People-to-People Tourism in APEC: Facilitating Cross-border Entry and Exit, with Special Focus on ASEAN

Oscar F. Picazo, Soraya Ututalum and Nina Ashley O. dela Cruz

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People-to-People Tourism in APEC:

Facilitating Cross-Border Entry and Exit, with Special Focus on ASEAN

Oscar F. Picazo, Soraya Ututalum, and Nina Ashley de la Cruz

5/31/2014

This paper is an output of the APEC 2015 Research Project commissioned by the Department of Foreign Affairs. The main objective of the project is to provide the analytical framework that will form part of the basis for the substantive priorities the Philippines will push for as APEC host economy in 2015. The project’s main output is a set of policy studies with recommendations that can serve APEC 2015 purposes and can be used as inputs to the Philippine government’s future development planning, strategizing, and visioning exercise in a post-2015 scenario. This is a draft document. For discussion, not for citation. Please send comments to: ofpicazo@gmail.com.
Abbreviations and Acronyms

AADMER – ASEAN Agreement on Disaster Management and Emergency Response
ABTC – APEC Business Travel Card
ACDM – ASEAN committee on Disaster Management
ACTS – ASEAN Credit Transfer System
AHA – ASEAN Humanitarian Assistance
AMMTC+3 – ASEAN Plus Three Ministerial Meeting on Transnational Crime
APEC – Asia Pacific Economic Community
ASEAN – Association of Southeast Asian Nations
ASEANAPOL – ASEAN Chiefs of Police Conferences
AUN – ASEAN University Network
BBAP – Beyond the Border Action Plan
BFP – Business Facilitation Program
DFA – Department of Foreign Affairs
EAGA – East Asia Growth Area
EC – European Commission
EMA – Enterprise Migration Agreement
ENP – European Neighborhood Policy
ESTA – Electronic System for Travel Authorization
ETA – Electronic Travel Authority
EU – European Union
FAST – Free and Secure Trade
FAQ – Frequently Asked Questions
ICMLEO – Integrated Cross-Border Maritime Law Enforcement Operations
IDRL – International Disaster Response Law
IFRC&RCS – International Federation of the Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies
IT – Information Technology
LBT – Local Border Traffic
LSDI – Lubombo Special Development Initiative
NGO – Nongovernmental Organization
OKACOM – Okavango River Basin Commission
PTP – People-to-People Tourism
R&D – Research and Development
SADC – Southern Africa Development Community
SEAMEO – Southeast Asia Ministers of Education Organization
TBNRM – Transborder Natural Resource Management
TTCI – Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index
UK – United Kingdom
US – United States
UNWTO – United Nations’ World Trade Organization
VFA – Visa Facilitation Agreement
WTTC – World Travel and Tourism Council
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Abstract

This paper discusses the promotion of person-to-person (PTP) tourism in the member-countries of the Asia-Pacific Economic Community (APEC), focusing on the ten countries of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN). PTP can be defined as the cross-border movement of people from one country to another on a repeated basis for (a) educational, training, or related capacity building; (b) research and development (R&D) cooperation; (c) police, constabulary, military, security, or anti-crime assignments; (d) responding to health epidemics or outbreaks; (e) medical tourism; (f) responding to disaster or calamity; (g) management of environmental parks and natural resource assets; (h) local border traffic; and (i) other valid reasons that APEC countries will deem important. The paper situates PTP tourism in the context of intra-ASEAN and APEC tourism, discusses the rationale for increasing PTP tourism, and the current obstacles of doing this. It reviews recent international practices in promoting PTP tourism through entry and exit facilitation, identifying general as well as specific programs and policies in a number of innovating countries. The paper ends with recommendations to facilitate PTP tourism in ASEAN and APEC.

Key words: person-to-person tourism, visa facilitation, APEC, ASEAN
Executive Summary

This paper discusses the benefits, obstacles, and prospects for expanded person-to-person (PTP) tourism in the Asia-Pacific Economic Community, focusing on the ten members of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN).

Chapter 1 situates PTP tourism in the context of intra-ASEAN and APEC tourism. Tourism in ASEAN and in APEC countries is growing by leaps and bounds. Many forecasts indicate this trend will continue to grow in the foreseeable future, especially if APEC countries will continue to undertake travel easing and visa facilitation which has been started in recent years.

Among the various types of tourists that will visit APEC and ASEAN countries, PTP tourists are expected to grow in number as a result of many factors, including greater economic integration of member countries. PTP tourism can be defined as the cross-border movement of people from one country to another on a repeated basis for purposes including (a) educational, training, or related capacity building; (b) R&D cooperation; (c) police, constabulary, military, security, or anti-crime assignments; (d) responding to health epidemic outbreaks; (e) medical tourism; (f) responding to disaster or calamity; (g) management of environmental parks and natural resource assets; (h) local border traffic; and (i) other valid reasons that APEC and ASEAN countries will deem important.

Chapter 2 discusses the rationale and benefits for increasing PTP tourism in ASEAN and in APEC. Speed is of the essence in PTP tourism, e.g., disasters and emergencies as well as crime prevention requires rapid response. Frequency of travel is also a hallmark of PTP tourism. Therefore, cost can be significantly lessened if visa and related paperwork is reduced. Finally, there are large economic benefits of travel facilitation in general. The WTTC estimates that improvement in visa facilitation in APEC could result in US$62 billion to US$89 billion more by 2016.

Chapter 3 identifies the obstacles in increasing PTP tourism. Visa facilitation within and among ASEAN countries has significantly improved in recent years, but non-ASEAN nationals still face complex procedures. Different visa types and costs are applied for PTP groups (e.g., entry requirements, processing, days’ validity). APEC is working towards aligning visa policies and regulations among the 21 member countries, but there is a need to focus on PTP tourism as a first priority. Finally, there has been uneven adoption of new visa technologies (e-visa, Smartgate) in the region.

Chapter 4 reviews recent international practices in promoting PTP tourism through entry and exit facilitation, as shown below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of People-to-People Tourism</th>
<th>Recent International Practices</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General - Visa Waiver Programs</td>
<td>Bilateral agreements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General - Visa Facilitation Agreements</td>
<td>E.U. Visa Facilitation Agreements with 9 Eastern European countries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E.U.-Morocco Mobility Partnership Agreement</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 5 contains the recommendations to facilitate PTP tourism. In the long term, ASEAN should set a goal of achieving the equivalent of a Schengen visa among ASEAN nationals. The Schengen visa in Western Europe is the epitome of free, borderless travel within a region involving the gradual abolition of national border controls. Adopting the Schengen visa would require intensive discussions on the administrative, legal, economic and financial, and security aspects.

In the medium term, ASEAN and APEC should standardize visa requirements and regulations for non-ASEAN and APEC nationals. Towards this end, countries are encouraged (a) to work towards a common list of countries that members-countries can give the privilege of granting a regional travel visa; (b) work towards standardized visa validity and extension for this regional travel visa; and (c) learn from good practices from around the world, and to consider adopting those that are relevant to the region and feasible. The recent EU visa reforms are particularly useful in this regard.
ASEAN and APEC countries should also standardize visa requirements and procedures for intra-ASEAN or intra-APEC PTP tourists. With ASEAN 2015 on the horizon, it is expected that the flow of person-to-person tourism will increase. To deal with this travel traffic, ASEAN countries are encouraged to: (a) establish common or standardized regulation and procedures within ASEAN for PTP tourists; (b) achieve mutual recognition agreements of professions or occupations covered under PTP tourism; (c) formulate new visas for PTP tourists as defined above, if necessary; and (d) leverage or scale up of successful initiatives (e.g., IDRL guidelines for disaster response, model acts in environmental management).

In the immediate and short term, ASEAN and APEC should improve overall visa processing and facilitation. The APEC visa facilitation study already highlighted a few important areas of opportunity including (a) improvement in the delivery of travel and visa information; (b) facilitation of current processes, especially those still operating under a “paper system” and face-to-face personal interviews. Key areas where improvement is needed are: more extensive use of information technology (official website, e-mail, social media), interconnectivity of entry and exit points, and consideration of visas on arrival; and (c) implementation of e-visa programs.

ASEAN and APEC should also focus on facilitating travel involving local border traffic. This area has not been given much attention in ASEAN discussions, perhaps because of the limited land borders in the region, compared to, say, the extensive land borders (and thus, significant local border traffic) in Africa, North America, South America, and Europe.
Chapter I. PTP Tourism in the Context of Intra-ASEAN and APEC Tourism

A. Definition and Scope of PTP

People-to-people (PTP) tourism involves the cross-border movement of an ASEAN citizen from one ASEAN country to another for any of the following reasons: (1) for educational, training, or related capacity-building purposes; (2) for governmental or nongovernmental research and development (R&D) cooperation and related purposes; (3) to carry out police, constabulary, military, security, or anti-crime assignment; (4) to help contain regional health epidemic outbreaks; (5) for medical tourism purposes; (5) to help respond to a disaster or calamity and rebuild affected communities and institutions; (6) to help manage common-border natural resources such as parks; and (7) other valid reasons that ASEAN authorities will deem important in the future.

B. Benefits of Travel Facilitation

In many of the above cases, speed is of the essence. This is especially true in the cases of disaster response, security management and apprehension of criminals, and response to epidemic outbreaks. In other cases, time is just as important because of set appointments (academic calendar for students and trainees, medical appointments of medical tourists). In others, common working schedules are critical for both parties to be present (e.g., management of common-border natural environmental areas). Businessmen and traders need to seize commercial opportunities which can be hindered by onerous entry and exit requirements and delayed procedures.

Frequency of travel is also a hallmark of people-to-people tourism. Management of common-border national parks and other natural assets require periodic monitoring and travel. Foreign students and researchers have to go home during vacation, and will travel back to their host countries after their rest. Disaster response often involves the same teams, moving from one disaster or epidemic in one country to another. The increasing regionalization of the ASEAN economy implies far greater frequency of business and commercial travel. Facilitating the travel of these types of highly mobile tourists, therefore, would make them more effective in their work.

The rationale for travel facilitation, as a whole, also includes important economic benefits. A study on the impact of visa facilitation in APEC economies shows “substantial, and in some cases, very significant increases in visitation when visa-related policies and processes are improved” (WTTC, 2013). The study estimates that improvement in visa facilitation in the APEC region could result in gains of 38 to 57 million international tourist arrivals by 2016, which represents between 9 percent and 13 percent of baseline forecast under current visa policies (WTTC, 2013). Under the improved visa scenario, these tourist arrivals could generate revenues between US$62 billion and US$89 billion during the forecast period, or an increase of 9-14 percent. The number of jobs directly created by the surge in tourism in APEC ranges from 1.0 million to 1.4 million new jobs, gaining between 2 percent and 3 percent more jobs than the baseline forecast by 2016.
C. Indicators of Tourism in ASEAN

In 2010, ASEAN overall tourism performed an outstanding growth of more than 73 million international tourist arrivals translating into 11 percent increase from year 2009. A major source of the travel market is intra-ASEAN tourism with a share of 47 percent in 2010. Appendix Table A describes the consistent success of the ASEAN region in attracting tourists from 2009 to 2010. Appendix Figure A shows the increasing growth of international tourists in the ASEAN region. However, this also implies the issue on how the ASEAN-member countries address the issue of absorptive capacity as the numbers increase through time. Appendix Figure B shows the comparison between the numbers of international tourists and the numbers of intra-ASEAN tourists.

The World Economic Forum’s Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index (TTCI) performed a study that identifies and measures the positive and negative components that affect travel and tourism development particularly the ASEAN-member countries. Table 2 shows tourism statistics with respect to economic indicators such as GDP per capita and their population of each country within the ASEAN region. Table 3 shows tourist arrivals in the region by purpose of travel.

Intra-ASEAN tourism is the mechanism to promote travel and tourism development that could enrich the member countries within the ASEAN region. This further enhances the “people-to-people” connectivity across the member countries. In 2004, data presented that about 44.9 million people from various countries of the world visit ASEAN-member countries while only 23 million people coming from other ASEAN countries travelled within the region.

Tourism in itself is described as a cross-cultural contact that happens between two parties: the hosts and the guests (Hussey, 1991). Increasing intra-ASEAN tourism is believed to improve the social and cultural development among each member countries. However, this is hindered by implementation of travel barriers such as departure and entry taxes, visa and passport fees, regulation of entry and exit permits and control of landing rights for aircrafts.

Intra-ASEAN travel registered positive growth since 1985, from 30 percent tourist arrivals in 1980 to a splurge of 46 percent by 1985, suggesting that an expansion of population especially in the urban area existed. According to Hussey (1991), the significant measure to address tourism cooperation is the circle fares, meaning providing low-cost travel on national airlines throughout the region. Nevertheless, some limitations, such as lack of publicity and restrictions were the problems.

According to tigermine.com, a comparative analysis of growth forecasts for Southeast Asia’s Travel and Tourism showed that the number of tourist arrivals increased by approximately 300 percent. (Please see Appendix Figure C.) The Travel and Tourism Industry claims there will be continuous growth of the size of tourism but the scale and pace vary among the relevant sources. The indicators of this result are the international tourist arrivals and the tourism’s contribution to GDP.
Chapter II. Rationale for Increasing PTP Tourism

A. Rationale

In 2015, the ASEAN Community will come into being and it is expected to result in flourishing trade as well as greater governmental and nongovernmental cooperation along a range of areas of common interest, including education, R&D, regional security management and crime prevention, management of natural environmental resources, management of disease outbreaks, response to disasters and calamities, and medical tourism. With this anticipated increase in the volume of passengers and mobility of people across ASEAN countries, there is a need to expedite the transfer of passengers from one ASEAN country to another to avoid congestion, expedite travel, minimize costs, and allow ASEAN citizens to do their tasks with as few necessary obstacles as possible.

B. Educational Cooperation

Higher education governance has been undergoing rapid global changes in both developing and developed countries toward the lifelong demand to make learning opportunities conveniently available to students worldwide (Yepes, 2006). In the U.S., to attract more exports of higher education services, they promote new modes of internationalizing higher education by showcasing the increasing revenues and profit of leading companies in the education sector and maintaining an open economic system such as negotiation with other countries. In Europe, the European Union handles the intergovernmental process of higher education cooperation. Their schemes range from the mobility of students and the “Europenization” of courses or programs being offered.

The first initiative towards educational cooperation in ASEAN was through the Association of Southeast Asian Institutions of Higher Learning, founded in Bangkok in 1956 and now includes other Asian countries as well as developed countries. The next one was through the efforts of UNESCO’s Asia and Pacific Regional Bureau for Education which developed regional education strategy to “interpret global priorities and goals in a regional context” and “to adapt broad institutional strategies to achieve the regional goals” (Yepes, 2006). Another UNESCO initiative was the Southeast Asia Ministers of Education Organization (SEAMEO) which promotes cooperation in education, science and culture not only within ASEAN but through links with countries outside the region. After two decades of searching for the right niche in higher education, the ASEAN University Network (AUN) was created, which oversees various collaborative programs such as studies, short-term exchanges of students and faculty, scholarships, information networking and collaborative research.

One of the indicators of intra-ASEAN tourism is the students’ mobility. ASEAN has made some key actions through the AUN, ASEAN Credit Transfer System (ACTS), ASEAN Plus Three Working Group on Mobility of Higher Education and Ensuring Quality Assurance of Higher Education, and the European Union Support to Higher Education in ASEAN region (EU SHARE) Program. Nevertheless, the gaps among the member-countries are still wide due to challenges such as access or continuation of education, quality of education (i.e. teacher education and pedagogy) and finance, governance and management.
Educational cooperation is an area expected to expand after ASEAN 2015. The benefits of intra-ASEAN education include cultural enrichment, increased multi-lingual skills and proficiency, and achieving higher-status qualifications and competitive position in terms of finding jobs. To achieve these, Thailand’s Education Minister Phongthep Thepkanjana has been quoted by the media (Khaopa, 2013) as wanting to introduce student visas, and that should visas should allow foreign students to remain in Thailand until they graduate, rather than for renewable one-year periods as is the current practice. He said he was trying to get other ASEAN countries to adjust their visa requirements and systems to facilitate students and teachers looking for greater mobility in the region.

One obstacle is that visa requirements and visa systems among ASEAN countries do not accommodate students and teachers, unlike in the U.S. and U.K. where they have student visas. The student visas there allow students to stay in those countries for as long as they continue their studies. In most ASEAN countries, students have to renew their visas every year.

C. R&D Cooperation

Economic growth in ASEAN needs to be underpinned with technological diffusion, but to increase technological capacity, more R&D activities need to be initiated. This can be achieved with more intensive alliances for integration of technological complementarities and mobility of scientists and researchers. Schuller, et al (2008) noted that the factors that affect the growth of science and technology cooperation are related to the diffusion of scientific capacity, the interconnectedness of scientists, and the intellectual and social organization of science and scientists (Schuller, et al, 2008).

To deal with some of these knotty issues, the EU-ASEAN Dialogue discussed crafting policies for international science and technology cooperation among Southeast Asian countries. Findings in this dialogue included the following:

- Scientists in less developed ASEAN-member countries usually rely on previous contacts with former colleagues abroad because of lack of awareness and available information on international funding opportunities and access to scientific networks.

- An identified important trust-building measure in establishment and maintenance of networks is personal contacts.

- An asymmetry of interests in science and technology cooperation exists when ASEAN scientists achieve to work in long-term projects with structural follow-up while non-ASEAN scientists expect to see the region as ground for opportunities for short-term projects and case studies.
D. Security Management and Crime Prevention

Gordon (2009) argues that regionalism can either increase or lessen the flow of crime within the region in question. While the reduction of tariff across a region can reduce smuggling, regionalism can also enhance crime incidence due to the sheer opening up of trade, travel, and exchange which permits criminals, terrorists, firearms, illicit products, migrants, and victims of human trafficking. The cooperative mechanisms among ASEAN members in the area of security management are still relatively weak especially in the area of prevention of crime and terrorism. Gordon (2009) cites that “an original resolution to set up a shared criminal intelligence database in 1992 was not implemented until the electronic ASEAN Data System (e-ADS) came into existence in 2007, and that even in the case of e-ADS, Myanmar and Laos have not yet been included.

Some issues faced in addressing security management and crime prevention are the relationship between migration and safety including victimization, marginalization and discrimination whereby many initiatives have been done such as increase awareness among weak populations, reduce racism, and promote integration of migrants; countering organized crime through difficult approaches against transnational trafficking whereby some initiatives are strengthening the mobilization and resilience of the region, recruitment of young people into criminal networks; and criminalization of addicted people whereby initiatives that take place are managing the consequences of addicting substances consumption in public places and reducing drug-related risks (ICPC, 2010).

Efforts in ASEAN in this area include the formation of the ASEAN Plus Three Ministerial Meeting on Transnational Crime (AMMTC+3) towards strengthening cooperation on international crime countermeasures involving terrorism, human trafficking and cyber-crime. Another one is the ASEAN Chiefs of Police Conferences (ASEANAPOL) to encourage interaction among police authorities within the region.

E. Response to Epidemics and Public Health Problems

The cross-border transmission of infection, both animal and human, is increasingly being appreciated by national policymakers and development partners alike. Human migration and the increasing trade in goods and services contribute to this increased infection risk. The rising volume of cargo movement from seaports to countries inland also increases the risk of cross-border disease transmission. In this light, the cross-border impact of disease transmission is merely a negative externality which must be dealt with on a supra-national basis.

Examples of recent regional epidemics in ASEAN are SARS and avian flu. HIV/AIDS is also known to follow cross-country traffic corridors (highways) as well as maritime waterways and fishing lanes (e.g., fishermen in southern Philippines getting into contact with Malaysians and Indonesians). Several contiguous states have taken the issue of cross-border disease transmission and have designed projects that use flexible means of managing and patrolling borders so that they can better deal with controlling infections.
A study on pandemic preparedness within the ASEAN Region showed that Singapore was the only country which had done considerable work in terms of primary essential services. The ASEAN Technical Working Group on Pandemic Preparedness and Response has been formed to promote multisector cooperation in terms of public health response at regional level. Moreover, an indicator system to identify required policies, mechanisms and structures, etc. has been designed, with four groupings: national government planning and coordination, subnational government involvement, whole society planning, and sectoral planning. These levels translate to levels of progression of the country to a full state of pandemic preparedness for response. Another notable regional initiative is the ASEAN Agreement on Disaster Management and Emergency Response (AADMER) which aims to effectively reduce human and property loss in major disasters. To continue doing work in this area on a more rapid and extensive basis would require travel facilitation for those concerned.

F. Response to Major Disasters and Calamities

ASEAN lies within the Pacific Ring of Fire of high volcanic activity leading to frequent earthquakes; it is also along the tropical typhoon belt leading to frequent storms and their subsequent hydrologic aftermath (flooding, soil erosion). In addition to these natural disasters, forest fires have occurred, sometimes with cross-country impact. The following brief review highlights the main disasters and calamities that have occurred in ASEAN countries in recent years:

- Supertyphoon Haiyan (local name: Yolanda) that hit central Philippines with devastating consequences in November 2013.
- The tsunami that struck Thailand in 2004 following the earthquake in Aceh, Indonesia.
- The prolonged flooding in Thailand in 2012.
- The earthquakes that has struck Sumatra intermittently but with increasing frequency in the 2000s.
- Forest fires in Riau and other places in Sumatra, which have become an annual environmental trauma not only for Indonesia for Singapore and Malaysia as well.
- The major earthquake in Bohol Island in central Philippines in 2013.

Table 1 shows the disaster occurrences per region and Asia has the highest occurrence as well as greatest impact or damage.

Affected countries often resort to soliciting relief assistance from the international community. Quick response, however, is often hampered by “problems with visas and travel restrictions. Disaster personnel are often granted entry on tourist or other temporary visas, which can cause subsequent problems with renewal and efforts to obtain work permits. Customs formalities are also a frequent problem, with relief goods held up for long periods of time waiting for clearance. The recognition of domestic legal status is another common problem for international relief providers, particularly for NGOs and foreign Red Cross and Red Crescent societies. The processes are often too slow or difficult to negotiate in emergency settings. Unregistered organizations face various problems, including opening bank accounts, hiring staff, obtaining visas for workers, and tax exemption” (Wikipedia, 2014).
The above problems have led to the emergence of international disaster response laws (IDRL), a collection of international instruments addressing various aspects of post-disaster humanitarian relief (Wikipedia, 2014). The IDRL of the International Federation of the Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies (IFRC&RCS) examines the legal issues within disaster response. However, the IDRL is not a comprehensive or unified framework (Wikipedia, 2014). There are no core treaties. Rather, it consists of a fragmented and piecemeal collection of various international, regional, and bilateral treaties, non-binding resolutions, declarations, codes, guidelines, protocols, and procedures.

In 2003, an ASEAN Committee on Disaster Management (ACDM) was launched. It generally assumes overall responsibility for coordinating with the regional activities. In addition, the coordinating unit responsible in achieving this goal is the ASEAN Agreement on Disaster Management and Emergency Response (AADMER). The operational coordination body of AADMER is the ASEAN Coordinating Centre for Humanitarian Assistance on Disaster Management (AHA Centre). This AHA Centre is still a working progress in terms of programs, hence it is limited to logistics and rapid assessment in preparedness and response, technical support for early warning, risk assessment and monitoring, and capacity building.

Table 1. Number of Natural Disasters and Victims Per Year by Region

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Americas</th>
<th>Asia</th>
<th>Europe</th>
<th>Oceania</th>
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<td>Hydrological</td>
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<td>153</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Americas</th>
<th>Asia</th>
<th>Europe</th>
<th>Oceania</th>
<th>Global</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Climatological</td>
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<td>1.22</td>
<td>63.45</td>
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<tr>
<td>Geophysical</td>
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<td>1.02</td>
<td>7.77</td>
<td>0.01</td>
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<td>100.82</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.04</td>
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<tr>
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<td>35.88</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>14.91</td>
<td>8.27</td>
<td>207.92</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Americas</th>
<th>Asia</th>
<th>Europe</th>
<th>Oceania</th>
<th>Global</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Climatological</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>0.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geophysical</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>17.38</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hydrological</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>11.15</td>
<td>5.57</td>
<td>1.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meteorological</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>40.47</td>
<td>9.62</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>0.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>50.27</td>
<td>41.61</td>
<td>13.40</td>
<td>2.97</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When the need for assistance from other member countries arises, AHA can facilitate request to seek assisting entity (Sawada and Zen, 2014).

A special ASEAN-Japan Ministerial Meeting last April 2011 was organized to focus on such cooperation through sharing of lessons learned, conducting training and capacity building of programs for disaster preparedness, relief, reconstruction efforts and emergency response.

In 2013, APEC commissioned a study to look at emergency response travel facilitation (ERTF). The report focused on various aspects including personnel, goods and equipment, transport, legal issues, finance and taxation, and safety and security. Among the ASEAN countries, Cambodia and the Philippines are part of the countries that are at most risk to natural disasters because of high vulnerability to damage. The challenge is the lack of disaster databases, hindering evidence-based policymaking and rapid situational response.

G. Medical Tourism

Medical tourism in Asia Pacific is growing at 20 to 30 percent in which the leading countries are Thailand, Singapore, India, South Korea, Malaysia and the Philippines. The identified indicators of quality are modern infrastructure, world class processes, contemporary technology, international accreditation, well qualified and English-speaking doctors, and published outcomes. Medical tourism involves a three-phase value chain framework: (a) first, consumers get information through various channels and decide (provider, personal contacts, internet, insurance and travel agents); (b) second, consumers travel to the destination country with all miscellaneous services involved such as airport transfer and accommodation until the medical procedure; and (c) third, consumers receive post-operative and follow-up care (Deloitte, 2008).

The ASEAN Region has emerged as a major destination for medical tourists. Based on data in 2010, four ASEAN countries are in the top 11 slots for medical tourism: Thailand at #1 (1.2 million medical tourists a year), Singapore at #2 (600,000 a year), Malaysia at #3 (350,000 a year), and the Philippines at #11 (80,000 a year) (Youngman, 2010). Forecasts of global demand show that medical tourism will continue to grow over the next few years due to the following:

(a) Economically, the high medical costs in OECD countries are not going down anytime soon. If anything, the anticipated more stringent regulatory requirements of health reforms (say, Obamacare) can lead to costs there possibly even escalating.

(b) Demographically, OECD countries’ populations are aging, and this will require more intensive use of medical care.

(c) Epidemiologically, the disease burden of the world has dramatically shifted to non-communicable diseases and chronic diseases, necessitating greater hospitalization.
(d) Technologically, some procedures that in the past can only be done in OECD countries are now available in emerging economies as well, of comparable quality but at a lower cost, even adding the cost of travel.

(e) Communication media, especially the Internet, has empowered citizens all over the world that they are now taking matters into their own hands, looking for providers with lower costs and traveling there if need be.

(f) Transport costs have made it affordable for many people to travel for holiday or for homecoming or for health care and wellness, and increasingly for combined purposes.

While non-ASEAN medical tourists coming into the region have been given much prominence, intra-ASEAN medical tourists have received much less attention. The number of intra-ASEAN medical tourists are currently not known, although the flows are recognizably from those countries with less advanced to those with more advanced health care, e.g., Indonesians going to Singapore; Cambodians and Laotians going to Thailand; or Filipinos going to Thailand or Singapore for procedures not available in the country.

A key issue in medical tourism – and therefore, of person-to-person tourism – is post-operative care, i.e., the lack of a rational system for the financing and provision of post-operative procedures among medical tourists. Post-operative procedures include all therapies, drugs, physician and nursing services, and other inputs that a medical tourist needs when he gets back to his home country after undertaking the medical procedure in another country. This is emerging as an important area of concern. The lack of a system for post-operative procedure causes possible problem of continuity of care since the patient no longer has access to the services of the doctor who did the procedure after he goes back to his home country. The patient, at this stage, may not be fully recuperated and may need additional drugs and consultations or lab tests. Worse, he may have a relapse. On the one hand, if the patient paid for the procedure on a fee-for-service basis, he may have to pay fee-for-service if he gets relapsed or re-admitted to the hospital, an extremely expensive proposition. On the other hand, if he paid through insurance for the medical travel, such insurance may not cover costs of hospital re-admission in his home country.

More seriously, if the patient goes back to his original doctor in his home country, the doctor may not have enough confidence in the diagnosis performed in the country where the patient had the procedure. In certain cases, he may compel the patient to undergo similar lab and other tests in the home country to confirm that the validity of the diagnosis. While post-operative procedures may not be a major concern for simple procedures, it does become more important the more complicated the procedure.

The lack of a system for financing and providing post-operative procedures, therefore, can be a major cause of hesitation for medical tourists seek care outside their home countries. It is not known at present how many would-be medical tourists are dissuaded from coming to ASEAN because of this problem. It is also not known how many of the medical tourists who have come to ASEAN for a
procedure have actually experienced problems of financing of, and access to, post-operative procedures.

H. Management of Regional Environmental Parks and Natural Assets

One global report (CDI, 2014) has noted that “The natural resource management sector is subject to rapid change as a result of population growth and changed consumption patterns, extraction technologies, globalization of natural resource markets, democratization of environmental governance, new international conventions and protocols with a bearing on resource management and conservation, as well as man-made biophysical processes such as marine and land degradation, biodiversity loss, and climate change. Very often, these changes lead to an increased competition for resources between stakeholder groups, from local to national, regional and even global levels.”

Within the ASEAN region, conservation and preservation efforts are focused in areas of particular biodiversity importance or exceptional uniqueness called the ASEAN Heritage Parks. Work in these areas is coordinated by the ASEAN Centre for Biodiversity. The list of heritage parks include the following: Khakaborazi National Park (Myanmar), Apo Natural Park (Philippines), Bukit Timah Nature Reserve (Singapore), Gunung Leuser National Park (Indonesia), Kon Ka Kinh National Park (Vietnam), Kaeng Krachan National Park (Thailand), Kinabalu National Park (Malaysia), Nam Ha Protected Area (Laos), Preah Monivong National Park (Cambodia), and Tasek Merimbun Heritage Park (Brunei) (Wikipedia.org).

It is expected that cross-learnings in the management of these and related areas will occur more frequently, necessitating the facilitation of PTP travel. PTP travel facilitation becomes particularly important in environmental areas that straddle borders.

I. Business, Trade, and Investment

The ASEAN integration monitoring report from World Bank highlights key findings that will result in expected higher traffic of business, trade and investment in the region over the coming years: (a) elimination of tariff protection has been accomplished completely for Singapore and Brunei; (b) low and decreasing national tariffs by ASEAN countries have contributed to low intra-ASEAN preference margins, explaining low utilization rates of ASEAN Trade in Goods Agreement (ATIGA) choices; (c) falling trade costs particularly in intra-regional trade; (d) growth of services trade has outpaced goods trade globally and within the ASEAN; and (e) some ASEAN countries have been significant exporters in sectors such as information and communication technology which involves business process outsourcing, higher education, and medical tourism. Improvement in regional transport, such as the vaunted ASEAN regional roll-on, roll-off system of shipping, is also expected to boost investments. Facilitating the travel of businessmen, traders, and investors in the region, therefore, should be a major aim of ASEAN countries.

J. Local Border Traffic

The issue of local border traffic has not been given much prominence. However, this is an important issue because of the many land and water corridors in ASEAN including the following: (a)
Brunei-Eastern Malaysia-Kalimantan/Indonesia; (b) Cambodia-Laos-Thailand; (c) Indonesia-Singapore; (d) Malaysia-Singapore; (e) Malaysia-Thailand; (f) Myanmar-Thailand; and (g) Southern Philippines-Eastern Malaysia.

K. Likely Beneficiaries of PTP Promotion

Table 2 identifies major groups of ASEAN residents who are likely to benefit from improved PTO tourism.

Table 2. Classifications of People Who Are Likely to Benefit from PTP Promotion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PTP Grouping</th>
<th>Beneficiaries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Educational cooperation</td>
<td>Students (bachelor’s degree, graduate degree, technical education); teachers, instructors, professors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R&amp;D cooperation</td>
<td>Scientists, engineers, technologists, researchers, research fellows, officials of research institutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security management and crime prevention</td>
<td>Security officers, soldiers (enlisted personnel), constabulary officers, policemen, investigators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Response to epidemics and public health problems</td>
<td>Doctors and other medical and allied professionals, epidemiologists, public health professionals, public health officials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Response to major disasters and calamities</td>
<td>Doctors and other medical and allied health professionals, social workers, disaster-response specialists, search-and-rescue teams, geologists, engineers, logistics officers, drivers, other responders, media personnel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intra-ASEAN medical tourism</td>
<td>Patients, patients’ family members and caregivers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management of cross-border environmental parks</td>
<td>Ecologists, park rangers, natural resource management specialists, foresters, marine biologists</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business, trade, and investment</td>
<td>Businessmen, traders, investors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local border traffic</td>
<td>Residents living within a defined radius to the international border and who frequently move in and out</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: This study.

Two key issues that ASEAN countries need to resolve are: (a) how to standardize the above categories of personnel across the region, and (b) how to formulate mutual recognition procedures of these categories of personnel.
Chapter III. Obstacles in Increasing PTP Tourism

A. Introduction

Visa facilitation is the easement and simplification of visa regulations and policies by receiving countries to increase tourist inflow and gain competitive advantage over other tourist destinations. The World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) considers it a precursor to strong regional integration and economic growth.

Travel and tourism is the “largest and fastest economic-growing sector in the world” (UNWTO, 2013). According to “The Comparative Impact of Travel & Tourism: Benchmarking Against Other Economic Sectors 2013,” it surpassed three times over the automotive and chemical, mining industries in generating GDP and employment worldwide (UNWTO, 2013).

In the case of the Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC), where the 21-member economies provide 57% of world economic output, it generated in 2010 more than 40% of total international tourist arrivals worldwide and more than 40% of world visitor exports (Salter, 2012). Travel and tourism’s direct contribution to APEC’s GDP exceeded US$990 billion in 2011 and provided 45 million jobs in the region (Salter, 2012).

As tourist inflow in the APEC region is expected to increase 5% annually until 2030 (UNWTO, 2013), pressure to develop effective and efficient visa systems are emphasized by the regional organization to assure continued economic gain and local employment.

Visa applications are necessary governmental formalities related to tourism. They are generally perceived as an imposition of bureaucratic long lines, hassle-filled list of multiple requirements and protracted procedures, which circumvent potential tourists from visiting destinations. Hence, with increased tourism and accessibility to travel, the bar must be raised to deliver quality, reliable, and functional visa processing (UNWTO, 2013).

According to UNWTO, much development has been made in facilitation, which has contributed to the remarkable growth of the tourism sector. Noteworthy are the “multilateral agreements that mutually exempt all or certain categories of travellers from the visa requirement” (UNWTO, 2013). Examples of this are the APEC Business Travel Card and the ASEAN visa-free agreements in the areas of business, leisure travel and education. However, despite the progress made for increased and convenient mobility, present visa policies are still often “inadequate, inefficient and non-aligned, and are thus acknowledged to be an obstacle to tourism growth” (UNWTO, 2013). Salter lists common obstacles as visa processing delays, multiple document requirements and high taxes imposed on tourists (e.g., EU and UK citizens visiting Australia). Manual visa processing, requirement of personal appearances in embassies and the lack of a “one-stop-shop” venue of visa information for APEC and

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1 While there is no direct empirical study linking easement of visa facilitation to increased tourist arrivals in APEC, UNWTO’s analytical case study on the G20’s limited visa regulation serves as basis.
ASEAN member countries are also considered challenges to swift and hassle-free visa facilitation (UNWTO and WTTC, 2013).

UNWTO warns that unless there is a convergence of systems for visa processing or visa policy in APEC, then the “differential between efficient border systems and the least efficient systems will grow” (Salter, 2012). This will result to visitors being less receptive of “restrictive or difficult visa processes or delays, as they become used to low transaction, cost efficient systems and processes in other countries. In a highly competitive global tourism market this will negatively impact on those economies with poor practice” (Salter, 2012).

B. Visa Functions and Types

Visas are issued for people to travel outside their countries of origin for the purpose of pleasure, skills or capability enhancement and any other exercise deemed necessary by the traveler. Developed for security, economic and regulatory purposes, a visa serves to (a) control immigration and limit the entry, duration of stay, or activities of travelers; (b) generate revenue and apply measures of reciprocity; and (c) safeguard a destination’s carrying capacity by controlling tourism demand (UNWTO and WTTC, 2013).

Visas come in several forms and not all APEC and APEC countries offer the same types of visas. Nonetheless, the following are the standard types and functions (see Table 3).

Table 3. Visa Types and its Functions²

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Visa Type</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tourist Visa</td>
<td>Issued to persons wishing to travel to a country for sightseeing or vacation. Tourist visas usually only authorize short stays (typically, up to a month, three months, or six months). Some countries' visas (e.g., US, UK) may last as long as five or ten years (for periodic visits), but the issuance fee may be proportional to the length of visa. To successfully get this, you must demonstrate to the consul that you are definitely going to return home after your stay in their country. Employment is not allowed unless it is issued together or in conjunction with a working holiday visa.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private Visit Visas</td>
<td>Issued to people visiting friends or relatives legally residing in a country. Some countries require a formal invitation issued through a governmental office. For others, an informal letter of invitation is sufficient.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transit Visas</td>
<td>Issued to people passing through the country without a significant stay, normally for anywhere from 24 hours to ten days. A special case is Airside Transit Visas required sometimes for mere change of planes in an airport without clearing immigration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Visas</td>
<td>Issued if one needs to conduct financial transactions in the country, sign contracts, attend training or meetings, and a plethora of activities in connection to one's work or profession in his/her country of origin. Employment in the host country is forbidden.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Visas</td>
<td>Issued to those who wish to undertake a course of study in another country. Proof of admission, enrolment and proficiency in the local language are necessary. In some</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

countries this can come with limited, part-time employment rights.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work Visas</td>
<td>Permits allowing one to hold a paid job in the destination country for a period of time. These are notoriously hard to acquire unless special arrangements exist between your home country and the destination country. This is because the primary requirement to be considered for a work visa is that nobody in the employer's local job market is qualified and willing to do the job the employer needs to fill. It might slightly be easier for you to get a working visa if you possess an advanced degree (i.e., MA, MS, PhD) from a reputable school or an undergraduate degree with extensive and substantial related experience. If the work visa does not automatically allow you to permanently immigrate (i.e., contract worker), the visa will usually be restricted as well to a particular employer and job type.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working Holiday Visas</td>
<td>Work visas that allow short-term jobs to be undertaken to subsidize a vacation. Often this is available only by certain countries to nationals of selected countries as part of special agreements.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious Pilgrimage Visas</td>
<td>Visas given for the Hajj, which entitles the bearer to visit a religious shrine or site. These are common in most Muslim countries.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retirement Visas</td>
<td>Allow one to reside in a country indefinitely, so long as they abide by the law and do not seek paid employment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immigrant Visas</td>
<td>Permits one to resettile in a country permanently</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C. APEC Visa Facilitation

The Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) held the highest tourism activity in 2013 due in part to its easement of travel policies and regulations among the 21 member economies. This along with clear stipulations of visa regulations contributed to increased tourism demand, tourist spending, and job creation (UNWTO, 2013). Salter cited the Philippine Pocket Open Skies Policies, Indonesia Visa-on-Board and Australia/New Zealand Smart Gate as prime examples of APEC member economies’ receptiveness towards the lucrative revenue of travel and tourism (2012).

Moreover, while APEC visa policies require an average of 63 percent of the world population to obtain a visa, UNWTO estimated that out of the 355 million tourists who travelled to APEC destinations in 2013, only an estimated 20 percent needed to obtain a visa (UNWTO and WTTC, 2013).

Tourism redresses weak economies and high unemployment. Based on the UNWTO 2013 Report, APEC is expected to gain 38 to 57 million additional tourists by 2016. The additional international tourism receipts generated by these additional arrivals could reach between US$ 62 and US$ 89 billion (UNWTO, 2013). Moreover, the total number of jobs created as a consequence of this increase is estimated to range from 1.8 to 2.6 million (UNWTO and WTTC, 2013). Hence, it is in the best interest of APEC member economies to optimize visa facilitation for maximum travel mobility.

This is already evidenced by the successful collaboration among APEC representatives. The APEC Tourism Working Group (APEC TWG) is committed to improve visa facilitation challenges by networking among different governmental branches within each country and across the APEC region to facilitate
visas. It also is working towards 1) developing a comprehensive study on the 21-member economies’ visa issues so that an aligned set of visa policies and regulations can be enforced and 2) fast tracking the development of new visa technologies (e.g., eVisa Program and Smartgate) (Salter, 2012).

Progress in visa facilitation is nonetheless present. A tangible example is the APEC Business Travel Card (ABTC),3 which was established in 1997 as an initiative of the APEC Mobility Group. The ethos was to provide fast and efficient travel for business people within the region to facilitate free and open trade and investment. The ABTC allows business travelers 3 years of pre-cleared, short-term, multiple entries to any APEC member economies. They are also provided expedited immigration processing on arrival via fast-track entry and exit through special APEC lanes at major airports in participating economies.

These benefits phased out the need for business people to apply for visas and entry permits. It also saved revenues of both business owners and governments. According to the APEC Policy Support Unit Study on “The Impact of Business Mobility in Reducing Trade Transaction Costs in APEC,” reduced transaction costs resulted to US$ 3.7 million in savings from March to July 2010 through March to July 2011. In terms of time, 62,413 hours were saved at the immigration areas—a monetary value of US$1.9 million (APEC Report, 2013).

Per the APEC Tourism Working Group, there remains several “areas of opportunity” to visa facilitation in terms of individual and business travel. For individual travel, there is an absence of a visa blanket policy among the 21 member economies. The marked diversity among first world members to developing members range from New Zealand offering the most visa free status to visitors but is hampered by visa delays in processing, while Australia requires a higher proportion of foreigners to apply for a visa and provide visa documentation but offers effective visa service (Salter, 2012). Both countries extend the most in travel taxes (for EU and UK citizens) but this is not the case for Singapore, Thailand, Malaysia and other ASEAN countries, which still operate on a paper visa system, which causes bottlenecks in visa facilitation (Salter, 2012).

For business visas, the APEC Business Travel Card has improved business mobility among APEC member-economies. According to Salter, the challenges rest more on national business regulations and limits to open economies that constrain capital and profit movement (Salter, 2012).

D. Comparison of Existing Visa Requirements Across ASEAN Countries

ASEAN has a population of 600 million, a cumulative US$2 trillion GDP, and excellent growth prospects. It is also considered a lucrative venue for tourism: in 2013 it bore the greatest growth in tourist arrivals in a single sub-region (UNWTO, 2014). Based on current visa policies, UNWTO research indicates that out of the 89 million tourists expected to travel to ASEAN destinations in 2013, only 9.7 percent would need to obtain a traditional visa (UNWTO, 2014).

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3 Heavily lifted from [http://travel.apec.org/intro.html](http://travel.apec.org/intro.html).
The 50 case studies in ASEAN showed that there were increases in tourist visitation at the easing of visa policies. Despite present areas of opportunities, there was “successful collaboration among different governmental branches within each country and across the ASEAN region to facilitate visas, including progressive approaches to implement new visa policies” (UNWTO, 2014).

The success of the ASEAN Economic Community 2015 does not rest primarily on economic integration but also on effective community building as well. With 10 member countries of myriad cultures and history, the thrust for “unity in diversity” through people-to-people connectivity is key. These can be facilitated through extensive education, cultural exchanges and a more seamless business transaction among ASEAN member countries.

The following section will cover non-resident, student and business visa requirements of ASEAN member states. This will highlight the variances of visa facilitation, procedures and requirements from the perspective of the authors.

Nonresident visas are issued to persons with a permanent residence outside their country of destination but who wishes to be in a visiting country on a temporary basis (i.e., tourism, medical treatment and etc.). For the definitions of the student and business visas, please refer to Table 4.

Table 4. Summary of ASEAN Countries’ Visa Requirements for (General) Nonresident Visas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Number of Travel Days without Visa</th>
<th>Documents for ASEAN citizens</th>
<th>Days of Processing for Extension</th>
<th>Days of Validity/Extension</th>
<th>Cost (for extension)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brunei</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Passport</td>
<td>2 to 3 days</td>
<td>3 months, single entry</td>
<td>US$ 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Passport</td>
<td>Cambodian Office of Immigration discretion</td>
<td>3 months to 1 year</td>
<td>No data available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Passport</td>
<td>1 day</td>
<td>2 to 3 months, single entry</td>
<td>US$ 25-30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laos</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Passport</td>
<td>1 to 8 days</td>
<td>Discretion of Lao Immigration Office</td>
<td>US$ 2 per day of extension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Passport</td>
<td>1 to 3 days</td>
<td>3 months</td>
<td>US$ 30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myanmar</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>Passport</td>
<td>1 day</td>
<td>2 weeks to 1 month</td>
<td>US$ 36 to 72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Passport</td>
<td>2 to 5 days</td>
<td>1 day to 4 weeks</td>
<td>US$ 30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Passport</td>
<td>1 to 3 days</td>
<td>30 days</td>
<td>US$ 58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnam</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Passport</td>
<td>5 days</td>
<td>30 days</td>
<td>US$ 35 to 40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: This study.

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4 Visa information for nine ASEAN members were sourced from multiple resources: Embassy interviews and websites and various international sites that provide visa facilitation support.
Table 5. Summary of ASEAN Countries’ Visa Requirements for Student Visas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Number of Travel Days with Visa</th>
<th>Documents for ASEAN citizens</th>
<th>Days of Processing</th>
<th>Days of Validity/Extension</th>
<th>Cost</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brunei</td>
<td>Academic year (6 months to 1 year)</td>
<td>University/College’s letter of offer, Memo from the Immigration Department and completed application form</td>
<td>1 to 7 days</td>
<td>Annual renewal</td>
<td>US$ 39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>1 year (application must be done in Cambodia)</td>
<td>University Acceptance Letter, letter of intent copies of bank record</td>
<td>Discretion of the Cambodian Immigration Office</td>
<td>I year, single entry</td>
<td>No data available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>3 months, single entry</td>
<td>University Acceptance Letter, completed application form, letter of intent, copies of bank account and e-ticket</td>
<td>3 days</td>
<td>Renewable every three months for two years</td>
<td>US$ 25-30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laos</td>
<td>No data available</td>
<td>No data available</td>
<td>No data available</td>
<td>No data available</td>
<td>No data available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>1 year (Formal visa issuance at the Malaysian Immigration checkpoint)</td>
<td>Approved letters from the Malaysian Ministries of Higher Education and Home Affairs, letter of approval for a student pass</td>
<td>7 to 14 days</td>
<td>Annual Renewal</td>
<td>US$ 18-20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myanmar</td>
<td>No data available</td>
<td>No data available</td>
<td>No data available</td>
<td>No data available</td>
<td>No data available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>Duration of course</td>
<td>Dependent on educational level and institution applied</td>
<td>5 to 10 working days</td>
<td>Not applicable</td>
<td>US$ 90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>90 days, single entry</td>
<td>Approved letter from Thai University,</td>
<td>1 to 5 days</td>
<td>1 year, multiple entry</td>
<td>US$ 58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnam</td>
<td>3 to 6 months</td>
<td>Letter of confirmation from the Vietnam Foreign Ministry, application form</td>
<td>1 to 6 days</td>
<td>Discretion of Vietnam Immigration Office</td>
<td>US$ 25 to 85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: This study.

Ibid.
### Table 6. Summary of ASEAN Countries’ Visa Requirements for Business Visas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Number of Travel Days with Visa</th>
<th>Documents for ASEAN citizens</th>
<th>Days of Processing</th>
<th>Days of Validity/Extension</th>
<th>Cost</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brunei</td>
<td>1 month to 1 year</td>
<td>Passport, sponsor letter, completed application form</td>
<td>1 to 3 days</td>
<td>Discretion of Brunei Immigration Office and support from sponsor (Form 8)</td>
<td>US$ 15-20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>1 month</td>
<td>Passport and completed application form</td>
<td>1 day</td>
<td>1 month to 1 year</td>
<td>US$ 30-280</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>Passport, sponsor letter, completed application form</td>
<td>3 days</td>
<td>60-day extension</td>
<td>US$ 25-30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laos</td>
<td>3 months to 1 year</td>
<td>Passport, sponsor letter, completed application form</td>
<td>1 to 5 days</td>
<td>3 months to 1 year</td>
<td>US$ 60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>No more than 12 months</td>
<td>Passport, sponsor letter, completed application form</td>
<td>7 to 14 days</td>
<td>Discretion of Malaysian Immigration Office</td>
<td>US$ 27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myanmar</td>
<td>3 months (single entry), 6 months to 1 year (multiple entry)</td>
<td>Passport, sponsor letter, completed application form</td>
<td>1 day</td>
<td>Discretion of Myanmar Immigration Office</td>
<td>US$ 65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>3 months to 1 year</td>
<td>Passport, sponsor letter, completed application form</td>
<td>5 to 10 working days</td>
<td>Discretion of the Singapore Immigration Office</td>
<td>US$ 133 to 268</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>3 months to 1 year</td>
<td>Passport, sponsor, or company letter, approved letter from the Ministry of Labor, USD 617 financial standing</td>
<td>2 to 7 days</td>
<td>Discretion of Thai Immigration Office</td>
<td>US$ 61 to 154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnam</td>
<td>90 days to 1 year</td>
<td>Passport, sponsor or company letter or letter of invitation</td>
<td>1 to 7 days</td>
<td>Discretion of Vietnam Immigration Office</td>
<td>US$ 20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: This study.

**E. ASEAN Visa Facilitation**

The USD 294.4 billion revenue earned and 2.8 million employment created due to ASEAN tourist arrivals in 2013 has made visa facilitation a chief concern in the ASEAN tourism’s meeting in 2014 (WTTC Southeast Asia Report, 2014).

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6 Ibid.
As of January 2014, Myanmar has finalized bilateral agreements for visa free travel with its ASEAN member countries. This is significant progress since Myanmar has the second lowest number of tourists in ASEAN, according to the 2011 Regional Statistics (Esmaquel, 2014). In 2011, an estimated 816,400 tourists visited the country as opposed to the 3.92 million that visited the Philippines in the same year (Esmaquel, 2014).

However, there remain many areas for improvement as indicated by Indonesian Ministry of Tourism and Creative Economy, Mari Elka Pangestu. “Visa facilitation in ASEAN is not bad, compared to the rest of the world but there is still a lot of homework to be done, especially for a common visa for non ASEAN nationals” (Hudoyo, 2014) She added that “transportation, infrastructure and connectively will also determine seamless travel” (Hudoyo, 2014).

One of the many objectives of the 2015 ASEAN Economic Community is to develop ASEAN citizens’ acceptance of a shared regional identity. To ensure this, ASEAN member-states has invested heavily on education, training, science and technology development, job generation, and social protection. (Amador and Teodoro, 2014) It has also heightened people-to-people contact by making travel easier through visa-free arrangements, educational exchanges, incorporating ASEAN studies in education curricula, among others. (Amador and Teodoro, 2014).

In regards to ASEAN visa-free arrangements, ASEAN has yet to implement a common visa similar to the comprehensive application of the European Union’s Schengen Visa. Citizens of EU countries do not require a visa or work permit to cross EU borders, but in ASEAN countries citizens still need both documents (i.e., visa extension and work permits). Nonetheless, progress in the easement of visa facilitation and policies are evident. ASEAN agreements show that a company from an ASEAN country may be able town 100% of a company in another ASEAN country. For instance, a Vietnamese company could become the 100% owner of a Thai company. (Thailand and Norwegian Chamber of Commerce, 2013)

There is no uniformity in visa-free standards and regulations. Visa travel days among ASEAN members are different. A Filipino travelling to Vietnam is allotted 21 days, while Thais, Laotians, Malaysians, Indonesians and Singaporeans are provided 30 days. Moreover, there is no standard reference and definition for the different types of visas across ASEAN nations. What is termed by one as “Short Stay Visa” may cover a tourist or business purpose (i.e., business meetings, conferences).

Further ironing out of visa-free regulations and facilitation are still necessary. According to Hikmahanta Juwana, a legal expert at the University of Indonesia, ASEAN also has to make sure that each member had commonality concerning the nationalities that are granted free facilities visa on arrival. “Singapore grants visas to Israeli citizens. Does that mean Indonesia also has to give it to Israel citizens after the application of the ASEAN single visa?” (Khalik and Adamrah, 2011) He added that considerations must also be placed on loss of revenue due to the visa-free arrangements (Khalik and Adamrah, 2011).
Indonesian Foreign Minister Marty Natalegawa acknowledged that the process for the establishment of a common visa similar to the Schengen Visa will require more time and harmonization (Khalik and Adamrah, 2011). He added that security aspects, as well as financial matters must be considered. Nonetheless, ASEAN members of the Tourism Board remain optimistic that the ASEAN members’ institutions, including the foreign Ministries, the immigration offices and others will be able to successful manage and streamline effective visa regulations and policies for enhanced travel mobility. (Khalik and Adamrah, 2011).

F. Existing Institutional Obstacles

For more effective, efficient and speedy visa facilitation and procedures in both the APEC and ASEAN, the UNWTO and the WTTC have recommended: (a) improvement of the delivery of information and facilitation current visa processes; (b) provision of differentiated treatment for key market segments; (c) implementation of eVisa programmes; and (e) establishment of regional agreements (UNWTO and WTTC, 2014).

Accessible information on visa requirements, procedures and conditionals guarantees increased tourist arrivals. Often, potential tourists steer away from countries that require multiple documents and immigration offices with pervading bureaucratic red tape. The provision of immediate visa information in reliable avenues (i.e., embassy websites) in several languages and request for only pertinent documents, as well as friendly facilitation by embassies and consulates will exponentially heighten interest for tourists to visit APEC and ASEAN member countries.

A tourist is defined as a “temporarily leisured person who voluntarily visits a place away from home for the purpose of experiencing a change (Stronza, 2000). These tourists are generally those that are able and willing to extend expenditures for authentic travel experiences. Extension of benefits across key market segments will generate increased interest for continued travel arrivals. In this instance, the UNWTO and WTTC recommended the voidance of tourist visas for cruise ship passengers or those traveling in private chartered planes (UNWTO and WTTC, 2014).

The implementation of an electronic visa system across APEC and ASEAN member countries will not only ascertain fast and efficient service but will streamline visa processing, which some countries (i.e., Myanmar, Laos) still perform manually. Due to the voluminous inflow of tourists in ASEAN every year, the implementation of an electronic visa system across all ASEAN will reduce the bottlenecks manual (i.e., stamped or sticker visas) and service (i.e., personal interviews, long lines at embassies), as well as cut down costs, particularly for member countries with limited networks of embassies and consulates across the globe.

Similar to the UNWTO and WTTC Report, Salter highlighted the following recommendations for APEC to improve its visa facilitation. He indicated that the APEC Tourism Working Group must serve as the nexus of tourism research. As with Stronza’s argument that tourism must be extensively researched for maximum generation of sustainable income, the APEC TWG must collate information on the costs and benefits of 1) traditional-based visa process vs. electronic means, 2) visa-on-arrival process vs. visa-
free situation, 3) multiple-entry visas vs. long stay visas and 4) common approval visa process vs. mutual recognition of visas by APEC member economies. Through these information, Salter believes that APEC member economies will fast track their overall direction towards visa convergence policies and implement electronic visa technologies.

The Schengen Visa is the epitome for the common visa policy. Used by the 25-member EU countries, it allows EU tourists to travel across the region for leisure, tourism and business under one visa, cutting the hassle of applying for work permits or tourist visas. For APEC and ASEAN, this is the end goal in visa free arrangements. In the case of APEC and ASEAN, more often, bilateral agreements over visa policies and regulations are preeminent over multilateral negotiations. This is not a disadvantaged process but one-on-one country member sessions require more time and diplomatic effort rather than multilateral ones.
Chapter IV. Recent International Practices in Promoting PTP Tourism Through Entry and Exit Facilitation

This chapter identifies recent international good practices in promoting PTP tourism. Due to budgetary and time limitations, the review is based solely on an Internet search and is therefore not as extensive and detailed as could be. Nevertheless, the review findings can still provide examples and directions that the ASEAN member states can take as they move towards greater regional integration. Table 7 provides a summary of these international practices.

Table 7. Summary of Recent International Practices in Facilitating People-to-People Tourism, 2010s

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of People-to-People Tourism</th>
<th>Recent International Practices</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General - Visa Waiver Programs</td>
<td>Bilateral agreements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General - Visa Facilitation Agreements</td>
<td>E.U. Visa Facilitation Agreements with 9 Eastern European countries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E.U.-Morocco Mobility Partnership Agreement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ASEAN Visa Facilitation Program Among ASEAN citizens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>APEC Business Travel Card (ABTC)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Australia Electronic Travel Authority (ETA) Program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational Cooperation</td>
<td>U.S. Student and Exchange Visitor Visas (F, J, M, G)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>E.U.-Mediterranean Student Mobility Initiative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R&amp;D Cooperation</td>
<td>E.U. Scientific Visa Package</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>U.S. Business Facilitation Program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security and Crime Prevention</td>
<td>U.S.-Canada Border Action Plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>U.S.-Mexico Drug Control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regional Public Health</td>
<td>Lubombo Special Development Initiative (Malaria Control), Southern Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Africa-Wide Oncho Control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>HIV/AIDS Control Along Transport Corridors in Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>HIV/AIDS Control Among Refugees and Other Mobile Groups in Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Norway-Russia Health Cooperation in Border Areas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disaster Response</td>
<td>International Disaster Response Law</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Red Cross Disaster Response Guidelines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>U.S.-Canada Cooperation in Disaster Response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dutch Emergencies and Crisis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Philippine Typhoon Yolanda Task Force</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical Tourism</td>
<td>No unique visa type found</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental Parks and Natural Assets</td>
<td>U.S.-Canada cooperation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Norway-Russia cooperation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Okavango River Basin Cooperation (OKACOM)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SADC Transborder Natural Resource Management (TBNRM)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trading and Investment</td>
<td>Australia EMA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>U.S. Mexico Business Facilitation Program</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A. General Visa Waiver and Facilitation Programs

1. Visa Waiver Programs – Over the past few years, a number of countries have undertaken visa waiver programs to facilitate travel into their territories; notable among these have been the following (WTTC, 2013):

   a. South Korea’s visa waiver program for Chinese visitors. This was started in 2006 in response to the country’s declining tourist market share among this group from 2001 to 2005. The waiver program focused on Jeju Island, Korea’s important tourist destination. Multiple-entry visas were also issued to selected Chinese demographic groups.

   b. China’s visa waiver program for visitors (for up to 14 days) from Russian Federation. Brunei, Singapore, and Japan, started in July 2009, to facilitate tourism.

   c. U.S. visa waiver program. This was expanded in 2008 to include Eastern European countries and South Korea. It now covers 37 countries. The latest addition is Taiwan, which was announced in October 2012, allowing Taiwanese travelers to visit the U.S. visa-free for 90 days.

   d. Canadian visa waiver for Czech visitors. This was announced in 2007.

2. Visa Facilitation Arrangements Among ASEAN Countries – This agreement was signed in 2007, but actual implementation does not yet cover all ASEAN countries (e.g., Myanmar still requires a visa from an ASEAN citizen). The program also seeks to enhance international tourism. In a pilot agreement between Thailand and Cambodia, for instance, only one visa will be required for both countries (WTTC, 2013).

   A “Smart Visa” is also being considered in the region. Major countries have signed a letter of intent to develop such a system, modeled after the European Shengen visa. The goal is to enhance economic integration and connectivity, and to share the costs of having a digital visa system (WTTC, 2013). What is envisioned is a digital, paperless permission to enter the ASEAN countries which a traveler can obtain from a travel agent or airline while making a reservation.

3. EU Visa Facilitation and Readmission Agreements – "Provides more relaxed travel conditions in exchange for the signing of an EC readmission agreement between EU and its neighbors. The facilitated travel opportunities are beneficial for the citizens of the target countries. However, the positive achievements are undermined by the Schengen enlargement...” (Kruse and Trauner, 2014).
There are nine visa facilitation agreements (VFAs) currently in force between EU and certain third countries. These agreements provide procedural facilitations, such as reduction of visa fees, the issuance of multiple-entry visas for specific categories of applicants, and shorter processing times for nationals of these specific third countries who must satisfy the entry conditions. The nine VFAs, signed between 2008 and 2011, are for those involving: Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Former Yoguslav Republic of Macedonia, Georgia, Moldova, Montenegro, Serbia, Russia, and Ukraine.

4. EU-Morocco Mobility Partnership Agreement – Morocco is the seventh in the world in terms of EU Schengen visas issued in 2012 (a total of 322,094). To ease this traffic, the visa facilitation negotiations between EU and Morocco was initiated in the framework of the Mobility Partnership agreement, signed in June 2013 (EU, 2014). The agreement established a set of political objectives and provides for a series of initiatives designed to ensure that the movement of persons is managed as effectively as possible. It covers all issues related to migration: how to maximize the impact of migration on development, regular migration and integration, irregular migration and border management, trafficking in human beings, and asylum seeking.

The travel facilitation under this partnership agreement are general for all applicants but is expected to benefit certain groups, particularly students, researchers, and business professionals. The list of suggested visa facilitations include: the simplification of documentary evidence to be submitted in support of the visa application for certain categories of applicants; the possibility of issuing multiple-entry visas with a long period of validity; the waiving/reducing of the handling fees for specific categories of travelers; setting deadlines for the processing of visa applications; and possible exemption from the visa obligation for holders of diplomatic and service passports. The comprehensive partnership with Morocco is a big step and represents a benchmark for the Southern Mediterranean region.

5. Australia’s Electronic Travel Authority (ETA) Program – This was started in 1996 in anticipation of the large inflow of tourists for the 2000 Sydney Summer Olympics. The ETA is an electronically stored travel authorization and is linked to the traveler’s passport. It is in essence an electronic visa, though the traveler received no stamp or sticker in his passport. The passport is checked prior to embarkation to verify that the traveler is authorized to travel to Australia, and then again by customs officers at the border (WTTC, 2013).

6. East African “Single Tourist Destination” Proposal – The fifth meeting of the East African Legislative Assembly in Kigali, Rwanda in April 2013 prioritized the issue of the “single EAC tourist destination” concept. Realizing the concept would require the partner states to harmonize their visa-issuing regimes and fee structures; to develop a mechanism for sharing the financial cost of administering the single tourist visa and sharing the revenues collected; and improving the ICT infrastructure to facilitate connectivity at entry and exit points. The introduction of a single tourist visa would also require a multi-sectoral approach as the benefits and costs are not confined to the immigration bureaus or tourism sectors alone (Ndahayo, 2013).
B. Educational Cooperation

1. U.S. Student and Exchange Visitor Visas – The U.S. Embassy in the Philippines explains these visa programs as follows (www.usembassy.gov): The U.S. Immigration and Nationality Act provides three non-immigrant visa classifications for persons wishing to study in the U.S.: (a) F visa for academic studies in an educational institution approved by the U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services; (b) M visa for non-academic or vocational studies; (c) J visa for exchange visitors, including interns and trainees; and (d) G visa for participants to official U.S. government sponsored educational and cultural exchanges. The principal applicants are deemed F-1, M-1, J-1, and G-1 visa holders; their dependents would have to apply for F-2, M-2, J-2, and G-2 visa status.

“Students must demonstrate that the primary purpose for their travel to the U.S. is for study. Applicants must prove that they will leave the U.S. upon expiration of their authorized period of stay. Student visas cannot be used to circumvent ineligibility for other types of visas” (www.usembassy.gov).

2. Euro-Mediterranean Student Mobility Initiative – This is an initiative involving five North African countries (Algeria, Egypt, Mauritania, Morocco, and Tunisia) along with 38 European and Mediterranean states (Sawahel, 2014). The initiative aims to provide mobility grants and facilitate entry and residency procedures among participating countries. It is intended to enhance reciprocity and diversity, boost capacity building, and drive innovation. Analysts note that the initiative should prioritize activity-bound mobility, such as seminars, summer schools, conferences, and policy symposia. It should also differentiate between short- and long-term mobility, e.g., training and teaching exchange, fieldwork, and resident researchers.

C. R&D Cooperation

1. EU’s Scientific Visa Package to Third-Country Nationals – Adopted in 2005, EU’s scientific visa permits a third-country national (non-EU resident) to enter, stay and work in EU countries for the purpose of carrying out scientific research (EU, 2007). More correctly, it is an entry visa and residence permit for third-country researchers. The new directive applies to all EU countries except the U.K. and Denmark.

The long-term admission permit is intended for researchers to stay in Europe for more than three months while the short-term visa is for entry for less than three months (e.g., to attend a conference in a European country). EU (2007) states that the main concept of the EU scientific visa is to create a specific residence permit for foreign researchers independently from their contractual status (employee, self-employed, or recipient of a stipend). In the new system, a third-country national wishing to carry out a research project in Europe will have to sign a “hosting agreement” with an accredited public or private research organization. Such a “hosting agreement” is a contract where the status of the researcher as well as is possession of the necessary scientific skills, financial means, and health insurance is specified.
In contrast to existing national rules, the main added value of the new scientific visa can be summarized as follows (EU, 2007):

a) For the first time, a common definition of “researcher” has been established in EU’s Community Law.

b) Researchers admitted as employees will no longer have to obtain work permits in the member states and any form of quota fixed by the member states will not be permitted.

c) Once the hosting agreement is signed and security aspects are checked by immigration authorities, the researchers will have a right, legally actionable before a court, to enter the member state concerned.

d) Family reunification will be facilitated as: (i) when a member state decides to grant a residence permit to the family members of a researcher, the duration of a validity of their residence permit shall be the same as that of the residence permit issued to the researcher; (ii) the issue of the residence permit to the family members of the researcher shall not be made dependent on the requirement of minimum period of residence of the researcher in a member state.

e) Member states are encouraged to encourage researchers who are already legally resident within the country to submit applications for residence permits directly to the authorities in that member state without returning home first (“application in loco”), as is often currently the case.

f) The researcher could carry out part of his research activities in other member states for a period lasting less than three months. When moving for a period of more than three months, the new host countries could require signature for another hosting agreement.

g) The new discrimination principle vis-à-vis national researchers will concern, among others, working conditions to avoid social dumping (the foreign researcher should have a salary comparable to that of nationals) and social security.

3. **US’s Business Facilitation Program** – See section below which covers businesses and universities.

D. **Security and Crime Prevention**

1. **US-Canada’s Beyond the Border Action Plan (BBAP)**

   BBAP offers cooperative strategy and joint vision intended to boost security and facilitate the flow of goods and people between these two nations. Efforts between the two countries in this area began in 2001 with the signing of the bilateral

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7 This section lifts heavily from Zuckerman, Riley, and Inserra (2013).
Smart Border Accord. BBAP was released in December 2011. BBAP’s key features And which may be relevant for ASEAN are the following:

*Addressing threats early* – The BBAP calls for conducting joint threat assessments and strengthening information and intelligence sharing; enhancing domain awareness; and fostering cooperative efforts to counter violent extremism. It also calls for harmonization of traveler, cargo, and baggage screening; coordination of entry and exit systems; and protection for both nations from offshore food-safety, animal, and plant health risks. To stop threats before they endanger either nation, BBAP has three themes: creating a common understanding of the threat, harmonizing the screening of travelers, and adopting a perimeter approach to cargo security.

a) Enhanced trusted traveler program, also known as NEXUS – This program, launched in 2002, allows pre-screened U.S. and Canadian travelers expedited processing at dedicated air, land, and maritime ports of entry between the U.S. and Canada.

b) Exit-entry pilot program – This program, began in October 2012, shares visitor entry information between the two countries so that entry into one country serves as a record of exit from the other.

c) Mutual recognition of air cargo – Started in May 2012, this policy operates on the principle of “cleared once, accepted twice.” Cargo screened on passenger aircraft is screened only once at the point of origin, rather than being re-screened at the border or when loaded onto an aircraft in the other country.

d) Integrated Cargo Security Strategy (ICSS) pilot – This program is the implementation of the “perimeter security approach.” It is intended to employ risk-management principles to address security and contraband concerns by foreign cargo shipments as early in the supply chain as possible.

*Promoting trade facilitation* – The thrusts are:

a) Streamlining customs processes – Canada is reviewing alternative approaches to import inspection, has tested procedures to lead to U.S. pre-inspection at land ports of entry in Canada, and began converting to an electronic form for a “single window” where importers can submit all information required by government agencies.

b) Expediting low-value shipments – Canada and the U.S. have increased the dollar limit for items receiving expedited customs clearance to US$2,500. Canada is also planning infrastructure upgrades including customs plaza updates, additional primary and secondary lanes, and booths at border crossing.
c) Facilitating improvements in “trusted trader” programs – This program is known in the U.S. as Free and Secure Trade (FAST). It streamlines cargo screening for known, low-risk traders.

**Integrated cross-border law enforcement** – To prevent cross-border crime, the BBAP calls for cooperation on national security and transnational criminal investigations and interoperable radio capability for law enforcement.

a) Border enforcement – This is done through Integrated Border Enforcement Teams (IBETs) and Border Enforcement Security Task Forces (BEST).

b) Formalization and expansion of the “Shiprider” Program – This program is known officially as the Integrated Cross-border Maritime Law Enforcement Operations (ICMLEO). Under this program, officers from the U.S. C and the Royal Canadian Mounted Police are assigned to each other’s watercrafts, allowing the two to jointly patrol both nations’ waters.

c) Planning for a binational radio interoperability – BBAP seeks to foster better communication, coordination, and timely response between law enforcement officers on both sides of the border.

**E. Response to Regional Public Health Problems**

1. **Lubombo Special Development Initiative (LSDI)** – This is a tri-country effort intended to spur agro-economic development in the areas bordered by south-eastern Swaziland, north-eastern KwaZulu-Natal, and southern Mozambique (Picazo, 2013). The area is wracked with malaria, and a key intervention to make the area economically productive is through vector control and patient treatment. LSDi is the brainchild of South Africa’s Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, which intends to turn the area into an economic zone. A major constraint in this area, however, is the high burden of malaria. To address this problem, the Medical Research Council of South Africa and their collaborating institutions in the other two countries designed a malaria control component of LSDI, and in October 1999, the relevant ministers of the three countries signed the Malaria Protocol of LSDI which defined the terms of cooperation for disease control in the area. The malaria control component of the LSDI is managed by the Regional Malaria Control Commission, a core group of public health experts and scientists from the three countries. The project provides effective treatment interventions on malaria and indoor residual spraying with insecticides.

As the malaria interventions progressed, the LSDI project managers realized that more intensive control interventions had to be done in southern Mozambique reaching up to Maputo Province and then to Gaza Province, which both border South Africa. The Mozambican, South African, and Swazi governments understood the well-documented negative effect that malaria had on the tourism and investment potential of this region and, in no time, agreed for a full-blown control program crisscrossing their borders. Prevalence studies show that malaria cases have dramatically declined at LSDI and at Maputo and Gaza provinces (LSDI, 2012). For instance, the key LSDI target of reducing malaria incidence
from 250/1,000 population to less than 20/1,000 population has been achieved. LSDI, therefore, demonstrates the virtue of a transnational strategy in dealing with a major public health problem.

2. Africa-wide Onchocerciasis Control – Onchocerciasis, the disease caused by filarial worms, is highly prevalent in sub-Saharan Africa, especially along the Sahel. The principal strategy of the African Program for Onchocerciasis Control is the establishment of sustainable community-directed treatment with ivermectin (Mectizan) to ensure that a high proportion of the at-risk population receives the drug at least once a year (Picazo, 2013). Merck & Co. provides the drug through its Mectizan Donation Program. The World Bank has statutory responsibility under the Oncho Fund Agreement for donor coordination, mobilizing donor financing, and managing the program’s trust fund. Program activities include assessment of disease distribution, surveillance, vector control, training and distribution of ivermectin, capacity-building, advocacy and information campaigns, and research. The oncho control program originally focused on the 11 countries in West Africa that are affected by the disease. The program has since expanded to 19 other African countries (outside the West Africa control area), with estimated population of 109 million, of whom 50 million are at risk of contracting oncho.

3. HIV/AIDS Control Along Transport Corridors in Sub-Saharan Africa – The World Bank’s US$16.6 million HIV/AIDS Project for the Abidjan-Lagos Transport Corridor was launched in December 2003 to provide HIV/AIDS information and services to transport workers and their clients. The project is based on a declaration of agreement at the level of heads of state of the five countries using the transport corridor, namely Cote d’Ivoire, Ghana, Togo, Benin, and Nigeria. Participating states set up a representative institutional structure to manage the project; these countries contribute to the upkeep of the project through annual payments.

The Southern African HIV/AIDS Transport Corridor Project is another regional project under preparation. It is expected to provide support to the world’s most heavily affected region, which includes Malawi, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Mozambique and South Africa. It will provide support to the coordination, monitoring, and evaluation of HIV/AIDS interventions in the long-haul transport sector. It will also support HIV/AIDS interventions in communities located along the transport corridors. Other regional HIV/AIDS initiatives include the ongoing projects for the Horn of Africa, and the ARCAN project in East Africa.

There are other important transport corridors where transnational HIV/AIDS interventions are needed. In a few of these corridors, interventions are already underway or planned; the rest are for future development. The key African transport corridors are: Bamako-Ouagadougou-Tema corridor; Bamako-Ouagadougou-Niamey corridor; Cotonou-Niamey corridor; Dakar-Bamako corridor; Lome-Ouagadougou-Bamako-Niamey corridor; Abidjan-Ouagadougou corridor; Abidjan-Bamako corridor; Djibouti-Addis Ababa corridor; Mombasa-Kampala-Kigali-Bujumbura-Goma corridor; Dar Es Salaam-Kigali-Bujumbura-Goma corridor; Dar Es Salaam-Lusaka-Lilongwe-Blantyre corridor; Durban-Lusaka-Lubumbashi corridor; Beira-Harare-Lusaka-Lilongwe-Blantyre corridor; Maputo-Johannesburg corridor; and Nacala-Lilongwe-Blantyre corridor.
4. HIV/AIDS Control Among Refugees and Other Mobile Groups in sub-Saharan Africa – The World Bank has used the same transnational approach in dealing with the regional dimension of disease transmission. In addition to the national HIV/AIDS projects, its Multisectoral AIDS Projects (MAP) has also embarked on some regional initiatives in Africa. The Great Lakes Initiative on HIV/AIDS Support Project (GLIA) is a US$20 million initiative approved in March 2005 to add value to national HIV/AIDS efforts and to support interventions for mobile groups including refugees, internally displaced people, and rebel returnees. It provided seed capital for the formation of a regional institution, wholly owned by its member-states of Burundi, Democratic Republic of Congo, Kenya, Rwanda, Tanzania, and Uganda. It involves the UNAIDS as well as the U.N. High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR) as an implementing partner.

5. Norway–Russia Cross-Border Health Initiatives – The two countries’ cooperation in the field of health is linked to the Barents cooperation Program on Health and Related Issues and the Northern Dimension Partnership in Public Health and Social Well-Being. Both are based on the principle of reciprocity (MFA, 2014). The University of Tromso, the University Hospital of North Norway, and the Northern Norway Regional Health Authority have cooperated with the Northern State Medical University in Arkhangelsk, the health authorities of Arkhangelsk, the St. Petersburg State Medical Academy, and the regional health authorities in Murmansk to develop a masters degree program in the field of public health. Overall, the Norwegian exchange students in Russia numbered 199 while the Russian exchange students in Norway numbered 1,175.

F. Response to Major Disasters and Calamities

1. Red Cross and Red Crescent Guidelines – The international Federation of Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies has formulated the Guidelines for Domestic Facilitation and Regulation of International Relief and Initial Recovery Assistance (IFR&RCC, 2009; IFRC&RCC, 2011; IFRC&RCC, 2014). The guidelines were drawn from many existing international instruments, including relevant U.N. General Assembly resolutions. Although the Guidelines are non-binding and do not have a direct effect on any existing rights and obligations of affected countries under their domestic laws, it is hoped that states will make use of them to strengthen their own laws, policies and procedures. The Guidelines are not intended to apply to situations of armed conflict or to disasters that occur during armed conflicts.

The Guidelines provide definitions of disaster, disaster relief, initial recovery assistance, personnel, goods, services, and other technical terms used in disaster response. It also distinguishes among assisting humanitarian organization, eligible assisting humanitarian organization, and assisting actor. The relevant provisions pertaining to disaster-response personnel are in Part IV, Sections 1-5, and are as follows: “With regard to disaster relief and initial recovery personnel of assisting states and eligible assisting humanitarian organizations, affected states should:

a) Grant visas and any necessary work permits, ideally without cost, renewable within their territory, for the time necessary to carry out disaster relief or initial recovery activities.
b) In disaster relief operations, waive or significantly expedite the provision of such visas and formulated work permits.

c) Establish expedited procedures for temporary recognition of professional qualifications of foreign medical personnel, architects, and engineers; driving licenses and other types of license and certificate that are necessary for the performance of disaster relief or initial recovery functions and that have been certified as genuine by the concerned assisting state or eligible assisting humanitarian organization.

d) Facilitate freedom of access to and freedom of movement in and from the disaster affected area, bearing in mind the safety disaster relief and initial recovery personnel.

The Guidelines provide that “upon request, originating and transit states should likewise waive or promptly issue, ideally without cost, exit or transit visas, as appropriate, for the disaster relief and initial recovery personnel of eligible assisting humanitarian organizations. Assisting states and eligible assisting humanitarian organizations should consider to what degree disaster relief and initial recovery objectives can be met through hiring local staff.”

2. Task Force Yolanda, Philippines – In response to the devastation wreaked by Supertyphoon Yolanda (International code name: Haiyan), the Philippine Bureau of Immigration formulated the Guidelines on emergency Response Travel Facilitation (Bureau of Immigration, 2013) for disaster responders. The key provisions of the guidelines include its definition of the scope of disaster response, the composition, duties and responsibilities of disaster response teams, the logistics requirements, and admission and registration policies.

G. Medical Tourism

No specific visas pertaining to medical tourists were found for this study. In the U.S., as in many other countries, visitor visas for medical treatment must satisfy the same requirements as applicants for tourist visas (www.immihelp.com). The U.S. Embassy in El Salvador (www.sansalvador.usembassy.gov) lists the following requirements to expedite approval of tourist visa for emergency medical travel:

- A professional diagnosis of the illness and evidence that it cannot be treated locally;
- Official letter from a U.S. hospital and doctor, accepting patient for treatment and providing estimated cost and length of medical treatment;
- Evidence regarding ability to pay for the treatment; and
- Proof of social, economic, and professional ties in the home country that will compel the applicant to return to his/her home country following completion of the medical treatment.

H. Environmental Parks and Other Natural Assets

1. Norwegian-Russian Environmental Cooperation – Cooperation between the two neighboring countries in the High North encompass a wide range of areas. The Norwegian government website (MFA, 2014) discusses the following:
a. Marine environment – This involves the establishment of a joint environmental monitoring program for the Barents Sea, of vital importance due to the increasing commercial activity in the High North particularly in the oil and gas industry. The joint environmental monitoring program and integrated management plan will create a framework for discussion on expanding Norwegian and Russian offshore and business cooperation.

b. Environmental cooperation – This encompasses cooperation on conservation of biodiversity, management of protected areas, and protection of joint populations and water resources. “The largest and most prolonged initiative to have been carried out in this area is the program for cleaner production, in which close to 2,000 Russian engineers have received training in environmentally-friendly and resource-efficient methods of production.”

c. Cultural heritage conservation – This “has been ongoing since 1995. A cultural heritage initiative in connection with the Kenozero National Park in Arkhangelsk oblast was particularly successful... In 2009, Russian craftsmen were involved in the restoration of buildings in the fishing village of Hamningberg in Finmark. The buildings had originally been constructed by Russian settlers (Pomors) in the 19th century.”

d. Indigenous peoples – Norway and Russia are considering the possibility of developing standard agreements governing contact between industry and indigenous people’s traditional livelihoods.

e. Others – Cooperation on climate change began in 2011. The two countries are also involved in cooperation on surveys of radioactive pollution. A cooperation agreement on local border traffic has also been approved (Norwegian MFA, 2014). (See below.)

2. Okavango River Basin Commission (OKACOM) – Okavango River Basin in Southern Africa is one of the most important transboundary natural resources in the region and in the world. OKACOM was established in 1994 by the governments of Angola, Botswana and Namibia – the three Okavango Basin countries – to develop an integrated basin-wide management plan. To support OKACOM, the Swedish International Development Agency funded the Every River has its People Project (2000-2009) which promoted participation of basin stakeholders in the management of water-related resources. The project targeted community initiatives in: the gazetting of conservancies and community forests; the development of emerging conservancies; the establishment of conservation agriculture; the marketing and sustainable harvesting of indigenous natural products; the development of community campsites; and the development of cottage industries such as bee-keeping and bird-guiding (Wamunyima, 2012). The results of the transboundary ERP natural resource management project include the following:

a. Transboundary diagnostic analysis, completed in 2010, which provide a careful technical assessment of the Okavango, looking at water quantity and quality, the characteristics of the ecosystem along the river, the nature and needs of the communities living there, and the political and governance institutions along it.
b. Clear articulation of the effects of development along the river by water managers, ecologists, engineers, and economists, which will enable decisionmakers to better understand the impact of investments (e.g., dams, irrigations, power systems).

c. Establishment of the Okavango River Basin Management in 2008 as the foundation for basin stakeholder capacity and processes to facilitate development of shared agenda as well as platform for undertaking joint planning.

3. SADC Transboundary Natural Resource Management (TBNRM) – The TBNRM agreements in the Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) allows free movement of wildlife between and among countries sharing common borders. The agreements typically cover wildlife conservation and water resource management. TBNRM initiatives are increasingly gaining prominence as a holistic approach to environmental and natural resource management because ecosystems span across borders and workable solutions can only be attained with the involvement of stakeholders on both sides of the borders (Mafuta, 2014).

The TBNRMs in force are the following: (a) Zimoza (Zimbabwe-Mozambique-Zambia) TBNRM – This initiative is located in Zambia’s Luangwa district and the adjacent Zumbo district in Mozambique as well as Zimbabwe’s Guruve district on the other side of the Zambezi River. (b) Four Corners TBNRM – This initiative is located around the Caprivi Strip, one of the few places in the world where four countries meet (Botswana, Namibia, Zambia, and Zimbabwe). (c) Kruger Park TBNRM – This involves South Africa, Mozambique, Zimbabwe, and Swaziland.

Aside from natural assets, there are many shared infrastructure assets within the Zambezi Basin (Mafuta, 2014), including the historic Victoria Falls Bridge, an important trade and economic link between the south (Botswana, South Africa, and Zimbabwe) and the north (Zambia and the Democratic Republic of Congo). The bridge is also known for its world-famous bungee-jumping that attracts thousands of tourists.

I. Business, Trade, and Investment

1. Australia’s Enterprise Migration Agreements (EMA) Program – Australia’s visa program for foreign labor is the standard Subclass 457. EMA is designed to facilitate controlled access to semi-skilled temporary workers where there is a genuine need (Holding Redlich, 2014), especially in resource-intensive and extractive industries. Projects with at least $2 billion in capital costs and a peak work force of at least 1,500 workers are eligible to apply for an EMA. An EMA will be custom-designed between the project owner and the Department of Immigration and Citizenship to meet the work force needs of that project. An approved EMA will also have an associated labor agreement. This will enable the contractor of the project to apply for streamlined approval of the associated labor agreement. EMA will also enable other concessions to be negotiated to meet project needs while encouraging innovative training and work force strategies.
2. **U.S.-Mexico Business Facilitation Program (BFP)** – The U.S. Embassy in Mexico’s BFP is designed to facilitate work-related travel to employees of participating companies and universities (U.S., 2014). Qualifying firms and universities will have access to expedited visa processing for employees traveling to the U.S. on company or university business. The benefits to the participating companies and universities include access to the appointment system, allowing a company or university representative to schedule visa application appointment in a reserved appointment block, and expedited processing and visa delivery for approved applications. Basic participation requirements are:

a) In the case of a U.S. company, the company applying for BFP membership must be the Mexican branchaffiliatesubsidiary of the U.S. company. In the case of a Mexican or nonUnited States company, the company must have at least 100 employees. In the case of a Mexican or United States company with fewer than 100 employees, it must obtain recommendation from the American Chamber of Commerce and its Mexican counterpart.

b) In the case of Mexican universities, the organization must submit a copy of its state or federal accreditation.

c) Applicants must be direct-hire employees of BFP member-companies or universities. Applicants must be traveling for work-related purposes.

3. **New U.S.-Russia Bilateral Visa Agreement** – Under the new bilateral agreement that took effect in September 2012, American and Russian travelers for business and tourism are now eligible to receive three-year multiple-entry visas authorizing stays for up to six consecutive months (Coffey, et al., 2014). The agreement removes previous restrictions on visa validity periods and entries. Previously, the validity period for Russian travelers for business and tourism was limited to two years. Further, under the former policy, U.S. travelers were limited to stays in Russia of up to 90 days within any given six-month period, with a maximum one-year validity period. Tourist visas to Russia previously limited to two entries within a 30-day validity period.

The new visa regime also eliminates the need for an exit visa in the case of U.S. citizens who lose their passports while in Russia. (The previous policy already allowed Russian citizens to depart from the United States without an exit visa.) The agreement also abolished the requirement that visitors for business or tourism obtain a letter of invitation. However, Russian tourism visas still require evidence of advance accommodation.

3. **Netherlands’ “Orange Carpet” Visa Procedure** – This program addresses visa facilitation for business purposes (NFIA, 2014) of third-country nationals. Under this program, foreign business employees (and their families) with Shengen visa issuance will enjoy key advantages:

a) Expeditious immigration procedures, including no necessity to make an appointment, and no personal appearance required (until the introduction of biometrical fingerprints).
b) No-strings-attached selection based on relatively low income requirement.

c) Free, confidential, and up-to-date immigration advice from the Netherlands Foreign Investment Agency.

d) Long-term multiple entry visa will be issued if requirements are met.

J. Local Border Traffic

1. Local Border Traffic Agreement Between Norway and Russia – Current visa requirements between the two countries are deemed to be the greatest practical obstacle to their cooperation. A special scheme that allows Russian citizens resident in Murmansk and Arkhangelsk to apply for multiple-entry visas without first obtaining an invitation (Pomor visa) was introduced in 2008, which made it easier for people living in these areas to travel to Norway. However, the Norwegian government’s aim is to establish a visa-free regime with Russia. Towards this end, the two countries signed an agreement on Local Border Traffic in Oslo in November 2010 which establishes the following (MFA, 2014):

a. Border residents who have been legally resident in the border area for at least the three previous years may be issued with local border traffic permit valid for up to three years;

b. The border area is defined as: (a) Norway – that part of Sor-Varanger municipality that lies within 30 km. of the state border; (b) Russia – the area within 30 km. of the state border, including Nikel and Pechenga, as well as the whole of Zapolyarny district and Korzunovo;

c. Holders of local border traffic permits may stay in the neighboring state’s border area for up to 15 days at a time without a visa. There is no limit on the total length of stay in the other state’s border area within the period of validity of a border traffic permit.

d. The local border traffic permit does not itself grant the right to work in the neighboring state’s border area.

e. The Norwegian Consulate General in Murmansk will issue local border traffic permits to residents of the Russian border area. The Russian Consulate General in Kirkenes will issue local border traffic permits to residents in the Norwegian border area.

2. Zambezi Cross-Border Movement of People – In 2005, the Southern Africa Development Cooperation (SADC) signed the protocol on the Facilitation of Movement of Persons in the SADC Region, focusing on the Zambezi River Basin where communities share assets, cultural values, traditional leadership, economic opportunities, and languages, across national borders (Mafuta, 2014). This protocol was expected to boost trade and tourism across the Zambezi area. The objectives of the protocol are to facilitate: (a) entry into member states without the need for visa for a maximum period of 90 days per year for bona fide visits and in accordance with the laws of the member state; (b) permanent and temporary residence in the territory of another member state; and (c) work in the
territory of another state. Under this protocol, the member states agreed to cooperate in harmonizing travel whether by air, land, or water and to increase and improve travel facilities especially across mutual borders.

K. Travel Within a Region: The Schengen Visa

The Schengen visa is unique and deserves a separate description for it is the epitome of visa-less travel within a region, say, a common market. Wikipedia describes it thus: “The Schengen Agreement led to the creation of Europe’s borderless Schengen Area in 1995. The treaty was signed on 14 June 1985 between five of the then ten member states of the European Economic Community near the town of Schengen in Luxembourg. It proposed the gradual abolition of border checks at the signatories’ common borders. Measures proposed included reduced speed vehicle checks which allowed vehicles to cross borders without stopping, allowing of residents in border areas freedom to cross borders away from fixed checkpoints, and the harmonization of visa policies.”

“In 1990, the Agreement was supplemented by the Schengen Convention which proposed the abolition of internal border controls and a common visa policy. The Schengen Area operates very much like a single state for international travel purposes with external border controls for travelers entering and exiting the area, and common visas, but with no internal border controls. It currently consists of 26 European countries covering a population of over 400 million people and an area of 4.3 million square kilometers.”
Chapter V. Recommendations to Facilitate PTP Tourism in ASEAN and APEC

The previous chapter reviewed recent international experiences of PTP facilitation using a widening array of tools: visa waiver programs, visa facilitation agreements, broader set of travel easing instruments and policies, and finally wider development programs. Table 8 shows illustrative examples of each of these approaches.

Table 8. Examples of PTP Facilitation Arrangements, from the Simplest to the Most Comprehensive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PTP Facilitation Arrangements</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Visa waiver</td>
<td>Harmonization of procedures, fees, and regulations, usually under bilateral agreements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visa facilitation agreements</td>
<td>EU VFA with nine Eastern European countries; ASEAN VFA covering 10 countries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Broader travel easing and institutional strengthening to facilitate travel</td>
<td>Electronic visas; mutual recognition programs for selected professions; purpose-specific visas (e.g., student, scientific, and business visas); Australia ETA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wider context of cross-border development programs</td>
<td>Lubombo Special Development Initiative to combat malaria; SADC Transborder Natural Resource Management in Southern Africa; Okavango River Basin Cooperation; Africa-wide Onchocerciasis Control Program; HIV/AIDS control along transport corridors in sub-Saharan Africa; U.S.-Canada Border Action Plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local border traffic</td>
<td>Norway/Russia in the High North; Zambezi cross-border movement of people</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: This study.

Given the wide array of travelers covered under the ASEAN person-to-person tourism, as well as the wide range of highly complex tools that are available as shown in the table above, it is difficult at this stage to provide specific recommendations on how to facilitate travel among people covered under the proposed PTP promotion. Thus, this report focuses on the following general recommendations.

A. Long-Term Goal

Set a long-term goal of achieving the equivalent of a Schengen visa among ASEAN nationals – The Schengen visa in Western Europe is the epitome of free, borderless travel within a region involving the gradual abolition of national border controls. The Schengen Agreement “provided for harmonization of visa policies, allowing residents in border areas freedom to cross borders away from fixed checkpoints and the replacement of passport checks with visual surveillance of vehicles at reduced speed that allowed vehicles without stopping” (www.wikipedia.com). Adopting a visa regime equivalent to the Schengen visa would require intensive discussions on the following issues:

- Administrative aspects – Setting out the common rules on visas that will hold for the common area; setting up the required administrative procedures.
• Legal aspects – Formulating the legal acts that set out the conditions for entry into the common area.

• Economic and financial aspects – Estimating the costs involved in implementing the common rules on visa, including foregone visa-fee revenues.

• Security aspects – Spelling out cooperation among police and judicial bodies to ensure that problems involving security are minimized, or dealt with properly if they occur.

B. Medium-Term Goals

**Standardize visa requirements and regulations for non-ASEAN and APEC nationals** – As this study has shown, ASEAN countries do not yet have standardized regulations and procedures for the granting of visas for non-ASEAN nationals. Towards this end, ASEAN countries are encouraged to:

• Work towards a common list of countries that ASEAN members-countries can give the privilege of granting a regional travel visa. Work towards standardized visa validity and extension for this regional travel visa. Harmonize rules on eligibility, exemptions, documentary requirements, etc.

• Learn from good practices from around the world, and to consider adopting those that are relevant to the region and feasible. The recent EU visa reforms are particularly useful in this regard.

**Standardize visa requirements and procedures for intra-ASEAN or intra-APEC PTP tourists** – With ASEAN 2015 on the horizon, it is expected that the flow of person-to-person tourism will increase. To deal with this travel traffic, ASEAN countries are encouraged to:

• Establish common or standardized regulation and procedures within ASEAN for PTP tourists.

  a. Formulation of a common definition of who is to be covered under PTP tourism;
  b. Definition of PTP visa holders’ rights, verification, recruitment protocols, sponsorship requirements and monitoring, and risk management;
  c. Achieving a common framework for PTP tourists’ breaches, sanctions, and penalties; and
  d. Formulation of new visas for PTP tourists, if necessary.

• Achieve mutual recognition agreements of professions or occupations covered under PTP tourism.

  a. Recognition of overseas qualifications, licensing (if any, e.g., for professional travelers), and registration requirements;
  b. Establishment of sponsorship arrangements, obligations, and undertakings;
c. Preparation, lodgement/application, and approval of sponsorships, nominations, and visa applications; and
d. Language requirements, including for licensing, registration, or accreditation.

- Formulate new visas for PTP tourists as defined above, if necessary. In this regard, lessons can be drawn, for example, from, say, the student visa of EU and the U.S., and the J visa (for internships and the like) of the U.S.

- Leverage or scale up of successful initiatives (e.g., IDRL guidelines for disaster response, model acts in environmental management).

C. Immediate and Short-Term Goals

**Improve overall visa processing and facilitation** – The APEC visa facilitation study already highlighted a few important areas of opportunity including:

- Improve the delivery of travel and visa information. Existing institutions can be tapped in this regard, such as the APEC Business Advisory Council, existing consulates, and media. Key areas where improvement is needed are: availability of information in multiple languages, simplifying of instructions, user-friendly and reliable website, and increased use of social media. More information, education, and communication materials are also needed due to the rapid influx of tourists.

- Facilitate current processes, especially those still operating under a “paper system” and face-to-face personal interviews. Key areas where improvement is needed are: more extensive use of information technology (official website, e-mail, social media), interconnectivity of entry and exit points, and consideration of visas on arrival.

- Implement e-visa programs. This is deemed the best opportunity for visa facilitation, especially for countries with very limited network of embassies and consulates.

**Focus on facilitating travel involving local border traffic** – This area has not been given much attention in ASEAN discussions, perhaps because of the limited land borders in the region, compared to, say, the extensive land borders (and thus, significant local border traffic) in Africa, North America, South America, and Europe. The examples of the Zambezi cross-border traffic and the Russia-Norway local border traffic arrangements should give useful examples of how this issue can be dealt with. Water-border traffic activities (seas, the Mekong River) involving local residents are also becoming more important. Suitable examples of how to deal with this issue should be located.
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Appendix

Appendix Table A. Tourist Arrivals in ASEAN Countries, 2009 and 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Member Country</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>Growth (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Brunei Darussalam*</td>
<td>157,464</td>
<td>214,290</td>
<td>36.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>2,161,577</td>
<td>2,508,289</td>
<td>16.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>6,323,730</td>
<td>7,002,944</td>
<td>10.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Lao PDR</td>
<td>2,008,363</td>
<td>2,513,028</td>
<td>25.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>23,646,191</td>
<td>24,577,196</td>
<td>3.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Myanmar</td>
<td>762,547</td>
<td>791,505</td>
<td>3.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>3,017,099</td>
<td>3,520,471</td>
<td>16.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>9,681,259</td>
<td>11,638,663</td>
<td>20.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>14,149,841</td>
<td>15,936,400</td>
<td>12.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Viet Nam</td>
<td>3,772,259</td>
<td>5,049,856</td>
<td>33.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>65,680,330</td>
<td>73,752,641</td>
<td>12.29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Only number of international arrivals by air

Source: ASEAN Tourism Marketing Strategy (2012-2015)

Appendix Figure A. Growth of Tourist Arrivals in ASEAN, 1991 to 2010

Source: ASEAN Tourism Marketing Strategy (2012-2015)
Appendix Figure B. Total ASEAN Tourist Arrivals and Intra-ASEAN Tourist Arrivals, 2000 to 2010

Source: ASEAN Tourism Marketing Strategy (2012-2015)

Appendix Table B. International Tourist Arrivals and Receipts in ASEAN Countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>TTCI Class</th>
<th>International tourist arrivals thousand</th>
<th>per 100,000 pop</th>
<th>US$ million</th>
<th>% of GDP</th>
<th>US$ per capita</th>
<th>Population million</th>
<th>GDP per capita US$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brunei Darussalam</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>214*</td>
<td>51.7</td>
<td>254^1</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>113.6</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>29,352</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>3,282</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>1,668</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>112.6</td>
<td>15.0</td>
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<td>114.4^*</td>
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Sources: World Economic Forum; UNWTO 2012; IMF, World Economic Outlook (April 2012); and authors’ calculations.

*2010 - 2009
### Appendix Table C. Tourist Arrivals in ASEAN by Purpose

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<th>Jan</th>
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<th>Jun</th>
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Source: National Bureau of Statistics from disembarkation cards

Note: * including crew

Source: NSCB (2012)
Appendix Figure C. International Tourist Arrivals in ASEAN, 1991 to 2015

![International Tourist Arrivals in Southeast Asia (1991 - 2015)](image)


Appendix Table D. Tourist Arrivals in ASEAN by Selected Country/Region

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Country of origin partner country</th>
<th>Number of tourist arrivals</th>
<th>Share to total percent</th>
<th>Year-on-year change percent</th>
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<td>6,982.1</td>
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