietnamese people married to Taiwanese (China), while some of the Northern provinces tend to marry Koreans more.

8.2. Recommendations

There is a need to improve the legal framework for international migration.

On the basis that international migration that has more positive impacts than negative ones on individuals, families, and society, policies should meet the legitimate migration demands of the people and reduce the risks associated with migration.

Completing the regulations of the State's management of migration, working to meet the legitimate migration aspirations of the people, protecting the legitimate rights and interests of migrants is the most important policy implication. This is especially important in the context of

Vietnam's increasingly deeper integration into the world in the coming years, especially when the agreement on the Trans-Pacific Partnership (TPP) was approved and implemented as well as in the context of the new generation of trade agreements that Vietnam has signed with many partners around the world.

Vietnamese government should develop laws on international migration taking into account the international conventions on the rights of migrants and their family members (1990).

The government should set up a migration administration body within the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MOFA), to act as the focal point to update the Migration Profile to meet the migration needs for both policy design and implementation. MOFA should coordinate with relevant ministries to assess the current legal environment and policies on international migration in order to simplify the administrative process, to reduce migration's relative costs; to better monitor the migration flows.

- MOFA should coordinate with relevant ministries to assess the current legal environment and policies on international migration in order to simplify the administrative process, to reduce migration's relative costs; to better monitor the migration flows.
- MOLISA: Should continue to assesses current labor migration policies, better monitoring foreign labor migration
- The Ministry of Police and the Ministry of Defense should take the role of monitoring unofficial migration across borders especially in the borderlands. The Ministry of Policy should review all immigration policies in order to facilitate the migration needs of the population, helping to reduce informal migration.
- Enhancing coordination with other ministries

To coordinate with the above ministries, communities, and others to implement policies on migration and feedback; information propaganda on migration to increase awareness on the benefits as well as risks of illegal migration.

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At the Bottom of the Labor Market:

Occupational Stratification among Immigrants in Thailand

Malee Sunpuwan¹, Chirawat Poonsab²

Occupational stratification is seen as inequality in the labor market where some groups in a population are engaged in low-paid work and poor working condition. Gender and ethnicity aspects have been explored by many scholars. It was found that women and ethnic minorities are more disadvantaged in the labor market. Although studies that have been done in many countries have focused on both gender and ethnicity, the majority of studies in Thailand have emphasized gender and less attention has been paid to ethnicity or region of origin. Thus, this study aims to provide a broad descriptive overview of occupational stratification among immigrants across gender and region of origin in order to explore labor market segmentation by employing census-based analysis.

The 2010 census of Thailand was carried out by the National Statistical Office of Thailand. The analysis focused on information regarding occupations that reflected skill levels which were based on the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO). Thus, occupation segregation was measured based on a vertical dimension that reflected the inequalities. Occupation was classified into skill levels which were ranked from the lowest to highest levels and graded from skill level one to skill level four. Region of origin was a continent-based measurement that was divided into Asia and non-Asian continents. Descriptive statistics and multinomial logistic regression were employed.

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It was found that slightly more than one and a half million active immigrant workers were included in the census and the majority of immigrants were from Asia (96.7%). Considering the distribution across occupational skill levels, the majority of immigrants were concentrated at lower skill levels where 57.9 percent of immigrants were engaged in occupations at skill level two, followed by level one (35%), and then level three and four (7.2), respectively. When taking the gender of immigrants into consideration, females were more concentrated at the lowest occupational skill level than their male counterparts (38.0 versus 32.6 percent), while at the highest occupational skill level (levels three and four) only 4.5 percent of females were engaged in this skill level compare to 9.2 percent of males. Only the majority of Asian immigrants were concentrated at lower skills level. Multinomial logistic regression showed the effect of sex and region of origin on occupational stratification.

The results of the study confirm that gender and race inequality in occupations still persists among immigrants in Thailand. Females and immigrants from Asia face more segregated labor markets. Immigrants from lower economically-developed countries seem to be the most disadvantaged group in the Thai labor market. Differences in occupational skill levels among immigrants appear between regions of origin and sex. Although Thailand is a developing country, the patterns of occupational stratification across gender and place of origin are also similar to those in developed countries.

I. Background

Thailand has been a host country for several groups of immigrants from the late 18th century to the present day. These immigrants are from several regions of the world and engaged in different occupations. Thus, the distribution of immigrants by sex and region of origin across occupations is different. Such differences bring about occupational stratification, which is seen as a dimension of social inequality. This inequality also causes a constraint in the labor market and inefficient economics as well as disadvantaging some groups of workers³ and embedding social inequalities

³ Including women and ethnic minorities

(Anker, 1997; Blackburn, 2009). Thus, economists and sociologists have been paying considerable attention to occupational stratification for several decades because it is important for formulating labor market policies (Cain, 1986; Meng & Zhang, 2001).

Previous studies point out that the focus of occupational stratification is mainly on gender and ethnicity. Gender-based occupational stratification is seen as gender inequality in the labor market where women are engaged in low-paid work and poor working condition (Andes, 1992; Anker, Melkas, & Korten, 2003). Race or ethnicity is another aspect that has been explored by many scholars. It was found that ethnic minorities are more disadvantaged in the labor market (Cheng, 2013; Mintz & Krymkowski, 2010).

Although studies that have been done in many countries have focused on both gender and ethnicity, the majority of studies in Thailand emphasized gender and some ethnicities from neighboring countries, less attention has been paid to broader ethnicity or region of origin. Thus, this study needs to provide an overview of occupational stratification among immigrants across gender and region of origin in order to explore labor market segmentation by employing census-based analysis.

II. Concept-related Occupational Stratification

Social stratification is referred to as the hierarchical arrangement of people in a society which creates inequality. It has long been linked to the concept of class with gender and ethnic identities seen as secondary to economically-defined positions (Braham, 2013; Sullivan, 2009).

Considerable attention has been paid by scholars to the fact that occupational stratification has characterized social inequality, particularly ethnic and gender inequality in the labor market (Anker et al., 2003; Hurtado, Sabbath, Ertel, Buxton, & Berkman, 2012; Mintz & Krymkowski, 2010). There are some theories that have been used to explain occupational stratification. They are, namely, neoclassical economic theories and the feminist perspective.

Neoclassical theories include human capital theory and theories of labor market discrimination. Human capital focuses on the supply side, which emphasizes the skills of workers that are linked with the ability to perform labor (Becker, 1975). These skills were mostly obtained from education

and experience. This theory explains occupational segregation by considering the decisions made by people who chose to get different opportunities in education and job training (Blundell, Dearden, Meghir, & Sianesi, 1999; Mincer, 1981; Wannakrairoj, 2013).

Theories of labor market discrimination mostly focus on the labor market in terms of the demand side. These include the theory of labor market discrimination and statistical discrimination. Labor market theory assumes that employers frequently decide to hire or not hire workers based on gender and ethnicity which implies discrimination and generates segregation (Bruegel, 1989; King, 1990; Reilly, 2014) while statistical discrimination indicates that employers decide to employ workers based on information which determines whether or not it is a worthwhile investment. Thus, race/ethnicity and gender are major concerns for employers because they consider how much return they can get for their investment (Altonji & Pierret, 1997; Decreuse & Tarasonis, 2016; Oettinger, 1996).

Although neoclassical theories have been used to explain occupational segregation with their focus of human capital, feminist economic scholars argue that human capital concept fails to explain discrimination at the entry point as well as social structure which determines the decision by women to engage in an occupation. In addition, theories of labor market discrimination stick with employers' preferences that ignore sources of discriminatory behaviors. Although statistical discrimination is more centered on the rational behaviour of employers, it only responds to cost reduction and increased production (Marx, 2017). Therefore, some scholars suggest applying segmented labor market theory, which points out that discrimination leads to segregation due to the jobs assignments of employers, which is based on gender and ethnic stereotypes (Hesmondhalgh & Baker, 2015; Pan, Mukhopadhyaya, & Li, 2016; Passaretta & Wolbers, 2016).

Segmented labor market theory points out that a segmented labor market results from four major segmentation processes. They are, namely, segmentation by market types, within market types, by race, and by sex. Segmentation by market type divides markets into primary and secondary where a primary market requires high skills with high wages and a secondary market requires lower skills. Not only segmentation between markets but also segmentation within market cause segmented labor markets. Segmentation by race is another process of such a theory where certain occupations are identified as 'race-typed' that discriminated by markets institutions. Lastly, segmentation by sex, which can be referred to as the process where a restriction of occupations occurs by sex. Some occupations are restricted to males while other are restricted to females (Reich, Gordon, &

Edwards, 1973).

As this study focuses on sex and region of origin of immigrants across occupational skill levels, segmented labor market theory might be useful to explain skill differentials.

III. Occupational Stratification among Immigrants

Previous studies have shown that immigrants suffer multiple disadvantages in the labor market, with lower employment, higher unemployment, and lower wages than natives (Barrett & Duffy, 2008; Blackburn & Jarman, 2006; Brekke & Mastekaasa, 2008). This is due to the fact that they are stratified into the lowest position in labor market.

Immigrants from different regions of origin also face different problems in the labor market of destination, depending on the economic development of origin as well as human capital. In Western societies, immigrants from non-Western societies face more problems than those from Western countries (Fleischmann & Dronkers, 2010; Fullin, 2016; van Tubergen, Maas, & Flap, 2004). However, most of the studies emphasizing the differences between immigrants and natives received little attention in research focusing specifically on differences with immigrant groups.

In Thailand, there are some previous studies on occupational stratification and segregation. The focus of these studies was mainly on the gender wage gap between domestic migrants and the local people at destination (Bui & Permpoonwiwat, 2015; Son, 2007; Tangchonlatip et al., 2006; Wannakrairoj, 2013). Less attention was paid to occupational stratification and segregation among immigrants. Thus, this study provides a snapshot of the occupational stratification among immigrants by using data from the 2010 census of Thailand.

IV. Occupational Stratification and Gender

The gender segregation perspective in studying gender inequality in the labor market has been emphasized for more than three decades. The interest was mostly in sex type of occupations⁴ such

⁴ The ratio of male to female jobholders

as the fundamental attribution of stratification by looking at the differences between females and males regarding occupations and wages (Andes, 1992; Neuman, 1998).

Differences in occupations between males and females refer to males and females not being employed in the same types of occupations. Traditionally, males are concentrated in occupations which are called male-dominated occupations such as operative and craft occupations while females remain concentrated in other occupations, particularly service and clerical occupations (Andres & Grayson, 2003; Gabriel & Schmitz, 2007).

Entering into occupations where females are more likely to engage in low-paying jobs has caused the gender wage gap. It has long been recognized that even if both of them are employed in the same skill occupations level, females still get lower pay than males (Gabriel & Schmitz, 2007; Wellington, 1994). Although trends in the wage gap between males and females has been reduced, it still persists (Blau & Kahn, 2016).

V. Research Goals and Objectives

The outcomes of this research will shed light on the distribution of immigrants across occupational skill levels.

The objective of this research project is to:

- Explore the distribution of immigrants across occupational skill levels by gender and region of origin
- Study the effect of sex and region at origin on occupational stratification

VI. Research Methods

The research focuses on existing data which was nationally representative data. The data set contained information on occupations, sex, and region of origin. The study is a census-based analysis. The latest census, which is the 2010 census, was employed.

Occupation stratification was measured based on the vertical dimension which reflects inequalities. Thus, occupations were classified into four skill levels based on the ISCO as shown

in Table 4-1 below.

Skill level was measured based on the nature of work that is related to characteristics of the tasks and duties for each ISCO-08 (ILO, 2012). Skill level one included occupations that are simple and routinely performed with manual tasks while skill level two involved occupations with a high level of manual dexterity. Skill level three included occupations with complex technical and practical tasks performance and skill level four involved occupations with expertise in the performance of tasks that require complex problem-solving, decision making, and creativity (ILO, 2012).

Originally, the lowest to highest skill levels were ranked from one to four. These reflected the occupation stratification that can create inequality in the labor market. Since it was found that the proportion of skill level three and four were quite small, they were grouped together. Thus, there were three groups of skill levels that would be considered. They were ranked from one to three where level three included both skill levels three and four, which still reflected the highest skill level.

Table 4-1 Classification of ISCO skill levels by major groups of occupations

Major groups	ISCO
1 Legislators, senior officials, and managers	4th
2 Professionals	4th
3 Technicians and associate professionals	3rd
4 Clerks	2nd
5 Service workers and shop and market sales	2 nd
6 Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	2 nd
7 Craft and related workers	2nd
8 Plant and machine operators and assemblers	2nd
9 Elementary occupations	1st

Source: Adapted from ISCO skill level (International Labor Organization, 2012)

Region of origins was measured based on the classification of countries by major areas and regions of the world that were classified by the UNFPA. There were five major regions, namely,

Africa, Americas, Asia, Europe, and Oceania. However, the proportion of immigrants from some regions were very small, the regions were grouped into Asia and others in order to compare immigrants from Asia with those from other parts of the world.

The sample was immigrants in the working age group (15-59 years old) who were still active in the Thai labor market during data collection. Data weighting was applied for data analysis with descriptive and multinomial logistic regression analysis. Descriptive analysis was employed in order to explore the distribution of immigrants across occupational skill levels by gender and region of origin while multinomial logistic regression was used to study the effect of sex and region at origin on occupational stratification.

VII. Results

Characteristics of immigrants

Table 4-2 presents that immigrants in working age groups whose ages were between 15 and 59, numbering slightly more than 1.5 million. The majority of them were from the Asian continent. The proportion of male immigrants was higher than that of females. The majority of the immigrants were from Asia which accounted for 96.7 percent of all immigrants in Thailand. Asian immigrants were the youngest group with an average age of 29.8 years old. The majority of immigrants were married. The dominant group of immigrants from Asian countries completed elementary school and were lower when compared to immigrants from other regions that completed secondary school or higher. It should be noted that there are some unknown/other education levels due to incompatible educational categories.

Although the majority of immigrants were engaged in non-agricultural sectors, immigrants from Asia were engaged in agriculture more than those from other regions. Considering occupations, it was revealed that Asian immigrants were dominantly in elementary occupations compared with other immigrants who were engaged in professional careers.

Table 4-2 Characteristics of immigrants in Thailand by sex and region of origin (weight)

	Sex and region of origin								
	Asia (n=1,621,805/ 96.7)			Others (n=54,625/3.3)			Total (N= 1,676,429/100)		
	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total
Percent	55.7	44.3	100	78.9	21.1	100	56.5	43.5	100
Characteristics									
Age									
15-19	9.0	12.0	10.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	8.5	11.8	10.0
20-24	21.7	24.8	23.0	1.8	11.6	3.8	20.8	24.6	22.4
25-29	23.1	22.1	22.7	5.0	6.5	5.3	22.3	21.8	22.1
30-24	17.2	16.1	16.7	13.7	26.2	16.3	17.0	16.2	16.7
35-39	11.4	10.6	11.0	17.3	16.6	17.1	11.7	10.7	11.2
40-44	7.3	6.7	7.1	9.8	6.5	9.1	7.4	6.7	7.1
45-49	5.3	4.4	4.9	16.2	21.4	17.3	5.8	4.7	5.3
50-54	3.0	2.4	2.7	23.0	4.6	19.1	3.9	2.4	3.3
55-59	2.1	1.0	1.6	13.4	6.5	11.9	2.6	1.1	1.9
Average	30.4	29.0	29.8	43.6	37.8	42.3	30.4	29.0	29.8
Min	15	15	15	23	22	22	15	15	15
Max	59	59	59	59	58	59	59	59	59
Marital status									

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	Sex and region of origin								
	Asia (n=1,621,805/ 96.7)			Others (n=54,625/3.3)			Total (N= 1,676,429/100)		
	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total
Currently married	53.0	61.7	56.9	60.1	35.8	55.0	53.4	61.2	56.8
Not currently married/unknown	47.0	38.3	43.1	39.9	64.2	45.0	46.6	38.8	43.2
Education									
Elementary and lower/unknown	91.5	93.4	92.3	15.9	18.1	16.4	88.1	92.2	89.8
Secondary school and higher	8.5	6.6	7.7	84.1	81.9	83.6	11.9	7.8	10.2
Work sector									
Agriculture	26.1	23.2	24.8	6.0	5.0	5.8	25.2	22.9	24.2
Non-agriculture	73.9	76.8	75.2	94.0	95.0	94.2	74.8	77.1	75.8
Occupation									
Managers	2.1	0.8	1.5	23.3	7.1	23.3	3.1	0.9	2.1
Professionals	2.5	1.8	2.2	55.5	56.5	55.5	4.9	2.7	4.0
Technicians	1.0	0.9	0.9	4.4	9.1	4.4	1.2	1.0	1.1
Clerical support workers	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.4	0.4
Service and sales workers	9.9	14.0	11.7	10.1	13.1	10.1	9.9	14.0	11.7

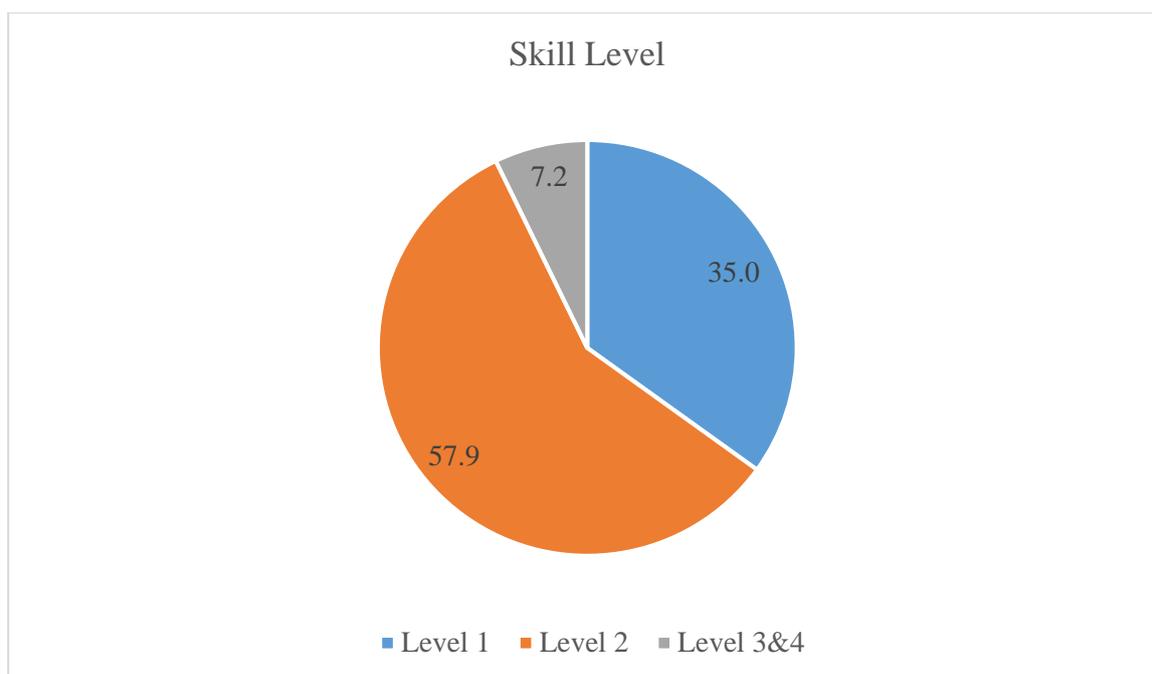
At the Bottom of the Labor Market: Occupational stratification among immigrants in Thailand

	Sex and region of origin								
	Asia (n=1,621,805/ 96.7)			Others (n=54,625/3.3)			Total (N= 1,676,429/100)		
	M	F	Total	M	F	Total	M	F	Total
Skilled agricultural workers	17.6	17.5	17.5	6.0	0.0	6.0	17.1	17.2	17.1
Craft and related trades workers	17.7	14.2	16.2	0.0	2.7	0.0	16.9	14.0	15.7
Plant and machine operators, and assemblers	14.6	11.9	13.4	0.7	6.5	0.7	13.9	11.8	13.0
Elementary occupations	34.2	38.5	36.1	0.0	5.0	0.0	32.6	38.0	35.0

Distribution of skill levels among immigrants

Figure 4-1 shows the distribution of skill levels among immigrants. It was revealed that more than half were at skill level two, followed by slightly more than one-third at skill level one, and 7.2 percent at levels 3 and 4, respectively.

Figure 4-1 Distribution of skill levels among immigrants (weight)



Distribution of sex across skill levels

When taking the sex of immigrants into account, at skill level one almost one-third of the males were engaged in occupations with skill level one compared to slightly more than one-third of the females. At skill level two more than half of both male and female immigrants were stratified into this skill level, but the proportion of females was a bit higher than their male counterparts. At the highest skill level, slightly more than nine percent of males were engaged in occupations involved with this skill level while only 4.6 percent of females were at this skill level (see Table 4-3).

It should be noted that females were more concentrated in occupational skill level one than that of males. At the higher skill levels, particularly skill level four, the proportion of males was slightly more than double that of females.

Table 4-3 Distribution of skill levels between sexes (weight)

Skill levels	Sex		Total
	Male	Female	
Level 1	32.6	38.0	35.0
Level 2	58.2	57.5	57.9
Level 3&4	9.2	4.6	7.2

Distribution of skill levels across regions of origin

Table 4-4 reveals a different distribution of skill levels among immigrants from different regions. For occupations with skill level one, it was revealed that slightly more than one-third of immigrants from Asia were stratified into occupations at this level compared to only 1.1 percent of immigrants from other regions

With regard to skill level two, more than half of the Asian immigrants were at this skill level compared to only almost one-fifth of immigrants from other places. At skill levels three and four, the proportion of immigrants from non-Asian region accounted for 81 percent of all immigrants. It was noticeable that at the higher skill levels only 4.7 percent of Asian immigrants were at this level.

It was observed that immigrants from the Asian continent were more engaged in lower skill levels than immigrants from other regions. It was shown that more than 90 percent of Asian immigrants were at occupational skill levels one and two.

Table 4-4 Skill levels by state of origin (weight)

Skill levels	Region of origin		Total
	Asia	Non-Asia	
1	36.1	1.1	35.0
2	59.2	18.0	57.9
3&4	4.7	81.0	7.2

Distribution of skill levels across sex and regions of origin

Table 4-5 shows the distribution of skill levels across sex and region of origin. Among immigrants who engaged in occupations at level one, it was revealed that 38.5 percent of female immigrants from Asia and 34.2 male immigrants from Asia occupied occupations were at the lowest skill level compared to only 5 percent of females from other regions that stratified into this skill level. At skill level two, there were 16.8 percent of male immigrants from non-Asian regions, 22.3 percent of female immigrants from such regions, 58.0 percent of female immigrants from Asia, and 60.1 percent of male immigrants from Asia engaged at this skill level, respectively.

With regard to occupations with skill levels three and four, 3.5 percent of female immigrants from Asia were at this skill level compared to 5.7 percent of males from the same regions, 72.6 percent of females and 83.2 percent of males were from the other regions (see Table 4-5).

It is important to note that females from both Asia and non-Asian regions occupy occupations at the lowest skill level more than males did. For occupations at the highest skill level, the proportion of male immigrants was higher than their female counterparts (see Table 4-5).

Table 4-5 Skill levels by state of origin and sex (weight)

Skill levels	Region of origin				Total N= 1,676,429	
	Asia		Others		M	F
	M	F	M	F		
Level 1	34.2	38.5	0.0	5.0	32.6	38.0
Level 2	60.1	58.0	16.8	22.3	58.2	57.5
Level 3&4	5.7	3.5	83.2	72.6	9.2	4.5

Distribution of immigrants characteristics and skill levels across regions of origin

Apart from sex, other characteristics of immigrants were also explored in order to discover the distribution of these characteristics across region of origin. Table 4-6 reveals that more than half of all age groups of Asian immigrants were engaged in occupations with skill level two while slightly less than half to more than nine-tenths of all age groups of immigrants from other

regions occupied occupations with skill levels three and four. However, the youngest group of Asian immigrants were concentrated in skill level one (43.3%). While among non-Asian immigrants, those aged 35-39 were at the highest proportion of occupying occupations with skill levels three and four (96.0%).

Regarding marital status, it was found that both married and non-married Asian immigrants were at skill level two, but non married immigrants were more likely to engaged in skill level one than married immigrants. Conversely, the proportion of non-married immigrants from other regions was at a higher skill level than married ones (8.50% versus 77.7%).

The education level of immigrants seems to show a similar pattern among immigrants from both Asia and the non-Asian regions. That is, immigrants with a secondary school education and higher occupied occupations with skill levels three and four and the proportion of immigrants from other regions was higher than those from Asia.

Work sector also shows that a high skill level were occupied by those non-Asian immigrants who engaged in non-agricultural sectors. However, the proportion of immigrants from Asia occupying occupations with higher skill levels far behind immigrants from non-Asian regions.

Effect of gender, region of origin, and other variables on occupational stratification

In order to examine the effects of sex and region of origin, multinomial logistic regression was employed. Table 4-7 presents the estimated multinomial logistic regression coefficients and odds ratio for the model. In accordance with the p-value of estimated coefficients, sex and region of origin were significant predictors of occupational stratification. In addition, other variables, namely, education, age, marital status, and work sector also helped in explaining the occupational stratification.

When other variables were constant, female immigrants were more likely to engage in skill level one and two than their male counterparts. That is, the odds of engaging in skill level one compared with the highest skilled jobs (levels three and four) of female immigrants was 1.5 times higher than males. In addition, the odds of occupying occupations with skill level two compared to higher skill levels for female immigrants was 1.3 times higher than that of male immigrants.

Table 4-6 Distribution of other characteristics of immigrants by skill levels and region (weight).

	Asia			Non-Asia		
	Skill level 1	Skill level 2	Skill levels 3&4	Skill level 1	Skill level 2	Skill levels 3&4
Percent						
Characteristics						
Age						
15-19	43.4	55.6	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
20-24	35.8	62.7	1.5	27.8	0.0	72.2
25-29	36.5	60.0	3.6	.0	51.6	48.4
30-24	37.4	57.8	4.8	0.0	19.6	80.4
35-39	38.1	55.3	6.6	0.0	4.0	96.0
40-44	34.2	60.6	5.2	0.0	42.4	57.6
45-49	21.3	61.9	16.8	0.0	14.1	85.9
50-54	31.3	51.2	17.5	0.0	14.2	85.8
55-59	22.8	62.1	15.1	0.0	19.6	80.4
Marital status						
Currently married	32.2	63.3	4.5	0.0	22.3	77.7
Not currently married/unknown	41.3	53.9	4.9	2.4	12.7	85.0
Education						
Elementary and lower/unknown	38.4	60.5	1.0	6.5	43.1	50.4
Secondary school and higher	8.3	43.1	48.6	0.0	13.0	87.0
Work sector						
Agriculture	29.7	70.2	.1	18.4	81.6	0.0
Non-agriculture	38.2	55.6	6.2	0.0	14.0	86.0

Region of origin also plays a role in occupational stratification. The results of multinomial logistic regression shows that the odds of immigrants with lower education level concentrated in skill level one compared with levels three and four was 131 times higher than those with a higher education level when other variables were constant. Comparing between level two and

higher levels, it revealed a similar pattern, that is, when all other variables were equal, the odds of immigrants with lower education levels concentrated in skill level two compared with higher levels was 33.4 times higher than those with higher education levels.

Table 4-7 Parameter estimates contrasting the highest skill level groups versus each of the other groups using multinomial logistic regression (weight)

Predictor	Skill 3&4 levels vs.	B	OR	p-value
Sex (ref.=male)	Skill level 1	0.439	1.551	0.000
	Skill level 2	0.254	1.298	0.000
Region of origin				
Asia (ref.=others)	Skill level 1	3.886	47.769	0.000
	Skill level 2	1.927	6.867	0.000
Education				
Elementary and lower/other (ref.= Secondary school and higher)	Skill level 1	4.875	130.960	0.000
	Skill level 2	3.509	33.429	0.000
Age				
	Skill level 1	-0.084	0.919	0.000
	Skill level 2	-0.086	0.917	0.000
Marital status				
Currently married (ref.= Not currently married)	Skill level 1	-0.031	0.970	0.003
	Skill level 2	0.010	1.439	0.000
Work sector				
Agriculture (ref. = non-agriculture)	Skill level 1	4.452	85.821	0.000
	Skill level 2	4.902	134.541	0.000

Age is also a significant variable in the model. It was shown that when age increases immigrants were less likely to occupy occupations with higher skill levels. In addition, married immigrants were also less likely to engage in skill level one than levels three and four, but they were more likely to engage in skill level two more than the higher skill levels.

According to work sector, the odds of immigrants who work in the agricultural sector were more likely to be engaged in the lowest skill level was 85.8 times higher than immigrants

working in non-agricultural sectors. In addition, the odds of immigrants who work in the agricultural sector were more likely to engage in skill level two was 134.5 times higher than immigrants working in non-agricultural sectors.

VIII. Summary and Conclusion

Although studies on occupational stratification that have been done in many countries have focused on both gender and ethnicity, the majority of studies in Thailand emphasized gender, and paid less attention to ethnicity or region of origin. Thus, this study aims to provide an overview of occupational stratification among immigrants across gender and regions of origin and explore the effects of gender and region of origin on occupational stratification in order to explore labor market segmentation by employing a census-based analysis. Our study confirms that sex and ethnicity segmentation among immigrants in the Thai labor market still persists.

Regions of origin and occupational stratification

Measuring ethnicity by region of origin shows that there was occupational stratification among immigrants in Thailand. That is, the majority of them were stratified into lower occupational skill levels and many of those were from developing countries in Asia. Our study depicts occupational stratification between regions of origin.

It reveals that there was a difference in occupational stratification among immigrants between regions. The proportion of Asian immigrants who were at occupational skill levels one and two was much higher than those from other regions. This indicates that Asian immigrants were stratified into a lower position in the labor market.

Since this study ranked the skill levels from lowest to highest, it reflects occupational characteristics which can define the division of the labor market into separate markets. That is, engaging in occupations with skill levels one and two is referred to as engaging in the secondary market and engaging in occupations with skill levels three and four reflects those who are employed in the primary market.

When a market is segmented into sub-markets, it is clear that race or region of origin appears to be a crucial factor in the secondary segment. Asian immigrants, the majority of whom were from countries with lower development levels compared to Thailand, were more likely to

engage in the secondary market.

Gender and occupational stratification

Our study confirms gender stratification in the labor market among immigrants. It is depicted that female immigrants were more concentrated in occupational skill level one than males, which reflects that females were disadvantaged in the labor market. Our data provides support evidence by showing a higher percentage of females at the lowest occupational skill level when compared to their male counterparts. It points out that female immigrants from all regions of origin were more disadvantaged in the Thai labor market than male immigrants.

In addition, it presents that the degree of gender stratification in occupational skill levels varied considerably between regions of origin as well as within regions. Sex differences in occupational stratification with different skill levels across regions of origin show that females occupied occupations at the lowest skill level more than males did, particularly female immigrants from Asia. For occupations at the highest skill level, the proportion of male immigrants from Asia was higher than their female counterparts.

As noted earlier, labor market segmentation was defined into sub-segments, including the primary and secondary markets. As labor market segmentation is based on occupational characteristics and skills, the study reveals that female immigrants are more likely to be at the lowest position in the Thai labor market or engaged in the secondary market when compare to their male counterparts.

As noted in the aforementioned results, it can be concluded that immigrants were stratified into different occupational skill levels. Immigrants from lower economically-developed countries seem to be the most disadvantaged group in the Thai labor market. Differences in occupational skill levels among immigrants appear both between and within groups of regions of origin and sex. Although Thailand is a developing country, the pattern of occupational stratification across gender and place of origin is similar to that happening in developed countries.

IX. Recommendations for Future Research

Unfortunately, the data available to us did not permit the computation of scales that capture

other dimensions of occupational inequality, such as occupational wage inequality across gender and region of origin.

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The Labor Market Integration of Migrants in S. Korea:

A Comparison by Ethnicity or Source Country

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I. Background

Migrant integration has long been an important issue for both the host society and the immigrants themselves. The integration of migrants consists of various levels including economic (or labor market), social, and political integration extending to cultural coexistence. There has been a great deal of research accumulated on topics about adaption or adjustments in traditional immigration countries such as the U.S. Recently there has been growing interest surrounding the integration of migrants in other immigration countries as well and labor market integration is believed to be the first step of migrant integration.

Major theories on the labor market integration of migrants can be divided broadly into two major categories: the human capital (neo-classical economic) framework and segmented labor market theories. Segmented labor market theories include dual and split labor market theories and the ethnic enclave theory. The major difference between these two categories is that while the first economic theory emphasizes individual characteristics, the latter theory emphasizes structural factors which create barriers in a labor market. The human capital theory views the socioeconomic achievement of individuals as the outcome of their productivity or human capital in a competitive labor market (Lee, 1998: 27). In the human capital perspective, immigrants are not qualitatively different from native-born workers except that they are newer entrants in the labor market and have less experience and skills specific to the labor market in the host country. Therefore, the longer immigrants reside in the new host country and the more

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they acquire the experience and skills specific to the labor market; they can move upward, leaving the bottom position to new labor flows. Regarding the human capital theory, Chiswick (1978, 1983, 2005, etc.) is one of the most influential scholars, highlighting the “self-selection of immigrants” and “transferability of skills”. It means that labor migrants are not random persons, but those with strong economic motivation. However, they usually face difficulties adapting to an unfamiliar host country at the beginning due to the “transferability of skills”. Their human capital such as education, experience, and skills from their mother country are not smoothly transferred to the host country. Therefore, labor migrants generally face socioeconomic downward mobility at the early stages of immigration. However, after continued residence in the host country, their human capital will gradually be modified to increase the transferability. As a result, they can adjust better in the new labor market with a longer duration of residence. It is believed that the transferability of skills of immigrants varies by the economic development level of their mother countries (Lee, 1998: 28).

Segmented labor market (hereafter SLM) theories have criticized the human capital theory, especially its assumption of a free competitive labor market. The SLM (e.g., dual labor market, split labor market, and ethnic enclave theories) theories propose that advanced capitalism has generated two or more segments of the labor market, such as a primary and a secondary sector, at least. While the primary sector refers to the market which offers jobs with high wages, good working conditions, job security, and chances for advancement, the secondary sector characterizes the underdevelopment of an internal labor market, low wages, and poor working conditions. Since the secondary sector consists of smaller competitive enterprises that more closely reflect the economic conditions under advanced capitalism, it tends to depend on cheap labor, including immigrants (Lee, 1998: 31). Therefore, SLM theories view the complete integration of immigrants into the labor market to be nearly impossible structurally since the labor market itself is fundamentally divided into two or more sectors and immigrants tend to be concentrated into the secondary sector.

Meanwhile, the ethnic enclave theory, as a faction of the SLM theories, has noted that some immigrant groups are not only overrepresented in self-employment but also have better economic returns to their human capital. However, this is not due to differences in individual characteristics but rather to the availability of an ethnic enclave. For example, Chinatowns and Koreatowns in the U.S. can offer some economic opportunities for their members to overcome disadvantages in the secondary sector. As some immigrant groups form such niche markets,

they can obtain new competitive power in the host country.

As a traditional immigration country, the U.S. has numerous empirical studies that apply the various theories mentioned above. Recently, empirical studies regarding the labor market integration of immigrants have become active in Europe as well (Zimmermann, 2005; Barrett et al., 2008; Maxwell, 2010; Pichler, 2011). Many empirical studies point out that human capital variables such as level of education, fluency in the language of host country, and duration of residence in the host country are the major factors that influence an immigrant's adaptation, in addition to labor market participation (Lee, 2013: 202).

Overall, most empirical studies on the labor market integration of immigrants tend to focus on male migrants. Studies on female migrants' labor market integration so far are very scarce. However, according to those on immigrant women (Foroutan, 2008; Allen, 2009; Blau et al., 2011), it can be noted that: 1) immigrant women have a relatively lower labor force participation rate compared to local women; 2) the labor force participation rate differs greatly depending on their source countries; and 3) the labor force participation rate of immigrant women is highly affected by their cultural backgrounds. In other words, the immigrant women's labor force participation rate is influenced by whether they come from a country with a high female labor force participation rate or not (Blau et al., 2011).

II. Research Goals and Objectives

The labor market integration of immigrants has become a major issue in Korea as well. Previous studies on the labor market situation of migrants in general showed long working hours, poor working conditions, and low wages (Seok, et.al., 2003; Chung, et.al., 2010, 2013). Recently, there has been growing interest on the labor market integration of marriage migrants as well (Kang and Lee, 2012; Park, 2013; Yang, 2011; Lee, et.al., 2011; Lee, 2014, 2015). Analyzing both the 2009 and 2012 national surveys of 'multicultural families' (hereafter the MCF Surveys), Lee (2014, 2015) found that there was a very remarkable increase in the labor force participation of marriage migrant women from 2009 (36.9%) to 2012 (53.0%). However, it is difficult to celebrate the result as their real improvement in the labor market, due to some significant changes between the 2009 and 2012 MCF Surveys. According to Lee (2014, 2015), there were at least two significant changes between the 2012 MCF Survey and its predecessors. The first was the expansion of the target group, so-called multicultural families. The original

definition (foreign spouses married to Korean nationals locally) began to expand to include naturalized immigrant families. The second is the change in the questionnaire itself, specifically how to determine their labor force participation. While it was somewhat vaguely phrased in the earlier survey, the question in the 2012 MCF Survey became very clearly and carefully phrased. As a result, the earlier surveys underestimated labor force participation in general, and those for unpaid family workers in particular.

The objective of this paper is to examine the labor market integration of migrants in South Korea. Labor market integration can be divided into quantitative and qualitative aspects. Since the former refers their labor force participation, the major question is whether it differs by their source countries; then what factors affect their labor force participation. Regarding the latter or qualitative aspect, this paper examines their labor market situation, such as their employment status, occupation, working hours, and wages. As major dependent variables of this study are the labor force participation of migrants and their labor market situations, it focuses on migrants aged 20-64. Then this paper analyzes how their labor force participation and labor market situation varies by their source countries. The results of this study can be applied to improve policies on migrants in general and on marriage migrant women in particular. Furthermore, it contributes to improve how to gather data on migrants in South Korea.

III. Data and Research Methods

The data utilized for this paper came from two sources. The first set of data for migrants in general in South Korea is the Foreign Labor Force Survey which was conducted by Statistics Korea in 2015. The second set of data for marriage migrants is the MCF Surveys, which was conducted both in 2012 and 2015 by Statistics Korea, funded by the Ministry of Gender Equality and Family. Both the 2012 and 2015 MCF Surveys are consistent regarding their target groups and how to phrase the question about their labor force participation, unlike the 2009 MCF Survey (Table 5-1).

In order to avoid the problem of ‘selectivity’ and to improve ‘comparability’ of different ethnic groups, this paper focuses only on migrants aged 20 and 64 from the first set of data and on married migrant women aged 20 and 64 from the second set of data, excluding divorcees, separated, or widowed women. This is due to the fact that their labor market situation varies by their ages for migrants in general, and by their ages and marital status for marriage migrant

women. Other available data for migrants, which is shown in the right side of Table 5-1, were also utilized as well.

Table 5-1 Data for this research

MAIN DATA (Survey Statistics)	SUPPLEMENTED DATA (Administrative Statistics)
2015 Foreign Labor Force Survey (by Statistics Korea)	Annual Report on Emigration and Immigration (by Ministry of Justice, 1993-2016)
MCF Surveys (A Survey on the Status of Multicultural Families in Korea, 2012 and 2015) (by Statistics Korea, funded by Ministry of Gender Equality and Family)	Vital Statistics on Marriage and Divorce (by Statistics Korea)

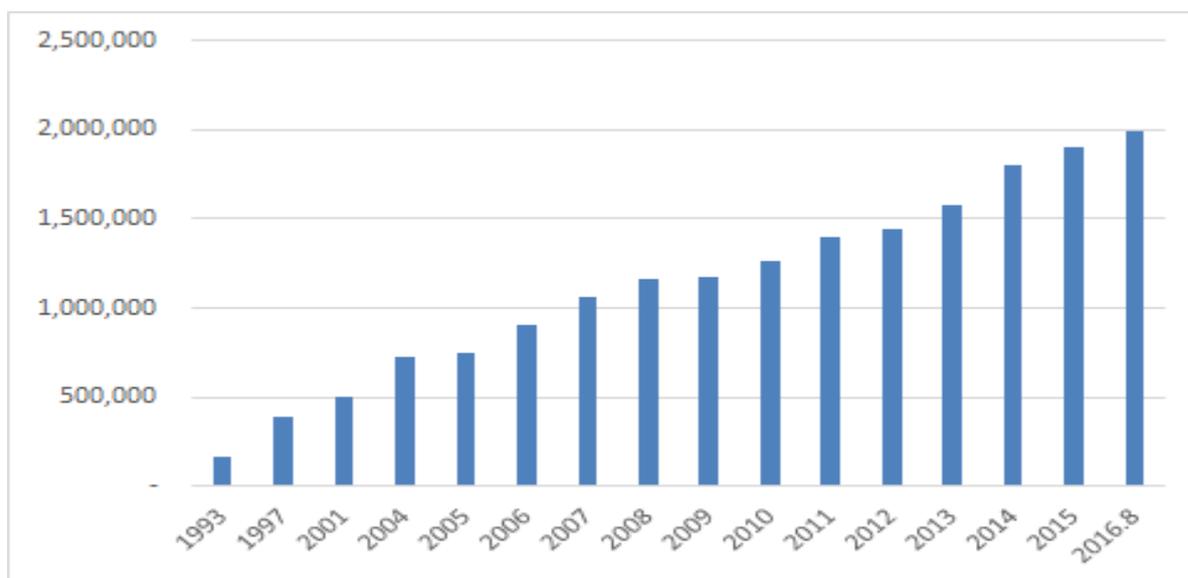
IV. Analysis of the 2015 Foreign Labor Force Survey

The total number of migrant residents in South Korea was less than 170,000 in 1993, but rose to about 2 million in 2016 (Figure 5-1). Among those in 2016, near 700,000 were migrant workers and over 300,000 were marriage migrants (including naturalized citizens). Statistics Korea has collected the labor force surveys annually for migrant residents since 2012. Using the 2015 Foreign Labor Force Survey, this section will analyze the labor market situation of migrant residents aged 20 and 64, by sex and by ethnicity (or by their source country).

Current sojourn status

The 2015 survey was conducted on 9,010 migrants in May 2015, and when weighting values are taken into consideration it became 1,373,235 migrants. 53% of the surveyed migrants were male (approximately 770,000) and 47% were female (610,000). Of all the male migrant residents, over half of them were here with non-professional employment, followed by overseas Koreans (19%), permanent residents (7%), foreign students (5%), professional staff (4%), and marriage migrants (3%). Notably, migrant residents have different visa statuses according to their country of origin.

Figure 5-1 Size of migrant residents in South Korea, 1993~2016

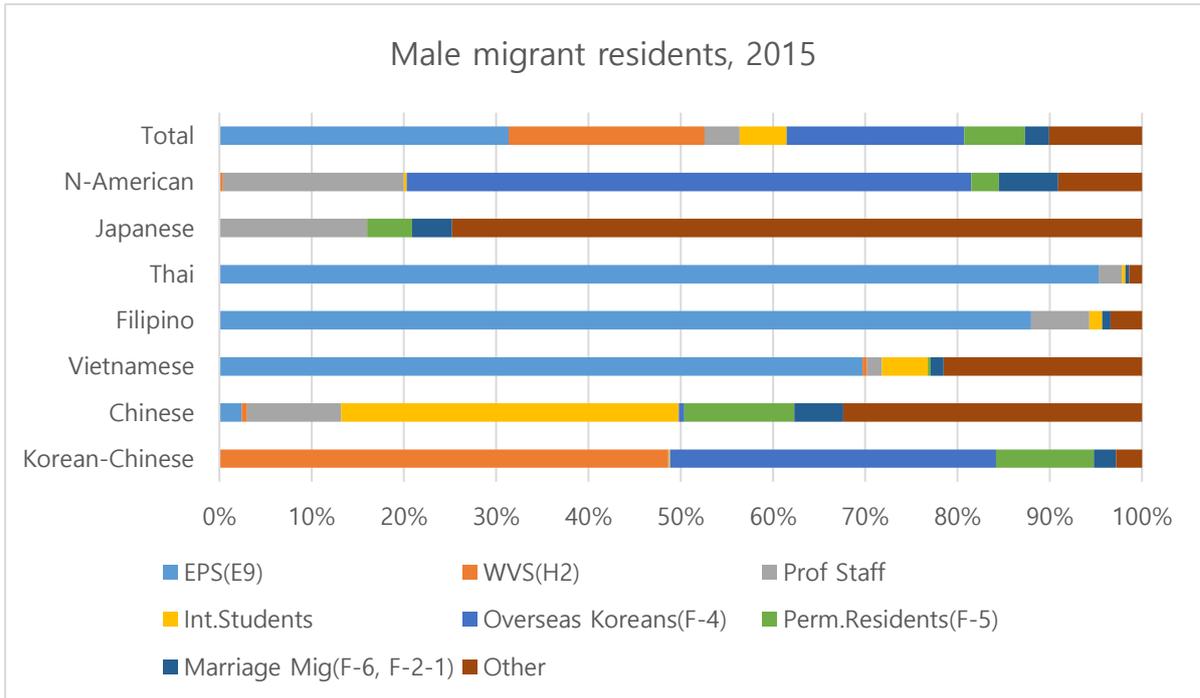


Source: Ministry of Justice (1993-2016) Annual Report on Emigration and Immigration

Figure 5-2 shows the current sojourn status of male migrants by source countries. Korean-Chinese mostly have one of the two visa types, either Working Visit (49%) or overseas Koreans visa (35%). Many Chinese are either international students (37%) or permanent residents (12%). Most male Vietnamese, Filipinos, and Thais are here through the Employment Permit System, but a significant number of Vietnamese (22%) are here with other miscellaneous permits, including a visit visa. Some Filipino men are here with professional staff visas (6%). While 16% of Japanese males are here as professional staff, three quarters of them (75%) have miscellaneous stay permits such as a visit or an investment visa. 61% of North American males are overseas Koreans and the other 20% are professional staff.

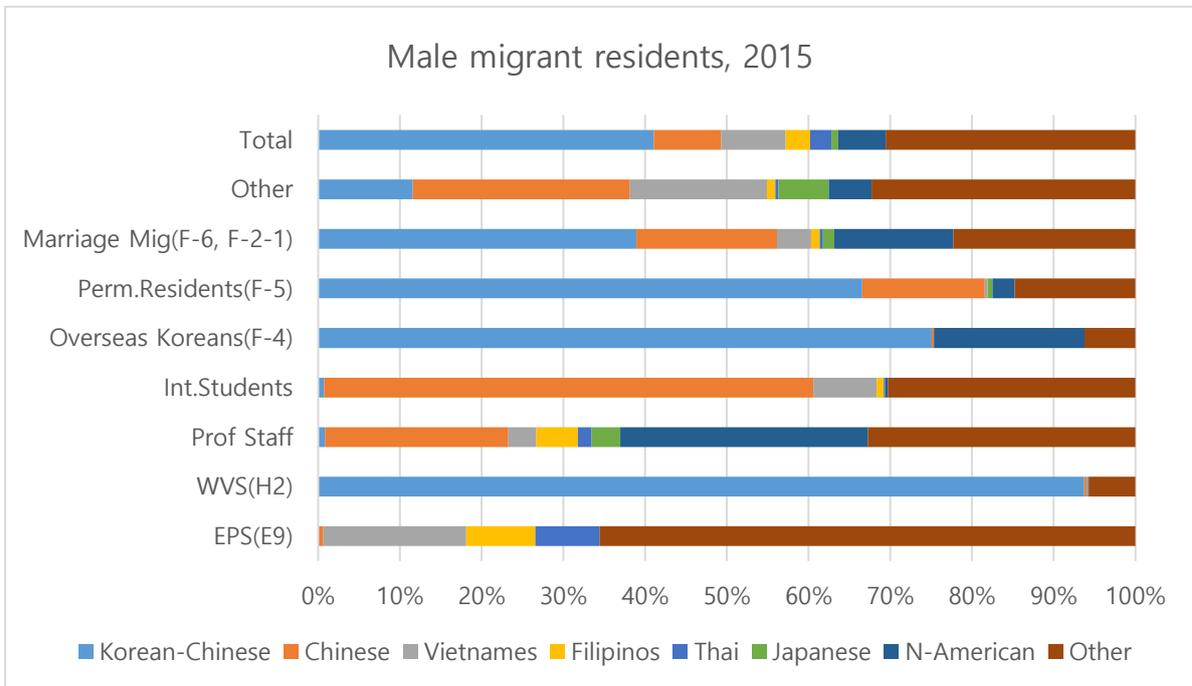
This phenomenon reoccurs when focusing on nationality by the current sojourn status of male migrants (Figure 5-3). Most males who are Employment Permit (E-9) visa holders are from South-East Asian countries such as Vietnam, Thailand, and the Philippines, whereas almost all (98%) of Working Visit (H-2) visa holders are Korean-Chinese. Most professional staff visa holders are from North America, followed by China, Philippines, Japan, and Viet Nam. Over 60% of international students are from China, followed by Vietnam (7%). Over 90% of overseas Koreans are either Korean-Chinese or Korean-North Americans. Finally, males who are marriage migrant visa holders are Korean-Chinese, Chinese, and North Americans.

Figure 5-2 Current visa status of male migrants by country of origin, 2015



Source: 2015 Foreign Labor Force Survey

Figure 5-3 Nationality of male migrants by their visa status, 2015



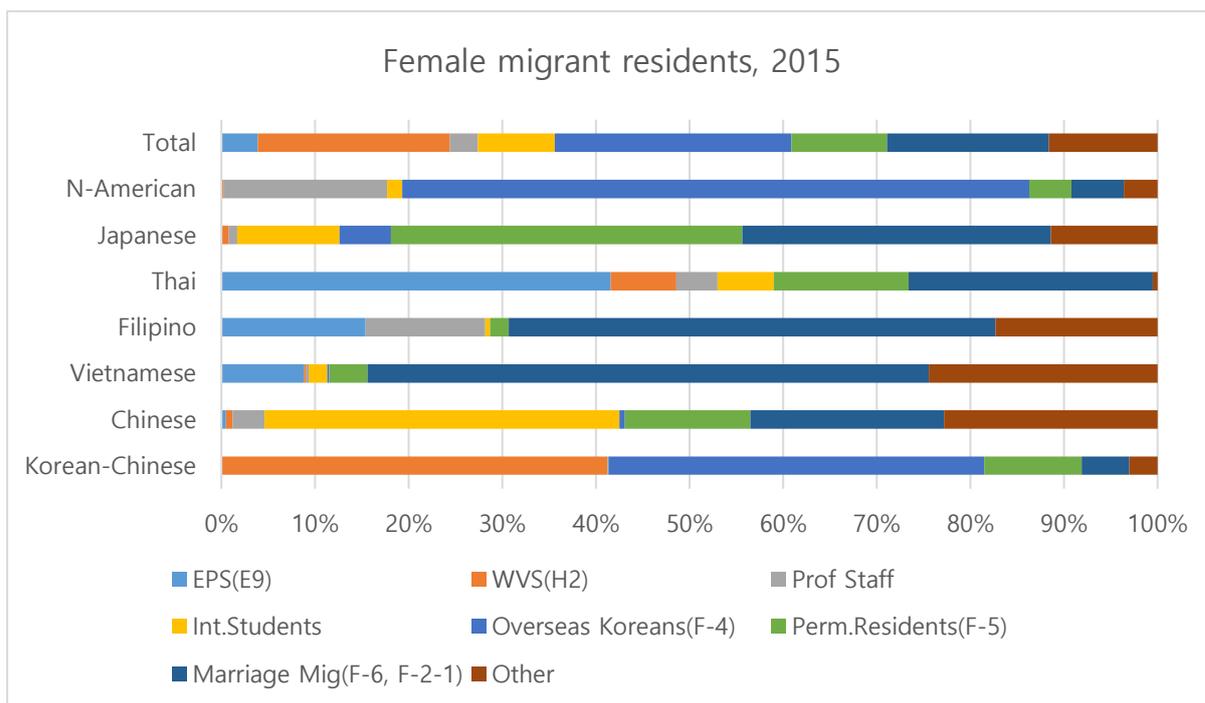
Source: 2015 Foreign Labor Force Survey

Among female migrants, there are significant numbers of overseas Koreans (25%) and Working Visit visa holders (21%), followed by marriage migrants (17%). There are also some permanent residents (10%) and international students (8%). Unlike male migrants, however, there are scarcely any Employment Permit (E-9) visa holders (4%) or professional staff (3%) among female migrants.

Like males, migrant women also have heavily differing visa statuses according to nationality. Figure 5-4 shows the current visa status of female migrant residents by country of origin. Most Korean-Chinese women are either Working Visit visa holders (41%) or overseas Koreans (40%). Most Chinese women are international students (38%), marriage migrants (21%), or permanent residents (13%). While most male migrants from South-East Asia, such as Vietnam and the Philippines, are Employment Permit (E-9) visa holders, it is not true for their counterpart female migrants. Only a few Vietnamese and Filipino women (9% and 15% respectively) are here with Employment Permit (E-9) visas, instead over 50% of those women are marriage migrants. However, this pattern is not repeated for Thai women. While 42% of Thai women have Employment Permit (E-9) visas, a relatively small proportion are marriage migrants (26%). Most Japanese women are permanent residents (38%), marriage migrants (33%), or international students (11%). 67% of North American women are overseas Koreans, and the other 18% have professional staff visas.

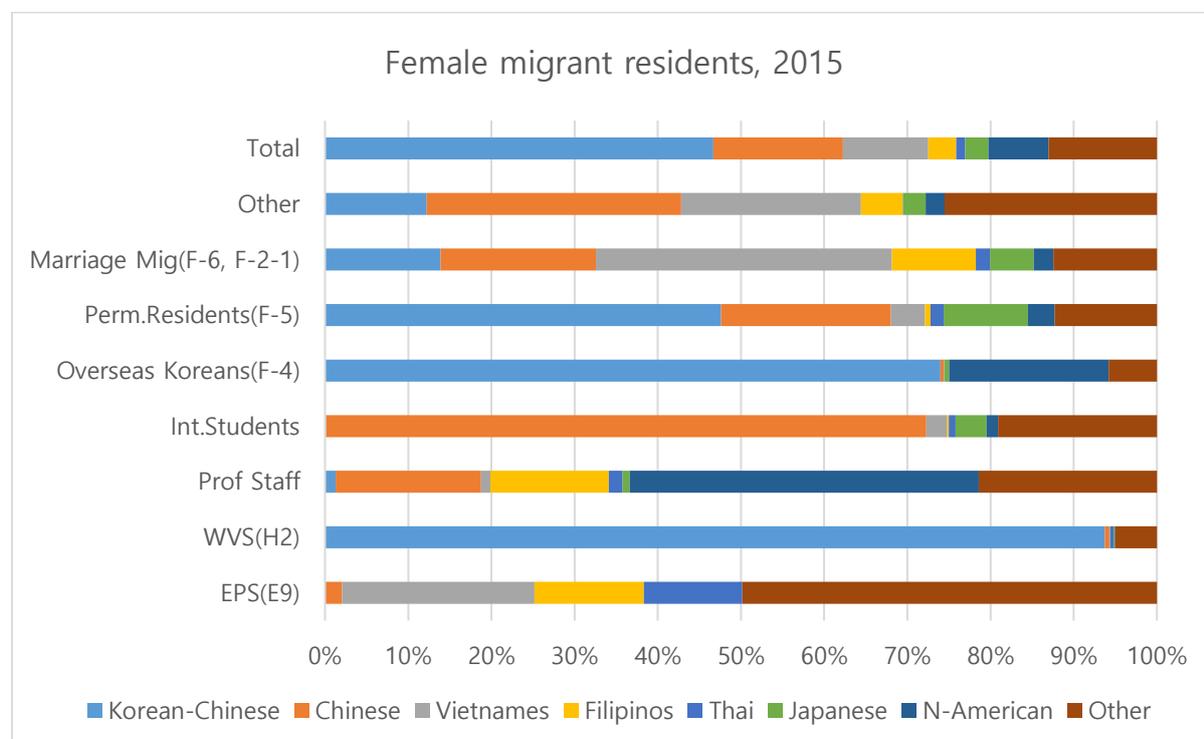
Figure 5-5 shows nationality by their visa status. Among women with Employment Permit (E-9) visas, although this non-professional employment visa is held by very few female migrants, there are some South-East Asian women, such as Vietnamese (23%), Filipinos (13%) and Thai (12%). Most Working Visit (H-2) visa holders are Korean-Chinese women. Professional staff are mostly North Americans (42%), followed by Chinese (18%) and Filipino (14%) women. International students are predominantly Chinese women (72%). Permanent resident women are in the order of Korean-Chinese (48%), Chinese (16%), and Japanese (10%). Marriage migrant women are in the order of Vietnamese (36%), Chinese (19%), Korean-Chinese (14%), and Filipino (10%), with only 1.7% being Thai.

Figure 5-4 Current visa status of female migrants by country of origin, 2015



Source: 2015 Foreign Labor Force Survey

Figure 5-5 Nationality of female migrants by their visa status, 2015

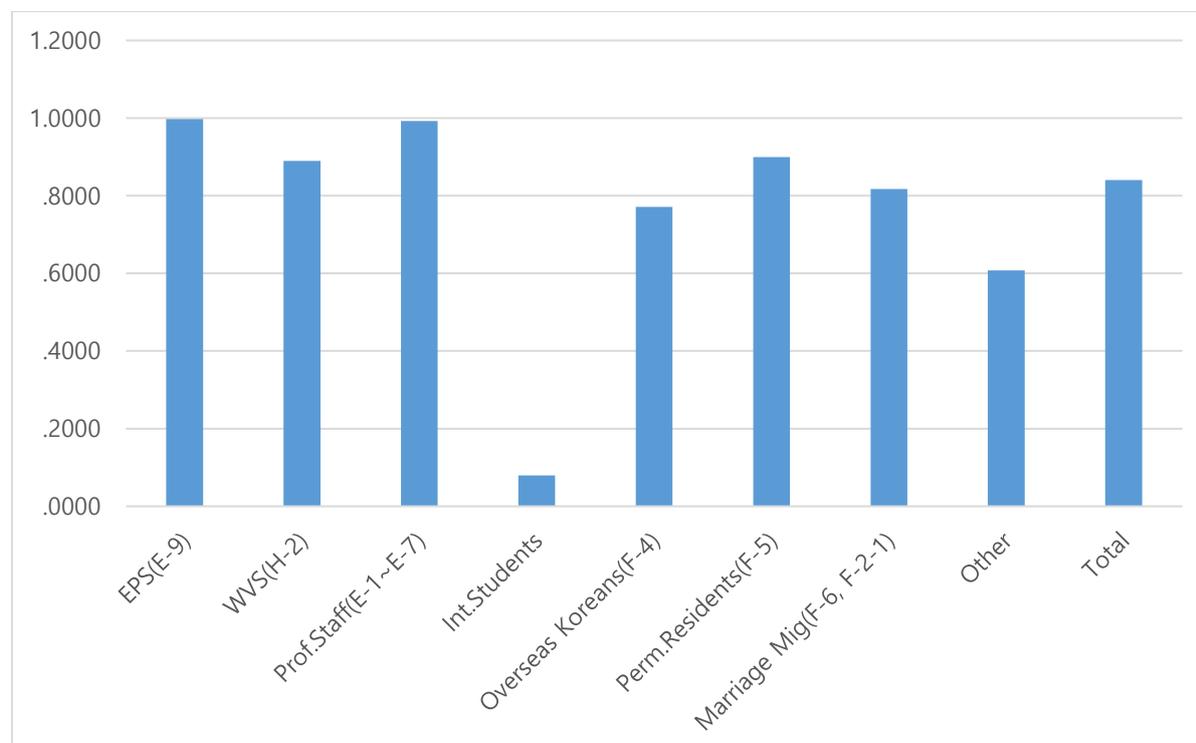


Source: 2015 Foreign Labor Force Survey

1. Labor force participation of migrants aged 20-64

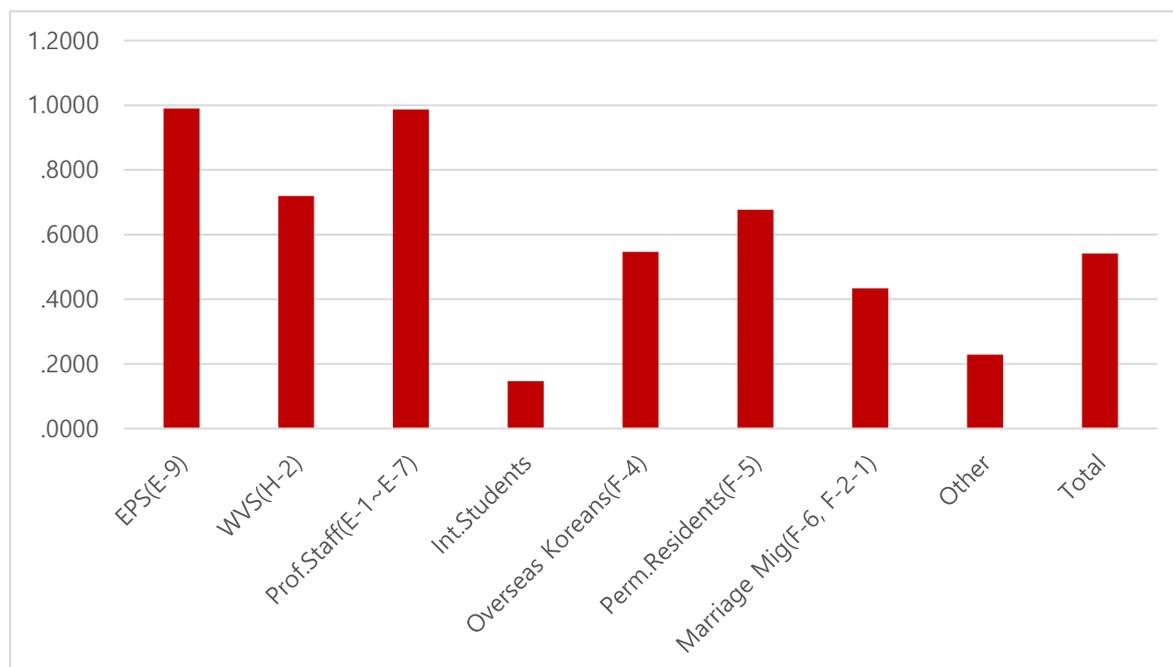
Examining the labor force participation rate of migrants aged between 20 and 64 from the 2015 Foreign Labor Force Survey, it completely depends on their visa status, regardless of gender (Figures 5-6 and 5-7). Nearly 100% of migrants who are non-professional employment (E-9) or professional staff visa holders are in the labor market; in other words, their labor force participation rates are almost 100%. Most Working Visit (H-2) visa holders are working in Korea: 89% of those men and 72% of those women are employed. Thus far, labor force participation is highly dependent on their visa types. It is reasonable to expect high labor force participation for employment-related migrants. However, it is not true for other non-employment-visa statuses. The labor force participation rate for male marriage migrants is 82%, but it is 43% for marriage migrant women. As for international students, 8% of males and 15% of females are employed.

Figure 5-6 Labor force participation rate of male migrants (aged 20-64) by visa status, 2015



Source: 2015 Foreign Labor Force Survey

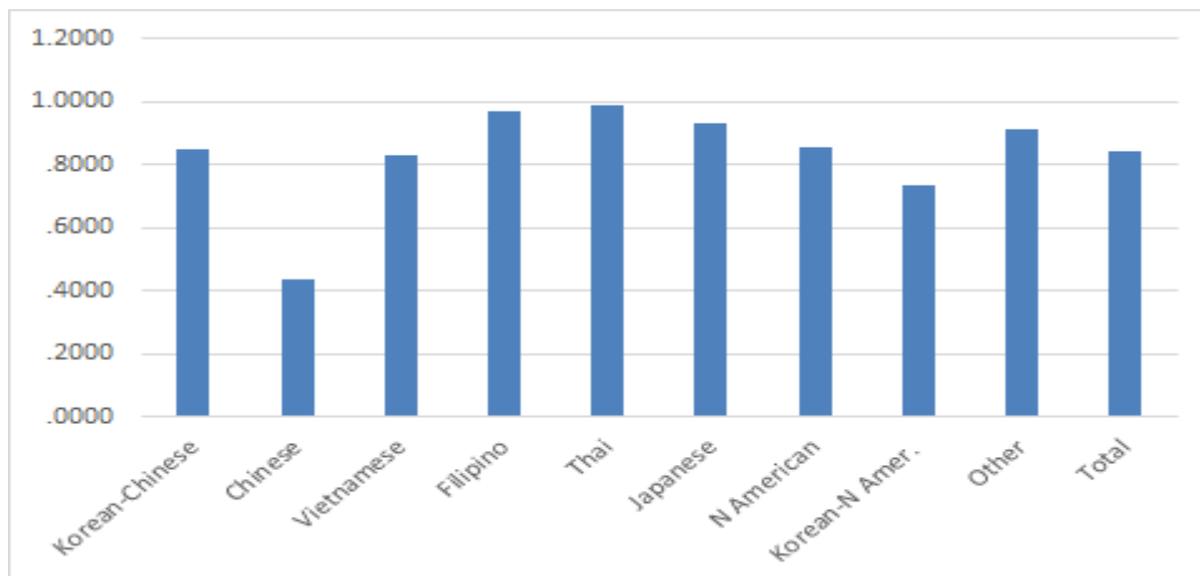
Figure 5-7 Labor force participation rate of female migrants (aged 20-64) by visa status, 2015



Source: 2015 Foreign Labor Force Survey

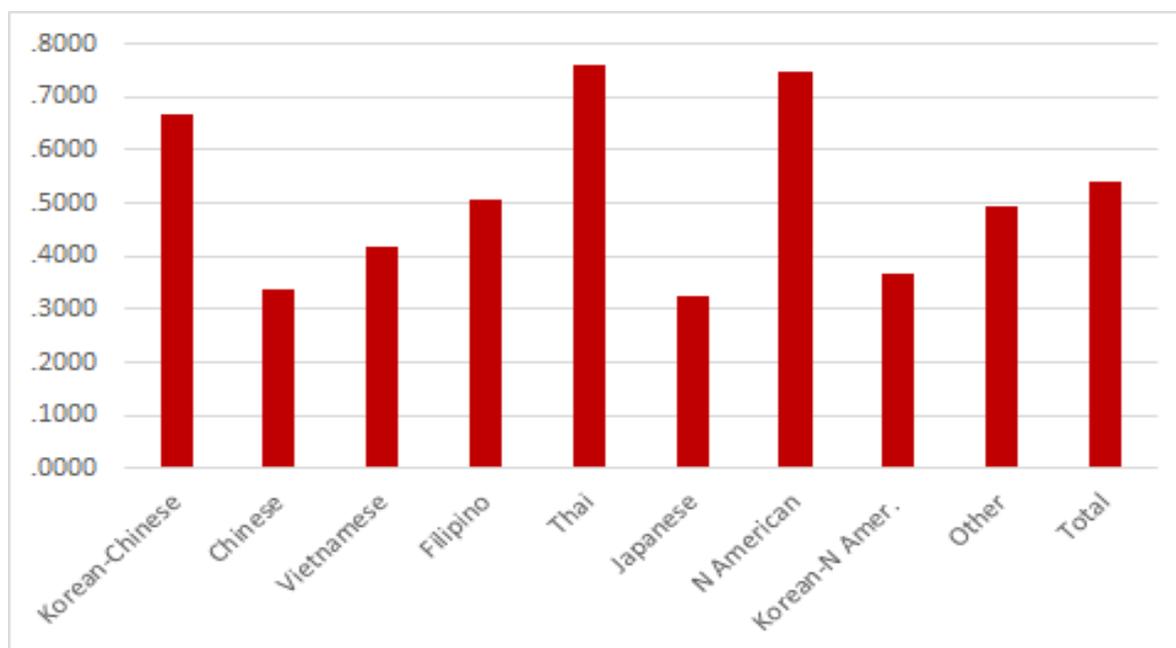
Figures 5-8 and 5-9 show the labor force participation rates of male and female migrants by country of origin. It seems that labor force participation rates vary by country of origin. However, this is due to the fact that: 1) the visa status of migrants should affect labor force participation, and 2) certain nationality groups are concentrated in certain visa statuses, for example, most Korean-Chinese are either Working Visit (H-2) or overseas Korean visa holders, most Chinese are international students, while most South-East Asians are non-professional employment (E-9) visa holders. Thus, the reality is that the labor force participation of migrants in Korea does not depend on their source country but on their visa status. In other words, in the case of males, non-professional employment (E-9) visa holders (mostly Thais and Filipinos) and professional staff visa holders (mostly North Americans) show nearly 100% labor force participation. Chinese men, who are mainly international students, show the least labor force participation. In the case of women, non-professional employment (E-9) visa holders (Thai women) and professional staff visa holders (North American women) show the highest labor force participation, followed by Working Visit (Korean-Chinese women). Regarding Japanese women, as the relative proportion of marriage migrants is higher than any employment visa status, their labor force participation rate is the lowest.

Figure 5-8 Labor force participation rate of male migrants (aged 20-64) by country of origin, 2015



Source: 2015 Foreign Labor Force Survey

Figure 5-9 Labor force participation rate of female migrants by country of origin, 2015

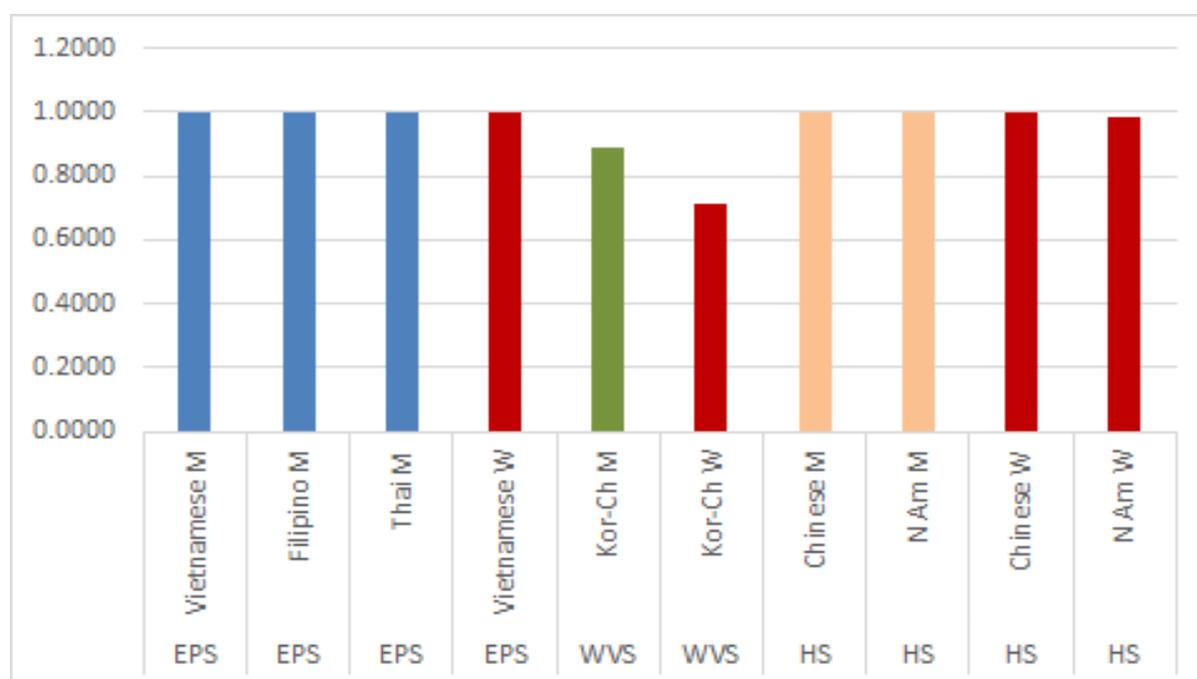


Source: 2015 Foreign Labor Force Survey

Figures 5-10 and 5-11 show the labor force participation rate of certain visa types for certain ethnic groups by sex. Due to the low number of respondents (approx. 9000) for the Foreign Labor Force Survey, it is very difficult to divide them into their visa status, nationality, and sex at the same time. The sample size is too small to allow this. Therefore, these figures do not

show the results with less than 30 cases actually obtained, without the added weighting. Figure 10 displays an almost 100% labor force participation rate regardless of sex and country of origin for migrants with Employment Permit System (E-9) and Professional Staff (or High-Skilled) visa holders. Korean-Chinese with Working Visit (H-2) visa also show high labor force participation, 89% of those men and 71% of those women are employed. Figure 5-11 shows the case of overseas Koreans and permanent resident visa holders. Additionally, Figure 5-11 displays some nationality and gender differences. For example, the labor force participation of male migrants is higher than that of their female counterparts.

Figure 5-10 Labor force participation rates of EPS, WVS, and Professional Staff visa holders



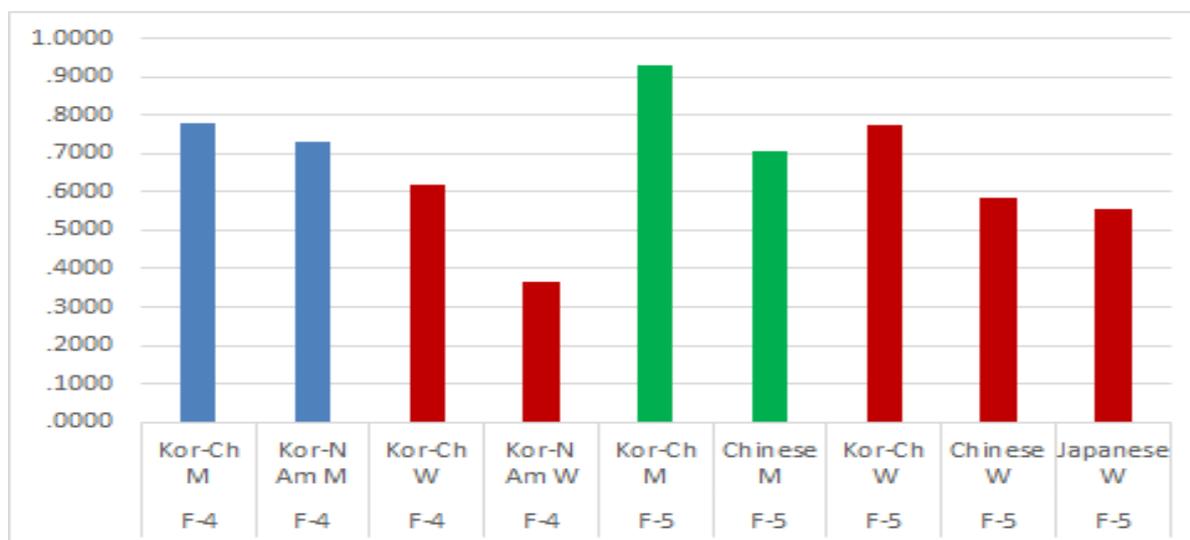
Source: 2015 Foreign Labor Force Survey

As for male marriage migrants, the actual size of the survey does not allow further analysis except for Korean-Chinese men. It is true that male marriage migrants (e.g., Korean-Chinese men) have a higher labor force participation rate than their female counterparts (Figure 5-12). Among female marriage migrants, Figure 5-12 display differences according to source country. Korean-Chinese women (55.2%) have the highest labor force participation rate, followed by Chinese (45.4%), Vietnamese (43.7%), Filipino (35.9%), and Japanese (18.2%) women. Notably, Japanese marriage migrant women show extremely low participation rates.

2. Socio-demographic characteristics of migrants aged 20-64 by source country

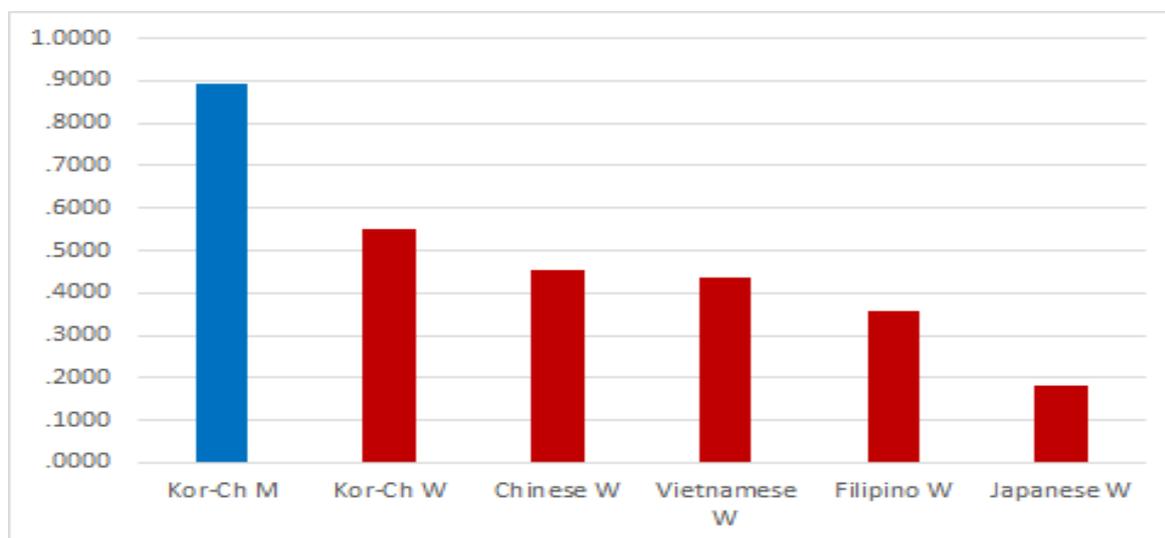
Since the 2015 Foreign Labor Force Survey included very various sojourners, including international students, whose situations were very different from the other labor migrants. Therefore, this section will analyze the data excluding international students. Marriage migrants will also be excluded in this section, because their number of cases are too small to analyze in depth.

Figure 5-11 Labor force participation rates of overseas Koreans (F-4) and permanent residents



Source: 2015 Foreign Labor Force Survey

Figure 5-12 Labor force participation rates of marriage migrants for certain ethnic groups by sex



Source: 2015 Foreign Labor Force Survey

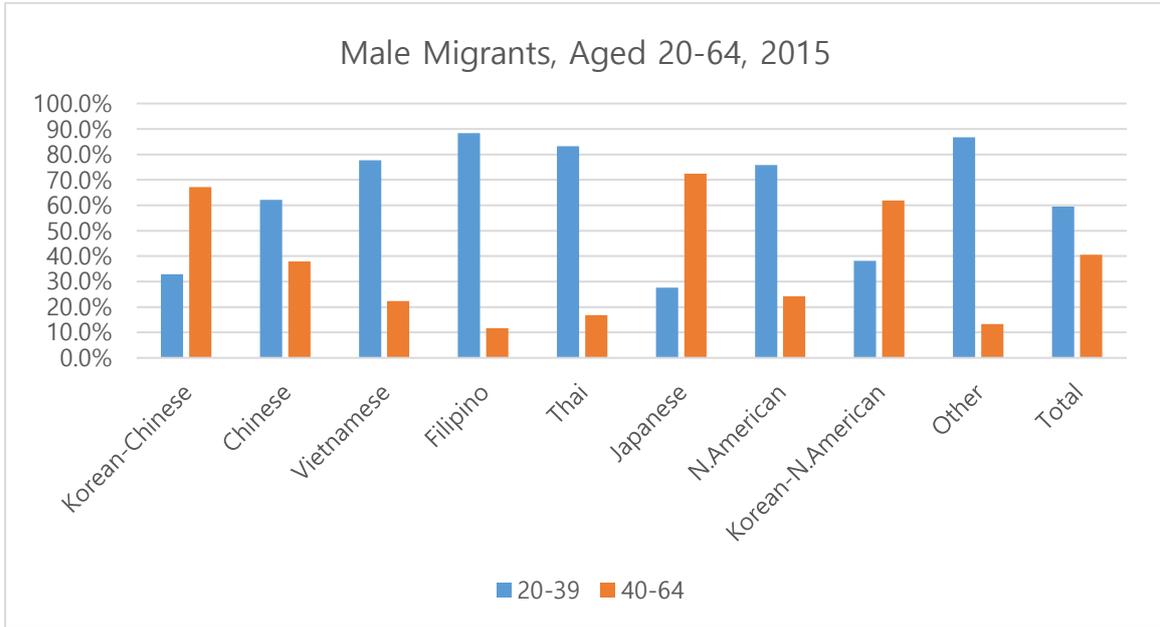
Instead marriage migrants will be analyzed in the latter section of this paper, utilizing other data. Excluding both groups of sojourners from the 2015 Foreign Labor Force Survey, let's examine how the demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of migrants are different by source country. Considering the actual number of cases, this section will compare eight ethnic groups: Korean-Chinese, Chinese, Vietnamese, Filipinos, Thais, Japanese, North Americans, and Korean-North Americans for male migrants. In the case of women, although all of the statistics are shown in the figures below, it is better to focus on Korean-Chinese, Chinese and Vietnamese women because the results for Filipino, Thai and Japanese women were not stable due to the limited number of cases.

1) Age differences

Figure 5-13 examines age differences of migrants. Ages of migrants are divided into two groups: one for a young group (aged 20-39) and the other for a middle-aged group (aged 40-64). Then it is examined how their age differs by nationality. Firstly, in the case of males, there are generally more people in the young group than the middle-aged group. Especially for Filipino, Thai, Vietnamese, and North American men, there are far more young people than middle-aged ones. Unlike these, there are more middle-aged people than young people for Korean-Chinese, Korean-North American, and Japanese men. Thus, it can be said that there tend to be more middle-aged overseas Koreans than young ones. Although Japanese male migrants are not overseas Koreans, they are more middle-aged Japanese males than from other nationalities.

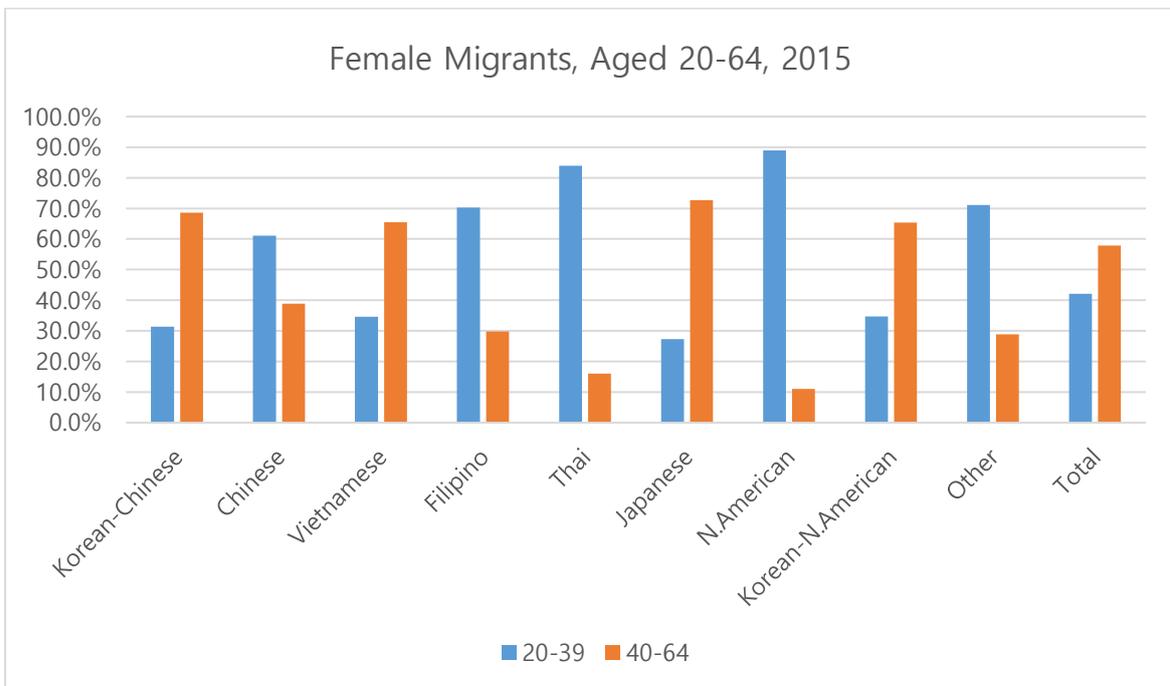
Figure 5-14 displays migrant women's ages. There are more middle-aged immigrant women compared to male immigrants. Especially for Korean-Chinese, Korean-North American, Japanese, and Vietnamese women, there are more middle-aged people. Like male migrants, it is true that there tend to be more middle-aged co-ethnic women. Since 33% of Japanese women are overseas Koreans and since they immigrated to Korea in relatively earlier periods (before the 1990s), there are now more middle-aged people. It is interesting to note that there are more middle-aged (40-64 years old) Vietnamese women. Since marriage migrants can invite their parents, many middle-aged Vietnamese women in Figure 5-14 seem to be visiting mothers of those marriage migrants.

Figure 5-13 Proportion of age groups among male migrants (aged 20-64) by ethnicity or nationality, 2015



Source: 2015 Foreign Labor Force Survey

Figure 5-14 Proportion of age groups among female migrants (aged 20-64) by ethnicity or nationality, 2015

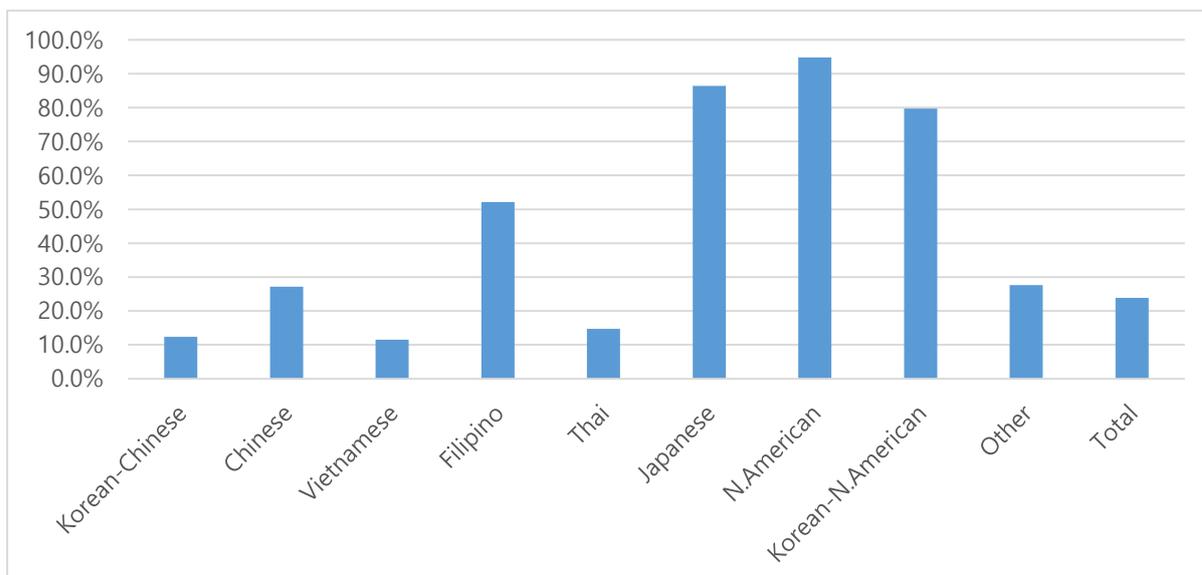


Source: 2015 Foreign Labor Force Survey

2) Levels of education

As for males, highly-educated people with some college education are in the order of North American (95%), Japanese (86%), Korean-North American (80%), Filipino (52%), Thai (15%), Chinese (27%), Korean-Chinese (12%), and Vietnamese (12%) (Figure 5-15). As for women, highly educated with some college education are in the order of North American (99%), Korean-North American (80%), Japanese (64%), Thai (47%), Filipino (44%), Chinese (31%), Korean-Chinese (18%), and Vietnamese (7%) (Figure 5-16). While only 15% of Thai migrant men are highly educated, the comparable proportion for Thai migrant women is 47%, which is more than three times higher. As we mentioned before, due to the limited number of cases for Thai women in the data, the results should not be emphasized.

Figure 5-15 Proportion of male migrants with some college education by nationality, 2015

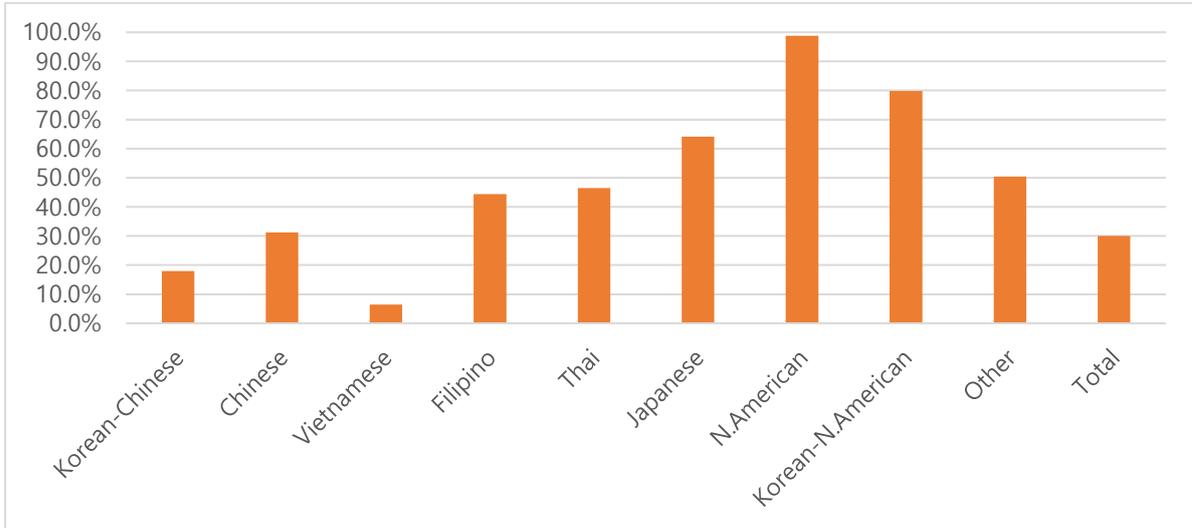


Source: 2015 Foreign Labor Force Survey

3) Marital status

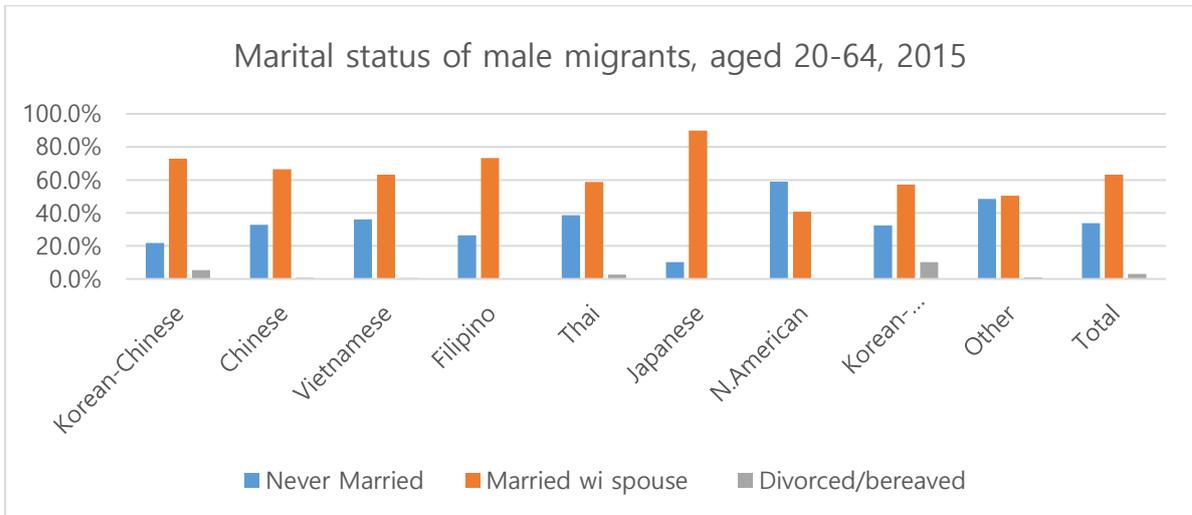
Figure 5-17 is about the marital status of male migrants, and it shows that most are married but especially for Japanese (90%), Filipino (73%), and Korean-Chinese (73%) men show high marriage rates. There aren't many divorces and separations by death, but about 10% of Korean-North Americans underwent divorces or bereavement. Single people are most frequent in the order of North American (59%), Thai (39%), Vietnamese (36%), Chinese (33%), and Korean-North American (33%) men.

Figure 5-16 Proportion of female migrants with some college education by source country, 2015



Source: 2015 Foreign Labor Force Survey

Figure 5-17 Marital status of male migrants by source country, aged 20-64, 2015

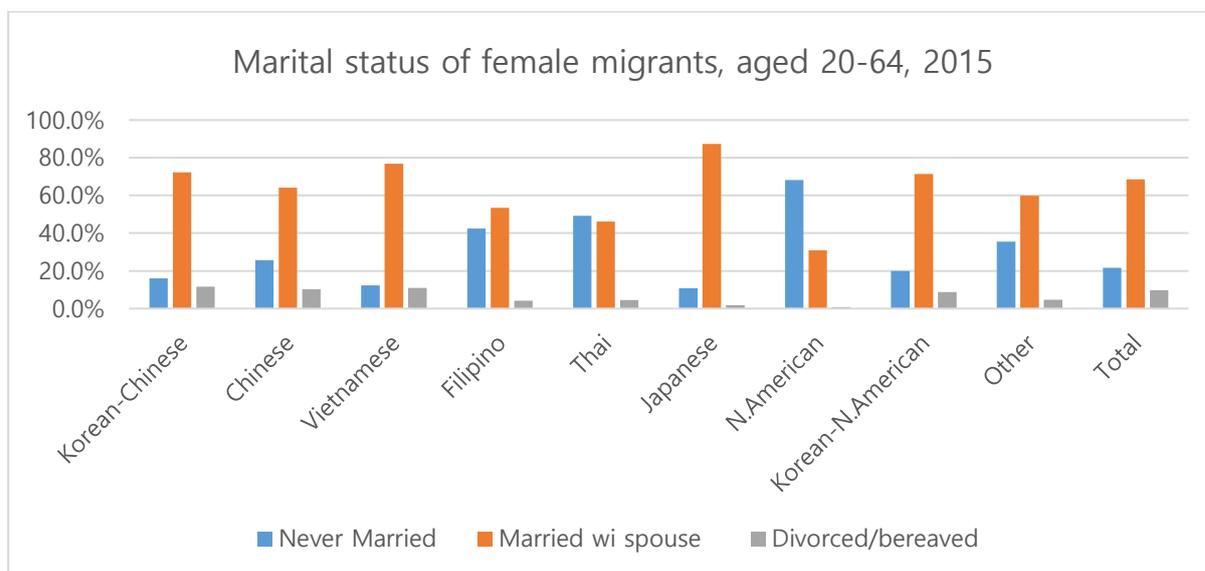


Source: 2015 Foreign Labor Force Survey

Most women are married as well (Figure 5-18). Especially, Japanese (87%), Vietnamese (77%), Korean-Chinese (72%), Korean-North American (71%), and Chinese (64%) women show high marriage rates. While the divorce and separation by death rate is very low (3%) for migrant men, it is 10% for migrant women. Especially Korean-Chinese (12%), Vietnamese (11%), and Chinese (10%) women displayed more divorces or bereavement rates. Meanwhile, single women are relatively common among North American (68%), Thai (49%), Filipino

(42%), and Chinese (26%) women.

Figure 5-18 Marital status of female migrants by source country, aged 20-64, 2015



Source: 2015 Foreign Labor Force Survey

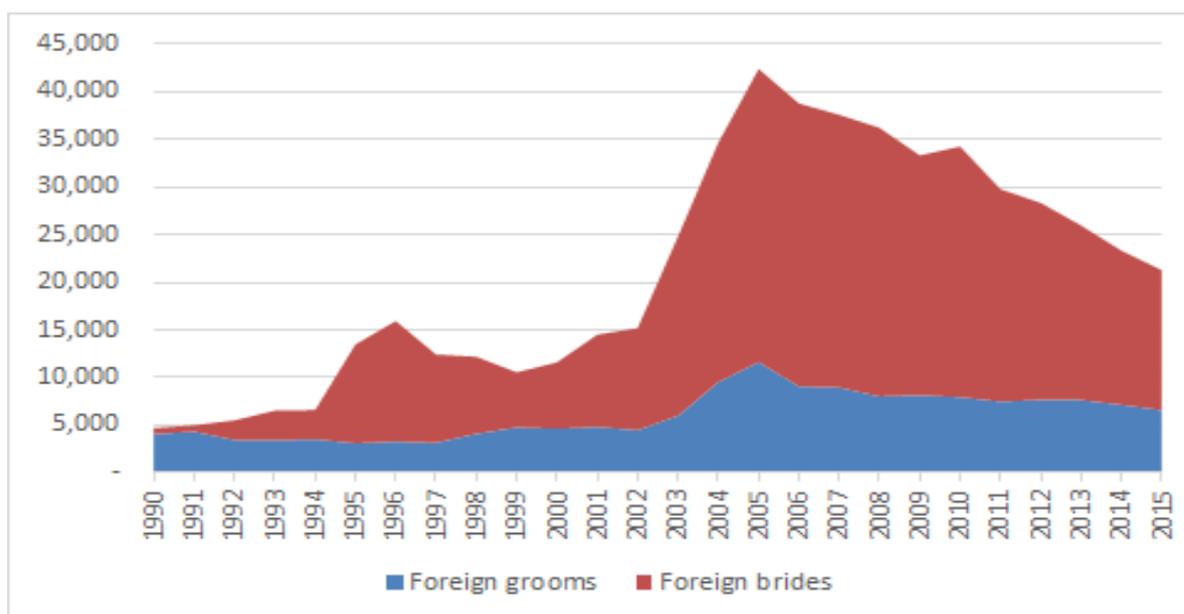
In summary, although the 2015 Foreign Labor Force Survey is meaningful in showing that there are immigrants with various nationalities and visa statuses in the Korean labor market, it is not very meaningful to compare their labor market integration by nationality or ethnicity. The major reasons are: 1) labor market participation and other socio-demographic characteristics depend heavily on the visa status of migrants, 2) visa status also varies significantly by source country, for example, most North-Americans are professional staff visa holders, most Korean-Chinese are either Working Visit (H-2) or overseas Koreans (F-4) visa holders, and most Chinese are international students, while South-East Asians such as Vietnamese, Filipinos and Thais are on the non-professional employment of Employment Permit System (E-9). For example, there is scarcely any labor force participation and any socio-demographic characteristic differences for Vietnamese, Filipino, and Thai men, the majority of whom came through the Employment Permit (E-9) System. In addition, as we noted for Chinese and Japanese male migrants, who frequently belong to the miscellaneous ‘Other’ category in the 2015 Foreign Labor Force Survey, which does not allow for further analysis. Therefore, there is a growing need for future Foreign Labor Force Surveys to divide the miscellaneous ‘Other’ visa category into more detailed categories such as visiting visa and investment visa, etc. In addition, the maximum size of the annual Foreign Labor Force Survey

has been approximately 10,000 people since 2012, when its first survey was conducted. Due to the relatively small numbers of cases, for example, it is difficult to analyze in depth. This means that the relatively small numbers of cases does not allow the migrants to be studied in depth, holding constant their visa status, sex, and country of origin at once. In order to increase the utility of the survey, the number of cases (or respondents) needs to be greatly enhanced to allow in depth analysis.

V. Analysis of the 2012 and 2015 Multicultural Families Surveys

Figure 5-19 shows the trends of marriage migration to Korea. Since the middle of the 1990s, it has become a phenomena affecting migrant women, as marriage migrant women have outnumbered their male counterparts. Regarding marriage migrant women, it illustrates two peaks: the first peak represented Korean-Chinese women while the second involved mainly Vietnamese women (Figure 5-20). Regarding men, it shows only one peak, which involved mainly Chinese men including Korean-Chinese (Figure 5-21). Regarding marriage migrant women, the number of incoming marriage migrant women has been decreasing after peaking at 2005. Therefore, the proportion of international marriages out of total marriages reached a peak of 14% in 2005 then began to decrease thereafter.

Figure 5-19 Inflows of marriage migrants by sex to South Korea, 1990-2015



Source: Statistic Korea (1990–2015) Vital Statistics on Marriage and Divorce, www.kosis.kr

There are several reasons to explain this decrement. The first reason is because since the implementation of the Working Visit System in 2007, the incentive for Korean-Chinese women to come to Korea through marriage migration has diminished significantly. Secondly, the Korean government has passed a law to monitor and regulate matchmaking agencies in 2007 from a free industry to requiring that they register with their respective municipal governments. Since then, there have been several amendments to this law to further regulate matchmaking agencies, as internal and international criticism has grown. For example, under the revised law on marriage matchmaking businesses in 2010, those seeking a foreign spouse must be asked to present certificates of their marital status, health, employment, and criminal records to the marriage agencies. Then, those documents should be translated by the agencies into the language of the prospective foreign spouse.

Thirdly, the visa screening criteria for marriage migration has become more rigorous since 2010, then much more restrictive since 2013. Since 2010, the Ministry of Justice has prepared stricter rules on issuing spousal visas, requiring potential local husbands to take courses on international marriage before inviting their foreign spouses to Korea. Since 2013, the Ministry has also required for potential marriage migrants to have basic Korean language skills and for the potential local spouses certain income and housing criteria. Meanwhile, natives have been restricted to one international marriage every five years.

This situation of decreasing marriage migration is also happening in neighboring Taiwan as well. There are two major reasons for this. First is the more strict regulations regarding marriage migration and the second is, for Taiwan, the official channels for female labor migration, such as foreign domestic or care workers have been expanded.

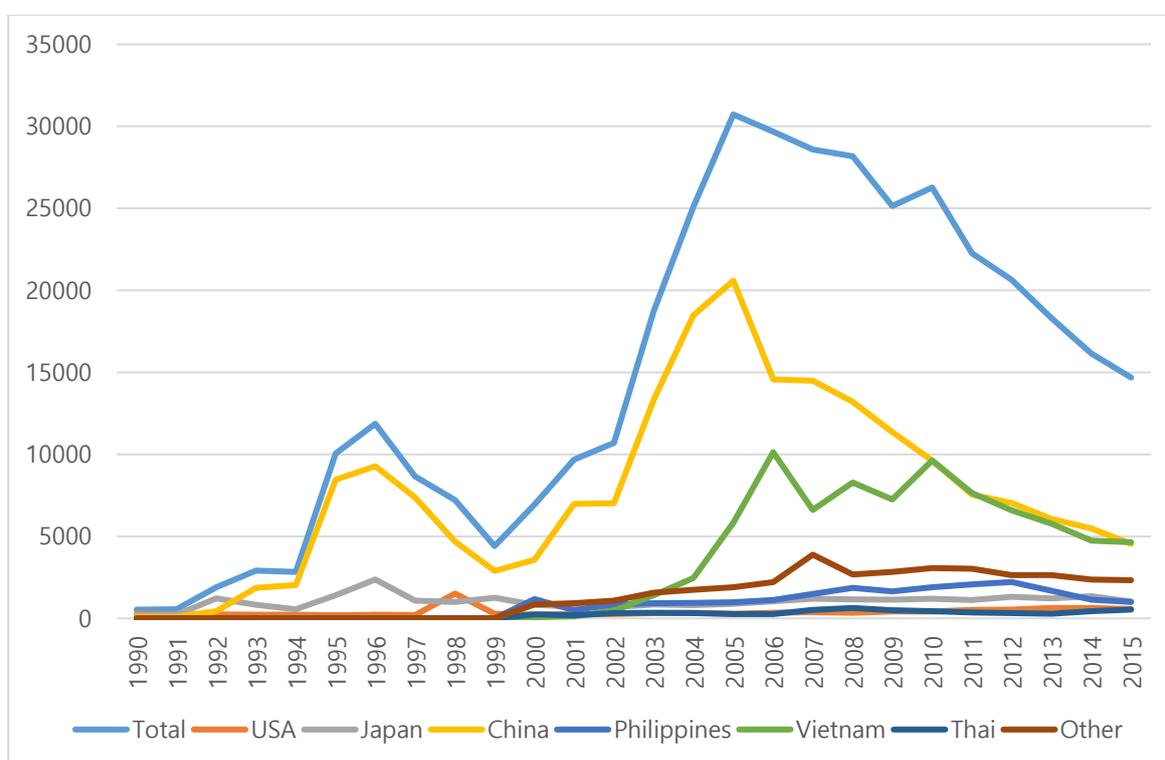
However, due to growing globalization trends, 'long-distance love' between local and foreign people is expected to increase. Although marriage migration for the purpose of immigration have decreased, international marriages between natives and foreigners are expected to continue. The cases of marriage migrants who obtain Korean citizenship, undergo divorce or bereavement, then remarry someone from their mother country are also expected to increase, leading a chain migration phenomenon.

The target groups (or respondents) of the MCF Surveys are members of multicultural families, and since the amendment of the Multicultural Families Support Act in April 2011, families composed of marriage migrants with native Koreans as well as families composed of

naturalized Koreans with native Koreans (naturalized Korean + Korean), and families composed of naturalized Koreans with immigrants (naturalized Korean + naturalized Korean, or naturalized Korean + foreigner) are considered multicultural families. Through this, families in which both (or either) husband and (or) wife who have Korean citizenship but were not born in Korea, are now considered a type of multicultural family. Therefore, it is expected that the number of these new types of multicultural families composed of both spouses who are from abroad will increase.

Figure 5-20 shows the nationalities of marriage migrant women who entered Korea. While most were from China until 2004, the nationalities of marriage migrant women have begun to diversify further to include Vietnamese, Thai, and Mongolian women since 2004. Figure 5-21 displays the nationalities of foreign grooms who marry with locals. The major nationalities were Japanese and Americans between 1990 and 2002. Since 2003, the number of foreign grooms from China has greatly increased to reach a peak at 2005, then decreased thereafter. Like marriage migrant women, the nationalities of foreign grooms have begun to diversify further to include people from Canada, Australia, and many European countries. Recently, American men, who have been showing a decreasing trend, are increasing again.

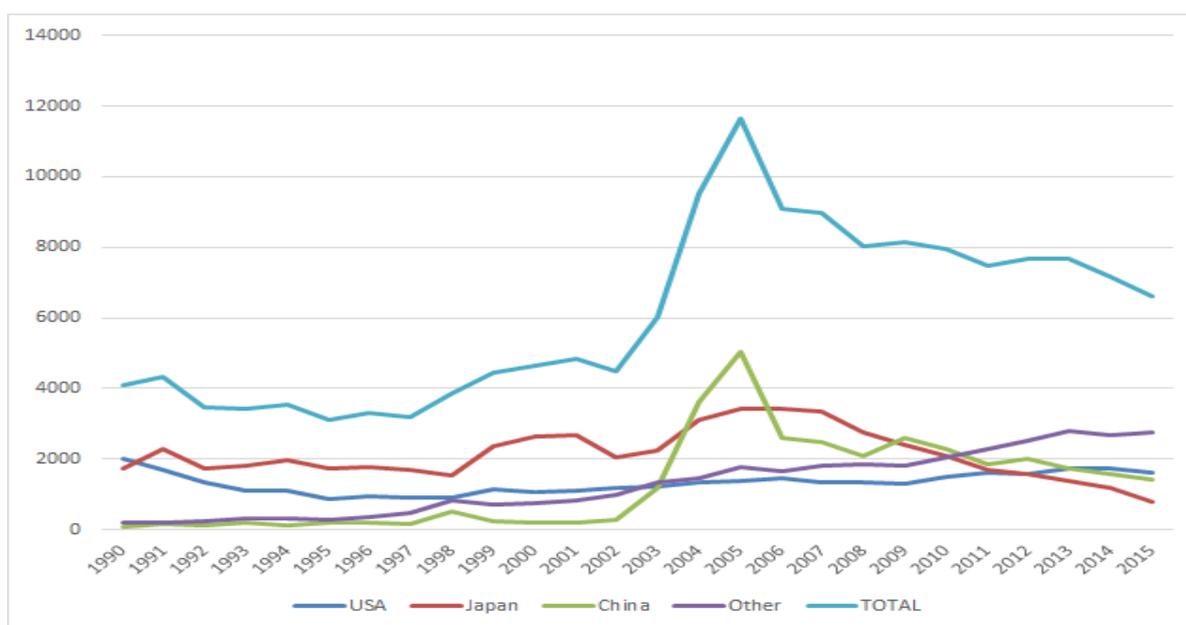
Figure 5-20 Inflows of female marriage migrants to South Korea, 1990-2015



Source: Statistic Korea (1990–2015) Vital Statistics on Marriage and Divorce, www.kosis.kr

In order to compare the labor market integration of marriage migrant women, we will analyze their labor force participation and labor market situation in depth, and how those vary according to country of origin, using both 2012 and 2015 MCF Survey data. The analysis will be focused on marriage migrant women with spouses present between the age of 20 and 64.

Figure 5-21 Inflows of male marriage migrants to South Korea, 1990-2015



Source: Statistic Korea (1990–2015) Vital Statistics on Marriage and Divorce, www.kosis.kr

1. Socio-demographic characteristics of marriage migrant women with spouses present, aged 20-64

Table 5-2 compares age, level of education, and location of residence of local married women and marriage migrant women. The statistics for local women are from the Economic Activity Surveys for local people in 2012 and 2015, while those for marriage migrant women are from the 2012 and 2015 MCF Surveys. Regarding their ages, marriage migrant women tend to be younger (20s and 30s) than native wives and the smaller middle-aged generation (over age 40). Due to an aging phenomenon, the number of young native women have slightly decreased and those in their 50s and over have slightly increased between 2012 and 2015. In the case of marriage migrant women, the number of young women in their 20s has slightly decreased and those 30 and over have slightly increased, as the scale of the inflow has decreased recently.

As for the level of education, it is generally lower for marriage migrant women compared to

native wives: specifically there are twice the number of middle school only graduates for marriage migrant women. While the proportion of high school graduates is similar between the local and migrant women, that of highly-educated people with some college education is 13~14% less for marriage migrant wives than native wives both in the 2012 and 2015 periods. The level of education for marriage migrant women, however, has slightly increased from 2012 to 2015. For example, the proportion of marriage migrant women with some college education increased from 21% in 2012 to 24% in 2015. Comparing the location of residence in terms of living in urban and rural areas, there are about 10~12% more marriage migrant women living in rural areas than native wives.

2. Labor force participation of marriage migrant women

Comparing labor force participation rates from Figure 5-22, both marriage migrant and native women showed increases in their employment between 2012 and 2015. However, in those three years, the increment is far greater for marriage migrant women than native women. Although it is only a 2% increment for native women, it is 6% for marriage migrant women. Thus, the labor force participation rate of marriage migrant women was 2% higher than local women in 2015.

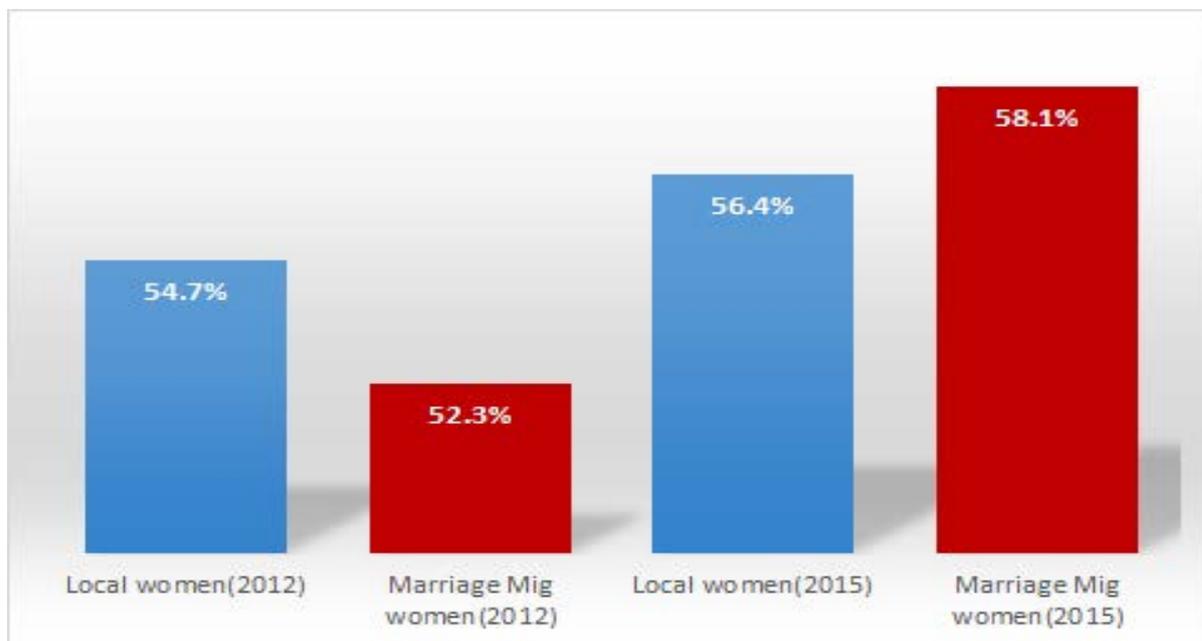
When examining the labor force participation rate by age from Figure 5-23, only marriage migrant women in their 20s years old had less labor force participation than native women in 2012. All the other age groups of marriage migrant women showed higher participation rates than local wives, especially those in their 40s and over. Therefore, the reason that the 2012 MCF Survey showed lower labor force participation rates than the 2015 Survey is because the former Survey had more young people than the latter Survey, which was shown in Table 5-2. In 2015, however, even marriage migrant women in their 20s achieved a slightly higher labor force participation rate than local wives, meaning that the labor force participation of young marriage migrant women including both aged 20s and 30s increased greatly during the three-year period.

When compared according to level of education from Figure 5-24, all categories displayed lower labor market participation for marriage migrant women than native women in 2012. In 2015, however, the participation rates became similar for both extremes (the lowest and highest education levels), while those for middle-educational-level marriage migrant women (middle school or high school graduates) are higher than those for local wives.

Table 5-2 Profile of married women aged 20-64: local and marriage migrants' wives, 2012, 2015

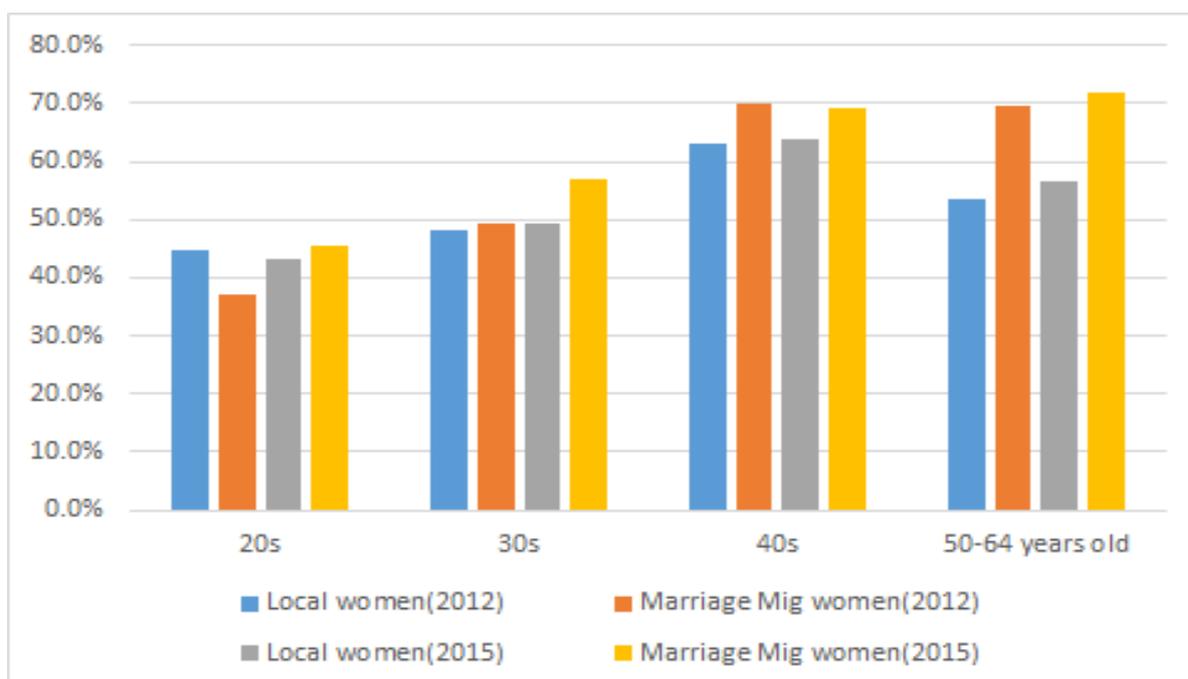
	2012		2015	
	Local Wives	Marriage Migrant Wives	Local Wives	Marriage Migrant Wives
Data	2012 Economic Activity Survey	2012 MCF Survey	2015 Economic Activity Survey	2015 MCF Survey
N	11,235,028	201,671	11,203,587	214,042
AGE				
20-29	5.6%	32.6	4.7	29.0
30-39	27.3%	33.5	25.1	36.8
40-49	32.4%	23.5	31.6	22.1
50-64	34.8%	10.5	38.6	12.1
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
EDUCATION				
Below ele.sch	9.6%	9.3	6.9	8.6
Mid.sch grad.	12.6%	23.5	10.9	23.1
HS graduate	43.7%	46.0	43.8	43.0
Some college	34.1%	21.2	38.5	24.3
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
PLACE OF RESIDENCE				
Urban	84.0%	73.6	84.2	72.4
Rural	16.0%	26.4	15.8	27.6
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Figure 5-22 Labor force participation of marriage migrant and local wives, aged 20-64, 2012, 2015



Source: Local women: Economic Activity Survey, 2012, 2015
 Marriage migrant women: MCF Survey, 2012, 2015

Figure 5-23 Labor force participation rate of marriage migrant and local wives by age, 2012, 2015

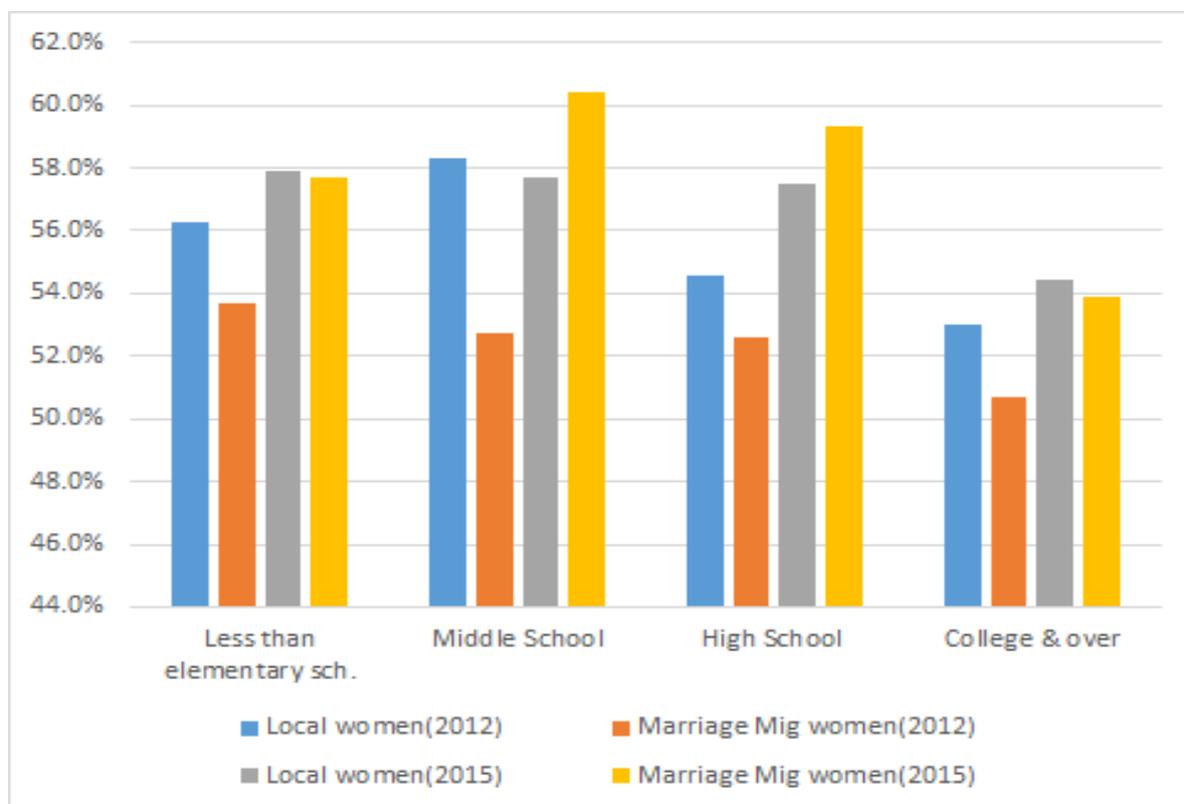


Source: Local women: Economic Activity Survey, 2012, 2015
 Marriage migrant women: MCF Survey, 2012, 2015

Comparing labor force participation rates in regards to area of residence from Figure 5-25, local wives living in urban areas tended to show lower participation rates than those in rural areas. It is because there are many more unpaid-family workers in rural areas than in urban areas. Although this pattern was not found for marriage migrant women in 2012, it became true in 2015. In any case, the labor force participation of marriage migrant women improved significantly more in rural than in urban areas in the three-year period.

As shown in Figure 5-22, while local wives had only a 1.7% increase in their labor force participation rate in the three-year period, the marriage migrant women’s labor force participation rate increased by 5.8%. Figures 5-23 to 5-25 show that remarkable improvement occurred especially for the younger generation (20s and 30s), middle-educational levels (middle and high school graduates), and marriage migrant women residing in rural areas.

Figure 5-24 Labor force participation rate of marriage migrant and local wives, aged 20-64 by education, 2012, 2015



Source: Local women: Economic Activity Survey, 2012, 2015
 Marriage migrant women: MCF Survey, 2012, 2015

Figure 5-25 Labor force participation rate of marriage migrant and local wives, aged 20-64 by area of residence, 2012, 2015



Source: Local women: Economic Activity Survey, 2012, 2015
Marriage migrant women: MCF Survey, 2012, 2015

3. A comparison of labor force participation by ethnicity or source country

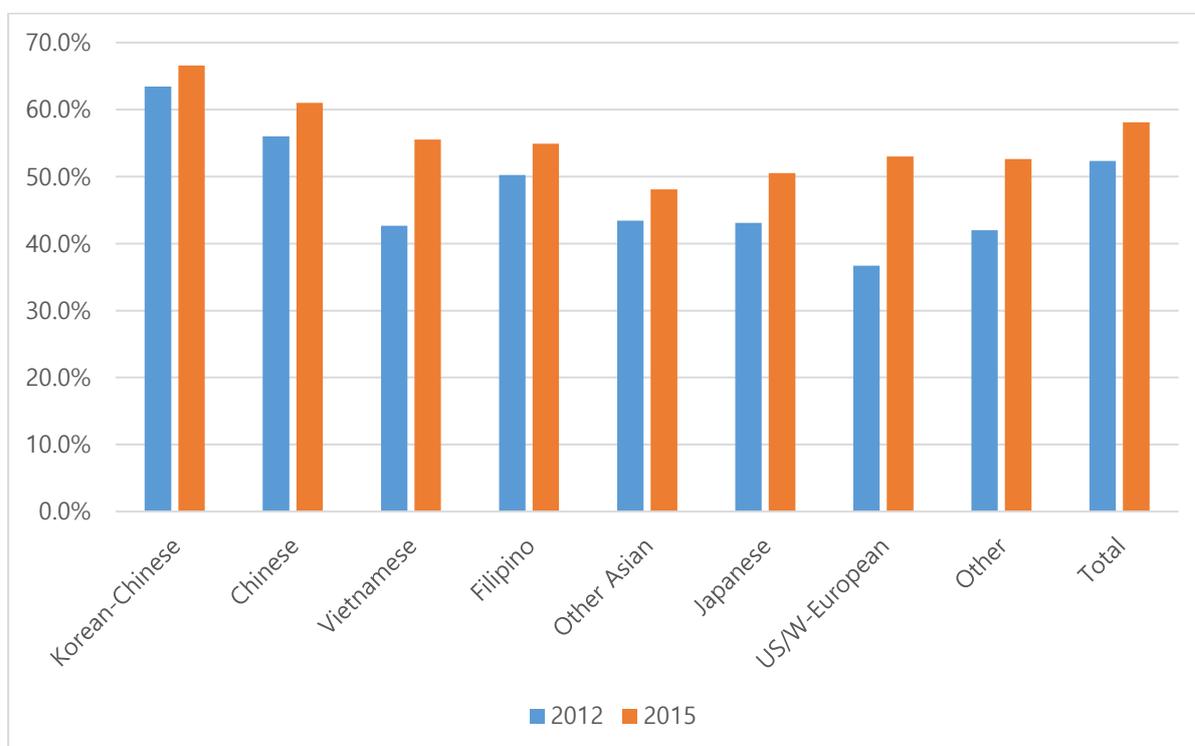
Comparing labor force participation rates according to source country from Figure 5-26, the marriage migrant group that displayed the greatest change is American and Western European women, with an increase of almost 20%. This is followed by Vietnamese (13%) and Japanese (9%) women. As the sample size was not adequate in the case of American and Western European women, we chose to focus on the remarkable increase in Vietnamese and Japanese women below.

Since it is believed that naturalized migrants have showed better labor force participation than non-naturalized ones, Figure 5-27 displays the labor force participation rate for non-naturalized and naturalized marriage migrant women separately. According to Figure 5-27, it is true that naturalization itself improves the participation rate by 16~17% on average both in 2012 and 2015. Regardless of their naturalized status, the improvement of labor force participation is impressive for Japanese and Vietnamese women from this three-year period. Among the non-naturalized marriage migrant women, the highest increment is for women from

the US or Western European countries (17%), followed by Vietnamese (8%) and Japanese (7%) women. However, the actual number of American and Western European women with foreign citizenship was only 17 people, so this should not be considered statistically significant. Among naturalized marriage migrant women, the highest increase was for Japanese (18%) and Vietnamese (10%) women.

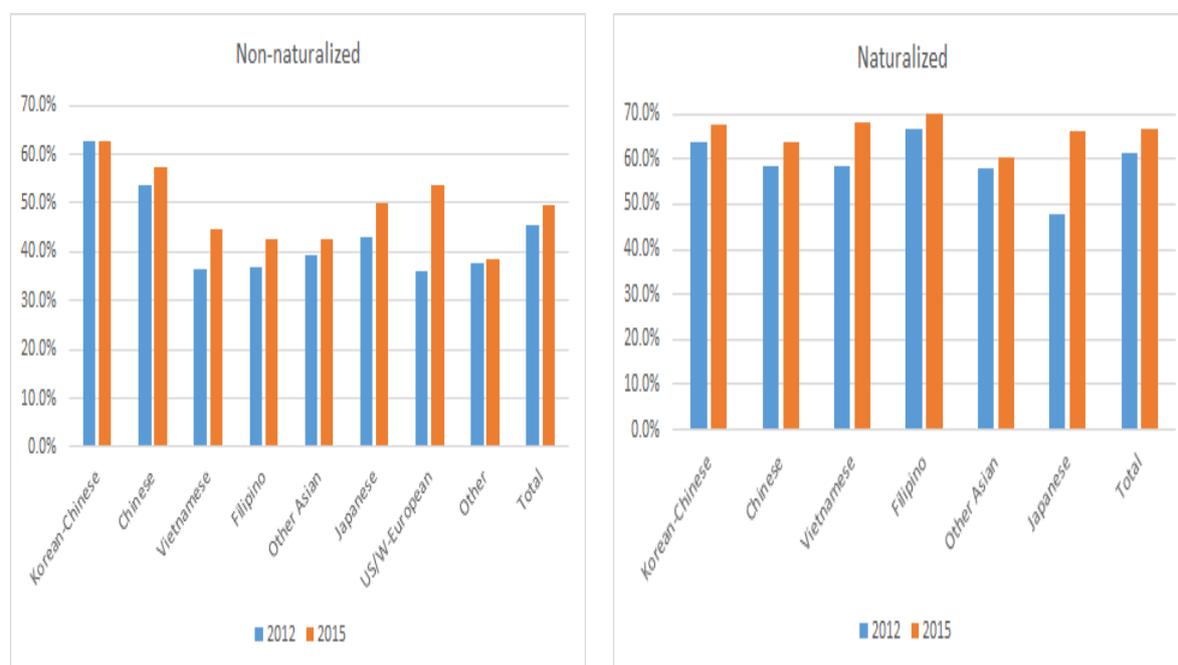
Meanwhile, the actual number of naturalized Japanese women was only 48 people, so the results cannot be emphasized. However, naturalized Vietnamese women were of a sufficient sample size and their participation rate increased by 10%, which is a remarkable improvement. It should be highlighted that Vietnamese women with foreign citizenships' employment rate increased by 8% and naturalized Vietnamese women' employment rate increased by 10% in the three-year period. As for Japanese women, they tended not to obtain Korean citizenship and showed the lowest labor force participation rate in the previous surveys; however, it is still significant that the employment rate of non-naturalized Japanese women increased by 7% in the three-year period. Therefore, it is required to examine what led such remarkable improvement in their labor force participation especially for Vietnamese and Japanese women in the three-year period.

Figure 5-26 Labor force participation rate of marriage migrant women, aged 20-64 by source country, 2012, 2015



Source: MCF Survey, 2012, 2015

Figure 5-27 Labor force participation rate of marriage migrant women, aged 20-64 by their naturalized status, 2012 and 2015

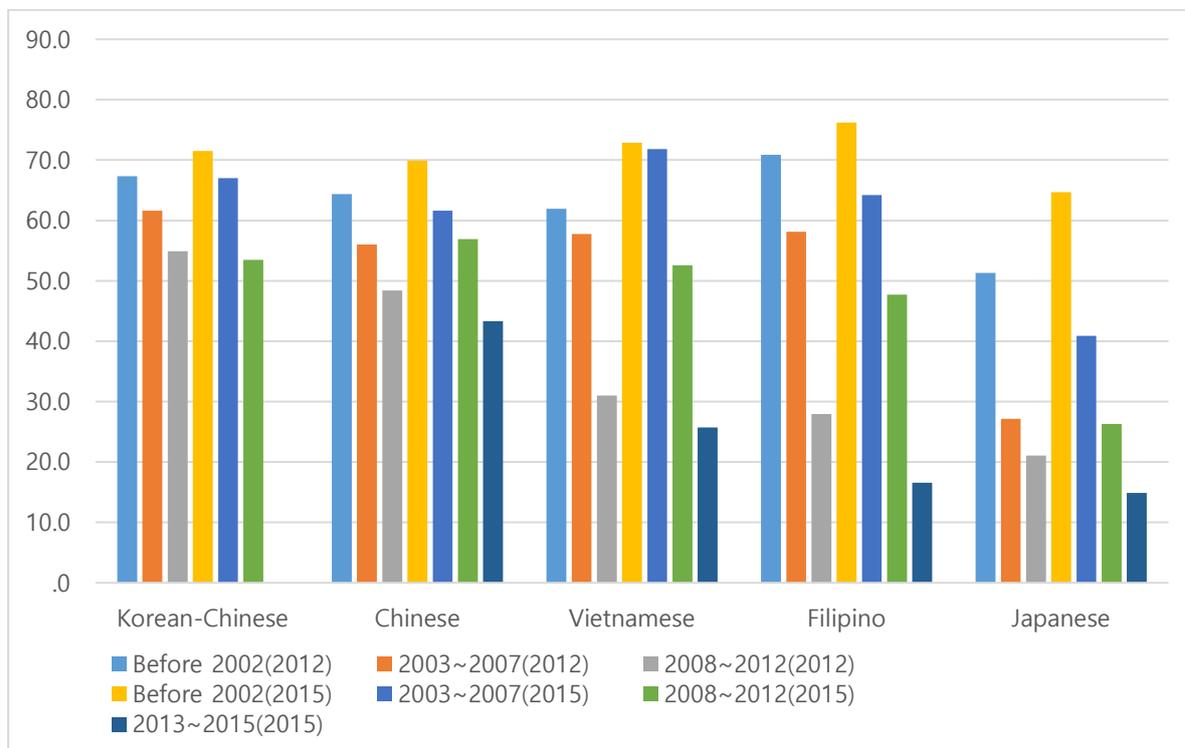


Source: MCF Survey, 2012, 2015

In order to examine this, Figures 5-28 and 5-29 provide the labor force participation rate by their entering period in Korea, which is divided into three periods for the 2012 MCF Survey: 1) entered Korea before 2002; 2) entered between 2003 and 2007; and 3) entered between 2008 and 2012. It is divided into 4 periods for the 2015 MCF Survey: the former three periods are exactly the same as the 2012 Survey, then one more period of those entering Korea between 2013 and 2015 was added.

Excluding some marriage migrant groups whose actual sample size is less than 30 in these detailed periods of their entrance, Figures 5-28 and 5-29 compare only five ethnic or nationality groups: Korean-Chinese, Chinese, Vietnamese, Filipino, and Japanese women. If there are few cases, e.g., Korean-Chinese women who entered Korea between 2012 and 2015, the results are not shown. According to these figures, the labor force participation rate increased as their entry period went further back (or they resided in Korea for a longer period), regardless of nationality. It is reasonable to expect that those who entered Korea recently have the lowest participation rate. As they resided in Korea longer, their labor force participation rate increased.

Figure 5-28 Labor force participation rate of marriage migrant women by their entering period, 2012, 2015

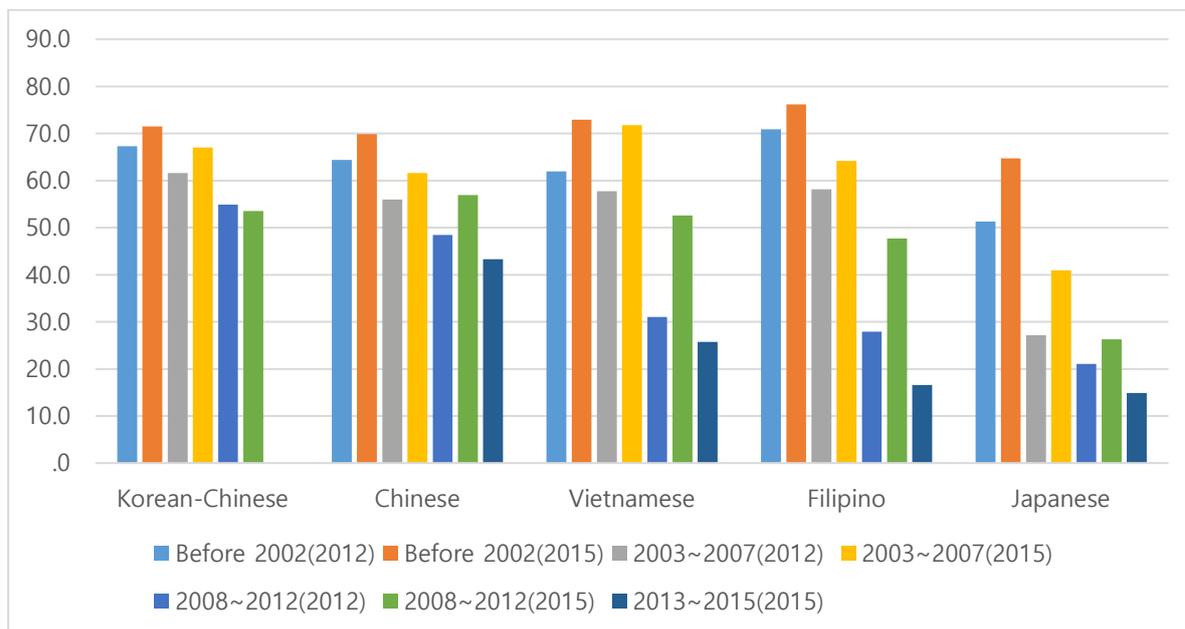


Source: MCF Survey, 2012, 2015

However, the increment is more remarkable for Vietnamese, Filipino, and Japanese women compared to Korean-Chinese and other Chinese women. It seems that the latter two groups tended to show already higher labor force participation rates even when they just entered Korea, over 50% for the Korean Chinese and near 50% for other Chinese women. The labor force participation rate for the former three nationality groups was very low, around 30% or below for Vietnamese, Filipino, and Japanese women who entered Korea within 3-5 years, but it increased greatly once the duration of stay exceeded 3-5 years.

Figure 5-29 changed orders of presentation from Figure 5-28 to facilitate the comparison by entry period between the 2012 and 2015 MCF Surveys. The labor force participation rate increased greatly for all marriage migrant women in the 2015 MCF Survey compared to the 2012 Survey, regardless of nationality. However, the ethnic groups that showed the greatest increase were Vietnamese, Filipino, and Japanese women. The first two South-East Asian women showed a 20% increase especially for those who entered Korea between 2008 and 2012. In the case of Japanese women, the labor force participation rate increased by 14% for those who entered Korea between 2003 and 2007.

Figure 5-29 Labor force participation rate of marriage migrant women by their entering period, 2012, 2015



Source: MCF Survey, 2012, 2015

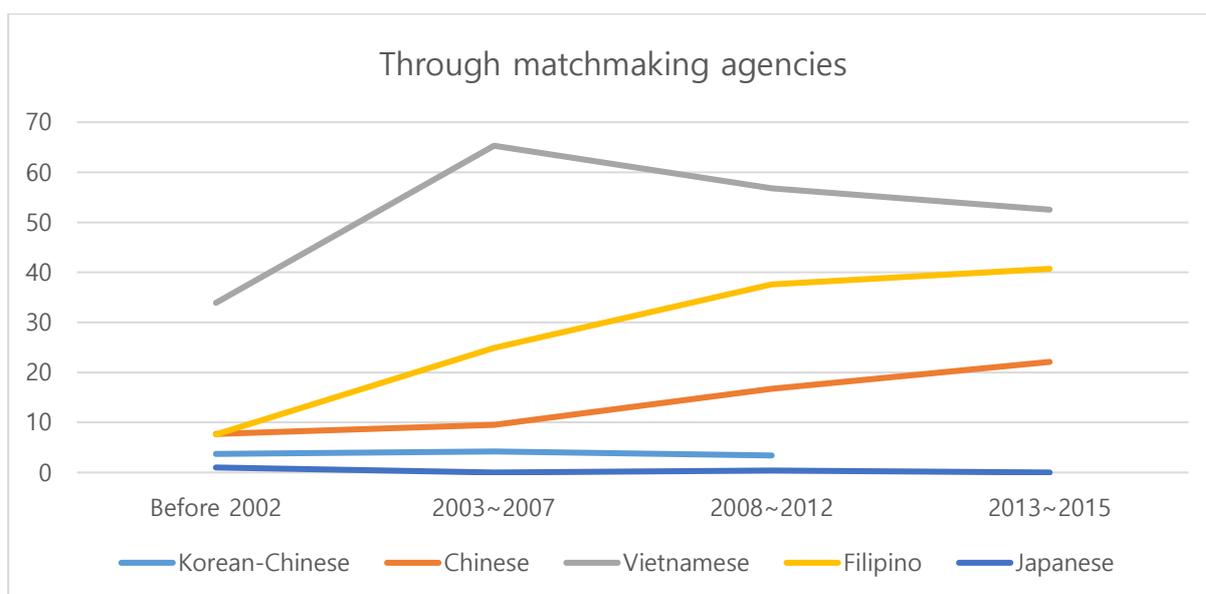
Of course, the MCF Surveys are not cohort data but cross-sectional data, which collected cases by representative random sampling methods at each survey period. Taking into account the fact that some marriage migrant women tended to be excluded from the collecting process as they returned to their own countries after divorce or the death of their husband, it is possible that more successful marriage migrant women remained in Korea as their period of stay became longer. However, the remarkable increase of labor force participation of Vietnamese, Filipino, and Japanese women from the three-year period can be interpreted as a positive result from the so-called “Multicultural Family Policies,” which were introduced in 2006 for the first time, then significantly expanded afterwards. It is interesting to note why the policy impacts vary by nationality as well. Vietnamese and Filipino women who entered between 2008 and 2012 earned the most benefits, followed by Japanese women who entered between 2003 and 2007, while the relative gain is lower for Korean-Chinese and Chinese women.

Until now, Korean-Chinese marriage migrant women were considered to have the highest labor force participation rate of all marriage migrant women, because they have relatively lower barriers from Korean language and culture. However, when analyzed by their entry periods, it is not that true. It means that other marriage migrant women who have entered recently find more difficulties getting a job and display low participation rates. Unlike most other marriage migrant women, more than half of Korean-Chinese and nearly 50% of Chinese

women obtained employment opportunities shortly after entering Korea. However, as the duration of stay is prolonged, Vietnamese and Filipino women, with the exception of Japanese women, almost overtake Korean-Chinese and Chinese women’s labor force participation rates. Thus, examining from entry year separately, the advantages of Korean-Chinese and Chinese women seem to disappear.

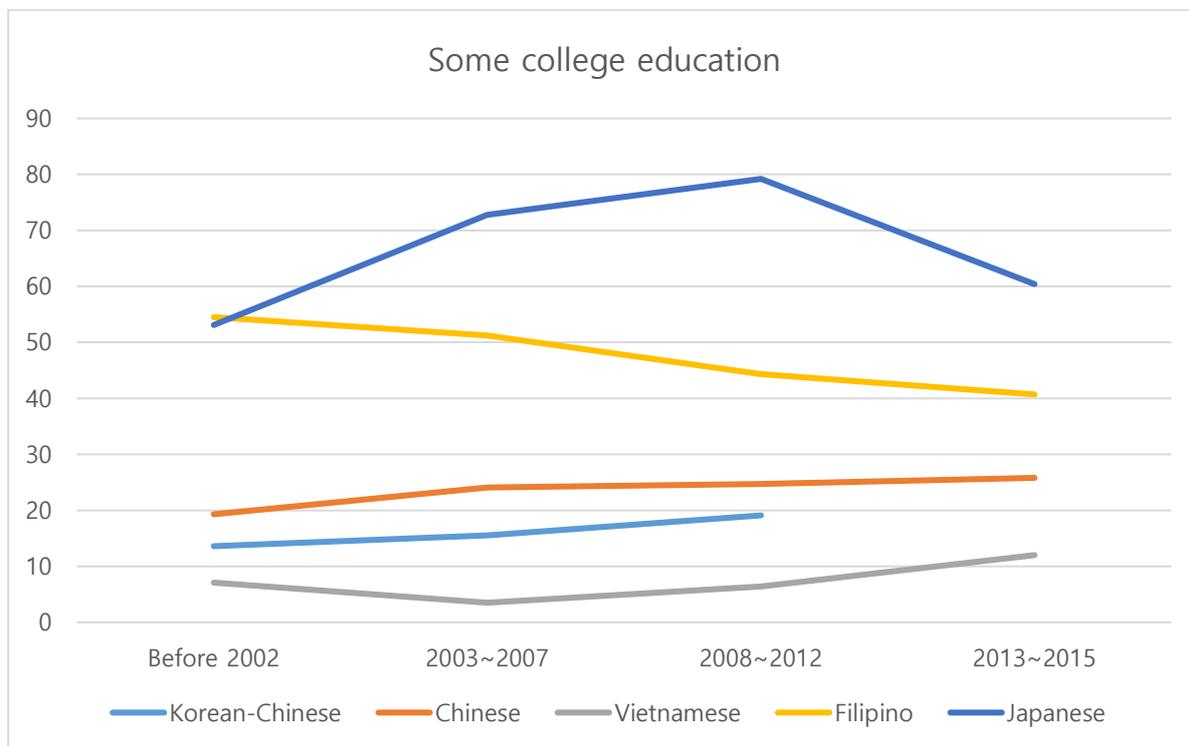
The high labor force participation rates of marriage migrant women in the 2015 MCF Survey compared to the 2012 one, peak one’s curiosity regarding what qualitative changes there were for the incoming marriage migrant women. To investigate this, the ratio of marriage through matchmaking agencies and the ratio of some college education were examined and the results are shown in Figures 5-30 and 5-31. Figure 5-30 shows that the proportion of marriages through matchmaking agencies varied greatly according to source country. It is the highest for Vietnamese women, followed by Filipino and Chinese women. As for Korean-Chinese and Japanese women, they mostly married through other methods, but rarely ever by matchmaking agencies. In the case of Vietnamese women, they had the highest rate (65%) of such matchmaking-agency marriages for those who enter Korea between 2003 and 2007. From there on, however, such rates decreased for the recent comers (52%). It seems that as the number of Vietnamese marriage migrant women is growing, they tended to introduce their relatives and neighbors to other Korean men.

Figure 5-30 Proportion of marriage migrant women through matchmaking agencies by entry period



Source: 2015 MCF Survey

Figure 5-31 Proportion of marriage migrant women with some college education by entry period



Source: 2015 MCF Survey

Figure 5-31 also displays that there was a huge difference in their educational levels according to country of origin. The proportion of highly-educated people with some college education is the highest for Japanese women, followed by Filipino and Chinese women. Vietnamese women showed the lowest level of education. However, the level of education of Vietnamese women also changed. While the proportion of highly-educated people for both Japanese and Filipino women is decreasing, it is increasing for Vietnamese marriage migrant women. Notably, only 3.5% of Vietnamese women who entered Korea between 2003 and 2007 had some college education, but the proportion of some college education increased to 6.4% for those entered between 2008 and 2012, then it reached 12% for Vietnamese recent-comers who entered Korea between 2013 and 2015.

Considering changes in both Figures 5-30 and 5-31, it can be said that as international marriages through matchmaking agencies have decreased, or as international marriages through meetings or personal introduction have increased, the qualifications (or educational level) of those women has also increased accordingly.

4. Factors affecting labor force participation of marriage migrant women

Let's examine what factors influence the labor force participation of marriage migrant women, using the 2012 and 2015 MCF Surveys. Since the dependent variable in this section is labor force participation, which is a dichotomous variable, where 1 means 'employed' and 0 means 'unemployed,' a binary logistic regression, called a logit model, is used. In the logit model, the log odds of the outcome (labor force participation) are modeled as a linear combination of the independent variables. Statistical jargon aside, the major questions in this section are two: what factors influence the labor force participation of marriage migrant women; and will nationality differences in labor force participation disappear after controlling for some important independent variables? The independent variables are human capital, family situation, immigrant specific characteristics, and source country variables which are illustrated in Table 5-3.

Table 5-3 Definition and measurement of variables

Dependent Variable		
LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION	DLFP	Dummy variable: if a woman worked in the labor market during the survey period, DLFP is scored 1, and 0, otherwise
Independent Variable		
1. HUMAN CAPITAL	DAGE20s	Age of respondent: 1=20-29, 0=otherwise (reference category)
	DAGE30s	Age of respondent: 1=30-39, 0=otherwise
	DAGE40s	Age of respondent: 1=40-49, 0=otherwise
	DAGE50-64	Age of respondent: 1=50-64, 0=otherwise
	DED-elem	Education: 1=below than elementary school, 0=otherwise
	DED-middle sch	Education: 1=middle school graduate, 0=otherwise
	DED-high sch	Education: 1=high school graduate, 0=otherwise
	DED-college	Education: 1=college education, 0=otherwise(reference category)

Independent Variable		
2. FAMILY SITUATION	D-CHILDREN	1=have children below age 5, 0=otherwise for the 2012 MCF Survey
	H-INCOME	Husband's monthly earnings (categories from 0 to 15)
	D-URBAN	1=live in urban area, 0=otherwise
3. IMMIGRATION RELATED VARIABLES		
PERIOD OF STAY IN KOREA	D-LESSTHAN-3YEARS	1=stay in S.K. less than 3 years, 0=otherwise
	D-STAY-3-7YEARS	1= stay in S.K. between 3 and 7 years, 0=otherwise
	D-MORETHAN-8YEARS	1= stay in S.K. more than 8 years, 0=otherwise (reference category)
KOREAN LANGUAGE FLUENCY	Korean Language	Interval variables from 1 to 5: Sum of four responses/4. Korean language fluency in speaking, hearing, reading and writing: Each: a 5-point Likert scale: 1: "very poor" 5: "very good"
NATURALIZATION	D-NATURAILIZED	1=Naturalized, 0=otherwise
4. SOURCE COUNTRY VARIABLE		
SOURCE COUNTRY	D-Korean-Chinese	1=Korean-Chinese, 0=otherwise (reference category)
	D-CHINESE	1=Chinese, 0=otherwise
	D-VIETNAMESE	1=Vietnamese, 0=otherwise
	D-FILIPINOS	1=Filipinos, 0=otherwise
	D-OTHERASIANS	1=Other Asians, 0=otherwise
	D-JAPANESE	1=Japanese, 0=otherwise
	D-US/W-EU	1=the U.S. and Western Europe, 0=otherwise
	D-OTHER	1=Other countries, 0=otherwise

Table 5-4 displays the results of the binary logistic regressions. Firstly, labor market participation of marriage migrant women both in 2012 and 2015 differ by age groupings. In both years, the effects of age are '∩-shaped,' with the lowest participation rate for younger

women in their 20s and the highest rate for women in their 40s, which declined for women aged 50-64. The effect of education was a 'U-shape' in 2012, but a positive relationship in 2015. In other words, in 2012, marriage migrant women with a middle level of education (including both middle school and high school graduates) had the lowest participation rate, but those with both extremities (e.g., the lowest education, or elementary school graduates and below and the highest education, or some college education) tended to work more in the labor market. However, in 2015, marriage migrant women showed higher labor force participation rates with increasing levels of education.

Secondly, having pre-school-age children decreased very significantly the levels of labor market participation for migrant wives in both years. Having pre-school children is generally an important factor to decrease labor market participation of married women in general. The husband's income also has a negative impact on marriage migrant women's employment both in 2012 and 2015. But the impact is much larger in 2015 than in 2012. It can be said that the lower the husband's income, the higher the labor market participation of marriage migrant women. Therefore, the wives' employment (and earnings) is to supplement the husband's income. In relation to the residential effect, rural marriage migrant wives tend to work more outside of the home than their urban counterparts. It is because women in rural areas usually work as an unpaid family workers.

Thirdly, let's examine the effects of immigration-related factors, such as duration of stay, fluency in Korean language, and whether or not they are naturalized. As expected, the effects of all these three immigration-related variables are very important for marriage migrant women's employment. The only difference between 2012 and 2015 is that a duration of stay of less than three years greatly decreased labor market participation in 2012. The effect became a linear relationship in 2015: a longer duration of stay meant a higher labor market participation. Finally, let's examine whether nationality differences for labor force participation would remain or disappear after the important human capital, family situation, and immigration-related characteristics have been controlled (or held constant).

Table 5-4 Binary logistic regression of labor force participation for marriage migrant women, 2012 and 2015

	2012 MCF Survey			2015 MCF Survey		
	Full-model		Step-wise-model	Full-model		Step-wise-model
DAGE30s	.357	**	⑪	.228	**	⑧
DAGE40s	.849	**	⑤	.320	**	⑨
DAGE50-64	.448	**	⑫	.079	**	
DED-elem	.003	ns		-.290	**	⑫
DED-middle sch	-.120	**		-.117	**	
DED-high sch	-.130	**		-.126	**	
D-CHILDREN ^a	-.995	**	①	-.972	**	②
H-INCOME ^b	-.072	**	③	-.243	**	①
D-URBAN	-.234	**	⑦	-.215	**	⑤
D-LESSTHAN-3YEARS	-1.156	**	②	-1.248	**	③
D-STAY-3-7YEARS	-.003	ns		-.121	**	
Korean Language	.099	**	⑨	.075	**	⑦
D-NATURALIZED	.239	**	④	.206	**	④
D-CHINESE	-.014	ns		.114	**	⑪
D-VIETNAMESE	.363	**	⑩	.405	**	⑥
D-FILIPINOS	.166	**		.026	ns	
D-OTHERASIANS	-.024	ns		-.074	**	
D-JAPANESE	-.649	**	⑥	-.259	**	
D-US/W-EU	-.720	**	⑧	.405	**	⑩
D-OTHER	-.176	**		.062	ns	
a (constant)	.496	**		1.809	**	
N	11,502			12,969		
Chi-square	32334.936	**		41978.885	**	

	2012 MCF Survey		2015 MCF Survey	
	Full-model	Step-wise-model	Full-model	Step-wise-model
(d.f.)	(20)		(20)	
-2 Log Likelihood	246801.056		249112.260	
Cox & Snell's R ²	.148		.178	

a: Presence of child below age 9 in 2012 / Presence of child below age 5 in 2015

b: Monthly income of spouse in 2012 /

Expected monthly income of spouse in 2015 = Household monthly income – own monthly income

According to the previously mentioned Figure 5-26, which does not control for any independent variables, Korean-Chinese women had the highest labor market participation rate both in 2012 and 2015; followed by Chinese and Filipino women. While Vietnamese and Japanese women showed the lowest participation levels in 2012, only Japanese women remained at the bottom in 2015, as the labor force participation rate increased for Vietnamese women.

After controlling all independent variables in the model, the results from Table 5-4 are strikingly different from what we observed in Figure 5-26. In 2012, the labor force participation rates of Vietnamese and Filipino women were significantly higher than the reference group, or Korean-Chinese women. In 2015, the labor force participation rates of Vietnamese and Chinese women were significantly higher than Korean-Chinese women. The lowest labor force participation rate for Japanese marriage migrant women remained the same both in 2012 and 2015, although controlling all independent variables.

What is most striking to note that the labor force participation rate of Vietnamese women was the highest among all marriage migrant women, higher than even Korean-Chinese women, both in 2012 and 2015. Chinese women had similar participation rates to Korean-Chinese women in 2012, but achieve higher values in 2015, and in contrast, Filipino women had higher participation rates in 2012 and had somewhat similar level of participation rate of Korean-Chinese in 2015. The only group with a significantly lower labor market participation than Korean-Chinese both in 2012 and 2015 was Japanese women.

Be that as it may, there are still differences according to country of origin even after major

independent variables have been controlled for in Table 5-4. After all major independent variables have been controlled for, Vietnamese women had the highest labor market participation rate, and Han-Chinese women's participation rate increased considerably in 2015 compared to 2012, and Japanese women's participation rate was still the lowest.

Generally, these results are interpreted as the effects of socio-cultural factors according to country of origin remaining, after controlling for some important independent variables. For example, Vietnamese and Chinese women experienced historical events regarding Communism, therefore tending to consider the employment of women as mandatory, whereas Japanese women come from a country of a relatively lower labor market participation rate of women. In the case of Korean-Chinese, determining which reference group they belong in is a complicated issue. Since they resided in China, do they belong in the Chinese group, or since they identify more with Korean culture should they be in the Korean group?

As shown in the full model of Table 5-4, the above analysis controls for all independent variables in the model at once. As a full model, thus, there can be a multi-collinearity problem when there are strong correlations among some independent variables. As duration of stay, Korean language abilities, and naturalization, for example, seem to correlate with each other, the result can be possibly confusing their respective effects. Therefore, the independent variables will be added step by step in a step-wise model in Table 5-4, to investigate the order of their influence. As a result, four important independent variables for the labor market participation of marriage migrant women were determined to be the presence of preschool age children, a duration of stay less than three years, the husband's income, and naturalization in 2012. They were husband's income, presence of preschool age children, duration of stay below three years, and naturalization in 2015. Therefore, these four variables were the most important variables both in 2012 and 2015. However, husband's income became the most important variable in 2015. It can be interpreted that the influence of husband's income increased as there were more varied ranges of husband's income in 2015 than 2012. Among immigrant-related characteristics: duration of stay, Korean language fluency, and naturalization, duration of stay and naturalization were very important whereas Korean language fluency was relatively less important than the former two variables. This is because Korean language fluency depends on ethnicity or nationality. For example, Korean-Chinese has the highest fluency in the Korean language, followed by Chinese, then all the remaining groups had comparably low fluency. The effects of educational levels also became less important in the step-wise model than in the

full-model. This could be the case because they are also correlated with ethnicity or nationality variables, like the Korean language fluency variable.

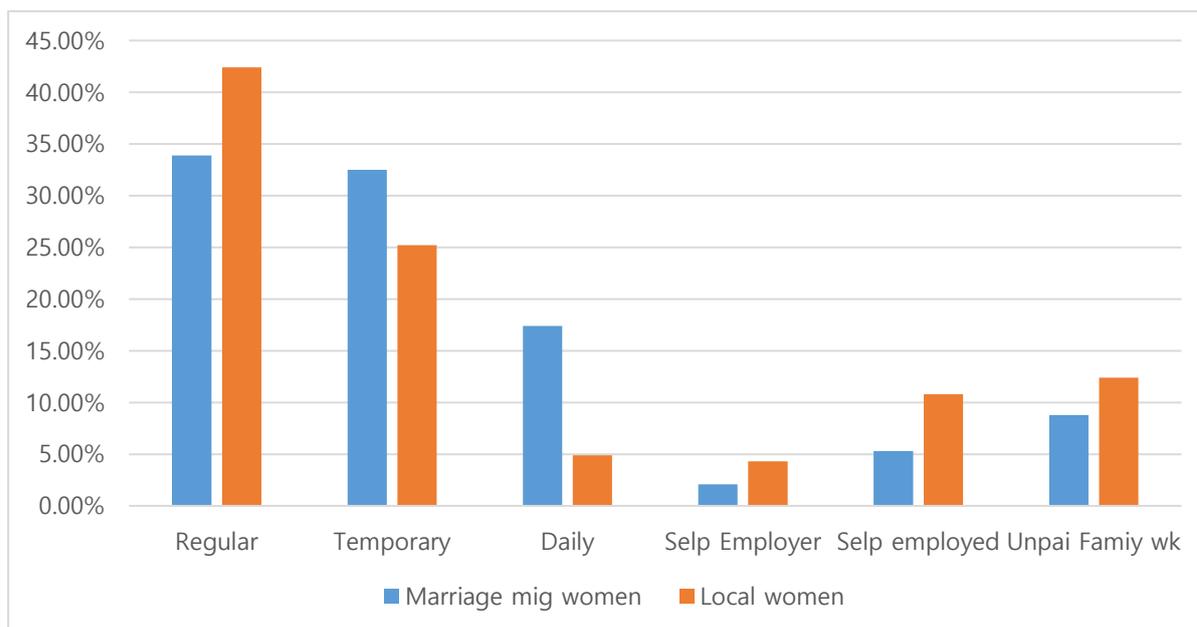
5. Quality of labor market situation of marriage migrant women

Regarding the labor market integration, comparisons between local and marriage migrant women are necessary. Regarding the quality of the labor market situation, this section will examine employment status, occupation, working hours, and earnings of workers between marriage migrant and local wives with spouse present aged 20-64. Then further comparisons are also made among female marriage migrant workers by ethnicity or source country.

1) Employment status

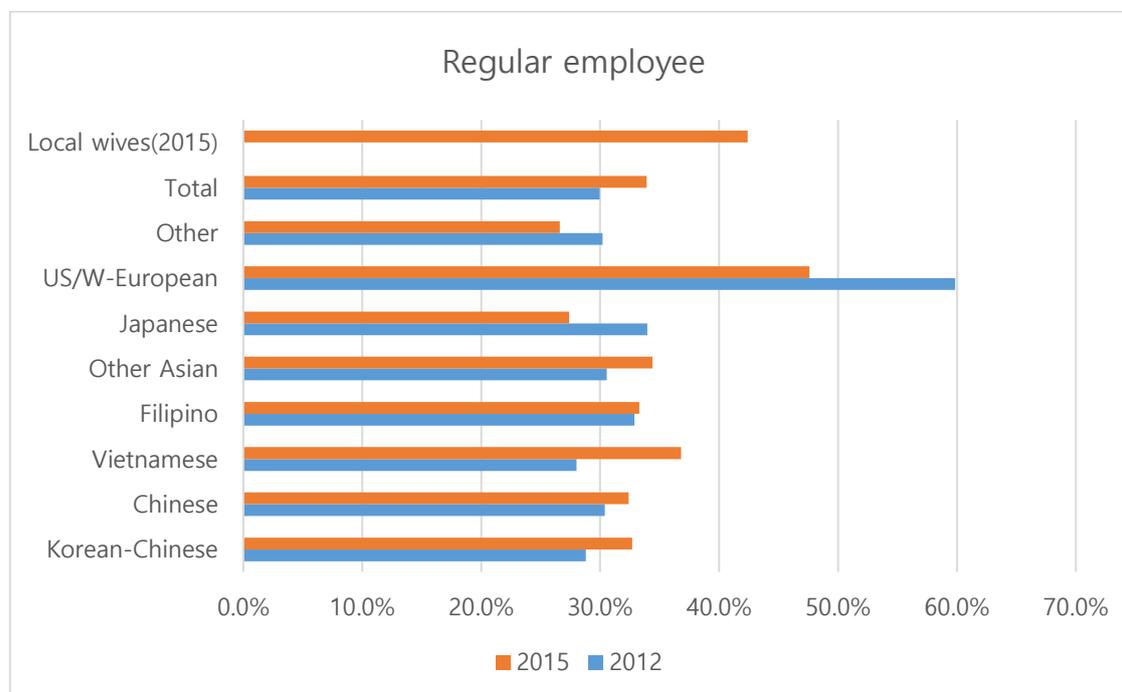
As of 2015, there were fewer regular employees, self-employed, and unpaid family workers in marriage migrant women compared to Korean wives. Instead, there are more temporary employees and daily workers in marriage migrant women than native Korean wives (Figure 5-32). When examined by country of origin, the only group whose proportion of regular employees exceeded that of native women is those from the U.S. or Western European countries. For the remaining groups, their engagement in regular employment is lower than local wives. However, there was an increase of regular employees for marriage migrant women from 2012 to 2015 (Figure 5-33). Vietnamese women had noticeably positive changes as such. On the contrary, Japanese women had a decrease in the proportion of regular employees in 2015 compared to 2012. Regarding temporary employees and daily workers, Figure 5-34 shows that there were 20% more temporary and daily workers in marriage migrant women than local wives. It applies to all nationality marriage migrant women except for those from the U.S. and Western Europe. Among Asian women workers, Vietnamese and Filipino women were more likely to be temporary and daily workers. Vietnamese and Korean-Chinese women had considerable decreases in temporary and daily workers in 2015 compared to 2012. There were fewer unpaid family workers in migrant marriage women than local wives (Figure 5-35). When examined by country of origin, Japanese women had a small increase in the proportion of unpaid family workers in 2015 compared to 2012, making it almost similar to local wives. Vietnamese women had a 4% decrease of unpaid family workers in 2015 compared to 2012.

Figure 5-32 Employment status of marriage migrant women and local women, 2015



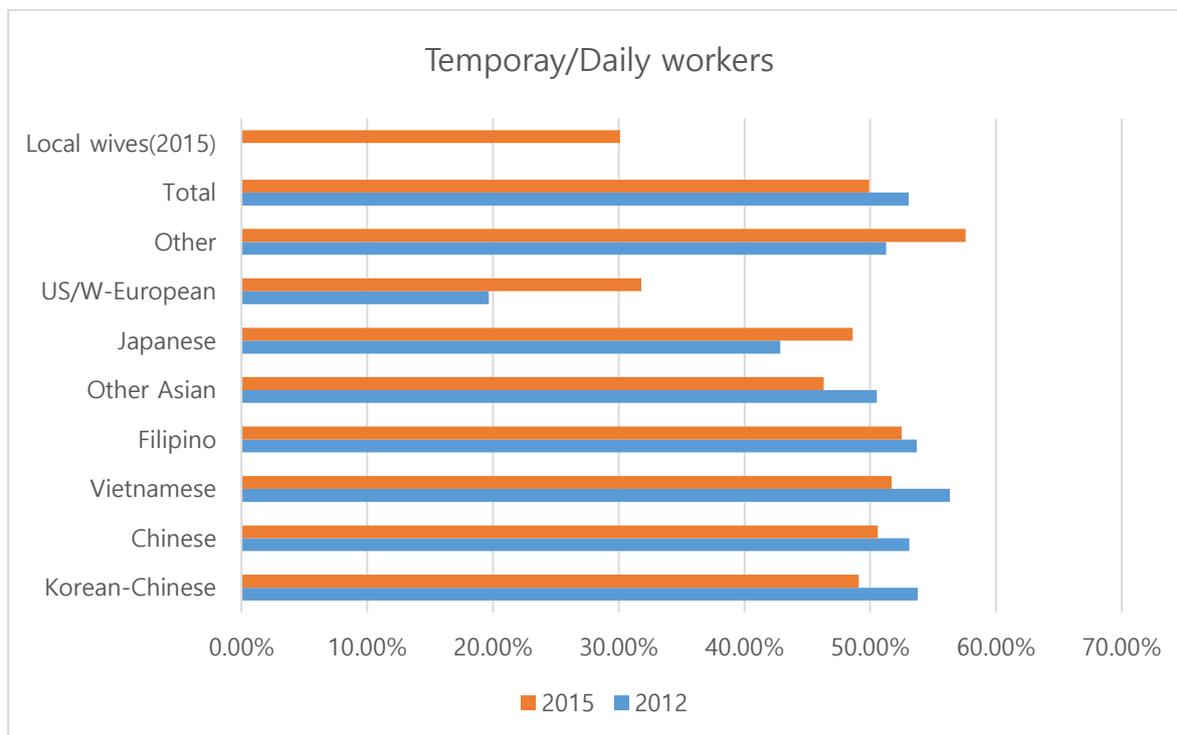
Source: Marriage migrant women: 2015 MCF Survey; local women: 2015 Economic Activity Survey

Figure 5-33 Proportion of regular employees among marriage migrant women by ethnicity, 2012 and 2015



Source: MCF Survey, 2012, 2015

Figure 5-34 Proportion of temporary and daily worker among marriage migrant women by ethnicity, 2012, 2015



Source: MCF Survey, 2012, 2015

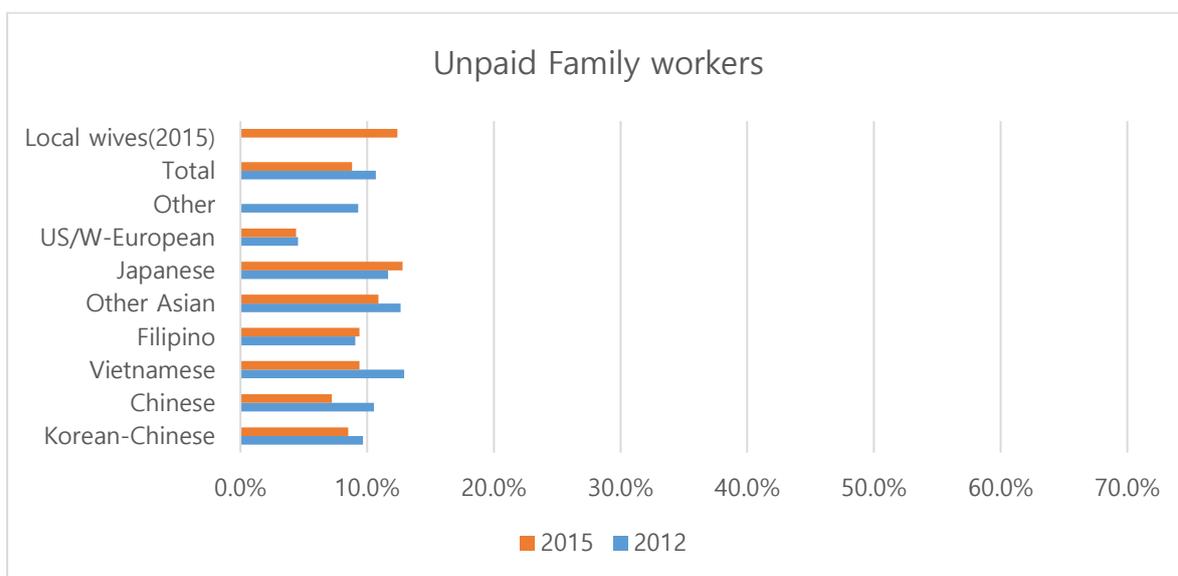
2) Occupation

When comparing the occupations of marriage migrant women to local wives in 2015, marriage migrant women were less likely to work in professional, clerical, and sales occupations, and more likely to work in unskilled labor, assembly lines, operative, and service positions than native women (Figure 5-36).

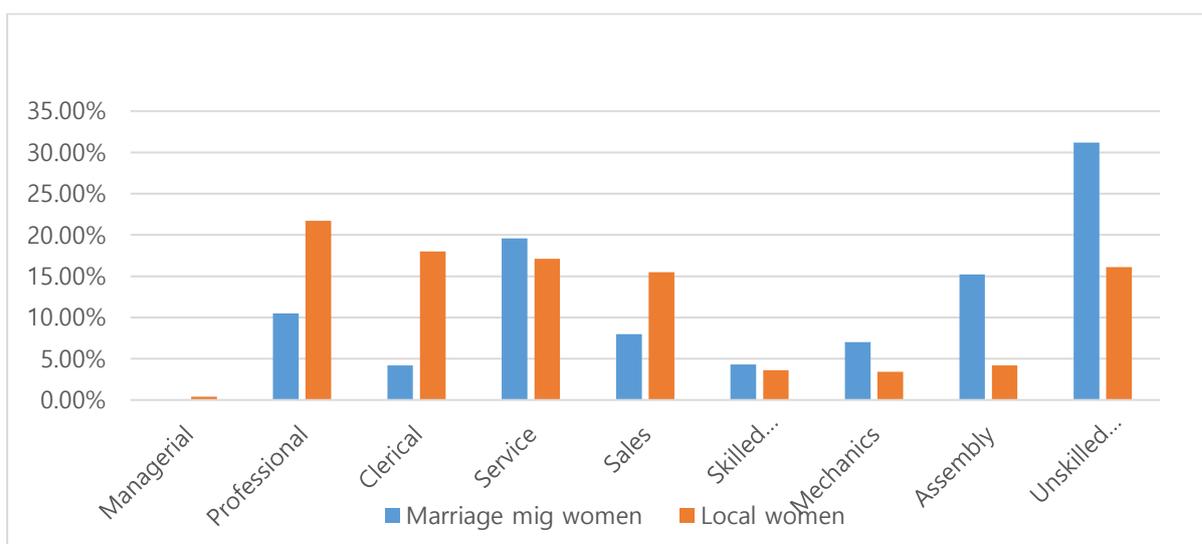
When the occupations of marriage migrant women were compared by country of origin, more women from the U.S. and Western Europe, and Japan were working in professional occupations. When comparing 2012 and 2015, women from the U.S. and Western Europe, China, and Viet Nam had a small increase in professional occupations. On the contrary, women from the Philippines and Japan had a decrease working in professional occupations between 2012 and 2015 (Figure 5-37). Generally Korean-Chinese and Chinese married migrant women tended to work more in service and sales occupations than other ethnic groups and local wives. Some change occurred for Japanese women: there was an 8% increase of Japanese women working in the sector over the last three years.

All marriage migrant women except for American and West-Europeans were more likely to work in factories and as unskilled laborers. There were especially many Vietnamese and Filipino women working as machine assemblers in factories or as unskilled (farm) laborers. Their proportion working in these occupations increased in the three-year period. Finally, those working in skilled positions in agriculture, forestry, and fishery are usually women from Viet Nam, Japan, and the Philippines but their proportion all decreased in 2015 compared to 2012.

Figure 5-35 Proportion of unpaid family workers among marriage migrant women by ethnicity, 2012 and 2015

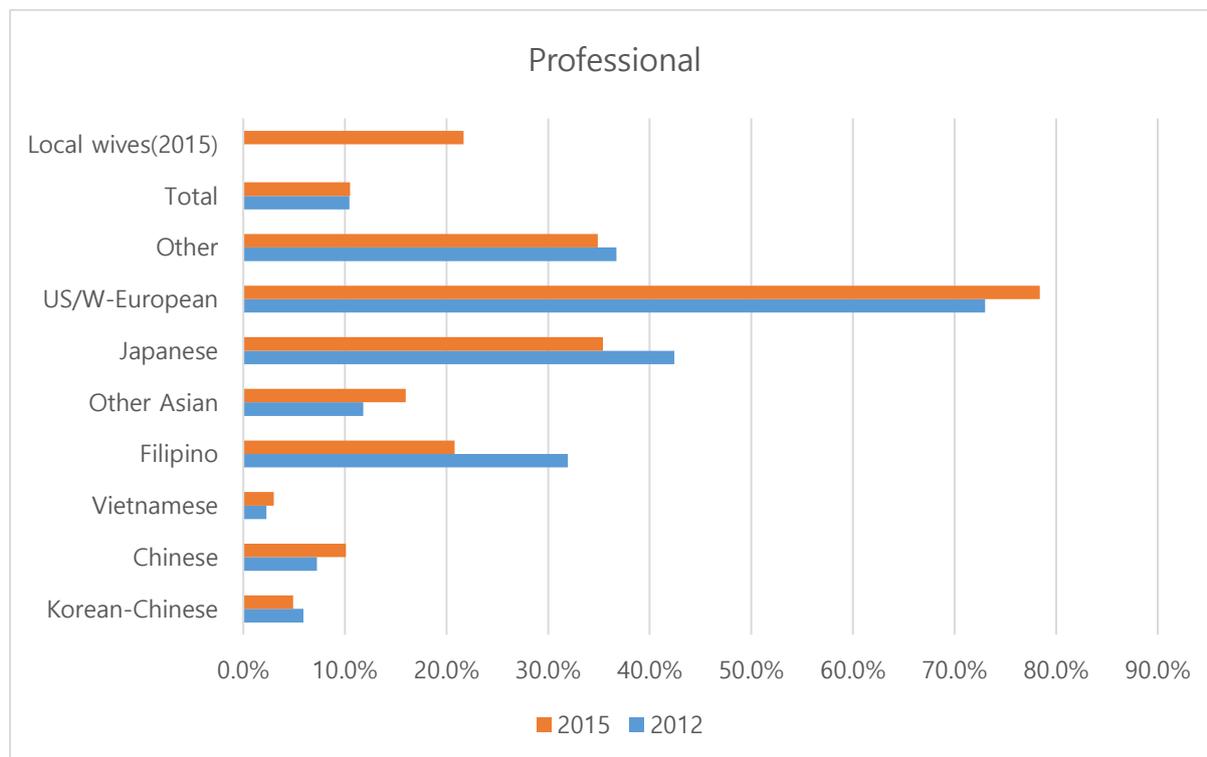


Source: MCF Survey, 2012, 2015 Figure 5-36 Occupation of marriage migrant women and local women, 2015



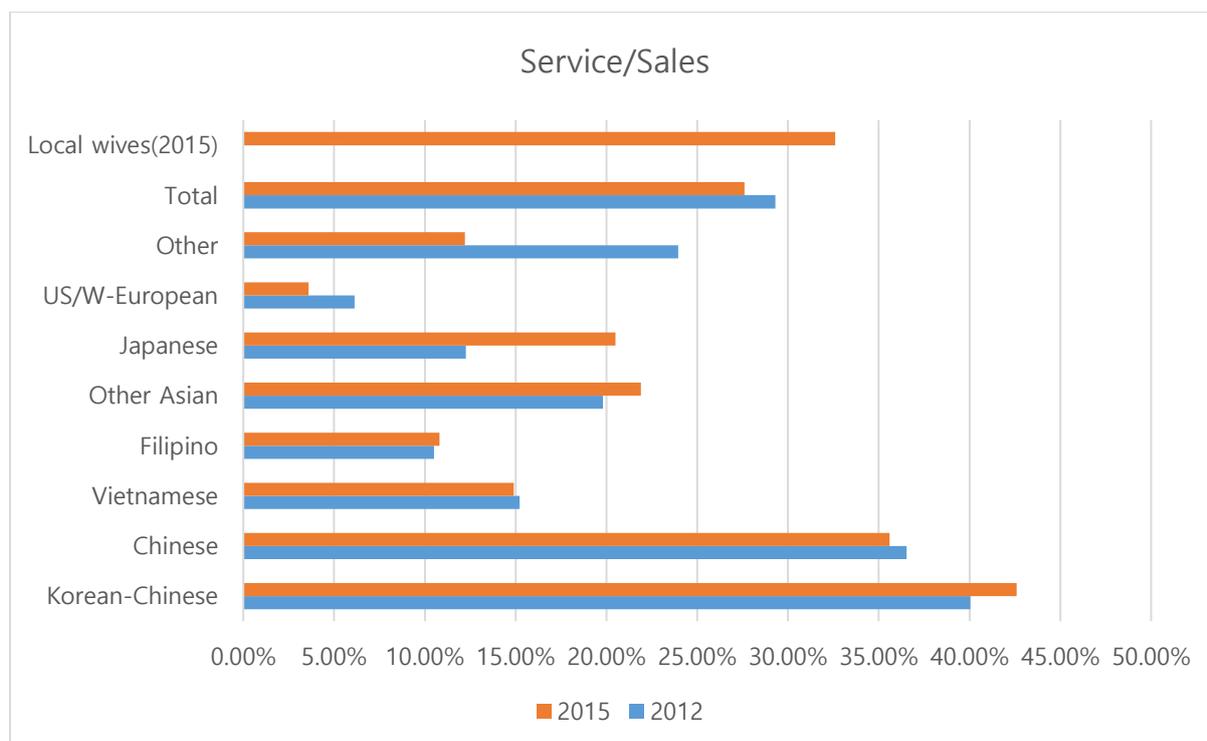
Source: Marriage migrant women: 2015 MCF Survey; local women: 2015 Economic Activity Survey

Figure 5-37 Proportion of professional occupations among marriage migrant women by ethnicity, 2012 and 2015



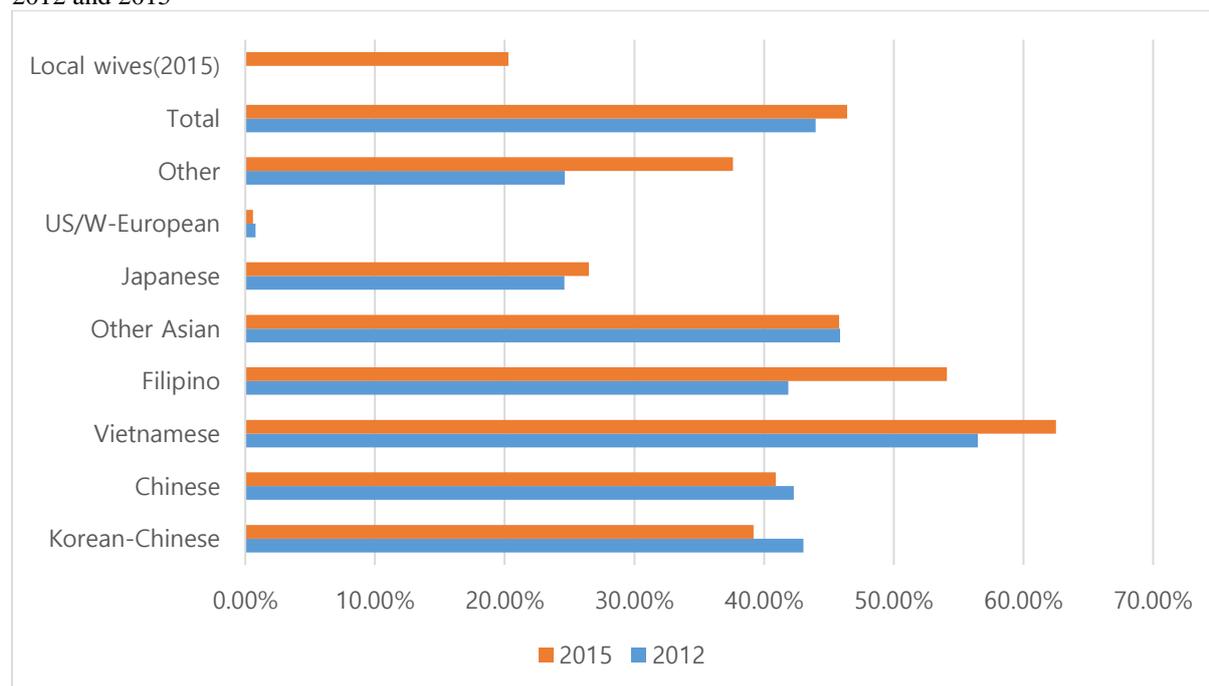
Source: MCF Survey, 2012, 2015

Figure 5-38 Proportion of service and sales occupations among marriage migrant women by ethnicity, 2012, 2015



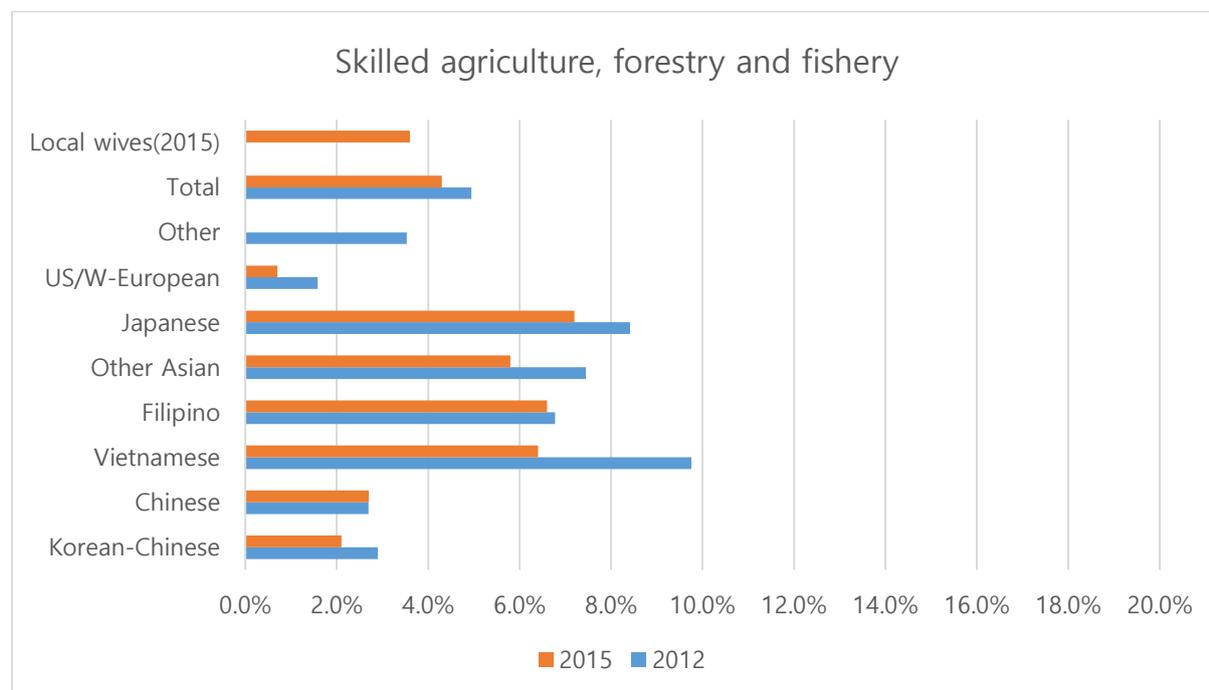
Source: MCF Survey, 2012, 2015

Figure 5-39. Proportion of machine assembling/unskilled laborers among marriage migrant women by ethnicity, 2012 and 2015



Source: MCF Survey, 2012, 2015

Figure 5-40 Proportion of skilled positions in agriculture, forestry, and fishery among marriage migrant women by ethnicity, 2012 and 2015



Source: MCF Survey, 2012, 2015

3) Working hours

There were 23.9% of local wives and 28.1% of marriage migrant women working as a part-time worker for less than 36 hours a week in 2015. When examined by country of origin, there were a high proportion of part-time workers for American and West-European, Japan and the Philippines. Since these three groups showed the highest involvement of professional working as shown in Figure 5-37, it indicates that marriage migrant women tend to have more part-time work when they work in professional occupations. During the three-year period, all marriage migrant women regardless of nationality, except Filipino women, had an increase in the proportion of working part-time. Such an increase is the most serious for American and West-European, Chinese, and Japanese women. However, the proportion of working part time decreased for Filipino women during the three-year period.

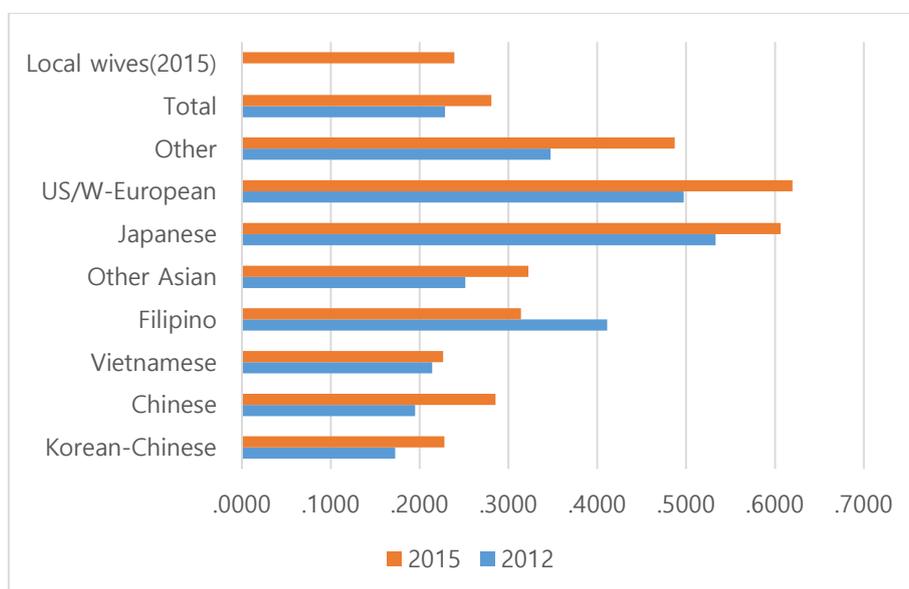
4) Earnings

Since the 2015 Economic Activity Survey for local people did not ask their earnings, this paper could not compare earnings between local and migrant wives. Thus, Figure 5-42 showed the average monthly earnings of marriage migrant women only. It was 1,040,000 Korean Won (KRW hereafter) in 2012, then increased slightly to 1,150,000 KRW in 2015. When examined by country of origin, the average monthly earning of American and West-European women was the highest (KRW 2,430,000~2,300,000). Then the average monthly earnings of all other ethnicity and nationality groups was somewhat similar around 1,000,000 KRW. As of 2015, Asian marriage migrant women had an average monthly income as follows: Korean-Chinese (KRW 1,280,000), Chinese (KRW 1,220,000), Filipino (KRW 1,010,000), Vietnamese (KRW 990,000) and Japanese (KRW 920,000), with Japanese women receiving the lowest average monthly earnings. Most marriage migrant women had a small increase in their monthly income over the last three years, but those from the U.S. and Western Europe, and Japan had a small decrease.

When comparing the two poles of average monthly earnings, below KRW 500,000 (Figure 5-43) and above KRW 2,000,000 (Figure 5-44), most Japanese women fell to below KRW 500,000 and this phenomenon increased over the three years. On the other hand, the proportion of women earning over KRW 2,000,000 was highest for American and Western-European (over 50%), then followed by Korean-Chinese (11%), Chinese (9%), and Japanese (9%) in 2015. Filipino and Vietnamese women were extremely low in the earning over KRW 2,000,000

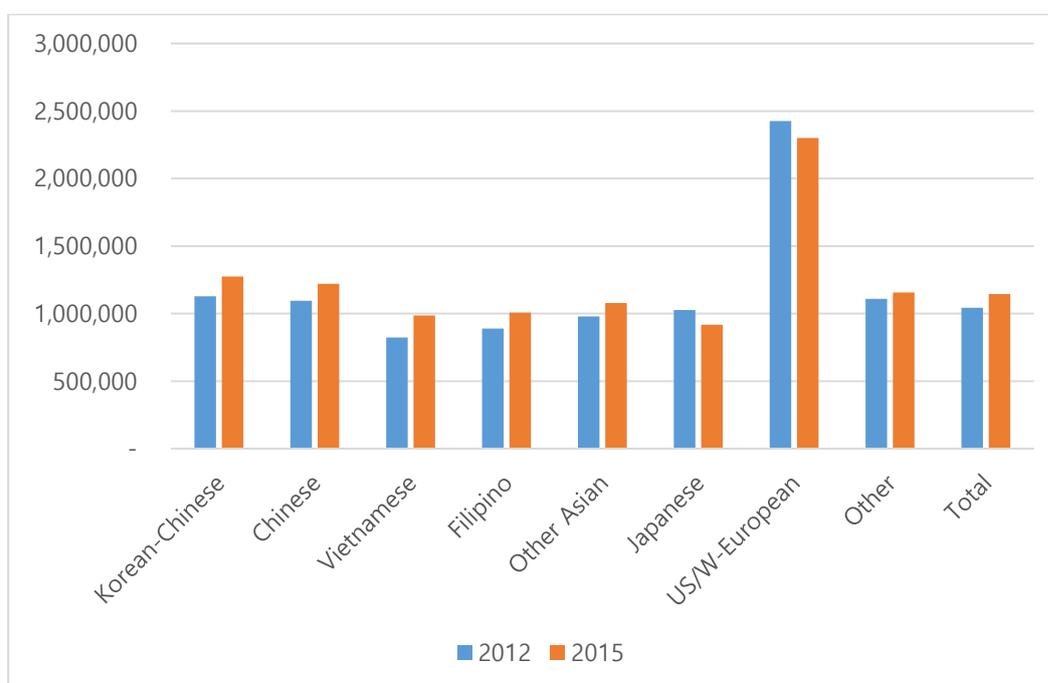
category. According to Figure 5-43, the proportion was highest for Japanese women, and it increased more in 2015 (35%) than in 2012 (29%).

Figure 5-41 Proportion of part-time workers who works less than 36 hours per week among marriage migrant women by ethnicity, 2012 and 2015



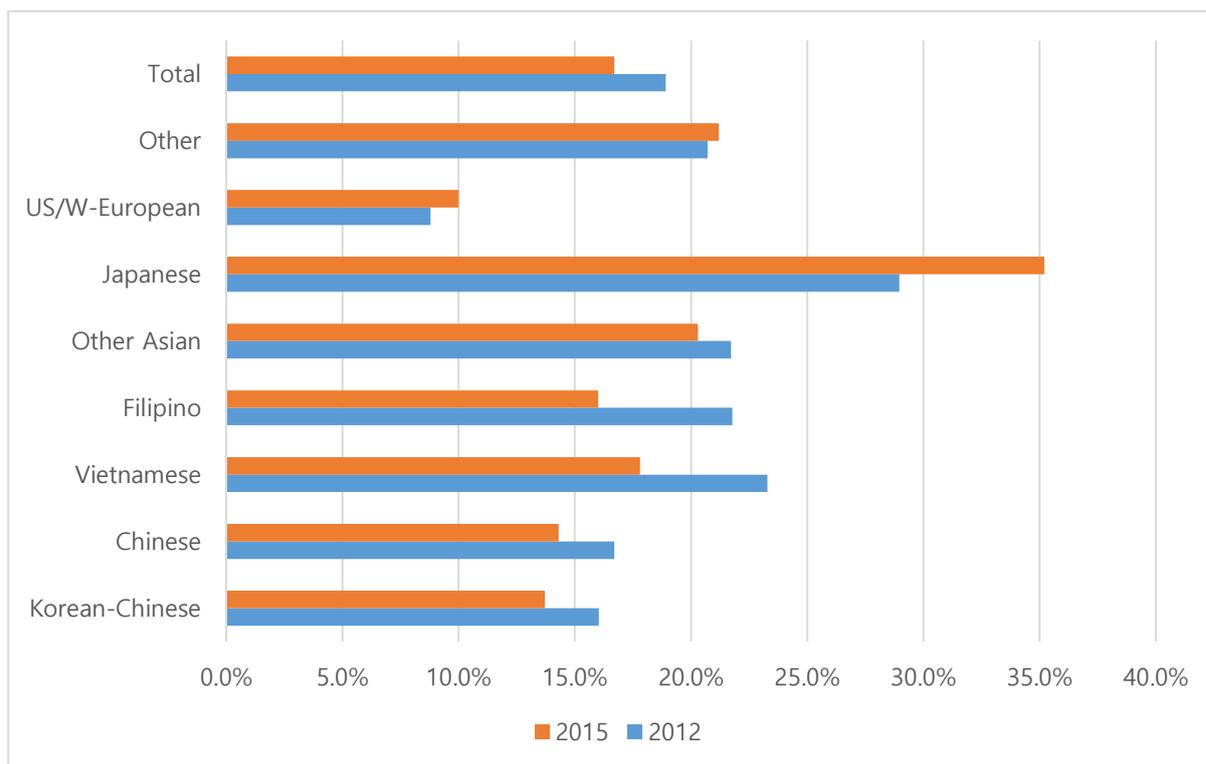
Source: MCF Survey, 2012, 2015

Figure 5-42 Average monthly earnings of marriage migrant women by ethnicity, 2012 and 2015



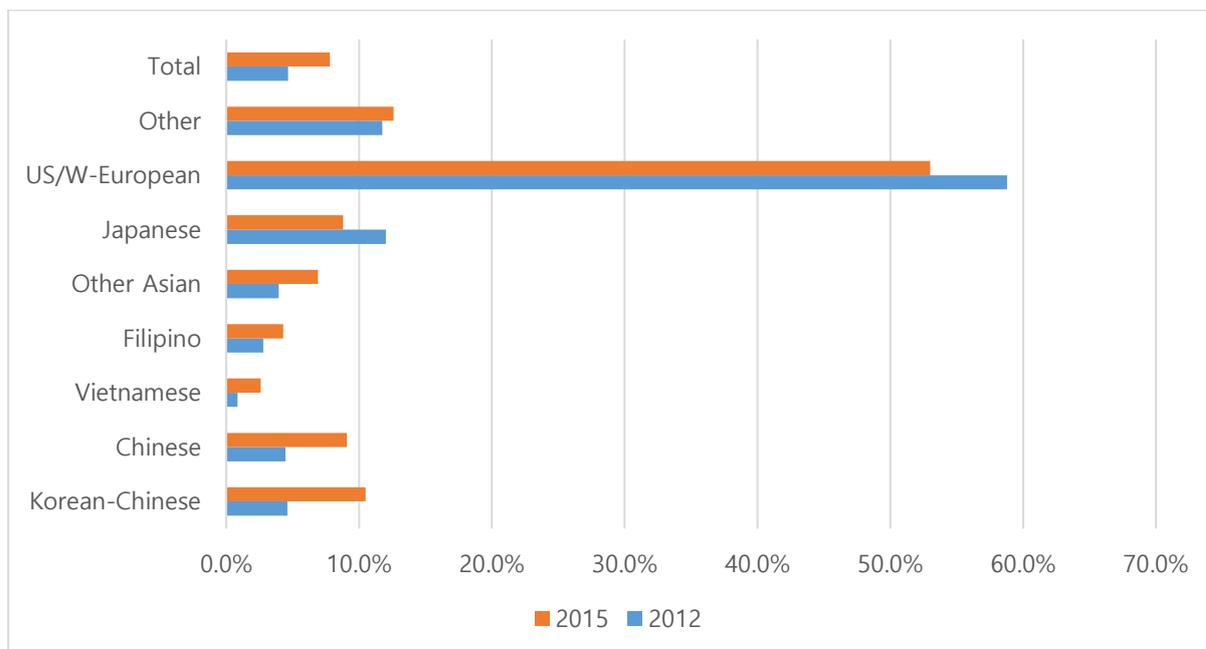
Source: MCF Survey, 2012, 2015

Figure 5-43 Average monthly earnings less than KRW 500,000 for marriage migrant women



Source: MCF Survey, 2012, 2015

Figure 5-44 Average monthly earnings of more than KRW 2,000,000 for marriage migrant women



Source: MCF Survey, 2012, 2015

VI. Conclusion

Thus far, this paper examined the labor market integration of migrants in South Korea. In this paper, labor market integration was divided into quantitative and qualitative aspects. Regarding the quantitative aspect of labor market integration, this paper examined the labor force participation of migrants in general, and marriage migrant women in particular. Regarding the qualitative aspect, this paper examined labor market situations such as employment status, occupation, working hours, and wages.

Analyzing the labor market integration of migrants utilizing the 2015 Foreign Labor Force Survey, this paper realized that it is meaningless to compare labor force participation rates by nationality using the Foreign Labor Force Survey. This is because the labor market participation of migrants depends heavily on their visa status, which varies greatly according to source country, that is, the visa status depends on the economic development of source country. For example, most North-Americans are professional staff visa holders, most Korean-Chinese are either Working Visit (H-2) or overseas Koreans (F-4) visa holders, and most Chinese are international students, while South-East Asians such as Vietnamese, Filipinos and Thais are on the non-professional employment (E-9) visa holders.

In addition, the 2015 Foreign Labor Force Survey and the 2015 MCF Survey showed very different labor force participation rates for marriage migrant women. For example, the 2015 Foreigner Employment Survey showed the labor force participation rate of marriage migrant women aged 20-64 as Korean-Chinese (55%), Chinese (45%), Vietnamese (44%), Filipino (36%), and Japanese (18%) (Figure 5-12). However, the 2015 MCF Survey showed labor force participation rates of marriage migrant women as Korean-Chinese (67%), Chinese (61%), Vietnamese (56%), Filipino (55%), and Japanese (51%) (Figure 5-26). Since the former Survey did not include naturalized people, the labor force participation rate for non-naturalized marriage migrant women from the 2015 MCF Survey was recalculated and the results were as follows: Korean-Chinese (63%), Chinese (58%), Vietnamese (45%), Filipino (43%), and Japanese (50%) (Figure 5-27), which was still higher than those from the Foreign Labor Force Survey (Figure 5-12). In both surveys, Korean-Chinese had the highest labor force participation rate. Nonetheless, the reason for the huge difference between labor force participation rates in respective survey can be found in the relatively small sample size for the Foreign Labor Force Survey. It is difficult to analyze marriage migrants by country of origin due to the lack of actual

cases surveyed.

Therefore, this paper examined the labor market integration of marriage migrant women using both the 2012 and 2015 MCF Surveys. Regarding the quantitative aspect of labor market integration, this paper highlighted the labor force participation of marriage migrant women was improved greatly during the three-year period, showing more marriage migrant women employed even than local wives. The findings oppose previous research about migrant women in other countries (Foroutan, 2008; Allen, 2009; Blau et al., 2011). Furthermore, it was found that the country of origin of migrant women still has impacts on the women's employment even when human capital, family situation, and immigration-related characteristics are controlled for. It can be understood that the migrant country has a socio-cultural influence on employment. Marriage migrant women from China and Viet Nam, which have experienced Communism, have a high labor force participation rate. Marriage migrant women from Japan, where the labor force participation rate of women is low, have the lowest labor force participation rate. Thus, this research confirmed what Blau et al. (2011) found.

The findings from the 2012 and 2015 MCF Surveys are as follows. Compared to the 2012 Survey, the 2015 Survey had largely improved labor market integration for marriage migrant women. The level of employment had a large increase, especially for Vietnamese and Japanese women in the three years. In the case of Vietnamese women, there was a sizeable increase in the number of factory workers and Vietnamese bilingual teachers. As for Japanese women, there was a large increase in the number of Japanese bilingual teachers or interpreters. It seems that there has been a national and regional emphasis on bilingual education and many language classes in schools and academies for the public were provided in the three years. In addition to Chinese and Japanese language classes, Vietnamese language classes were also provided in large numbers.

Such phenomena could be analyzed to show that the employment of marriage migrant women greatly increased under the influence of expanding multicultural policies since 2006. However, compared to Vietnamese and Japanese women, Korea-Chinese and Chinese women benefitted less from such multicultural policies. Unlike the former group, the latter group was employed at an early stage of arrival in Korea, therefore it has low rate of participation in multicultural center programs and receives less employment benefits from the center. It is important to note that the longer the marriage migrant women stay, the more Vietnamese and Filipinos get employed than Korean-Chinese and Chinese. Japanese women are an exception in this case. In short, when examined by date of arrival to Korea, the advantages of Korea-

Chinese and Chinese have nearly disappeared regarding employment.

Concerning the qualitative aspect of labor integration, the results are not that impressive for most marriage migrant women, except those from the US and Western European countries. Regarding the labor market situation, such as employment status, occupation, working hours, and earnings, the majority of Asian wives are relatively poor, concentrated into temporary and daily worker categories rather than regular employees. They tend to be unskilled laborers in factories or farms and, thus, have low earnings. Although some migrant wives work as bilingual teachers, most such jobs are offering on a part-time basis and have low earnings as well.

Finally, the number of marriage migrant women arriving in Korea from 2012 until recently show that there are more international marriages by introduction from friends or relatives than marriages by matchmaking agencies. It indicates that Koreans and foreign spouses in international marriages are diversifying from the low income class in the past. Therefore, perspectives to view marriage migration as a lower-class phenomenon for men in rural areas, who have difficulty finding marriage partners in Korea, or perspectives to view marriage migrant women as the third-world refugees from poverty need to be changed. International marriage is expected to be more diversified by the globalization of education and employment as time goes on.

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Discussion: The Future of Migration Studies in Asia and the Pacific

Sun-Jae Hwang¹

Asia and the Pacific is growing in significance – not only in its demographic and socioeconomic influence in the present, but its potential and implications for the future. This is no exception to the trends of international migration, and the role of Asia and the Pacific is only to increase with its growing population and socioeconomic advancement for times to come. In this vein, our research team from the Philippines, Vietnam, Thailand, and South Korea conducted timely but overdue studies on the international migration focused on the Asia-Pacific region and uncovered many interesting stories and new findings of labor and marriage migration within the region. In this concluding chapter, we will first summarize the major findings of this joint research project with its implications and discuss further issues for more effective future migration studies for the region and beyond.

First, what defines the international migration in the Asia-Pacific region is not commonality but its variety in migration issues. Although easily assumed that the conditions, issues, and demands of Asian countries are similar to each other under the name of Asia, the reality greatly varies from one country another, depending on its current demographic and socioeconomic conditions. For instance, the Philippines with its young population structure and developing economy is a primarily migrant-sending country while South Korea with its aging population and advanced economy has different issues of and demands for international migration. In order to accurately understand the current conditions and future status of international migration in the region, therefore, acknowledging the heterogeneity of Asia and the Pacific as well as its homogeneity is a prerequisite.

Second, it is critical to examine both the ‘quantitative’ and ‘qualitative’ aspects of

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international migration in the region. Migration is not simply about moving but about living. Counting numbers of migrants and examining patterns of migration between countries is important, but understanding what migrants actually do and live before and after migration is as much crucial. According to the Vietnamese study in this volume, they migrate primarily for economic reasons, but not simply for their own economic wellbeing but also for their families and relatives. Unless we understand the sociocultural role and qualitative nature of remittances in Vietnam, listing Vietnam simply as one of the most remittance-receiving countries in the world does not help much to comprehend the international migration, remittance, and its relationship in Vietnam.

Third, it is necessary to pay attention to increasing intra-regional migration within Asia and the Pacific. Traditionally, Asian countries were migrant-sending nations particularly to Europe and North America, and intra-regional migration was not the center of attention. With the socioeconomic development of the region over the past few decades, however, migration within the region has significantly increased, and it will be more so in the near future. We were also able to observe the trend in this study, Thailand, for instance, receives more than ninety percent of migrant workers from neighboring Asian countries, and it is also the case for South Korea receiving more and more migrant workers and marriage migrants from other Asian countries. Since the trend is expected to continue in the future, we need to pay more attention to the trends and patterns of within-region migration to better understand international migration in Asia and the Pacific.

Along with these exciting findings, our research teams also faced various challenges – and opportunities – for current and future migration studies on the region. Of those many issues discovered on the way, data limitation was the single most important challenge for effective migration studies of the Asia-Pacific region. For migration studies, we need both the ‘stock’ and ‘flow (inflow/outflow)’ statistics of international migration for individual countries. Most of the time, however, necessary data were not existent in the first place, and not sufficient if any. Since most countries are more interested in the inflow of people from other countries than outflows, almost all countries make an effort to keep track of who comes in (inflow statistics) and who is in (stock statistics) but less care about who is out (outflow statistics) due to the difficulties of data collection on emigration. For a more complete picture of international migration in (and outside) the region, however, individual country needs to be better equipped with the full set of migration statistics, and if possible, extra data collection

on 'inter-flow' statistics would also greatly enhance researcher's capabilities to study international migration in the region and beyond.

In addition to the data/methodological issues, a series of substantial topics for future migration studies in the region was highly debated from both a quantitative and qualitative perspective. For the former, we need to better understand individual country's population structures in the region and predict potential flows of people between the countries based on their differential demographic conditions and demands. For instance, economic development and population aging in one country tend to stimulate movement of young workers from other countries with a younger population structure. In addition, an increase in women's labor force participation coupled with economic advancement and low fertility tend to result in more demands for foreign care-giving workers for young and aged family members. Provided that one country's change in a population structure is highly likely to prompt international migration from other countries with a different population structure, it is essential to pay due attention to this basic but fundamental aspects of international migration.

Changes in the population structure or the quantitative aspect of population, however, may not always result in higher international migration unless it meets certain conditions or 'qualitative' aspects of migration. In other words, doors for international migration may be wide open due to structural changes, but there are some other factors – usually institutional or cultural – that enable or hinder individuals to make a migration decision. In this regard, migration researchers need to pay more attention to migration contexts or the 'culture of migration' to fully comprehend international migration in the Asia-Pacific region. In order to answer questions such as 'what are the causes, processes, and consequences of migration?' and 'who are involved and who are not?', it becomes essential to investigate the contexts or culture of migration in each country that considerably differ from one another. While changes in population structure decides one's movement itself, the culture of migration defines how and why such movement occurs in the context of international migration.

Last, but not least, in order for all the suggestions for future work listed above to be feasible, it is critical to have international cooperation and coordination on migration studies and data collection. In fact, the level of information that we need for effective migration studies is relatively simple – who is in from where, who is out to where, and why. The actual collection on these relatively simple data is challenging, however, mostly because individual countries are more interested in and capable of collecting who-is-in data over who-is-out

data. In addition, they are not much interested in sharing the information even that they hold. This issue might be solved, ideally, if we could set up an international legal authority that mandates a collection and report on those information for member countries, which is supplemented by national surveys on immigrants for more detailed information that cannot be captured by the official statistics. Although the reality is far from the ideal, we need to make constant efforts on this matter to better understand international migration within and outside the region.

There is no doubt that Asia and the Pacific will observe more international and intra-regional migration in the future, and the future of international migration will be delineated by the future of Asia and the Pacific. What we are less confident about is, however, if the region is willing to produce necessary data and make required efforts mentioned above. Since the task is critical and beyond individual or group capacity, inter-government cooperation and coordination is more than essential for quality migration studies that can bring much more benefits than costs. We hope that our series of research in this volume began the necessary conversation and laid a foundation for further collaborations between more countries. The future of migration studies in the Asia-Pacific region certainly lies in the hands of the present.