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TE TARI MAHI

PATTERNS OF GENDERED SKILLED AND TEMPORARY MIGRATION INTO NEW ZEALAND

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INTRODUCTION

New Zealand has a long history of gendered migration and this has affected the overall gender balance in the population.[1] [2] According to official records there were more men than women living in New Zealand from the time of European colonisation through to 1968.[3] However, since 1968 at each census, there have been more women recorded than men living in New Zealand. This partly relates to the ageing of the population with, due to gender differences in mortality rates in the older age groups. However, the census also shows that in the prime working age groups there has been an increasing imbalance between women and men. For example, 2006 census data indicates over 57,000 more women than men in the broad 25-49 year age group.

Previous research attributes this gender imbalance to four main factors (Callister, Bedford and Didham, 2006). These are:

- gendered migration out of New Zealand,
- differences in census response rates by women and men,
- differences in mortality rates, and
- gendered migration into New Zealand.[4]

In this early research, when permanent and long term migration (PLT) into New Zealand was considered, the data showed that there were slightly more female non-New Zealand citizens arrivals than males between 1995 and 2004 for those aged between 20-49 years. Between 1995 and 1999, there were 13 percent more women than men and in the second period 5 percent more women than men.

Interestingly when ethnicity was considered, 2006 census data indicates that the overall gender imbalance was especially pronounced between Asian women and men living in New Zealand. For example, there were 37 percent more Asian women than men in the 35-39 year age group. This was three times more than that of the total population.[5]

While there have been people of Asian ethnicity living in New Zealand from the early days of European settlement, the initial numbers were very small, but with significantly more men than women. For example, there were only nine women to 4,995 men in 1881 (Te Ara Encyclopaedia of New Zealand, 2007). While migration policy had an effect on some of these flows, other factors, like the

[1] Following the lead of Boyd (2006), we use gender rather than sex because gender refers to the norms, behaviors, and expectations associated with being female or male.

[2] The early section of the paper draws heavily on Callister, Bedford and Didham, 2005, 2006.

[3] During World War 1, the 1918 influenza pandemic and World War 2 the gender ratio was in favour of women

[4] Gendered migration into New Zealand is the focus of this research report.

[5] 2006 Census shows that there were 11% more women than in the total population, 14% for European, 17% for Maori and 11% for Pacific.

nature of the economy has always been a key driver [6] (Te Ara Encyclopaedia of New Zealand, 2007).

However, during the 1980s and 1990s the number of people of various Asian ethnic groups grew rapidly and the Asian region is likely to continue to be an important source of migrants for all industrialised countries (Hugo 2006).

While there has always been some female component to migration flows, over the past 20 years the gender balance of international migration flows has changed considerably and developed in response to a number of factors. These include gender selective demand for foreign labour, economic development and subsequent changes in gender relations in countries of origin and countries of destination. According to the 2003 ILO report, female migrants constitute nearly 51 percent of all migrants in developed countries and about 46 percent of all migrants in developing countries. In most developing regions females are increasingly migrating independently not just as dependants or family members (Sorensen, 2004). Castles and Miller (2003) have described the consequences of all these trends as an "increasing feminisation of migration at a global level".

Despite a growing significance of the global feminisation of migration, including the feminisation of labour market related migration, this area has attracted little research or policy attention in the New Zealand context. Patterns of gendered migration from Asian economies have received even less attention in the New Zealand context, despite the growth in migration from these countries. This report attempts to provide a starting point for discussions about gendered migration, particularly from various Asian nations.

Forms of Migration

In part, the size of the various streams of migration influences the overall gender composition of migration. Researchers and policy makers tend to divide migration into two groups, permanent and temporary migration. While the two categories are not entirely separate, they provide an initial analytical framework in which to consider gendered migration.

Permanent migration

In the New Zealand Residence Programme, 60 percent of the places are allocated to the Skilled/Business stream, followed by 30 percent to the Family Sponsored and 10 percent to the International Humanitarian streams.[7]

Most countries endeavour to primarily attract skilled workers, and skilled migration is currently the most important source of new migrants for New Zealand. Historically skilled migrants have tended to be male. Women however, are increasingly participating in tertiary education at high levels (and now higher than men in all main developed countries) – delaying marriage and childbearing, which is consequentially making women increasingly mobile (Dumont, Martin and

[6] In 1921, there was a quota of 100 entry permits to New Zealand a year for Chinese negotiated by Chinese consul. In 1925, Chinese women were excluded from quota permits for Chinese entry.

[7] More detail is contained in Migration Trends 2005/06.

Spielvogel 2007). Further, some well-educated women may want to migrate to escape restrictive cultures. Women today increasingly migrate independently or for work purposes (Carling 2005). Even when women migrate to join family and spouses, given that marriage markets tend to bring together similarly qualified people, female partners of skilled migrants are likely to be skilled and want to work in the destination country.

While migration may be 'permanent', short term movements by these migrants may lead to gender imbalances in the New Zealand resident population. Astronaut and cosmonaut family patterns can partially explain this, where migrants who, after taking up residence, spend lengthy periods out of New Zealand. In a Department of Labour study, 57 percent of cosmonauts had spent time apart, where one member was in New Zealand and the other overseas. Of the two-parent families, 16 percent of the principal applicants spent over 60 percent of their time out of New Zealand since taking up residence[8] (New Zealand Immigration Service 2000).

Another permanent migration stream is through partnership.[9] Currently in New Zealand, women dominate this stream. Hugo (2005) shows that marriage across borders is an increasingly important part of migration throughout many areas of the world. In part, this is a result of increased travel allowing the mixing of people from different countries. If it is mainly men who leave New Zealand for work and travel then this could lead to a gender imbalance in favour of women in foreign born partners (provided that the men come home).

The organised migration of women for marriage (often labelled 'mail-order brides') can also be a source of permanent migrants. 'Mail order brides' are often portrayed in countries such as the United States of America or New Zealand as primarily European males marrying Asian women (or perhaps Russian women). While it is not known how the partnerships came about, New Zealand research does show up some gendered patterns of intermarriage with, for example, Asian women, and particularly Thai and Pilipino women, far more likely to have a European partner than the reverse situation (Callister, Didham and Potter, 2005).

In New Zealand, men dominate the International/Humanitarian stream.[10] New Zealand is a signatory to the 1951 United Nations Convention and the 1967 Protocol Relating to the Status of Refugees. Under these policies, New Zealand accepts an annual quota of 750 refugees and also considers the claims of asylum settlers. British research shows that refugees and asylum seekers are primarily male (Vertovec, 2006). However, subsequent flows connected to this initial migration can also be highly gendered if it is mainly female partners who arrive through family migration schemes.

Research also shows that policies on skilled immigration can change the gender balance of migrants. An example that Inglis (Australia 2003) suggests, is that

[8] This study did not look at gender differences in these practices

[9] This includes legal marriage, defacto relationships and same sex partnership.

[10] International/Humanitarian stream includes Pacific Access Category and Samoan Quota

shift away from family reunification to a skills-based approach appears to have boosted female migration. Recognising that migration policy may have different impact on women and men, Canada has begun testing all new immigration policies for their potential gender impact.[11]

Temporary migration

In New Zealand 1.5 million people were either granted a temporary visitor, student or work permit upon arrival in 2005/06. Temporary migrants (workers and students) generate significant benefits to New Zealand's labour market needs as they are a crucial source of skilled labour and possess skills and experience needed by New Zealand employers (Merwood 2006).

International students also contribute to New Zealand through foreign exchange earnings and by promoting international links. At the end of their studies, international students are able to participate in the labour force as they can offer employers New Zealand qualifications (Merwood). In Canada, the contribution of international students to science and engineering is commended as advancing Canada's knowledge-based economy (Boyd M). The number of fee paying international students in New Zealand increased strongly from just under 6,000 in the mid 1990s to reach a peak of just over 50,000 in 2004.[12]

In most high-income countries, due to both the increasing employment of well-educated women and the ageing of the population, there is increasing demand for service workers, including low skill care workers. Globally it is primarily women who migrate to undertake domestic or care work. This flow of labour is invariably often from developing or newly emerging economies to developed western economies and can be characterised as a 'global transfer of domestic services'. The Philippines, Indonesia and Thailand are important sources of such labour. In an earlier phase of their development, many western countries extracted natural resources and agricultural products – rubber, metals, and sugar, for example – from previously colonised regions. In their studies of domestic labour, Ehrenreich and Hochschild (2002), suggest that currently the transfers include a less tangible form of exchange: that of 'care'. Remittance sent home from these workers are very important for some countries. For example, in 2002, remittances from Sri Lanka's migrant workers contributed to 27 per cent of the country's foreign exchange earnings (Siddiqui and Hossainul Haque 2005).

There is also an increasing demand for temporary workers in areas such as harvesting. The Minister of Immigration introduced a temporary seasonal work programme in 2005 to cover the summer harvesting period 2005/2006, and then extended to run through to the end of September 2006 (Bedford 2007). In October 2006, at the Pacific Forum meeting in Fiji, New Zealand's Prime Minister, Helen Clark, advised delegates that there would be a new seasonal labour migration scheme introduced in April 2007. This scheme will allow for up to 5,000

[11] http://www.web.net/~ccr/GBAresearch.pdf

[12] Students in formal tertiary education 1965-2005, http://educationcounts.edcentre.govt.nz/statistics/downloads/Provider-based-enrolments.xls

temporary workers to be employed in any one season. Depending on the nature of the work, women may be preferred to men (or vice versa).

Transitions between types of migration

Migration is no longer seen as a unique temporary or permanent movement. In 2005/06, 87 percent of migrants approved for residence had previously been in New Zealand on either a visitor, study or work permit (Merwood 2006). The linking of temporary immigration policy with residence policy can be beneficial to migrants and New Zealand.

In New Zealand, a growing proportion of temporary workers and students transition to permanent residence. About 30 percent of work permit holders and 20 percent of student permit holders gain permanent residence within five years of being issued their first work and student permits (Merwood 2006). Temporary visitors can also make the transition via the nature of their relationships, with New Zealand citizens and permanent residents (Bedford 2007). Research by the Department of Labour has shown that migrants who have worked in New Zealand prior to gaining residence have positive employment outcomes after gaining residence (Dunstan 2004). In fact over 90 percent of skilled migrants (approved for residence onshore) had previously held either a work or student permit prior to gaining residence (Badkar 2006).

Equally 'permanent' migrants may not stay long term in New Zealand. While not considered in this paper, departures of permanent migrants will influence the gender balance of the stock of remaining migrants. Australian research suggests that gender may be important in these flows as well, with Hugo (2007) showing that between 1997 to 1998 and 2005 to 2006, only 92 China-born females left compared with 100 China-born males.

Irregular migrants

Boyd (2006: 5-6) notes there are three main types of irregular migrants:

- those who enter a country legally with valid documentation but who violate the terms of their admissions (for example, those on visitor visas);
- those who enter a country legally, but with fraudulent documentation;
- those who enter a country illegally, that is without undergoing formal admission.

She notes that the 'irregular population' in the US, a group that is the subject of much debate in recent years, is estimated at about 10 million people, representing a little over one quarter of all foreign-born people in the country. Boyd notes that women are estimated to comprise about 41 percent of irregular migrants in the United States.

Stilwell et al (2004) notes that some Asian governments have attempted to control female migration in order to protect their citizens from abuse abroad, but suggest that these policies have driven migrants urgently needing an income into more risky, clandestine forms of migration. At times illegal immigrants, such as overstayers, can transition into being permanent residents. Bedford (2007) notes the 2000 Transitional Policy that allowed well-established overstayers in New

Zealand to legalise their residence via a temporary work permit if they did not have appropriate work when they registered as overstayers. This was one of the most important routes to residence in New Zealand for Pacific citizens between July 2002 and June 2006 with it accounting for 13 percent of the 31,521 residence approvals for citizens of Pacific countries.

Finally, Boyd notes that the trafficking of persons is a gendered aspect of illegal migration. She suggests that this "modern form of slavery" include begging, forced labour especially in sweatshop manufacturing or farms, and prostitution and other forms of sexual exploitation. While men and children are part of the trafficked population, women and young children predominate, often working in the sex trade.

Labour market outcomes of female migrants

In the late 1990s, one million women from the Philippines, 500,000 Indonesian women and 40,000 Thai women were working outside their countries (IOM, 2005). The Philippines is the largest exporter of migrant labour throughout the world (Jolly and Reeves, 2005). In the Philippines, Indonesia and Sri Lanka, female migrants account for 60-80 percent of their labour migrants (ibid). While many of these women from these countries are lower skill domestic workers, and often temporary workers, the Philippines places a premium on the training and education of its emigrants, particularly nurses, but also domestic workers and seamen, as part of its proactive labour exporting policy (IOM, 2005). As a result the Philippines is able to achieve higher wage levels for its migrants in destination countries (Orozco, 2005).

In New Zealand, one area where skilled migrants are a very important part of the workforce is the health sector. For instance an estimated 40% of doctors working in New Zealand hospitals are trained overseas.[13]

Stilwell et al (2004) note that African and Asian nurses fill the gaps in the health sectors in countries such as the UK and US and suggest that this will continue in the near future. The UNRISD (2005) also note that recourse to foreign nurses in response to the crisis in nursing has constituted a truly global labour market, especially in the UK and Ireland, as well as in Canada and the US. Above all, it is the Philippines which supply the overwhelming number (ibid). Nursing is a female dominated sector, with 90% or more of the nursing workforce being comprised of women (Buchan and Calman 2004).

As well as health, skilled women have tended to be attracted to welfare and social professions, for example education and social work, both of which are traditionally female dominated professions. An analysis of UK work permit data for 2000 showed that sectors with high proportions of female staff constituted some of the fastest growing sectors of migrant employment.

While women are increasingly migrating for employment, a policy concern for many OECD countries relates to the differential labour market outcomes for

[13] http://www.nzherald.co.nz/category/story.cfm?c_id=278&objectid=10451500

migrant women. While certain groups of immigrants face specific difficulties in integrating into the labour market in certain OECD countries, the difficulties for migrant women can at times be compounded. These differences increase for women with both higher the level of education who have migrated from non-OECD countries appear particularly disadvantaged in this regard. This is evident for highly qualified migrant women from non-OECD countries. In Germany, the employment rate of this group is 43 percent (compared to 60 percent for all highly qualified immigrant women and 81 percent for native-born women with the same level of education). In New Zealand, although Chinese and Indian immigrant women are more likely to have a sixth-form certificate (or higher) than the national average, they had higher levels of unemployment and lower incomes[14] (Ministry of Health 2006). Similar results are found in most receiving countries in the OECD where foreign-born women have lower employment rates than their native-born counterparts. For example in 2004 (with the exception of Norway, Portugal and Switzerland), less than 60% of immigrant women aged 15 to 64 were employed (OECD fact book 2007). This gap in outcomes is partly attributable to the problems of the recognition of foreign qualifications, and more generally of their training, but also to factors such as the impact of attitudes and behaviours 'imported' from the country of origin or to language problems (SOPEMI 2006). One of the attitudes can be about gender roles in the home, with British research showing that mothers born in South Asia, the Middle East and North Africa are more likely to not be in paid work when their children are young (Vertovec, 2006).

In some cases women tend to integrate more quickly into society and paid work than men. Research in the US has shown that many first-generation immigrant men from South America face downward social mobility by being forced to accept lower-skill jobs and lower social status due to racism. However, their wives often experience migrating to the US in terms of upward social mobility because of their involvement in paid work and, with this, increasing independence. In addition, as mothers they potentially connect more with local authorities (kindergarten, school, social services) and thus engage with the country of destination in a way that might foster faster integration. This is also reflected in the data that show women are more likely than men to become US citizens (Jones-Correa 1998). Perhaps linked with this, women tend to politically integrate faster than men. In the US it has been found that men tend to be active in ethnic organisations whose orientation is towards politics in their home countries, whereas women engage in political activism that deals with issues in their adopted country (Hardy-Fanta 1993).

When employed, immigrant women are more likely to be 'over-qualified' for the job they do, i.e. the proportion of women who, according to their education level,

[14] 2001 census data shows that 75.5% Chinese and 68.3% Indian female migrants (non New Zealand born) had a sixth-form qualification or higher compared to the national average (48.1%). However their unemployment rate were higher (6.0% and 7.6% respectively) than the national average (4.7%), and the proportion on an income $20,000 or less was higher (68.7% and 58.1% respectively) than the national average (55.2%). Chinese and Indian immigrant men had similar outcome rates to women.

should be exercising a more skilled profession. This 'over-qualification' is particularly pronounced for immigrant women from non-OECD countries (SOPEMI 2006). Similarly, results from the Longitudinal Study of Immigrants in Canada found that only 40 percent of skilled principal applicants (who arrived in 2000/01) were working in the occupation or profession in which they were trained, and many immigrants with university degrees were working in jobs that usually required a high school or less (Banting 2007).

While such obstacles are not necessarily restricted to immigrant women, the impact on immigrant women may be greater given their predomination in certain fields of work. Highly qualified immigrant women are over-represented relative to immigrant men, in the fields of education, medical professions, arts and humanities. As Iredale 2004 notes, skilled migration is heterogeneous in its gender divisions, occupations and conditions of work. Men predominate amongst those moving within transnational corporations and in the Information Technology and Scientific sectors (HRST), (OECD 2002). There are also gender implications involved in the accreditation and recognition of skills. Furthermore, it can be a gendered demand structure that explains the dominance of a certain gender in specific migration streams. For example, 88 percent of the Green card permits in Germany in 2000 were taken up by men (SOPEMI 2001), with the vast majority of scientists from Eastern Europe where there are almost as many women in the same profession (thus the gender imbalance does not necessarily already exist in the countries of origin). According to a study carried out by the Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO) Trust in New Zealand, skilled female migrants have been reported to be subject to ethnic or racial discrimination when seeking employment (Basnayake 1999).

METHODS

Apart from the 2006 census, the main data source utilised for the analysis is the Department of Labour's immigration administrative database.[15] Overall migration trends from 1997/98 to 2005/06 are examined through the following streams: Skilled/Business, Family sponsored and International/Humanitarian, as well as the shorter term migration flows of students and temporary workers.

In terms of skilled migration, the research examines the number of female and male migrants (who were principal applicants) entering New Zealand from source countries that had the biggest number of migrants from the Skilled/Business streams as at 2005/06. These countries are Great Britain, South Africa, China, India, South Korea and United States of America (USA). However, based on sex ratios of Asian New Zealand residents (where the female to male ratio is markedly high), trends in female and male migrants from Thailand, the Philippines and Japan are examined.

Following on from the trend results, the study also looks at differences in gender ratios by the 20-29 years, 30-39 years, 40-49 years age groups for the aforementioned countries. Some occupation and industry data are also analysed at a broad level. This paper examines the proportion of female and male migrants who are principal applicants who came into New Zealand as solo migrants (principal applicants) and with dependants (secondary applicants which includes a partner and children).

In terms of temporary migration, the research also looks at trends in the number of female and male migrants entering New Zealand as international students and as temporary workers from 2001/02 to 2005/06. The same source countries and the same age groups as the Skilled/Business stream are examined. While there are a significant number of overseas students aged under 20 studying in New Zealand, our main focus is those in the key labour market age groups.

[15] Data from the census refers to ethnicity data, while immigration data from the DoL refers to nationality. Immigration data does not collect information on ethnicity.

RESULTS

Table 1 draws on 2006 census data to show overall sex ratios of New Zealand residents, as well as the ratios for the main level 1 ethnic groups.[16] It shows that overall the ratios favour women in all five year age groups from 20-49. However, Table 1 also shows the ratio is the highest amongst the Asian group in the over 30 age group. In particular, in the 35-39 age group, these census data indicate 37 percent more Asian women than men living in New Zealand. Comparing 2001 and 2006 census data shows that the Asian population in the 20-49 age group grew by around 59 percent or just over 70,000 in this five year period. This increase is primarily due to migration and therefore the data suggests a strongly gendered migration flow in some age groups.

Table 1: Ratio of women to men in each age and ethnic group, total ethnic counts, 2006

	European	Mäori	Pacific Peoples	Asian	MELAA[1]	Other Ethnicity	Total *
Ratio							
20-24	1.05	1.10	1.07	1.01	0.91	0.84	1.01
25-29	1.11	1.17	1.12	1.10	1.03	0.89	1.07
30-34	1.16	1.18	1.09	1.29	0.98	0.89	1.11
35-39	1.14	1.17	1.11	1.37	0.83	0.89	1.11
40-44	1.11	1.15	1.08	1.25	0.89	0.93	1.08
45-49	1.07	1.13	1.07	1.19	0.87	0.92	1.05
20-24	154,194	42,771	20,721	45,621	3,372	20,388	270,978
25-29	140,481	38,106	18,918	32,232	3,258	23,079	242,442
30-34	169,521	39,459	18,129	27,882	3,309	31,680	276,561
35-39	186,630	38,598	18,075	29,160	3,192	36,060	301,554
40-44	195,753	37,272	16,089	30,744	2,700	38,742	313,698
45-49	188,004	31,908	12,687	24,870	2,055	38,664	293,421

* includes those whose ethnicity is not stated

[1] Middle Eastern, Latin American and African ethnic groups

The extreme ratios for Asians seen in the 30-34 and 35-39 age groups are primarily driven by Asians born overseas. For example, in the 35-39 age-group the data shows that 92 percent of Asians living in New Zealand were born overseas. In addition, of those born in New Zealand, the data shows there were 11 percent more women than men in 2006. However, for those born overseas and in New Zealand for less than five years, there are 29 percent more women, rising to 50 percent more women for those Asians born overseas but living in New Zealand more than five years.

[16] Many of the foreign students may be captured in the census and may also apply for permanent residence when they have completed their studies

Tables 2 and 3 are also based on 2006 census data but uses data from the main Asian country of birth.[17] Table 2 shows ratios for those born overseas and in New Zealand for less than five years for the main Asian source countries. This table gives some indication of the recent migration flows from the various countries.[18] Table 3 shows those who arrived in earlier migrations.

Underlying these tables is a considerable amount of complexity. In terms of age structure of the data in Table 1, for those from China, 48 percent are in the 20-24 age group and only 10 percent in the 35-39 age group. In contrast, only 9 percent of those from the Philippines are in the 20-24 age group, but 24 percent are in the 35-39 group. As will be shown in the migration data, this primarily reflects differing streams of migration. Also for Asian women there are some major differences in education levels by country of origin. For example, in the 30-34 age group, for those women born in Thailand, 28 percent had no formal qualifications whereas only 4 percent of women from the Philippines, 7 percent from China and 5 percent from Japan had no formal qualification.[19] In terms of degrees or higher qualifications in this age group, half of those women born in the Philippines held such qualifications, while the figure was 26 percent for those women born in Japan. This compares with an overall figure of 29 percent of New Zealand women in this age group holding such qualifications. The high level of degrees amongst women from the Philippines is an indication that these women are generally not in New Zealand to undertake low skill domestic work.

However, some broad patterns can be seen from these data. First, for both those who were born overseas and here less than five year, and those who were more than five years the main countries of origin from Asia are the same: India and China. But there has been some concentration on these countries for the recent migrants. For those here longer than five years, places such as Hong Kong, Sri Lanka, Cambodia and Vietnam are more important. This reflects changes in both push and pull factors for migration, such as the transfer of Hong Kong to Chinese control in 1997 and the strong outward migration at this point in time.

More directly related to the central focus of this paper, the ratio of women to men in the two groups of migrants have some similarities. In most age groups for those coming from countries including the Philippines, Thailand, Vietnam, Indonesia and Japan there are significantly more women than men. For several of the other countries there are more women than men in many age groups. India and Pakistan stand out in most age groups in having more men than women living in New Zealand.

[17] While there is some overlap between Asian country of birth and Asian ethnicity, not all those from Asian countries record Asian ethnicity.

[18] Although someone may have migrated earlier to New Zealand but had spent some period overseas and returned within the five year period before the 2006 census.

[19] Overall, 2006 census data show that overseas born women in the age groups of interest are better educated than women born in New Zealand.

Table 2: Ratio of women to men by each main Asian country of birth for those born overseas and in New Zealand less than five years, 2006

	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	Total men and women 20-49
India	0.92	0.98	0.87	0.87	0.93	0.76	16,101
Pakistan	1.00	1.17	0.74	0.63	0.69	0.60	651
Sri Lanka	1.07	1.31	1.25	1.19	0.97	0.91	1,257
Cambodia	1.53	0.75	0.85	0.71	1.22	1.40	852
Thailand	1.46	2.10	3.39	3.12	2.69	3.38	1,260
Viet Nam	1.13	1.36	1.11	1.91	1.36	1.71	891
Indonesia	1.54	2.12	1.76	2.00	1.56	1.07	951
Malaysia	1.23	1.24	1.60	1.37	1.67	1.27	2,709
Philippines	1.20	1.84	1.83	1.51	1.21	1.29	3,900
Singapore	1.57	1.20	1.46	1.41	1.26	1.16	642
China	0.95	1.07	1.54	1.34	1.29	1.12	31,218
Hong Kong	1.04	1.80	1.50	2.00	1.25	1.15	459
Japan	1.71	2.49	2.63	2.41	2.09	2.00	3,144
Korea	1.40	1.20	1.93	2.40	1.89	0.96	7,350
Taiwan	1.32	1.95	1.85	2.78	2.79	1.19	957

Table 3: Ratio of women to men by each main Asian country of birth for those born overseas and in New Zealand more than five years, 2006

	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	Total men and women 20-49
India	0.85	1.18	1.36	0.95	0.85	0.80	9,588
Pakistan	1.10	0.82	0.68	0.52	0.44	0.71	522
Sri Lanka	0.86	0.66	0.87	1.01	1.17	1.24	2,514
Cambodia	0.90	1.28	1.16	1.10	0.97	1.34	2,634
Thailand	1.11	1.90	2.83	3.39	3.74	4.68	2,622
Viet Nam	1.09	1.15	1.03	0.92	0.83	1.04	2,214
Indonesia	1.25	1.30	1.27	1.29	1.41	1.32	1,389
Malaysia	0.91	1.06	1.10	1.21	1.32	1.17	5,994
Philippines	1.04	1.24	2.31	2.57	2.80	3.36	5,511
Singapore	1.00	1.07	1.00	1.46	2.07	1.92	2,025
China	0.96	1.01	1.48	1.72	1.09	1.03	19,926
Hong Kong	0.96	0.93	0.89	1.16	1.67	1.91	3,483
Japan	0.95	1.96	2.51	3.38	3.06	2.55	2,934
Korea	0.96	0.90	1.19	1.94	1.48	1.30	7,197
Taiwan	0.94	0.77	1.45	2.43	2.65	2.29	4,737

An undercount may help explain some small part of the gender differences within the Asian population. After each census a Post Enumeration Survey (PES) is carried out, which helps estimate undercount. The 2006 PES found that the 2006 Census missed more males than females, as was also the case in the two previous surveys. However, with a net undercount of 2.1 percent for males and 1.8 percent for females. The net undercount was 1.4 percent for the European population, 3.1 percent for Māori, 2.3 percent for Pacific peoples and 5.2 percent for the Asian population. While higher for Asians this undercount is not high

enough to explain the census differences, so the remaining results section focuses on migration.

Permanent migration

Overall patterns of migration in New Zealand are characterised by strongly increasing Skilled/Business migration, with smaller growth in Family Sponsored and International/Humanitarian migration (Badkar, Callister, and Krishnan 2006; Merwood 2006).

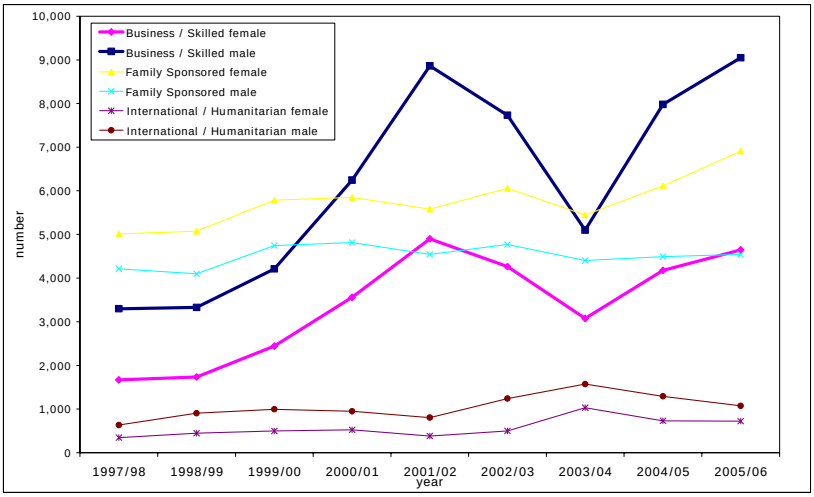
Overall gender ratios

The overall gender ratios differ by residence stream. For the Skilled/Business steam, it is not surprising that men outnumber women (as shown in Figure 1) such that the female to male ratio is 1:2 throughout the 1997/98 to 2005/06 period. This female to male ratio is consistent based on the responses received from the Settlement Experiences Feedback Survey (SEFS), where 37 percent of the principal applicants were women and 67 percent were men (Badkar 2006). This pattern is similar when all Asian nationalities are considered as shown in Figure 2. The main difference is that the gap between Asian women and men is closer post 2003/04, which can be attributed to the changes in policy.[20]

Conversely the female to male ratio for the Family Sponsored stream remains high (1.2:1 in 1997/98 to 1.5:1 in 2005/06). In contrast, in the International/Humanitarian stream, men principal applicants outnumber women (0.6:1 in 1997/98 to 0.7:1 in 2002/03). However when all applicants are considered (this includes secondary applicants), the gender ratio is close to 1.

Although the proportion of female to male migrants for the Business/Skilled stream is low (1:2) throughout the 1997/98 to 2005/06 period, it is interesting to see how this trend varies by the main migrant source countries.

Figure 1: Trends in female and male migrants entering New Zealand through the three residence streams



[20] The Skilled Migrant Category (SMC) was introduced in December 2003.

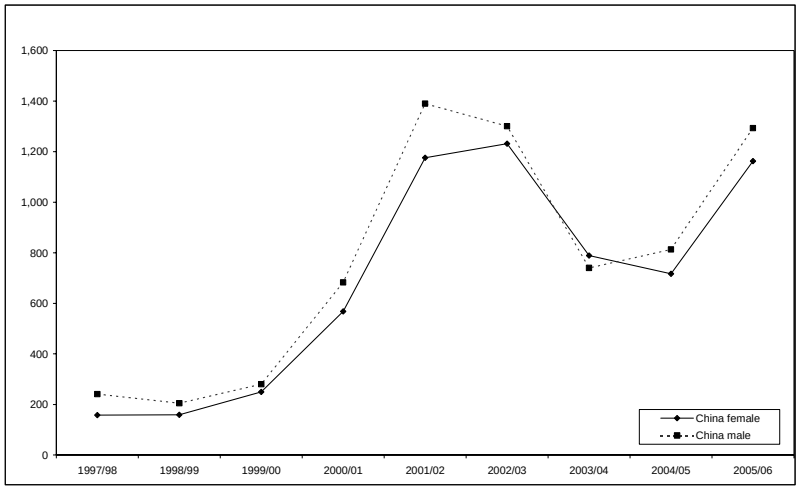
Skilled Permanent Migration

The following section looks at trends in women and men from the six biggest migrant source countries (as at 2005/06) entering New Zealand through the Skilled/Business streams.[21]

China

China has a different balance of men and women. As shown in Figure 2, the number of men and women from China increased exponentially from 1997/98 to 2001/02. The number of men gradually decreased in 2002/03 and more so in 2003/04, but continued to increase from 2004/05 to 2005/06. Their female counterparts increased slightly in 2002/03 and decreased further in 2003/04 and 2004/05 and increased further in 2005/06. This pattern of Chinese migration flows is similar to that of the total Skilled/Business stream migrant population (see Figure 1). Although there were slightly more Chinese men than women, their overall female to male ratio is close to even, suggesting a relatively equal number of Chinese women and men entering New Zealand during the 1997/98 to 2005/06 period. Reasons for this fluctuation include immigration policy changes in November 2002 that had a big impact on business migration (mainly affecting Chinese). Also changes to the GSC and SMC could also have some influence. Japan follows a similar pattern to China.

Figure 2: Trends in female and male migrants entering New Zealand from China through the Skilled/Business stream



With the exception of China which had relatively equal numbers of women and men, all the other main source countries, were dominated by men. Overall there has been a strong increase in principal applicant approvals between 1997/98 and 2005/06 in Business/Skilled migration from Great Britain, South Korea and the United States (Figures 3, 4 and 5). There has been little overall change in migration from South Africa (Figure 6). Apart from a large increase of migrants from India in the middle period (2000/01 to 2002/03), overall there was relatively little change from the start to end period (Figure 7). In all these

[21] The six biggest source countries as at 2005/06 were Great Britain, South Africa, China, India, South Korea and USA.

countries, there have been more men than women entering New Zealand (as principal applicants) through the Business/Skilled stream.

Figure 3: Trends in female and male migrants entering New Zealand through the Skilled/Business stream from Great Britain

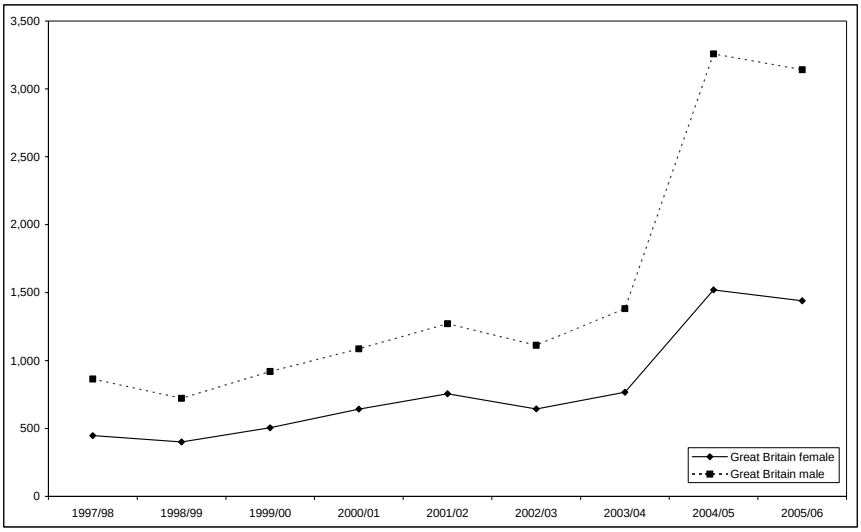


Figure 4: Trends in female and male migrants entering New Zealand from South Korea through the Skilled/Business stream

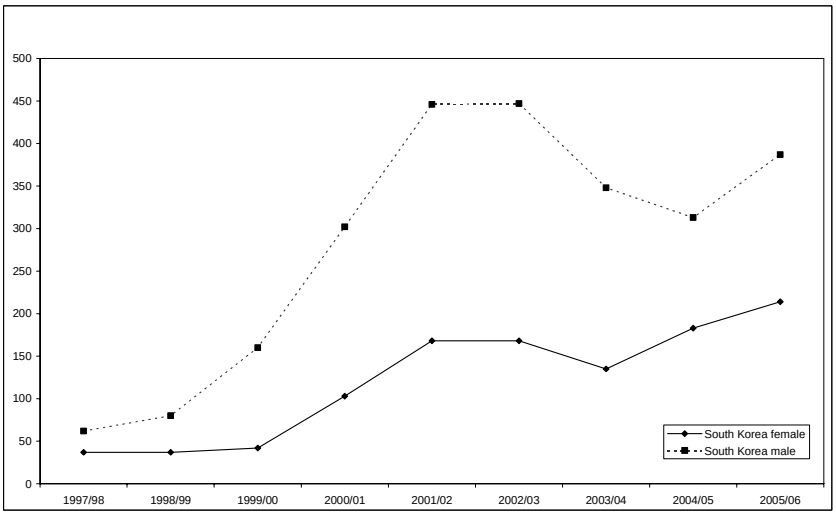


Figure 5: Trends in female and male migrants entering New Zealand through the Skilled / Business stream from USA

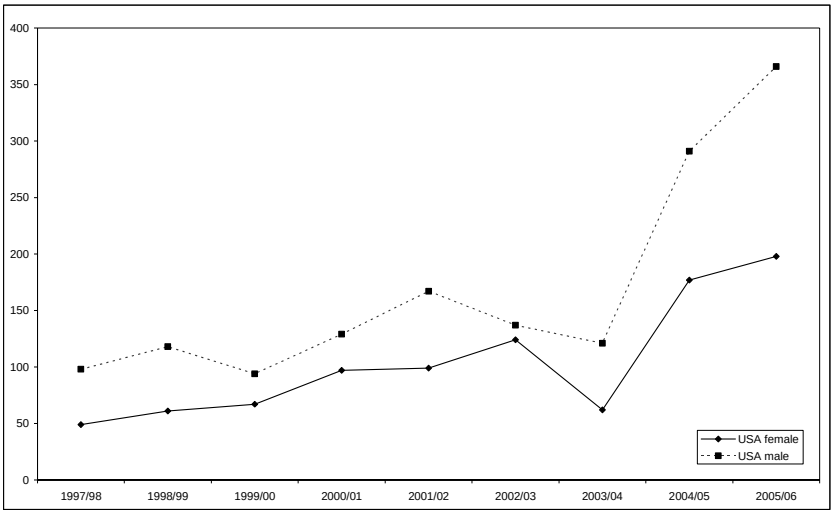


Figure 6: Trends in female and male migrants entering New Zealand through the Skilled / Business stream from South Africa

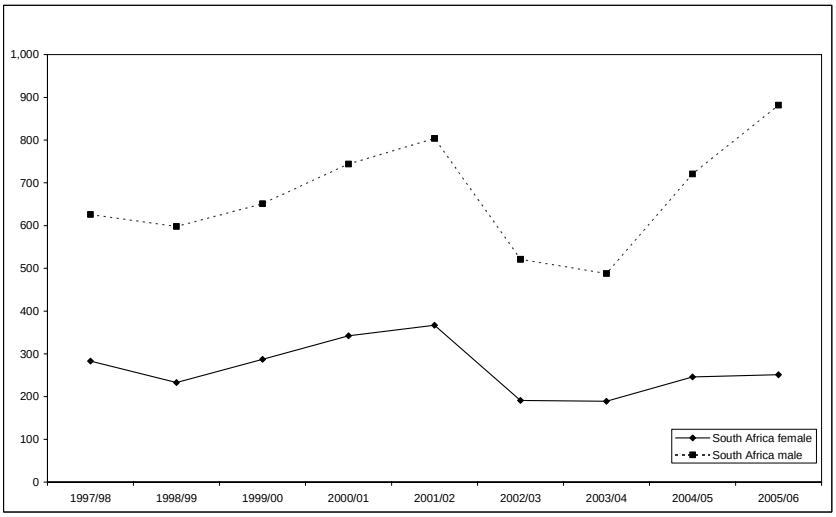
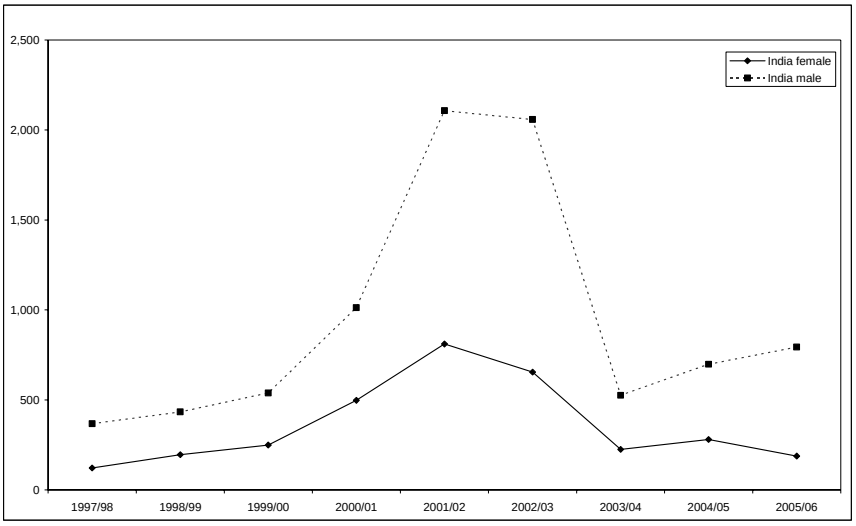


Figure 7: Trends in female and male migrants entering New Zealand from India through the Skilled / Business stream

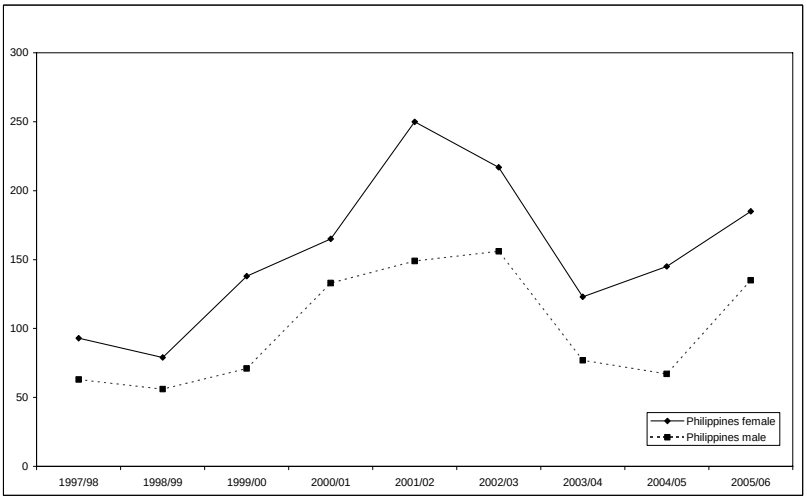


When the two main Asian source countries, Korea and India, are considered, there are more men than women coming in via the skilled migration stream. Therefore, based on the Asian sex ratio from both the 2001 and 2006 censuses, we examined two additional Asian source countries that had high female to male ratios. These countries are The Philippines and Thailand.

The Philippines and Thailand

Among skilled migrants from the Philippines, females outnumber males such that the average female to male ratio for the 1997/98 to 2005/06 period is 1.6:1. From 1997/98 to 2001/02 there was a considerable increase in female and male migrants from the Philippines. This declined between 2002/03 to 2003/04 and increased during 2004/05 to 2005/06 (Figure 8).

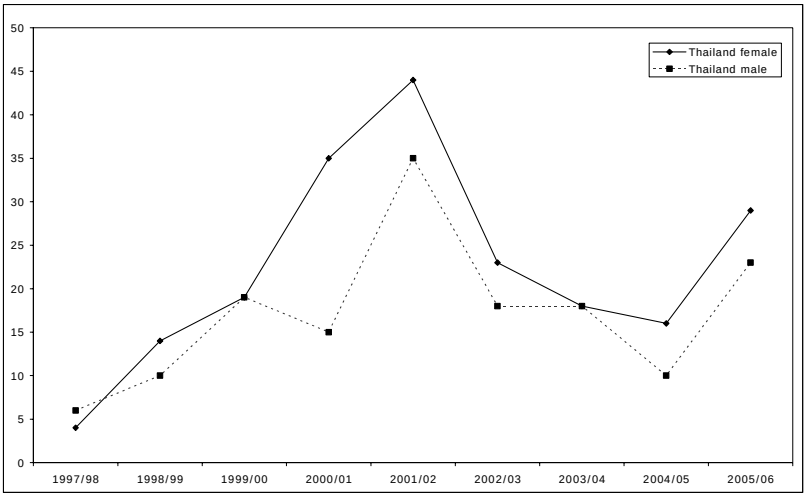
Figure 8: Trends in female and male migrants entering New Zealand from the Philippines through the Skilled / Business stream



Similarly, women from Thailand outnumbered men, and the average female to male ratio for the 1997/98 to 2005/06 period was 1.3:1. The number of female and male migrants from Thailand increased from 1997/98 to 2001/02. This

dropped between 2002/03 to 2004/05. It is important to note small numbers in the Thai group (Figure 9).

Figure 9: Trends in female and male migrants entering New Zealand from Thailand through the Skilled/Business stream



Age groups

For the Asian countries with female dominated flows the imbalances can be found in all three of the ten yearly age groups between 20 and 49 (Table 4). But for the countries where the gender flows are nearly equal (China and Japan) the balance is more in favour of men in the older age bands but in favour of women in the younger age groups (Table 5). It is possible that people migrating in the younger and older age groups are coming for different reasons and may also have different attachment to family units.

Table 4: Gender ratios for migrants from the Philippines and Thailand by age-group, through the Skilled/Business stream (women dominated countries)

	Philippines				Thailand			
	20-29 years F:M	30-39 years F:M	40-49 years F:M	All ages F:M	20-29 years F:M	30-39 years F:M	40-49 years F:M	All ages F:M
1997/98	1.93	1.21	1.50	1.48	0.50	0.50	1.00	0.67
1998/99	2.21	1.34	0.69	1.41	2.00	1.00	2.50	1.40
1999/00	2.55	1.57	2.08	1.94	1.80	1.20	0.50	1.00
2000/01	1.62	1.20	1.08	1.24	1.50	-	2.67	2.33
2001/02	1.81	1.68	1.53	1.68	1.64	1.20	0.73	1.26
2002/03	1.46	1.53	1.25	1.39	2.20	0.75	1.67	1.28
2003/04	1.88	1.58	1.43	1.60	1.14	1.00	0.71	1.00
2004/05	2.56	2.90	1.13	2.16	1.00	2.50	2.50	1.60
2005/06	1.59	1.83	0.70	1.39	0.92	1.17	1.60	1.13

Table 5: Gender ratios for migrants from China and Japan by age-group, through the Skilled/Business stream (countries with approximately equal proportions of women and men)

	Japan				China			
	20-29 years F:M	30-39 years F:M	40-49 years F:M	All ages F:M	20-29 years F:M	30-39 years F:M	40-49 years F:M	All ages F:M
1997/98	1.29	0.67	0.09	0.58	1.00	0.59	0.56	0.66
1998/99	1.20	0.40	0.63	0.60	1.00	0.80	0.22	0.78
1999/00	1.31	0.82	0.36	0.80	1.27	0.88	0.46	0.89
2000/01	0.93	1.00	1.11	0.97	1.16	0.85	0.50	0.83
2001/02	1.44	0.75	0.33	0.88	1.06	0.91	0.53	0.85
2002/03	1.86	0.80	0.11	0.79	1.28	0.98	0.57	0.95
2003/04	1.92	0.91	0.27	0.92	1.42	1.10	0.45	1.07
2004/05	1.24	1.29	0.55	1.13	0.98	0.90	0.54	0.88
2005/06	1.31	1.05	0.33	1.02	0.99	0.83	0.46	0.92

For the Asian countries which have had male dominated flows (India and South Korea) there is some complexity. For example, while numbers are small there have been periods where more young Korean women have migrated to New Zealand than young Korean men (Table 6).

Table 6: Gender ratios for migrants from the India and South Korea by age-group, through the Skilled/Business stream (men dominated countries)

	India				South Korea			
	20-29 years F:M	30-39 years F:M	40-49 years F:M	All ages F:M	20-29 years F:M	30-39 years F:M	40-49 years F:M	All ages F:M
1997/98	0.35	0.35	0.29	0.33	0.88	0.90	0.35	0.60
1998/99	0.59	0.45	0.43	0.45	2.67	0.49	0.11	0.46
1999/00	0.41	0.46	0.49	0.46	0.76	0.27	0.14	0.26
2000/01	0.52	0.51	0.46	0.49	1.17	0.44	0.17	0.34
2001/02	0.38	0.41	0.35	0.38	1.86	0.45	0.18	0.38
2002/03	0.23	0.36	0.42	0.32	1.43	0.50	0.21	0.38
2003/04	0.31	0.44	0.65	0.43	1.25	0.54	0.32	0.39
2004/05	0.28	0.46	0.66	0.40	0.97	0.78	0.51	0.58
2005/06	0.21	0.27	0.26	0.24	0.89	0.71	0.54	0.62

Principal applicants entering New Zealand, solo and with secondary applicants

While the gender balance of skilled migrants entering New Zealand is influenced by the principal applicant, the overall balance is affected by whether these applicants bring a partner with them. The overall skill balance of migrants is also influenced by the skill levels of these partners, given that processes of assortative mating tend to bring together people with similar levels of qualifications (Dumont, Martin and Spielvogel 2007). Continuing our focus on Asian countries with female dominated flows (the Philippines and Thailand), discrepancies can be seen in the proportion that migrate without secondary applicants. For example in 1999/00, there were 138 women (principal applicants) from the Philippines. Of these, 57

percent were solo applicants, and 43 percent had secondary applicants. Men from the Philippines were more likely to have secondary applicants as part of their residence application (Table 7). While not a direct outcome of this stream of migration but possibly earlier gendered migration, 2001 census data show that in New Zealand, when partnered, a male from the Philippines is highly likely to have an Asian partner, whereas a partnered woman from the Philippines is far more likely to have a non-Asian partner (Callister, Didham and Potter, 2006).

Table 7: Proportion of female and male principal applicants with and without secondary applicants (female dominated nationalities)

	Philippines			Thailand		
Female	**Single**	**Dependants**	**Total**	**Single**	**Dependants**	**Total**
1997/98	43.0	57.0	93	25.0	75.0	4
1998/99	60.8	39.2	79	35.7	64.3	14
1999/00	57.2	42.8	138	63.2	36.8	19
2000/01	46.1	53.9	165	65.7	34.3	35
2001/02	40.7	59.3	248	81.4	18.6	43
2002/03	40.7	59.3	216	69.6	30.4	23
2003/04	43.9	56.1	123	66.7	33.3	18
2004/05	33.3	66.7	144	62.5	37.5	16
2005/06	40.2	59.8	184	62.1	37.9	29
	Philippines			**Thailand**		
Male	**Single**	**Dependants**	**Total**	**Single**	**Dependants**	**Total**
1997/98	33.9	66.1	62	83.3	16.7	6
1998/99	35.7	64.3	56	30.0	70.0	10
1999/00	50.7	49.3	71	47.4	52.6	19
2000/01	30.1	69.9	133	86.7	13.3	15
2001/02	30.1	69.9	146	55.9	44.1	34
2002/03	31.6	68.4	155	52.9	47.1	17
2003/04	35.1	64.9	77	50.0	50.0	18
2004/05	26.9	73.1	67	60.0	40.0	10
2005/06	24.4	75.6	135	47.8	52.2	23

In contrast, the proportion of men and women from China with and without secondary applicants were similar throughout the 1997/98 to 2005/06 period (Table 8).

Table 8: Proportion of female and male principal applicants with and without secondary applicants (equal proportion of females and males)

	Japan			China		
Female	**Single**	**Dependants**	**Total**	**Single**	**Dependants**	**Total**
1997/98	84.0	16.0	25	26.7	73.3	146
1998/99	83.3	16.7	30	30.8	69.2	159
1999/00	82.7	17.3	52	26.8	73.2	250
2000/01	79.5	20.5	83	25.4	74.6	568
2001/02	79.3	20.7	87	29.8	70.2	1115
2002/03	84.0	16.0	75	34.3	65.7	1112
2003/04	76.8	23.2	69	51.2	48.8	744
2004/05	77.7	22.3	94	57.1	42.9	680
2005/06	84.0	16.0	125	56.4	43.6	1164
	Japan			**China**		
Male	**Single**	**Dependants**	**Total**	**Single**	**Dependants**	**Total**
1997/98	42.9	57.1	42	26.2	73.8	229
1998/99	44.0	56.0	50	28.8	71.2	205
1999/00	49.2	50.8	65	29.3	70.7	280
2000/01	58.1	41.9	86	18.6	81.4	683
2001/02	58.6	41.4	99	20.8	79.2	1303
2002/03	54.3	45.7	92	26.3	73.7	1115
2003/04	48.6	51.4	74	42.8	57.2	645
2004/05	48.2	51.8	83	47.9	52.1	756
2005/06	54.8	45.2	124	50.3	49.7	1291

In male dominated streams, the proportion of women from India with secondary applicants was higher than all the other countries mentioned. This could suggest that the attributes of the principal applicant who is most suited for maximum points under the Skilled Migrant Category (SMC) is used, whether it is male or female. It is also interesting to note that the percentage of women (and men) from India, migrating solo has increased (more than doubled) between 1997/98 to 2005/06. In contrast the number of men and women migrating solo from South Korea has decreased.

Table 9: Proportion of female and male principal applicants with and without secondary applicants (male dominated nationalities)

	India			South Korea		
Female	**Single**	**Dependants**	**Total**	**Single**	**Dependants**	**Total**
1997/98	13.9	86.1	122	45.9	54.1	37
1998/99	10.7	89.3	196	45.9	54.1	37
1999/00	9.2	90.8	249	45.2	54.8	42
2000/01	16.3	83.7	498	35.9	64.1	103
2001/02	16.5	83.5	804	33.5	66.5	164
2002/03	20.8	79.2	634	25.3	74.7	158
2003/04	23.8	76.2	223	26.5	73.5	132
2004/05	30.0	70.0	277	26.4	73.6	182
2005/06	38.8	61.2	188	23.9	76.1	213
	India			**South Korea**		
Male	**Single**	**Dependants**	**Total**	**Single**	**Dependants**	**Total**
1997/98	25.1	74.9	366	22.6	77.4	62
1998/99	19.2	80.8	433	13.8	86.3	80
1999/00	23.0	77.0	538	18.8	81.3	160
2000/01	26.5	73.5	1013	11.9	88.1	302
2001/02	35.5	64.5	2061	9.0	91.0	433
2002/03	44.4	55.6	2031	9.9	90.1	423
2003/04	47.8	52.2	510	9.2	90.8	325
2004/05	59.5	40.5	693	13.2	86.8	310
2005/06	66.4	33.6	798	14.2	85.8	387

In some other male dominated migration sources, such as from South Africa, a significant proportion of those migrating have dependents (Table 10). This means that the overall gender balance of those migrating from this country is more even than in some countries where it is mainly single people migrating. This shows the importance of the family unit in decisions around migration. According to Hugo (2007), narrowing the focus on individuals (as if they have no family connections) may not attract immigrants that a country needs, and they may not stay for long periods unless they can sustain their family networks.

Table 10: Proportion of female and male principal applicants with and without secondary applicants (other large source countries – male dominated)

	Great Britain			South Africa			USA		
Female	**Single**	**Dependants**	**Total**	**Single**	**Dependants**	**Total**	**Single**	**Dependants**	**Total**
1997/98	55.3	44.7	443	20.0	80.0	280	51.0	49.0	49
1998/99	56.6	43.4	401	17.2	82.8	233	42.6	57.4	61
1999/00	59.0	41.0	505	19.9	80.1	287	50.7	49.3	67
2000/01	56.6	43.4	643	24.0	76.0	342	52.6	47.4	97
2001/02	51.5	48.5	756	22.4	77.6	362	53.2	46.8	94
2002/03	43.2	56.8	634	25.7	74.3	191	41.2	58.8	119
2003/04	44.2	55.8	761	20.1	79.9	184	42.9	57.1	56
2004/05	36.8	63.2	1509	27.2	72.8	246	49.7	50.3	173
2005/06	38.1	61.9	1434	22.2	77.8	252	45.2	54.8	199
	Great Britain			**South Africa**			**USA**		
Male	**Single**	**Dependants**	**Total**	**Single**	**Dependants**	**Total**	**Single**	**Dependants**	**Total**
1997/98	32.0	68.0	855	11.4	88.6	621	29.2	70.8	96
1998/99	37.0	63.0	722	7.7	92.3	598	29.7	70.3	118
1999/00	34.8	65.2	919	12.1	87.9	652	38.3	61.7	94
2000/01	36.9	63.1	1087	13.0	87.0	744	45.0	55.0	129
2001/02	31.1	68.9	1254	14.0	86.0	793	42.7	57.3	164
2002/03	29.5	70.5	1094	13.5	86.5	519	29.6	70.4	135
2003/04	22.0	78.0	1352	11.0	89.0	484	31.4	68.6	118
2004/05	22.4	77.6	3225	13.3	86.7	715	29.4	70.6	286
2005/06	24.2	75.8	3141	16.1	83.9	877	36.1	63.9	366

Occupations by gender (skilled principal applicants)

Gendered migration may be more connected to the type of occupation the migrant is coming to New Zealand to work in, rather than primarily the source country. For example if skilled trade workers are being sought, this migration flow is likely to be male no matter what country they come from. Equally for nurses, given that this is such a gendered occupation in all countries, then most nurses migrating to New Zealand are likely to be female. However, there may be some differences within specific occupations by source country. For example, it may be that in some source countries there are a similar number of men and women qualifying as doctors, whereas in other countries medical training may still be male-dominated.

Occupations in this analysis were classified according to the New Zealand Standard Classification of Occupations (NZSCO). As shown in Table 11, throughout the 2003/04 to 2005/06 period, women dominated the categories involving Clerks and Technicians and Associate Professionals. Although men outnumbered women in the Professional category, the number of women in the Professional category increased by 64 percent between 2003/04 to 2005/06 (Table 11). Interestingly, results from the SEFS show that women skilled migrants were more likely than men to be classified as Professionals (40 percent and 28 percent respectively).[22] It is also important to note that within the Professional category, the number of women the NZSCO sub major group of Life Science and Health Professional category significantly outnumbered men (Table 12). When investigated further, women outnumbered men in the NZSCO minor group with the majority of women in the Nursing and Midwifery professions (Table 13) (Badkar, Callister and Krishnan 2006). [23]

In terms of Health Professionals (NZSCO minor group), there are some differences in the gender balance by country of origin. In terms of the largest suppliers of Health Professionals (except nurses), in the period 2003/04 to 2005/06, the highest ratios of females to male health professional migrants was from Great Britain (48 percent female), while lower ratios within country specific sources were seen from South Africa (34 percent female), United States (32 percent female) and India (19 percent female).

[22] 94 percent of both women and men were employed (working for pay or profit) at the time of the survey

[23] These occupations are on the Long Term Skill Shortage List (LTSSL), therefore it's easier to get enough points through the SMC.

Table 11: Occupations (NZSCO major group) 2003/04 to 2005/06, by gender (Principal applicant)

NZSCO major group	Gender	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06
Agriculture and Fishery Workers	F	22	17	33
	M	100	142	190
Clerks	F	285	119	123
	M	148	103	92
Elementary Occupations (incl. Residuals)	F	75	65	225
	M	140	119	382
Legislators, Administrators and Managers	F	420	604	715
	M	732	1,235	1,419
Plant and Machine Operators and Assemblers	F	12	13	3
	M	78	128	154
Professionals	F	1,281	2,161	2,098
	M	1,405	2,575	2,601
Service and Sales Workers	F	159	114	249
	M	230	232	625
Technicians and Associate Professionals	F	485	656	816
	M	683	1,105	1,286
Trades Workers	F	13	38	27
	M	753	1,459	1,382

Note: Occupations that are female dominated, or have an increasing number of women from 2003/04 to 2005/06 are highlighted

Table 12: Occupations level 1 and 2 for all Skilled/Business Stream migrants

NZSCO major group	NZSCO sub major group	Gender	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06
Agriculture and Fishery Workers	Market Oriented Agricultural and Fishery Workers	F	22	17	33
		M	100	142	190
Clerks	Customer Services Clerks	F	51	22	31
		M	26	21	24
	Office Clerks	F	234	97	92
		M	122	82	68
Elementary Occupations (incl. Residuals)	Labourers and Related Elementary Service Workers	F	5	1	1
		M	14	3	3
	Response Outside Scope/Not Stated	F	70	64	224
		M	126	116	379
Legislators, Administrators and Managers	Corporate Managers	F	405	589	692
		M	705	1,183	1,370
	Legislators and Administrators	F	15	15	23
		M	27	52	49
Plant and Machine Operators and Assemblers	Building and Related Workers	M	16	29	44
	Drivers and Mobile Machinery Operators	F	2	1	
		M	9	18	16
	Industrial Plant Operators	F	1	2	1
		M	18	29	31
	Stationary Machine Operators and Assemblers	F	9	10	2
		M	35	52	63

NZSCO major group	NZSCO sub major group	Gender	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06
Professionals	Life Science and Health Professionals	F	621	1,044	850
		M	248	430	372
	Other Professionals	F	237	393	473
		M	283	412	425
	Physical, Mathematical and Engineering Science Professionals	F	141	192	261
		M	641	1,337	1,410
	Teaching Professionals	F	282	532	514
		M	233	396	394
Service and Sales Workers	Personal and Protective Services Workers	F	119	95	227
		M	173	213	607
	Salespersons, Demonstrators and Models	F	40	19	22
		M	57	19	18
Technicians and Associate Professionals	Life Science and Health Associate Professionals	F	111	176	145
		M	56	83	58
	Other Associate Professionals	F	279	353	500
		M	260	377	442
	Physical Science and Engineering Associate Professionals	F	95	127	171
		M	367	645	786
Trades Workers	Building Trades Workers	F	2	7	4
		M	321	614	593
	Metal and Machinery Trades Workers	F	1	6	2
		M	368	691	631
	Other Craft and Related Trades Workers	F	4	18	19
		M	30	86	94
	Precision Trades Workers	F	6	7	2
		M	34	68	64

Note: occupations that are female dominated, or have an increasing number of women from 2003/04 to 2005/06 are highlighted

Table 13: Occupations (NZSCO minor group)

NZSCO minor group	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06
Female health professionals	86	183	121
Male health professionals	145	235	198
% female	37	44	38
Female nursing and midwifery professionals	511	805	682
Male nursing and midwifery professionals	73	111	101
% female	88	88	87

Temporary Migrants

For those on student permits, the overall ratio is in favour of men (Table 14). The overall patterns do no help us explain why there are more women than men in the 20-49 year age group in New Zealand. But there are some important age differences within this broad age band. The 20-29 year age group has by far the greatest number of students, and in this group the balance is strongly in favour of men.24 In contrast, in older age groups the ratio of students is in favour of women, however, in the older age groups, the total numbers are relatively small. When compared with domestic students, the ratio for the local students is in favour of women in all age groups but, like the international students, with a much higher ratio of women to men in the older age groups.

The recent decline in the number of international students is mainly due to the drop of students from China (Table 15). China however remains New Zealand's main source of international students (41598 in 2002/03 and 26661 in 2005/06) (Merwood 2006). There could be several reasons for this, the main ones being uncertainty over immigration policy changes; increased competition from Canada, Australia and the UK; and economic (high exchange rates), making it more expensive to study in New Zealand); negative media reports, and issues of safety and student protection (Ho 2007).

Table 14: Ratio of female to male international students in the 20 and older age groups

	20-29	30-39	40-44	45-49	50+	Total
2001/02	0.89	1.32	1.84	1.93	1.33	0.92
2002/03	0.87	1.39	2.12	1.78	1.21	0.91
2003/04	0.87	1.27	1.46	1.68	1.40	0.92
2004/05	0.88	1.09	0.93	2.06	1.55	0.93
2005/06	0.88	1.05	0.99	1.51	1.30	0.93

24 The under 20 year age group is not counted in this analysis. However, it is recognised that there are a significant number of fee paying students in the under 20 age group.

Table 15: Number of international students in the 20 and older age groups

	20-29	30-39	40-44	45-49	50+	Total 20+ *
2001/02	31,484	2,972	471	199	156	35,282
2002/03	41,954	3,330	617	281	245	46,427
2003/04	46,443	3,373	640	300	295	51,051
2004/05	43,040	2,676	396	239	263	46,614
2005/06	37,389	2,630	405	286	269	40,979

* There are a significant number of foreign students under 20 that are not shown in this table

Table 16 shows the main countries students came from in the 20-29 age group between 2001 and 2006. As already noted, by far the largest source of students in this age group over this period was China, followed by South Korea. Table 16 shows that while the overall ratio of students was in favour of men, there are some quite major differences by country. In fact, when the whole period is considered, the higher numbers of males is primarily driven by students from China and India. While the numbers are small in some countries, the ratio is in favour of women in all the other Asian countries that are shown.

Table 16: Ratio of female to male international students using student study permits in the 20-29 age group by country of origin

	2001/02	2002/03	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06	Total 2001/2006
China	0.86	0.82	0.83	0.83	0.82	121,294
India	0.13	0.16	0.19	0.22	0.27	6,995
UK	1.53	0.85	1.03	1.22	0.93	1,053
Philippines	2.08	1.92	0.85	1.44	2.14	195
Japan	1.48	1.61	1.52	1.53	1.48	7,915
South Africa	1.00	1.19	1.00	3.00	1.00	157
USA	1.19	1.29	1.31	1.32	1.38	8,158
South Korea	1.00	1.10	1.07	1.13	1.10	16,032
Taiwan	1.82	1.75	1.47	1.51	1.54	3,640
Canada	1.38	1.79	1.90	2.18	2.32	1,364
Thailand	1.24	1.05	1.17	1.31	1.27	157

Table 17 shows the gender ratios of those on temporary worker permits. The overall number of temporary workers and students over the whole period 2001 to 2006 is not dissimilar at 381,595 workers and 394,372 students.[25] But there are some differences in gender, country patterns and growth of each permit category.

Table 17 shows that the overall ratio is again in favour of men. But unlike students, the bias in favour of men is strongest in the older age groups. In the 20-29 age group, the ratio is slightly in favour of women.

[25] This includes those under 20.

Table 17: Ratio of female to male temporary workers in the 20 and older age groups

	20-29	30-39	40-44	45-49	50+	Total
2001/02	0.97	0.69	0.60	0.51	0.43	0.80
2002/03	1.00	0.73	0.60	0.56	0.44	0.84
2003/04	1.10	0.80	0.64	0.61	0.51	0.91
2004/05	1.08	0.79	0.68	0.62	0.54	0.91
2005/06	1.03	0.77	0.67	0.61	0.50	0.89

When numbers of workers are considered in each age group, Table 18 shows that, like students, the largest numbers are in the younger age groups but unlike students there are significant numbers in the 30-39 age group. In contrast with student numbers, which grew to a peak in 2003/04, temporary workers have grown strongly over the whole period.

Table 18: Number of temporary workers in the 20 and age groups

	20-29	30-39	40-44	45-49	50+	Total
2001/02	30,021	16,832	4,472	2,758	2,649	56,732
2002/03	34,872	18,480	4,889	2,953	2,963	64,157
2003/04	38,192	19,864	5,466	3,284	3,519	70,325
2004/05	42,098	22,447	6,593	3,845	3,996	78,979
2005/06	55,891	23,664	6,762	4,138	4,666	95,121

* There are a small number of temporary workers under 20 that are not shown in this table

When countries of origin are considered for the largest age group (20-29), there is some diversity of pattern (Table 19). However, in the Asian countries shown, with exception of India, there are more women than men in the flows. This includes China, which is in contrast to the flows of students which favour men. In terms of both numbers and ratio, the flows of women from Japan have been particularly strong. This can be attributed to the working holiday scheme between New Zealand and Japan, which seems to attract twice as many women than men.[26]

[26] New Zealand also has a working holiday scheme with Taiwan and Thailand.

Table 19: Ratio of female to male temporary workers in the 20-29 age group by country of origin

	2001/02	2002/03	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06	Total 2001/2006
China	1.11	1.14	0.91	1.37	1.17	17,091
India	0.29	0.50	0.40	0.79	0.79	10,860
UK	1.00	0.96	0.84	0.98	0.95	49,503
Philippines	1.13	1.36	1.16	1.36	1.34	1,529
Japan	1.79	1.51	1.28	2.13	2.01	20,547
South Africa	0.84	0.87	0.76	0.90	0.99	4,484
USA	0.97	1.08	0.63	1.17	1.11	9,945
South Korea	1.30	1.55	1.17	1.42	1.29	5,754
Taiwan	1.53	1.36	0.75	2.22	2.80	1,389
Canada	1.14	1.42	1.18	1.46	1.39	7,383
Ireland	1.21	1.13	1.06	0.91	0.90	9,804
Thailand	1.52	1.64	1.39	1.50	2.07	1,427

CONCLUSION

Gender has long been an important factor in both international migration and migration into New Zealand, and migration experiences differ for women and men. Although historically it has been men rather than women who have dominated flows, our results as well as a range of international studies suggest that women have now become critical players in the migration process such that women are a significant component of skilled migration flows and temporary migration flows into New Zealand.

When gender, age, country of origin and migration stream were considered, complexity within migration flows was uncovered. For example, when skilled migration is considered, the flows from the Philippines, Thailand, China and Japan are uniquely different to other migrant source countries. Furthermore, when just Chinese temporary migration is considered, we find that student visas for young adults are strongly male dominated, while temporary work visas are more become female dominated.

In addition, research shows that gender balance of migrants entering New Zealand is not only influenced by the principal applicant, but by whether these applicants bring a partner with them. The overall gender balance of migrants, including the mix of skills, is strongly influenced by the family status of those wanting to come to New Zealand.

Despite a census based data showing an imbalance that favours women in the Asian ethnic group within the 20-49 year age group, the recent gendered migration from Asia is a small contributing factor to the overall gender ratio differentials within the population. The inward migration data also do not explain the overall gender imbalance within the general working aged Asian population and further research is needed.

While our preliminary research indicates some reasons behind female-dominated migration from particular countries (for example a large proportion of female nurses migrating from the Philippines that creates a strongly gendered flow from that country), little is still known about the drivers of gendered migration to New Zealand from specific source countries. Drivers will include social and economic conditions in the country of origin as well as social and economic circumstances in New Zealand.

There is also a dearth of knowledge on how gender inequalities in both the country of origin and in New Zealand affect the experiences of migrant men and women as well as an understanding of economic integration and settlement outcomes by gender.

Specific questions to consider for future research on gendered migration include:

- What barriers do immigrants face in search of economic integration?
- To what extent do settlement outcomes vary by the different immigration streams?

- Does migration benefit or disadvantage men and women, if so, in what ways?
- What steps need to be taken to ensure equal opportunities and outcomes for immigrants?
- What is the role of other community agencies in providing support to the needs of immigrants? For example, in delivering public health services in an appropriate manner to specific age and social groups.
- How do international marriage markets influence gendered migration flows?[27]

The data we have examined suggests that the gender, age and country of origin differentials in the short and long run will continue to be a growing area of dynamic research. Gendered migration flows will influence the size and composition of New Zealand's population and add an interesting dimension to debates about diversity, social cohesion and New Zealand's national identity. It would be useful to apply a gender-based analysis when considering differences in migrant settlement and economic integration so that policies and programmes can be designed and implemented appropriately. This analysis is an attempt to bring a New Zealand perspective on these issues, especially around skilled permanent and temporary migration, and this research shows that New Zealand's immigration policies attract migrants from diverse nationalities, occupational groups and family structures.

[27] Some of these issues will be explored in a FRST funded research project *Missing Men* that commences in 2007.

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