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Summary

Anatoliy Stepanenko. ECOLOGICAL CRISIS IN UKRAINE AND ITS SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPACT.

The essence and reasons of ecologic crisis in Ukraine are revealed, dependence of ecologic crisis on level of ecologic security, increase of quantity of the sources of ecologic insecurities. Considerable attention was paid to evaluation of level of ecologic situation and development of national ecologic system of Ukraine, its place according to these indicators among other countries in the world with EPI index. The reasons of aggravation of index of ecologic survey for Ukraine in 2010 and 2012 years were identified. Interconnection of economic and ecologic crises as well as place of Ukraine among worse world economies were revealed (fourth). It was shown, that Ukraine is the only country in the world, which economy in 2012 did not return to level of pre-crisis 2007 in 2012. It is defined increase of “predatory” treatment with nature and “ecologic nihilism”, so economic collapse and lack of real able-bodied state decisions support this situation. The social consequences of ecologic crisis are synergetics of ecologic and demographic crises, probable increase of ecologic migrations, influence of resettlement on ecologic safety, interrelation between society earnings and ecologic situation of environment. Influence of ecologic crisis on natural resources and environment is investigated, approaches of state policy as for ecologic crisis overcome are selected.

Keywords: Environmental (ecological) crisis, environmental, socio-economic impacts, safety, synergy, resources, threats, environmental policy.

УДК 911.3

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BETWEEN ASIAN AND AMERICA: GEOPOLITICS, GLOBALIZATION, AND INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION*

In this paper we will briefly review recent histories of Asian civilizations, with a focus on the accelerated international division of labor and economic growth across Asia over the last half century. We also look at the relationship with US immigration admission policies toward Asian immigrants and their consequences. We then address the recent shift from a one-way brain drain (from developing countries—in this case Asia, to developed countries—the United States) to a model of networked brain circulation among developing and developed nations. Finally we connect immigration policies and their consequences with the US’s Asia policies.

Keywords: globalization; immigration; China; India; NICs.

Вей Лі, Ван Ю. МІЖ АЗІЄЮ І АМЕРИКОЮ: ГЕОПОЛІТИКА, ГЛОБАЛІЗАЦІЯ І МІЖНАРОДНА МІГРАЦІЯ. У цій статті розглянуто сучасну історію азійських цивілізацій, з акцентом на прискорений розвиток міжнародного поділу праці та економічне зростання в Азії за останні півстоліття. Виявлено особливості американської імміграційної політики щодо прийому іммігрантів з Азії та її наслідки. Проаналізовано недавній перехід від одностороннього витоку мізків (із країн, у даному випадку, Азії, в розвинені країни – США) до моделей мережевого мозкового обігу між країнами, що розвиваються, та розвиненими країнами. Порівняно імміграційну політику країн Азії в США та її наслідки.

Ключові слова: глобалізація, імміграція, Китай, Індія, НІК.

Вей Лі, Ван Ю. МЕЖДУ АЗИЕЙ И АМЕРИКОЙ: ГЕОПОЛИТИКА, ГЛОБАЛИЗАЦИЯ И МЕЖДУНАРОДНАЯ МИГРАЦИЯ. В этой статье рассмотрена современная история азиатских цивилизаций, с акцентом на ускоренное развитие международного разделения труда и экономического роста в Азии за последние полвека. Выявлены особенности американской иммиграционной политики относительно приема иммигрантов из Азии и ее последствия. Проанализирован недавний переход от односторонней утечки мозгов (из стран, в данном случае, Азии, в развитые страны – США) к моделям сетевого мозгового обращения между развивающимися и развитыми странами. Проведено сравнение иммиграционной политики стран Азии в США и ее последствия.

Ключевые слова: глобализация, иммиграция, Китай, Индия, НИС.

“Everyone is kind and nice when born.

We all share similar nature, albeit behave differently.

Without education, such (good) nature will deteriorate.”

- Wang Yinglin (1223-1296) *three-character scripture*, a UNESCO recommended reading for children’s moral education

“人之初，性本善；性相近，习相远。苟不教，性乃迁。” – 南宋.王应麟,¹

“The principal conflicts of global politics will occur between nations and groups of different civilizations. The clash of civilizations will dominate global politics.”

Samuel Huntington 1992, *The Clash of Civilizations; Foreign Affairs*, 22

It may be somewhat ironic that the above two quotes come from representatives of two civilizations that primarily emphasize collectivism and individualism respectively. The former quote focuses on individual characteristics, whereas the latter stresses irreconcilable differences and conflicts among human civilizations. Regardless of whether each individual has a good nature or not or, and whether human beings behave similarly or differently, both warn against the deterioration of human relations with potential clash of civilizations. So perhaps a question more relevant to policymaking is “how do we prevent such a clash of civilizations in an increasingly complex and fast-changing world”? In this article, mutual understanding and appreciation among two of the world’s longest continuous ancient civilizations (China and India), and a young evolving democratic civilization (the United States), are examined.

To fully comprehend Asia’s resurgence and its global impact requires historical knowledge, contemporary examination, and foresight. This paper attempts to contribute to such mutual understanding from a unique angle – the connections between international migration and international relations. There are two multi- and inter-disciplinary fields and policy making arenas that could be connected but are often independent of one another: Asian Studies and policy making versus Immigration Studies and policy making. The former has an outward focus that studies what was/is happening and predicts what will happen in Asia and what policies should be instituted toward Asia. The latter has an inward focus that analyzes immigrants’ impacts on the United States and what policies should be instituted to recruit the desirables and exclude the undesirables.

What is largely missing from the conversation is the direct connection between the two. That is, how can immigration policies influence Asian policies and vice versa? In this paper we will briefly review recent histories of Asian civilizations, with a focus on the accelerated international division of labor and economic growth across Asia over the last half century. We also look at the relationship with US immigration admission policies toward Asian immigrants and their consequences. We then address the recent shift from a one-way brain drain (from developing countries—in this case Asia, to developed countries—the United States) to a model of networked brain circulation among developing and developed nations, and how this shift has contributed to global change. Finally we connect immigration policies and their consequences with the US’s Asia policies.

Exclusion and Isolation versus Inclusion and Cooperation

A traditional Chinese idiom states “Be at the east bank of a river for three decades then next four at the west bank” (三十年河东, 四十年河西), implying that no power can dominate forever. This idiom certainly has proven true so far in human history, as no civilization has dominated the world for an infinite period.

But the World System theory [14] seems to have

¹ Translation by 1st author

² We use ‘Asian Indians’ and ‘Indians’ interchangeably in this paper

applied to international migration and exchange, as people flow from peripheral countries to the core to live, work or learn both historically and currently. The issue in stake is that the composition and balance between core and peripheral countries are a moving target and constantly changing in the world.

Historical Period – from the Eighteenth Century to World War II

As late as the mid-Eighteenth Century, both China and India enjoyed robust economies with financial wealth and natural resources, whereas the emerging democracy of the United States was still young and had large trade deficits with China. Earlier trade with China was profitable for, and contributed to the building of, the new nation [6]. By the mid-Nineteenth Century, the young democracy had rapidly modernized and developed into a major industrialized power. China had become a semi-feudal and semi-colonized country after losing both Opium Wars to Western powers. India had been colonized by Great Britain.

The asymmetrical geopolitical power relations between the United States and Asian countries contributed in large part to the exclusionary and restrictive US immigration policies against both Chinese and Indians² — and, for that matter, other immigrants from Asia as well. Largely composed of able-bodied young males, early Chinese and Indian immigrants were perceived as economic threatening as well as culturally, morally, politically, and racially undesirable.

In the case of the Chinese, despite early welcoming attitudes by American corporations and the public, such good will soon deteriorated because Chinese immigrants were hired as strike breakers and were willing to work harder while earning less than other working-class laborers. Before too long, the Chinese were perceived and portrayed by mass media and the general public as “Yellow Peril”. “Chinese Must Go” became political rhetoric, and the “Chinese Problem” became a political platform to rally people against the Chinese presence in the US which resulted in the passage and multiple extensions of “Chinese Exclusion Act” until it was granted indefinitely in 1904. What is noteworthy is the modernized and industrialized Japan at the time, despite the continuous emigration trend, nevertheless had geopolitical influence and possessed bargaining power. As such, instead of the unilateral exclusion act imposed on Chinese immigrants and the resulting severe gender imbalance, the Japanese government was able to negotiate a deal with the US, and the resulting Gentlemen’s Agreement permitted Japanese women to enter the US and start families.

The fate of Indians was not that much different from that of the Chinese during this period. The commissioner for labor statistics in California publicly claimed that “Hindu is the most undesirable immigrant in the state,”[11] and the Immigration Act in 1917 further included the Indians into an “Asiatic Barred Zone”, which prohibited almost all migrants from Asia entering the US. Indian immigrants were initially permitted for naturalization rights based on the 1790 Naturalization Law, which declared free whites had such rights. However, the Supreme Court, in 1923 *US v. Bhagat Singh Thind*, ruled

that Indians were no longer categorized as whites despite the fact that they were still considered as Caucasian race. Thus, the previous naturalization certificates for Indians were subject to cancellation. The racist attitude and incidents encountered by Indian poet and the 1913 Nobel Laureate Rabindranath Tagore during his 1929 visit to the US prompted his comments that “Jesus could not get into America, because, first of all, He would not have the necessary money, and secondly, He would be an Asiatic.”[4]

Their difficult situation was epitomized on properties market – in many states Chinese and Indians were barred from buying property or owning land, according to the Alien Land Laws. As a result of the 1923 court ruling, Indian immigrants’ former property purchases had to be relinquished. Both of these immigrant groups were also disfranchised without the possibility to become naturalized citizens, and as such deprived from voting. The successful fight by Chinese immigrants advocating legal rights led to the 1898 Supreme Court ruling on the *US v Wong Kim Ark* case, which declared equal rights of the native-born Chinese as other citizens born in the US.

The results of the several-decade-long exclusive or restrictive immigration admission policies had profound impacts on both Chinese and Indian communities in the US. Table 1 and 2 demonstrate, respectively, Chinese and Indian immigration and population data from the earliest dates when such data was made available, to the most recent in 2009. Table 1 shows that the dozen Chinese Exclusion laws definitely achieved what they had intended to: to curb Chinese immigration and reduce Chinese population in the US. Before the exclusion, both Chinese immigration and population in the country grew very quickly in the 1860s and 1870s. After the enactment of the 1882 Chinese Exclusion Act, the next two decades witnessed a drastic decline in Chinese immigration, although total population remained slow growth. The negative effects of reducing immigration finally caught up and caused absolute decline in total population among the Chinese in the first two decades of the Twentieth Century. Then there were modest growth in both Chinese immigration and total population afterward, until Japanese invasion of China and the Sino-Japanese War broke out that curbed Chinese immigration again.

Note: “Chinese” in this table includes immigrants from Mainland China, Taiwan, Hong Kong after 1997, and Macau after 1999; Immigration data in each year represents the number of Chinese immigrants in the previous decade. Data on 2008 is calculated by immigration data from 2000-2009.

Sources for Tables 1-4: Population data before 2008 is collected from Decennial Census Data, Population in 2008 comes from 2008 American Community Survey; Immigration Data before 1990 comes from INS-USCIS data. Immigration data between 1990-2009 comes from Yearbook of Immigration Statistics Table 3 Immigrants admitted by region and country of birth from Fiscal Year 1999 to 2009 by Department of Homeland Security, Office of Immigration Statistics, <http://www.dhs.gov/files/statistics/publications/LPR09.shtm> <http://www.dhs.gov/files/statistics/publications/YrBk99I.m.shtm> Last accessed 10/27/10

In the case of Indians, population data was not continuously released until 1960 onward. But available data shows their total population was small before World War II, in the range of a few thousands over decades. As for immigration, the first decade in the Twentieth Century witnessed a large increase of Asian Indians as a result of barring Chinese labor migrants, and reduced Japanese immigrants due to the “Gentlemen’s Agreement” between the US and Japanese government. However, after the Asiatic Bar Zone was established in 1917 that curbed Indian immigration and the 1923 Supreme Court ruling discriminated against them, numbers of Indian migrants continuously decline until World War II.

World War II in the mid-twentieth century brought China, India, and the US together again as war allies against Japan. Therefore, geopolitical change and the need to silence Japanese war propaganda contributed in large part of repealing the Chinese Exclusion Act, allowing limited immigration quota and extending naturalization rights to both immigrant groups. The 1943 Repeal Act and the 1946 Luce-Celler Bill granted annual immigration quotas of 105 and 100 to Chinese and Indians respectively, and made both groups eligible for naturalization. As the result of such immigration admission and naturalization policy changes, the Chinese immigration in the 1940s jumped >239%, to more than 16,700 and the population grew 41% to more than 150,000; whereas the Indian immigration increased 255% to more than 1,760 (Tables 1 and 2). Hence, World War II marks an important milestone, not only firmly establishing the US as the free world leader and changing the geopolitical maps of the world; but also altering the fate of Chinese and Indians, as they were again able to migrate to the US and to become enfranchised once they are inside the US.

The above summary illustrates that US immigration admission and naturalization policies were not only debated and instituted to serve the best interests of the US, but also highly influenced by geopolitical power imbalance among nation states and as the result of changing US foreign policies.

Cold War Period: Post WWII to 1990

After World War II, in order to maintain US supremacy in the global arena and to prevent the USSR from expanding its influence into Asia, the United States carried out economic and military aid plans in many Asian countries. These plans were similar to the Marshall Plan in Europe but were smaller in scale. The United States encouraged these countries to develop export-oriented economies, which linked local economies to the United States and world economy [11].

Such economic structural changes occurred as different waves over the past half century, starting first in Japan, followed by the newly industrialized countries (NICs)³, then India and mainland China (PRC), and now extending to the members of the Association of South-eastern Asian Nations (ASEAN) and to other Asian countries.

³ NICs denote Hong Kong, Singapore, South Korea and Taiwan (also known as Asia’s “four little dragons” or “four little tigers”)

Table 1

Chinese Population and Immigration by Decade, 1860-2008

Decade Ending	Total Population (census stock data)	Growth Rate	Immigration in prior decade (INS-USCIS flow data)	Growth Rate
1860	34,933	n.a.	41,397	n.a.
1870	64,199	83.8%	64,301	55.3%
1880	105,465	64.3%	123,201	91.6%
1890	107,488	1.9%	61,711	-49.9%
1900	118,746	10.5%	14,799	-76.0%
1910	94,414	-20.5%	20,605	39.2%
1920	85,202	-9.8%	21,278	3.3%
1930	102,159	19.9%	29,907	40.6%
1940	106,334	4.1%	4,928	-83.5%
1950	150,005	41.1%	16,709	239.1%
1960	237,292	58.2%	25,201	50.8%
1970	436,062	83.8%	109,771	335.6%
1980	812,178	86.3%	237,793	116.6%
1990	1,645,472	102.6%	446,000	87.6%
2000	2,432,585	47.8%	539,263	20.9%
2008	3,077,783	26.5%	773,631	43.5%

Table 2

Indian Population and Immigration by Decade, 1890-2008

Decade Ending	Total Population	Growth Rate	Immigration in previous decade	Growth Rate
	census data		INS-USCIS data	
1890	n.a.	n.a.	269	n.a.
1900	n.a.	n.a.	68	-74.7%
1910	5,424	n.a.	4,713	6830.9%
1920	n.a.	n.a.	2,082	-55.8%
1930	3,130	n.a.	1,886	-9.4%
1940	2,405	-23.2%	496	-73.7%
1950	n.a.	n.a.	1,761	255.0%
1960	12,296	n.a.	1,973	12.0%
1970	72,500	489.6%	27,189	1278.1%
1980	387,223	434.1%	164,134	503.7%
1990	815,447	110.6%	147,900	-9.9%
2000	1,678,765	105.9%	371,925	151.5%
2008	2,495,998	48.7%	635,195	70.8%

However, such changes have not been without conflict within Asia. The tension across the Taiwan Strait was high for decades after 1949. In 1962, war broke out between India and the PRC due to long-standing border disputes.

Since the establishment of the PRC under Mao's strict ideological and iron-fisted rule, Western powers' boycott of and containment policies toward the PRC resulted in externally enforced and internally self imposed isolation that brought China's economy close to the brink of collapse, including the famine suffered by millions in the early 1960s. Inside the PRC, dominant ideological rhetoric prevailed with political slogans such as, "Down with American Imperialism!" "Down with Soviet Revisionism!" and "Liberate Hu-

mankind Worldwide!" (打倒美帝，打倒苏修，解放全人类). A large part of the Chinese population internalized these messages.

Whereas China suffered internal turmoil and instability (especially during the 1966-1976 Cultural Revolution), the resurgence of Asia took off with the rising of NICs. The surge of export-based economies, capital accumulation, and rising education levels within NICs reflect the accelerated globalization trend in the second half of the Twentieth Century, but also attributed to the US aid and investment, especially in South Korea and Taiwan as part of US's strategic interests. US military involvement in the Korean Peninsula in the early 1950s, and its military bases and aid afterward, not

only prompted rapid immigration to the US (Table 3), but also contributed to economic development inside South Korea. In the case of Taiwan, more than 90% of foreign direct investment (FDI) prior to the 1960 was from the US, with American government policies and tax incentives to guarantee returns and minimize risk, as well as the KMT government's preferential treatment for foreign firms. Japan later became the largest source of FDI to Taiwan, accounting for 48% in total in 1983. Such FDI and Taiwan's low-cost but high-quality labor contributed to the rapid growth of labor-intensive manufacturing and export sectors. Taiwan's export in the total GDP grew from 9.4% in 1960 to 33.7% in 1975, whereas its economy enjoyed a double-digit growth rate in late 1960s, early 1970s, and again in the mid-1980s. In the meantime, with robust economic growth and capital accumulation, Taiwan soon shifted from a FDI receiving economy to an outward investing one: the latter counted only 0.2% in total GDP in 1980 but grew to 8.0% in 1990 [4].

It is worth noting that three out of the four NICs have a majority ethnic Chinese population: Hong Kong, Singapore, and Taiwan. But perhaps more importantly, they provided key initial capital investments in China's rapid economic development after the PRC opened its doors in 1979 in the form of FDI, and more recently resulted in China's rising power on the global stage. The FDI to the Chinese coastal region by 'Chinese overseas' from Hong Kong, Taiwan, and other countries was dubbed as PDI (Patriotic Direct Investment), with preferential treatments by the Chinese government. Initially, such FDI was primarily from Hong Kong investing in low-cost and labor-intensive manufacturing industries in coastal regions.[1] The restrictions from the Taiwan government to prohibit outward investment to, as well as direct trade with, the PRC did not stop Taiwanese firms from doing so. Reportedly, between 1988 and 1991, about \$3 billion in investment from thousands of Taiwanese firms reached the PRC [5].

Table 3

Korean Population and Immigration by Decade, 1910-2008

Decade Ending	Population	Growth rate	Immigration in prior decade	Growth rate
1910	5,008	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
1920	6,181	23.40%	n.a.	n.a.
1930	8,332	34.80%	n.a.	n.a.
1940	8,568	2.80%	n.a.	n.a.
1950	7,030	-18.00%	n.a.	n.a.
1960	11,000	56.50%	7,025	n.a.
1970	69,150	528.60%	34,526	391.50%
1980	357,393	416.80%	267,638	675.20%
1990	798,849	123.50%	336,000	25.50%
2000	1,076,872	34.80%	187,794	-44.11%
2008	1,344,267	24.80%	215,003	14.49%

At the other side of the Pacific Ocean and as a result of geopolitical changes in the global arena as the rise of the socialist "East Block" and independent movements among third world countries, the US gradually repealed all previous discriminatory immigration laws and policies toward Asians. At the beginning of the Cold War, the 1952 McCarran-Walter Act abolished 1917 Asiatic Barred Zone but nevertheless instituted a restrictive "Asian Pacific Triangle", permitting only a 2,000 annual immigrant quota for the entire region. It was not until the landmark 1965 Immigration and Naturalization Act and subsequent policies that triggered large immigration waves from Asian countries. Here we mainly focus on two specific streams of such international migration from Asia: 1) mass migration due in large part to the 1965 immigration policy in favor of family reunification (counting for up to 80% of annual immigration quota); and 2) intellectual migration in the form of students and scholars between Asia and America.

The changing immigration admission policies yielded a dramatic increase of Asian immigrants and total numbers of Asian Americans in the US. "The number of migrants from Asia increased from 17,000 in

1965, ..., to an average of more than 250,000 annually in the 1980s and over 350,000 per year in the early 1990s. Most Asians came to the United States through family reunification provisions." [3] Tables 1-3 illustrate the explosive growth of Chinese, Indian, and Korean immigrants for the first two decades since the 1965 Immigration and Naturalization Act took effect, at 336%, 1,278%, and 392% respectively in the 1960s, and 117%, 504%, and 675% in the 1970s. While Chinese immigration continued to grow in the 1980s, due in large part to the opening policy instituted in 1978, both Indian and Korean immigration slowed down to negative or slow growth respectively in the same period. As result of both immigration and natural growth, however, all these Asian groups experienced rapid population growth between 1960 and 1990: 593% for Chinese, 6,532% for Indians, and 7,162% for Koreans.

Classic migration theory stresses the importance of wage differences between origin and destination in migration decision making. People move from a low wage area/country to a high wage area/country to maximize their earning potential and improve their lives. It can apply to labor migration and family reunification. As such, if everything else is equal, economic development

and wage increases in the source country would slow emigration flows. This seems applicable to the Japanese immigration to the US (Table 4). The drastic growth of Japanese immigrants at the turn of the Twentieth Century was a reflection of Japan as a migrant-sending country and the result of Chinese exclusion laws. The decline during the mid-Twentieth Century was due to the restriction of Japanese immigration by the US government during World War II. The first post-WWII decade witnessed an explosive growth of Japanese immigration, but it soon stabilized or declined as Japan became an advanced industrialized country. It might explain the slow or negative growth of Korean immigration since the 1980s as well (Table 3).

Globalization and Brain Circulation: since 1990

What is important in these interactions and engagements in the era of accelerated globalization are the increases in human flows across national boundaries. The scope and speed of such international migration have accelerated dramatically in the past two decades. For instance, 63.7% of all Chinese-born and 70.0% of all Indian-born population living in the US have migrated since 1990; and in the 2000s alone (2000-2006), 28.6%

of Chinese and 34.4% of Indian migrated to the US. Moreover, 45.7% of all Chinese-born and 73.6% of all Indian-born immigrants have a bachelor or higher degree, as compared to the 27.8% among all native-born Americans.[11; 12]

The recent immigrant-receiving countries' policies on admission and integration, as well as the immigrant-sending countries development and globalizing economic context, altogether contribute the increasing complexity in contemporary international migration. The rapid growth of knowledge economies create a global shortage of scientifically and technologically trained talents to fuel the development of globalization.[2] This global competition for highly-skilled talents has become unprecedentedly complex, as India and China become the new economic power houses in Asia. Both countries possess rapid economic growth, as well as a burgeoning highly-educated middle class, which consequently contributes their positions as top skilled migrant sending countries to Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the United States. Facing the increasing emigrants, both Indian and Chinese governments have been potent to in recruiting these highly-skilled migrants, as well as their descendants, back to India or China.

Table 4

Japanese Population and Immigration by Decade, 1890-2008

Decade Ending	Population	Growth rate	Immigration in prior decade	Growth rate
1890	n.a.	n.a.	2,270	n.a.
1900	85,716	n.a.	25,942	1042.80%
1910	152,745	78.20%	129,797	400.30%
1920	220,596	44.40%	83,837	-35.40%
1930	278,743	26.40%	33,462	-60.10%
1940	285,115	2.30%	1,948	-94.20%
1950	326,379	14.50%	1,555	-20.20%
1960	464,332	42.30%	46,250	2874.30%
1970	591,290	27.30%	39,988	-13.50%
1980	716,331	21.10%	49,775	24.50%
1990	847,562	18.30%	44,800	-10.00%
2000	796,700	-6.00%	60,112	34.18%
2008	710,063	-10.87%	76,835	27.82%

Whether India and China can continue to be the largest source of highly-skilled talent is to be seen. One major challenge to accomplishing the "win-win-win" outcome for migrants, their sending and receiving countries, as announced as the primary goal for the UN agenda for international migration and development, [13] is to resolve the contradicting complexities embedded in between the innovations in the immigrant-receiving country immigrant policies and the imperatives for development in the immigrant sending countries, such as India and China.

In this section, our focus is primarily on highly skilled international migration, especially international students/scholars. We present their overall trends and internal variations, given they are highly mobile and without a permanent resident status in the receiving country.

The contemporary world considers highly educated and professionally trained talents a key human resource, as they possess high level of human capital, which makes higher educational attainment become one prerequisite to "upgrade" one's socio-economic status. In many developing countries, foreign degrees obtained from an accredited higher education institution in a Western country are more highly valued. As stated previously, it seems international student waves peak during the time of home country economic taking off, which offers financial resources to support such studies abroad by large numbers, but also provides ample job opportunities for return migrants including foreign degree holders. As highly valued by, and widely advertised across the world, US higher education institutions have maintained high academic reputation, and continue to attract foreign students coming to study and gain degrees.

Recent data indicates while the US remains a favorite destination for international students, its shares among nations have been decline steadily in the 2000s from 26.0% in 2000 to 18.7% in 2008. The US still attracts the majority of students from three Asian countries, however (Japan >64%; South Korea 60%; and India 51%).[8] As the results of financial aid for international students, as well as the economic growth and sometimes the prosperity of migrants' home countries, the volume of international student migrants has been growing rapidly in recent years. Moreover, the demographics of these migrants are changing significantly as well. The number of international students in US universities has reached to 671,616 in 2008, an 8% growth from 2007, which represents the highest annual rate increase since 1981. [9] Among these foreign students, Asians gradually compose more than half of the total, accounting 61.8% of the total international student population in 2008. Notably, replacing former leading countries such as Japan and the Republic of Korea in the 1980s, China and India have become the largest two sending countries of international students to the US since the late 1990s, as the growth of the globalizing economy in these two countries largely facilitates their student migration trends.

As newly rising economy powers in Asia in the past two decades, China and India's experiences resemble some similarities as well as exhibit disparities when compared to Asian NICs in terms of student migrants to the US. Following the same path as NICs, the overseas education from India and China to the US increases as a result of economic development in their home countries. On one hand, rapid economic growth in these rising countries enables more migrants to afford overseas tuitions to study in the US universities and gain professional skills from reputable institutions. The prospering economy in the home country also provides large and diverse labor market in knowledge-intensive industries

demanding highly skilled professionals, which attracts outgoing student migrants returning upon graduation. On the other hand, governments in both IC and NICs have implemented policies facilitating and promoting educational exchange in terms of degree-seeking students and exchange scholars. For example, by late 2010, China's Ministry of Education and State Administration of Foreign Experts Affairs will establish an overseas training program to send 100 Chinese college leaders to first-tier universities in Japan, the US, England and Australia to gain short-term training, aimed at promoting China's international education exchange and cooperation.[15] A number of incentives to lure back return migrants, including those with foreign degrees, have been instituted in China and India as the case of NICs. For example, the Chinese government implemented the "CheungKong Scholars Program" to provide start-up research funding for returned scholars, and similar policies on settlement reimbursement and research funding have also been implemented by the Korean and Taiwan governments.[14]

While international students from these two emerging Asian economies and the most populous countries in the world are booming, student volumes from most NICs, with the single exception of South Korea, have been leveled off, or even experienced a slight decline in recent years. [9] Similar to the PRC's situation, the rapid growth of South Korean students is also due in part to the increasing number of undergraduate students. The share of undergraduate students from South Korea reached all time high at 49.4% in academic year 2009.

Moreover, analyzing IC and NICs by country in their shares among total foreign students in the US, it is obvious that India becomes the fastest growing country in sending students, followed by China, together making up 30% of all foreign students in the US institutions in 2009, much higher than NICs combined (Figure 1).

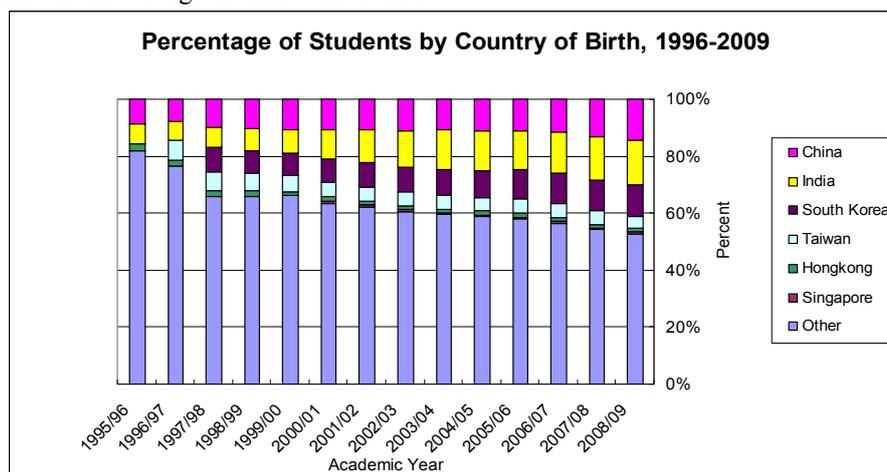


Fig. 1. Percentage of International Students by Country of Birth, 1996-2009

Yet despite their disparities, IC and NICs compose a larger share of total foreign students in the US. By 2009, more than half of the international students in the US came from IC and NICs alone. This, on the other hand, represents the economic development as well as investment on human capital in these Asian countries. The question, then, is what are the reasons for decreasing

number of students from the NICs? Colonial connection may explain for fewer students from Hong Kong or Singapore, as they may still value an academic degree from top tier UK institutions more than an American one. The opposite trends of international students from South Korea and Taiwan are interesting though. Despite both the 1997-1998 Asian financial crisis and the recent global

financial meltdown devaluing the South Korean currency, South Koreans have kept the pace and increased the volume of student migrants to the US; whereas Tai-

wan reverted to its long tradition in having students studying in the US.

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Summary

Wei Li, Wan Yu. BETWEEN ASIAN AND AMERICA: GEOPOLITICS, GLOBALIZATION, AND INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION.

At the beginning of the 19th century Chinese Qing Dynasty – after China had perceived itself as the “central kingdom” in the world and had enjoyed prosperity for centuries – the government and its people became somewhat complacent and thought that prosperity would last. What followed for more than one and a half centuries since then was China's deteriorating economy, continuous civil war and foreign invasions, and impoverished population. They would certainly not be a desirable situation for any nation. The question then is how to avoid similar mistakes being made in history. The resurgence of Asia is by now a known fact: being unaware of or choosing to ignore it would only result in faster shifting of global geopolitical and economic power balance; on the other hand, being afraid of this resurgence and panicky reactions would result in negative impacts.

To achieve potentially beneficial outcomes for different parties requires mutual understanding and respect, dialogue and negotiations, while being vigilant and taking actions against destructive forces in the process. There should be a confidence in the US system, the resiliency of the country's still youthful civilization and innovation, and its capability of absorbing people from all over the world (including international students), in order to make the best of this complex situation and in the increasingly complicated and shifting world. In the meantime, the United States' thinking should be based on long-term strategies and a deep mutual understanding of Asia. The US can prosper by promoting cooperation with Asia on equal footing, instead of aiming at winning an ideological war, a political battle, or a trade dispute at a particular time.

Keywords: globalization; immigration; China; India; NICs.