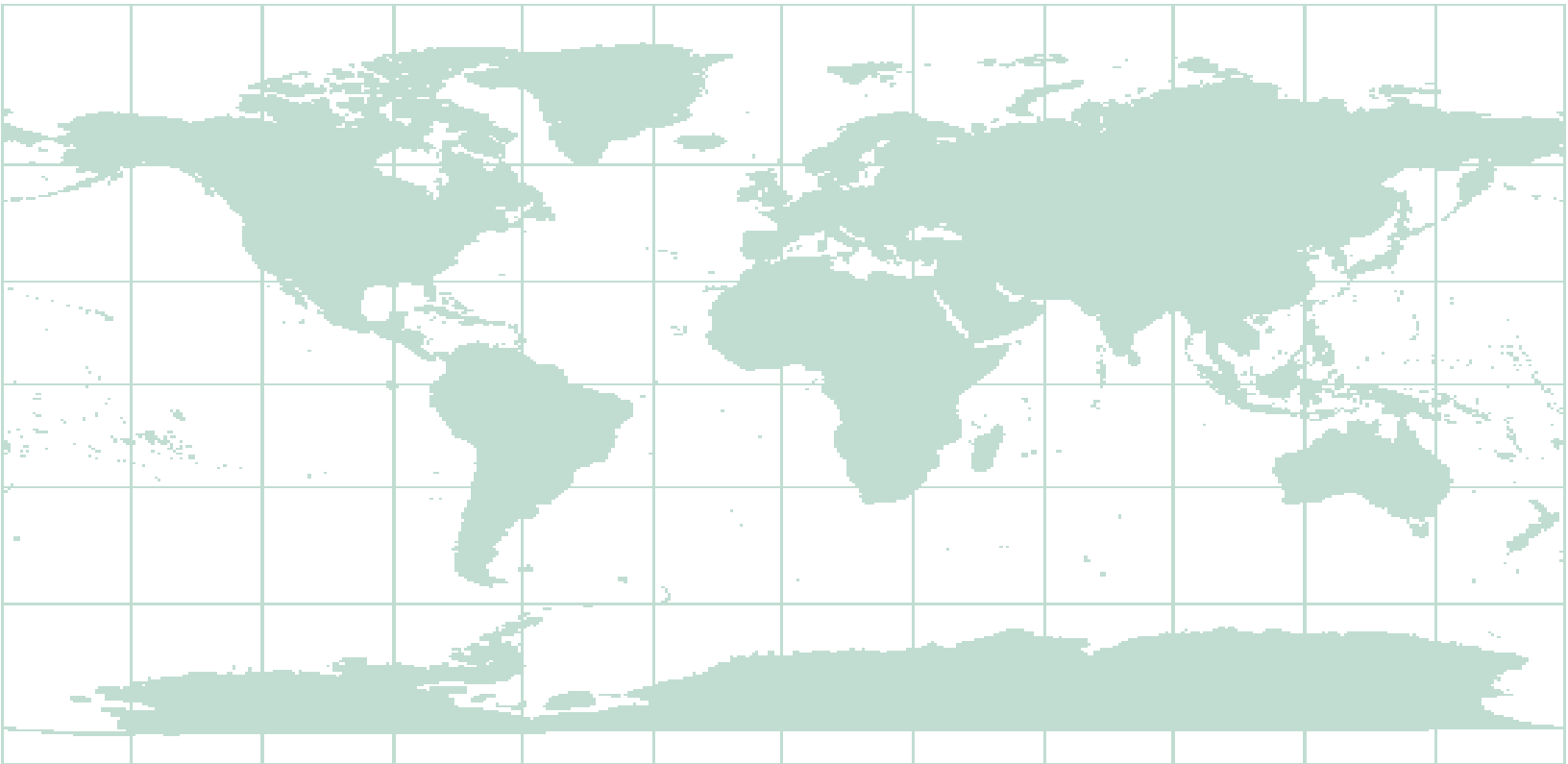


Department of Economic and Social Affairs

World Economic and Social Survey 2004

International Migration



United Nations
New York, 2004

DESA

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Note

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Preface

This part of the *World Economic and Social Survey 2004* deals with a subject that profoundly affects the economic and social fabric of all nations—international migration.

More people live outside their country of origin today than at any time in history, and the numbers of people who move across international borders in search of a new home are expected to rise in the future. At the same time, there is growing awareness in many countries of the impact of migration, and it has become a matter of intense policy debate.

This is only to be expected. After all, migration brings with it many complex challenges—including issues of human rights and economic opportunity, of labour shortages and unemployment, of brain drain and brain gain, of multiculturalism and integration, of refugee flows and asylum-seekers, of law enforcement and human trafficking, of human security and national security.

We cannot ignore the real policy difficulties posed by migration. But neither should we lose sight of its immense potential to benefit migrants, the countries they leave and those to which they migrate. And we must ensure that, in our approach to this issue, we uphold the values of tolerance and respect for human rights.

If States work together in that spirit—as many are already doing—the benefits of migration can be maximized, and its problems minimized. I have no doubt that, through strengthening multilateral cooperation, States can find rational, creative and principled ways to protect the rights of migrants, and promote their shared interest in the better management of emigration, immigration and transit.

In this context, I particularly welcome the decision of a group of developed and developing countries to establish a Global Commission on International Migration, and look forward to its report next year. I am also glad that the United Nations General Assembly is to convene a high level dialogue on international migration in 2006.

The present volume provides a comprehensive review of developments in international migration, and of the diverse issues involved. It is a collaborative effort of the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development and the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees. I hope that the information and analysis in this volume will assist all concerned with international migration, and advance our joint responsibility to manage this issue for the benefit of all.



KOFI A. ANNAN
Secretary-General

Overview

International migration is one of the central dimensions of globalization. Facilitated by improved transportation and communications and stimulated by large economic and social inequalities in the world, people are increasingly moving across national borders in an effort to improve their own and their family's well-being. In the past few decades, international movements of people have increased alongside, though less strongly than, the expanded international flows of goods and capital. International migration is an increasingly worldwide phenomenon, involving a growing number of States as countries of origin, destination or transit of migrants. The forces underlying these trends are unlikely to reverse so that these international movements of people will continue—and most probably increase—in the future.

The increased mobility of people across national borders has affected not only the migrants themselves but also the lives and welfare of many peoples and societies, as well as the functioning of States and groups of States. As with increasing flows of goods and capital, it is necessary for Governments—and the international community—to decide how to address this facet of global development. The present publication examines the background and the nature of the increase in international migration and its wide-ranging impacts, and identifies the policy challenges posed by these developments.

International migration in the nineteenth and in the early twentieth century

The period between the Napoleonic wars and the First World War, from 1820 to 1914, was characterized by freer international movement of goods, capital and labour and has been referred to as the “first global century”. Innovations in both transoceanic shipping and transcontinental railways made possible major intercontinental flows of people seeking better lives in the expanding economies.

The most important component of the migratory flows during this period encompassed those that occurred between two parts of today's developed world. The rapid economic growth in the Americas and Oceania attracted European workers in numbers that, relative to the population of the destination countries, have not been surpassed since. Available data indicate that about 52 million Europeans migrated to the main destination countries in the Americas between 1820 and 1932, of whom 32 million were admitted by the United States of America alone. An additional 3.5 million migrated to Australia and New Zealand. These migration flows tended to accelerate in the last decades of the nineteenth and in the early twentieth century, as “new” source countries in Southern, Central and Eastern Europe replaced the earlier sources of migration flows, largely countries in Northern Europe.

These large flows of people played a major role in the population growth of some of the countries of destination during this period. In Argentina, for instance, migration between 1870 and 1910 increased the population by 60 per cent and the labour force by almost 90 per cent. On the emigration side, Europe lost 11 per cent of its population and 13 per cent of its labour force to migration, with a few countries (Ireland and Italy) losing as much as 30 per cent of their labour force. International migration helped tie

Western Europe to the economies of Northern America, southern Latin America and Oceania, creating what is referred to as the Greater Atlantic economy.

The large movements of workers, whose major incentive for emigration was the large difference in wages and economic opportunities between the countries of origin and the countries of destination, did have an effect on these relative wages. Indeed, migration was the major reason for a convergence in wages across the Greater Atlantic economy between 1880 and 1920, particularly with respect to the Western European countries of origin of migrants on the one hand and the United States and other destination countries on the other. One estimate is that, between 1870 and 1910, emigration increased real wages in the countries of origin by nearly 9 per cent and lowered them by 8 per cent in the countries of destination, with the magnitudes of the effects in individual countries being directly related to relative migratory flows. Despite this narrowing of wage differentials across countries, the rapid economic growth of the countries of destination, which was supported by—and, indeed, could hardly be understood in the absence of—large migration flows, caused the real wages of low-income migrants in destination countries to improve over time.

The nineteenth century also witnessed large flows of migrants among developing countries, notably the flows of contract labour from China and India who moved to other developing countries to work on estates and plantations. The vast majority of Indian migrants to other developing countries were indentured and otherwise assisted, whereas Chinese emigration occurred under the coolie system with individual contracts that were often exploitive. The differences between wages of workers in the export enclaves and those of estate and plantation workers were higher than they were within the Greater Atlantic economy. However, migration between developing countries was constrained by its high cost in relation to incomes: incomes in China and India were so low that few unskilled workers could secure the funds to pay for the move. It was also constrained by the relative immobility of labour in most traditional rural societies. Thus, relative to the population of the source countries, migration flows were much smaller than those that characterized the European countries of emigration; return migration was also more important, particularly to India.

The demand for labour in estates and plantations was driven by the improvement in the terms of trade of tropical primary goods that lasted for more than a half-century. When prices of exports declined (as did those of sugar in the 1880s and those of other major commodities in the following decades), the recruitment of contract labour for the estates and plantations declined as well. Assisted migration between the developing countries thus came to an end largely for economic reasons. The most exploitative forms of indenture were also subject to political opposition and eventually abolished.

These two flows of migration ran largely parallel to each other, owing to the open discrimination against Asian migrants in the countries of settlement in America and Oceania. The high segmentation of European and non-European migration flows became a major source of North-South inequalities which built up during this period.

In the main countries of destination for European migrants, increasingly restrictive immigration policies and public hostility towards migrants emerged towards the end of the nineteenth century, and became harsher after the First World War. In the United States, restrictive legislation targeted immigrants from “new” source countries in Southern, Central and Eastern Europe. These restrictive immigration policies could be understood as a reaction of political authorities in destination countries in defense of the economic interests of their unskilled workers. Although transatlantic migration resumed briefly during the 1920s, it dropped again to very low levels during the Great Depression.

Migration during the current period of globalization

After a period of relative stability, international migration increased markedly over the last decades of the twentieth century, particularly after 1970 (see table 1). The number of international migrants in the world had risen from 76 million in 1960 to 82 million in 1970, reached 100 million in 1980 and increased to 154 million in 1990; the sharp increase in the 1980s was largely owing to the fact that internal migrants in the former Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) had become international migrants when the country disintegrated. By 2000, an estimated 175 million persons were living outside their country of birth (see table 2). Of these, about 158 million were deemed international migrants; approximately 16 million were recognized refugees fleeing out of a well-founded fear of persecution; and 900,000 were asylum-seekers.

Most countries have not been countries of immigration or countries of emigration for lengthy periods. Between 1950 and 2000, only seven countries consistently experienced net positive migration while 16 experienced steady negative net migration. Some countries of emigration have become destination countries, while in others, economic and political events have led to large fluctuations in migration trends.

Table 1.

International migrants in the main countries and regions of destination, 1910-2000

Thousands												
	1910			1930			1960			2000		
	Population	Migrants	Share ^a	Population	Migrants	Share ^a	Population	Migrants	Share ^a	Population	Migrants	Share ^a
Australia	4 455	787	17.7	6 630	356	5.4	10 276	1 701	16.6	19 153	4 705	24.6
Canada	7 207	1 587	22.0	10 377	2 308	22.2	17 909	2 766	15.4	30 769	5 826	18.9
New Zealand	1 008	306	30.3	1 534	77	5.0	2 372	334	14.1	3 784	850	22.5
United States	91 972	13 516	14.7	122 775	14 204	11.6	186 158	9 735	5.2	285 003	34 988	12.3
Sub-total: traditional countries of immigration	104 642	16 196	15.5	141 316	16 945	12.0	216 715	14 537	6.7	338 709	46 369	13.7
Argentina	7 885	2 358	29.9	10 922	2 828	25.9	20 616	2 615	12.7	37 074	1 419	3.8
Uruguay	1 080	181	16.8	2 538	192	7.6	3 342	89	2.6
Western Europe ^b	143 099	3 348	2.3	158 583	4 233	2.7	151 902	7 002	4.6	183 502	18 836	10.3
Total	256 706	22 083	8.6	310 821	24 006	7.7	391 771	24 346	6.2	562 627	66 713	11.9

Source: International Labour Office, *World Statistics of Aliens: A Comparative Study of Census Returns 1910-1920-1930*, Studies and Reports, Series O (Migration), No. 6. (Geneva, International Labour Office, 1936) and United Nations, *Trends in Total Migrant Stock: The 2003 Revision (POP/DB/MIG/Rev.2003 and ESA/P/WP.188)*, data in digital form.

Note: Two dots (..) indicate that data were unavailable.

^a Percentage.

^b Comprising Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, Luxembourg and Switzerland only.

Table 2.
International migrants by region of destination, 1960-2000

Millions					
Region	1960	1970	1980	1990	2000
World	75.9	81.5	99.8	154.0	174.9
Developed countries	32.1	38.3	47.7	89.7	110.3
Developed countries excluding USSR	29.1	35.2	44.5	59.3	80.8
Developing countries	43.8	43.2	52.1	64.3	64.6
Africa	9.0	9.9	14.1	16.2	16.3
Asia ^a	29.3	28.1	32.3	41.8	43.8
Latin America and the Caribbean	6.0	5.8	6.1	7.0	5.9
Northern America	12.5	13.0	18.1	27.6	40.8
Oceania	2.1	3.0	3.8	4.8	5.8
Europe ^b	14.0	18.7	22.2	26.3	32.8
USSR (former)	2.9	3.1	3.3	30.3	29.5

Source: United Nations, *Trends in Total Migrant Stock: The 2003 Revision* (POP/DB/MIG/Rev.2003 and ESA/P/WP.188), data in digital form.

^a Excluding Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan.

^b Excluding Belarus, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, the Republic of Moldova, the Russian Federation and Ukraine.

Reflecting the increasingly global nature of migration, there has been greater diversity both in the countries from which international migrants originate and in their countries of destination. This is because the dominant trend since the 1970s has been the growing migration flows from the developing to the developed countries. Intercontinental flows of migrants mostly from Europe to a few traditional countries of immigration have waned as migrants from many developing countries, particularly in Asia and Latin America and the Caribbean, have become more numerous throughout Western Europe and Northern America. Europe is now home to the largest number of international migrants, followed by Asia and Northern America. In relative terms, Oceania has the largest ratio of migrants to total population, followed by Northern America, Europe and Africa. Reflecting the increased diversity in destinations, the number of countries in which migrants exceeded 10 per cent of the population, which had been 43 in 1960, rose to 70 in 2000 (although most of these were small countries). Geographical proximity is important in determining migrants' countries of destination, with historical ties, especially colonial links, becoming of diminished importance in this respect.

One break with past patterns was the increase in flows of migrants from Eastern Europe to the West during the transition following the end of communist rule in Eastern Europe and the break-up of the former USSR. This break-up also produced important flows of migrants among the successor States of the former USSR, driven in part by the return of some ethnic groups to their newly independent countries of origin. These new trends have modified the major poles of attraction in Europe, with a number of countries of Southern Europe being transformed from net sources of migrants to net receivers.

Although migration flows in the last decades of the twentieth century were, relative to population, weaker than during the last decades of the nineteenth and the first decade of the twentieth century, they have played a significant role in demographic change in the developed world owing to the low fertility rates of these countries. Without inflows of migrants, Europe would have experienced a population decline between 1995 and 2000 since, even with about 5 million immigrants in this period, its population increased by only 600,000. Northern America experienced positive natural population growth during the same period, but net migration accounted for 43 per cent of the total increase in population. In contrast, the negative net migration from developing countries has had only a small effect on overall population trends. In 1995-2000, the net migration rate of the developing countries was -0.6 per thousand annually, small in relation to the rate of natural increase of 16.7 per thousand.

Unauthorized migration is, by its very nature, not well reflected in official statistics, but it is still possible to gain some insight into its magnitude. In the United States, combined evidence from various sources suggests that there were at least 7 million unauthorized migrants at the time of the census in 2000, out of a total of 31 million foreign-born persons in the country who were not US citizens at the time of birth. Of the unauthorized, an estimated 4.8 million were Mexican. In Europe, the International Organization for Migration (IOM) has estimated that the number of unauthorized migrants was about 3 million in the late 1990s. However, estimates for individual countries vary widely. In particular, little is known about the levels of unauthorized migration in countries of Central and Eastern Europe; during the 1990s, these were countries of transit for unauthorized migrants heading to Western Europe, but they also became *de facto* destinations for those migrants who could not proceed in their westward journey.

That the growth in the number of international migrants who settle in the developing world has been slow is not because migration between developing countries has ceased, but rather because migration flows are to large extent temporary spurts associated with economic booms in destination countries or political events in countries of origin. Increases in the number of migrants in some developing countries have also been counterbalanced by declines in immigration in other developing countries as a result of economic crises or the normalization of political events in a specific region. Following the increase in oil prices in 1973, the oil-producing countries of Western Asia began recruiting large numbers of foreign workers and Venezuela became a large pole of attraction for workers from neighbouring countries. The rapidly industrializing countries of Eastern and South-eastern Asia also emerged as destinations for migrant workers in the 1980s and 1990s. However, in the 1990s, the increases in economically motivated migration in Asia were offset by the repatriation of refugees in Africa, Central America and South-central Asia.

These recent return flows are a reflection of the importance of involuntary international displacements in some parts of the developing world, caused mostly by conflict but also by natural disasters. In Africa, Central America and in certain parts of Asia, movements of refugees have been a major—and, in some cases, the main—component of international migration flows among developing countries. The number of refugees under the mandate of the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) had increased from 2 million in 1975 to 16 million in 1990, but declined during the 1990s as a number of long-standing conflicts came to an end. By 2000, the number of refugees reported by UNHCR had dropped to 12 million. In addition, there were some 4 million Palestinian refugees receiving assistance from the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East (UNWRA).

Another group of “involuntary” migrants are asylum-seekers endeavouring to escape the threats that they face in their home country. In contrast with the mass movements of refugees, these flows consist largely of individuals or families that are more inclined to move to developed than to developing countries.

Global economic effects of international migration

As a result of restrictions imposed on immigration, the effects of international migration on population growth, labour supply and labour markets are smaller today than they were during the first global century. The universal restrictions on immigration also contrast with the current increasingly unrestricted environment for international flows of foreign direct investment (FDI) and financial capital. This asymmetry in the mobility of different factors of production has an adverse distributive impact on the less mobile factor, labour. This effect, together with the small effect that migration flows have on population and labour-force growth in the developing countries as a whole, implies that, even if the general trends are similar, international migration is unlikely to have the same effect in terms of income convergence that it had during the first global century. In addition, the tendency of developed countries to favour the admission of skilled migrants reinforces the segmentation of labour markets in terms of skills and may be generating a distributive effect worldwide in favour of the more mobile form of labour (skilled labour) but directed against the less mobile one (unskilled labour).

For individual countries of origin and of destination, migration has a number of tangible positive and negative economic effects (table 3). In some cases, the benefit to a country of origin (destination) has its counterpart in an equal but opposite cost to the country of destination (origin), as in the case of remittances. Even in such cases, however, the effects may not be equal in magnitude and opposite in sign because the same financial

Table 3.
“Balance sheet” of economic effects of migration on countries of origin

Positive effects	Negative effects
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provides opportunities to workers not available in the home country. • May ease the effect on the domestic market of the supply of excess labour. • Inflow of remittances and foreign exchange. • Technology transfer, investments and venture capital contributed by diasporas. • Can contribute to increased trade flows between sending and receiving countries. • Stimulus to investment in domestic education and individual human capital investments. • Return of skilled workers may increase local human capital, transfer of skills and links to foreign networks. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Loss of highly skilled workers and reduced quality of essential services. • Reduced growth and productivity because of the lower stock of highly skilled workers and its externalities. • Lower return from public investments in public education. • Selective migration may cause increasing disparities in incomes in the home country. • Loss of fiscal revenue from taxation of workers. • Remittances may diminish over time.

Source:
UN/DESA, partly based on Piyasiri Wickramasekara, “Policy responses to skilled migration: retention, return and circulation”, *Perspectives on Labour Migration, 5E* (Geneva, International Labour Office, 2002).

resources may be put to very different uses in the two countries. This difference may be more marked with respect to the international transfer of human capital that migration involves: the consequences of the loss of a skilled person for the country of origin may be greater than the benefit to the country of destination.

Economic impacts of international migration on countries of origin

The adverse effects of the “brain drain” are the most common concern regarding migration for countries of origin. The country of origin of a skilled migrant loses both its earlier investment in the education and training of the person who emigrates and the future contributions that person would have made to the economic development of the home country, including future tax payments. The significance of the brain drain for development is underscored by the “new growth theory” which argues that a person’s knowledge not only provides a direct benefit in terms of available skills but also has positive effects on the productivity of others. Emigration of those with skills eliminates this indirect benefit to the economy at large.

This phenomenon underlies the incoherence that characterizes development policies and immigration policies in developed countries. Development assistance is frequently invested in education, training, health and advanced technologies for developing countries while, at the same time, the immigration policies of developed countries encourage the departure of those trained, including persons with critical skills, such as health personnel. Aware of the detrimental effects of such emigration, some developed countries have introduced policies and measures to reduce their intake of personnel whose skills are needed for the development of the countries of origin.

Standing in contrast with the loss of human resources embodied in brain drain is the financial transfer to the home country represented by the remittances sent by migrants to their families. Data on remittances are incomplete and almost certainly underestimate the true magnitude of such transfers because they do not accurately reflect funds flowing through informal channels. Nevertheless, available data show that remittances have grown in parallel with the number of international migrants and are estimated to have reached \$130 billion in 2002, \$79 billion of which went to developing countries (figure I). Although the different uses of flows make the comparison imprecise, for developing countries as a group, remittances have become the second largest financial flow, smaller than FDI but surpassing official development assistance (ODA). Most remittance flows to developing countries go to Latin America and the Caribbean, followed by Eastern and Southern Asia (figure II). Sub-Saharan Africa receives only 1.5 per cent of remittance flows. The European Union (EU) is the largest source of remittance payments, followed by the United States and countries in the Middle East.

Remittances are most often used for the consumption that satisfies basic subsistence needs, but they also encourage investment, particularly in human capital, through health and education expenditures. Remittances may also be turned into savings and investment, through the purchase of land, tools or machinery, or by helping to start a business. A noteworthy development has been the formation of hometown associations in countries of destination through which migrants collect funds to send back to the community of origin for the financing of local development projects.

Figure 1.
Selected financial flows to developing countries, 1980-2003

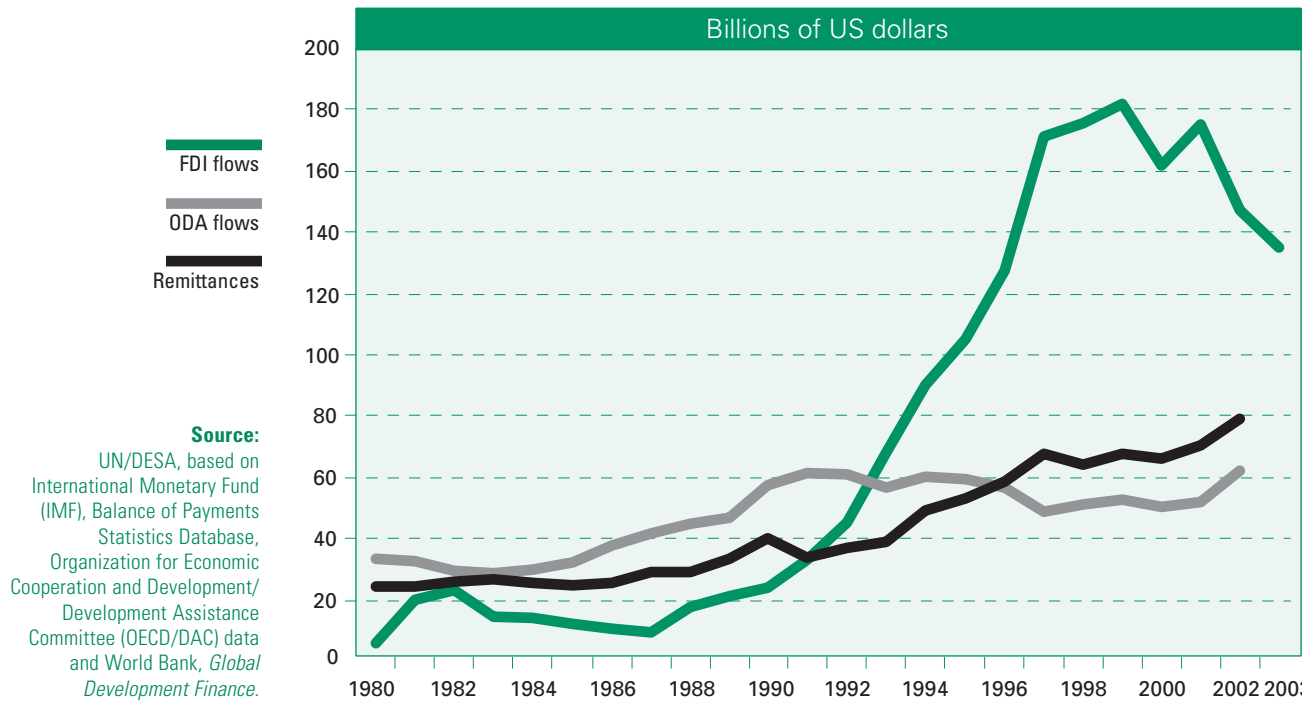
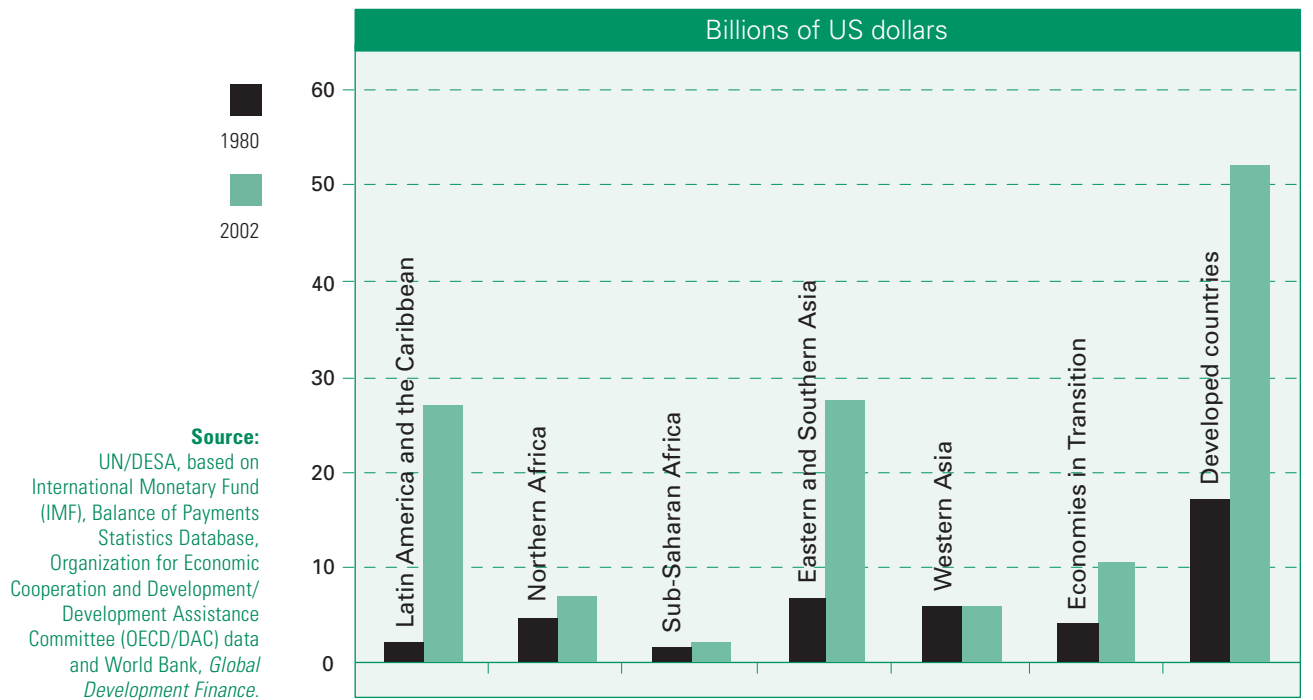


Figure 2.
Inflows of remittances by region, 1980 and 2002



In addition to sending remittances, there are other, broader forms of contact that migrants are likely to maintain with their country of origin. These may generate flows of knowledge, investment and trade to and from that country. For instance, approximately 70 per cent of total FDI flows to China originate among the Chinese community abroad, especially among those living in South-East Asia. Some migrants return to their home country, bringing with them new skills and experience that may improve domestic productivity and accelerate growth. These types of positive impacts of international migration have encouraged Governments in some countries of origin to facilitate emigration. Several countries of origin have arrangements to facilitate contacts between migrants abroad and their families, friends, business and academic communities in the country of origin, and to make it easier for migrants to use their skills and benefit from investment opportunities when they return home.

Economic impacts on destination countries

In destination countries, the main economic concern with respect to international migration is its impact on the labour market. The fear of losing jobs or of reduced wages owing to the influx of migrants is often widespread among the native population, particularly among those occupying jobs at the lower end of the labour market. Despite the efforts of destination countries to attract skilled migrants, many temporary and unauthorized migrants are unskilled and occupy those lower-end jobs. However, empirical studies show that migrants have only a modest impact on wages and employment. Even historical cases of large inflows of migrants during a short period of time—as exemplified by the return of settlers to France from Algeria in 1962 and to Portugal from Angola and Mozambique in 1974, as well as by the entry of Cubans into Miami in 1980—were not marked by a major impact on the local labour market of the developed countries involved. However, where labour markets are less flexible, the absorption of migrants may be more difficult and the negative effects on native workers may be more pronounced.

The major reason why migrants do not have a significant impact on the labour market, particularly over the medium term, is that they increase not only the labour supply but also the demand for goods and services. In addition, some use their entrepreneurial abilities to set up businesses. These activities, together with their dynamic and multiplier effects, increase the demand for labour, offsetting the initial increase in the labour supply that migrants represent. Because of such effects, migration inflows have been identified as a factor that increases economic growth to the benefit of the destination country and all its citizens. This is particularly the case if inflows of skilled workers relieve shortages in important sectors of the labour market. They may also increase the supply of labour in low-skilled occupations that domestic residents are unwilling to fill, thus complementing rather than substituting for domestic labour.

Studies also show that migrants tend to be net contributors to fiscal revenue: what migrants, on the whole, pay in taxes is greater than what they cost the State in welfare payments, education and additional infrastructure. Because migrants tend to be of working age, they also relieve the fiscal burden of future generations in low-fertility countries. However, migration cannot be the answer to the fiscal challenges created by an ageing population: Governments cannot rely on a constantly renewing and rapidly increasing group of migrants to generate the fiscal revenue needed to pay for the health costs and pension benefits of the elderly.

It is sometimes argued that international migration has contributed to the increase in economic inequality observed in several destination countries. However, other factors, such as skill-based technological progress, declining labour union membership, weakening social protection systems and the expansion of trade with labour-rich countries, have played a more important role.

Social integration of migrants

Migration affects the social fabric of both home and host societies. The dynamics of social relationships among migrants, and home and host societies are complex but the overriding challenge for host countries is to integrate migrants into local society. There have been two predominant approaches to the integration of migrants: assimilation and multiculturalism. Assimilation implies that migrants adopt the language, culture, values and beliefs of the host society. Multiculturalism recognizes ethnic, racial and cultural differences and promotes diversity within the host society. The policies and programmes to promote integration adopted by the Governments of destination countries vary according to the approaches pursued.

Since the 1970s, a multicultural approach has been favoured over assimilation in most developed countries. The increasing multiculturalism of many destination countries has improved the prospects for beneficial social interaction between migrants and the host society. Nevertheless, the social integration of migrants depends largely on the migrant's command of the host-country language, the migrant's ability to obtain employment that provides sufficient income, the migrant's legal status, her or his participation in the civil and political life of the host society, his or her access to social services and the likelihood of family reunification.

Recently, however, disenchantment with multicultural principles has arisen in some destination countries where there is increasing debate about ways of making migrants conform to national norms. Official reports suggest that migrants should be required to have some knowledge of the local language and to adopt local values, including acquiring civic knowledge. Some countries have also prohibited migrants from maintaining or practising certain national customs. More generally, there continues to be broad scope for increased action to promote respect of cultural, religious and ethnic diversity in most destination countries.

These trends indicate that, although migrants enrich destination communities socially and culturally by bringing with them different ideas, customs, languages, cultural values and religions, their presence may also be a source of discomfort and division in host societies. Almost every new and numerous migrant group has elicited some degree of opposition, if not outright stigmatization, as it integrates. The experience of some migrants today is reminiscent of the hostility that Huguenots once faced in England, that Germans, Italians or Irish experienced in the United States, or that Chinese confronted in the United States and Australia. Harmful public perceptions are reinforced if the media focuses only on the negative aspects of international migration, such as the persistence of unauthorized migration, criminal activities by migrants or problems related to integration. On the other hand, a lack of information may reinforce public perceptions that international migration and its social consequences are beyond the control of State authorities and may give rise to anti-immigrant political parties.

Networks of migrants are a valuable source of assistance and support, particularly for new migrants. With the emphasis that the immigration policies of developed countries put on family reunification, families are often the crucial unit for support, but support may also be provided by neighbours and colleagues at work. Potential migrants may receive information on life and jobs abroad from these networks even before they migrate and may be provided with guidance, information and support when they arrive in the host country. As a special form of network, hometown associations in host countries, in addition to serving as a financial conduit, help maintain the culture of migrants and assist with integration by providing a bridge to the host society. They also facilitate the exchange of information, goods and funds between the home and host countries.

National migration policies

National policies on international migration have been adopted to address an array of concerns, including the effects of low fertility and population ageing, unemployment, the protection of human rights, social integration, xenophobia, national security, the brain drain and the brain gain, remittances, the granting of asylum, undocumented movements and trafficking in persons. These concerns have led to a re-examination of international migration policies and of the potential benefits and disadvantages of international migration to countries of origin, destination and transit.

Immigration policies are mainly intended to have a bearing on the size and composition of international migration flows. The number of Governments adopting measures to restrict international migration has increased significantly in recent decades: by 2003, one-third of all countries had policies to lower immigration, compared with only 7 per cent of all countries in 1976. Moreover, there is now a similarity between developed and developing countries with respect to their propensity to pursue lower levels of immigration: in both groups, about one-third of the countries aim to reduce immigration.

Although most countries are gradually imposing tighter controls on immigration, restrictions based on nationality are much less important today than they were in the early and mid-twentieth century. For the majority of developed countries, family reunification has become a major factor for accepting migrants. At the same time, a growing number of developed countries are seeking to alleviate labour shortages by promoting the immigration of highly skilled workers and have thus introduced admission criteria that stress skills. As a result, migrants legally admitted to the major destination countries in the developed world for reasons other than family reunification have increasingly been skilled workers, but in many countries they are admitted only on a temporary basis. Except when it relates to migration for the family reunification of citizens, the concept of permanent migration is embraced only by the traditional countries of immigration (Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States).

Although admission policies have become more restrictive, destination countries are giving greater attention to policies that focus on the integration of non-nationals living in their midst. In 2003, 61 countries reported that programmes were in place for the integration of non-nationals, up from 52 countries in 1996. Policies for the integration of non-nationals are more common in developed than in developing destination countries. Measures to promote the integration of migrants include programmes to improve linguistic and vocational competence, steps to combat discrimination, measures to facilitate naturalization, the recognition of dual citizenship and, in a few countries, granting migrants the right to vote in local elections.

An important trend has been the development of policies in countries of origin to enhance the benefits that they derive from international migration and to reduce the costs they incur. Such policies include measures to facilitate migrants' remittances; support to networks that link migrants to their country of origin; the facilitation of return migration; the strengthening of consular services; and, in a few countries, dual citizenship and the right of emigrants to vote abroad in national elections.

Multilateral policy initiatives

The complexity of international migration and its growing scale have compelled Governments to move from a unilateral approach to the development of enhanced international cooperation in the management of migration, as a complement to the aforementioned policy initiatives at the national level. Consequently, the 1990s witnessed a renewed willingness of Governments to undertake cooperative efforts at the bilateral, regional and international levels to find novel ways of ensuring orderly migration.

Bilateral arrangements on international migration, which are a useful means of responding rapidly to changing migration trends or to specific issues, are not new; but there has been an upsurge in the number of agreements concluded since 1990. In addition, the range of issues covered by bilateral agreements has broadened to include temporary labour migration, the control of irregular migration, border management, the return of migrants in an irregular situation and the management of remittances. The bilateral approach, although effective for advancing the interests of two Governments, has generally a narrow geographical focus and thus makes a limited contribution to the regional or global management of international population mobility.

Managing international migration has also become a high priority of regional and subregional groups. EU has been at the forefront of regional initiatives, having adopted a phased approach to reaching agreement on the free movement of persons and workers among its member States. Elsewhere, a number of regional consultative processes on international migration were initiated in the 1990s and such arrangements now exist in most areas of the world, as exemplified by the Migration Dialogue for Southern Africa (MIDSA) and the Migration Dialogue for Western Africa (MIDWA), the Manila and Bali Processes in Asia, and the Puebla and Lima Processes in Latin America. Regional consultative processes offer a context for the development of common approaches to migration management, as they typically revolve around a particular issue, such as undocumented migration or trafficking in persons, on which consensus can be achieved relatively easily. By providing a venue for repeated contact and informal dialogue among policy makers in a region, these have become viable mechanisms of cooperation.

At the international level, the United Nations system and other multilateral institutions have undertaken a variety of activities through which to address international migration issues. The United Nations system has contributed to the formulation and adoption of legal instruments on international migration (see table 4) and has provided forums for intergovernmental dialogue on international migration issues. The United Nations Secretariat, including the regional commissions, has contributed to the collection, analysis and dissemination of information on international migration. Various other intergovernmental bodies and organizations have also been increasingly active in these areas, particu-

Table 4.

Legal instruments relevant to international migration

Instrument	Year adopted	Countries ratified ^a		<i>Of which:</i> Countries with net immigration at the time of ratification	
		Number	Percentage ^b	Number	Percentage ^c
Migrant workers					
ILO Convention concerning Migration for Employment (Revised 1949) (No. 97)	1949	42	21.5	12	28.6
ILO Convention concerning Migrations in Abusive Conditions and the Promotion of Equality of Opportunity and Treatment of Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) (No. 143)	1975	18	9.2	8	44.4
International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families	1990	26	13.3	2	7.7
Smuggling and trafficking					
Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children ^d	2000	54	27.7	16	29.6
Protocol Against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Air and Sea ^d	2000	48	24.6	14	29.2
Refugees					
1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees	1951	142	72.8	39	27.5
1967 Protocol relating to the Status of Refugees	1967	141	72.3	47	33.3

^a As of 1 September 2004. The number includes non-member States of the United Nations and the Governments of Cook Islands and Niue.

^b Of States Members of the United Nations.

^c Of countries that have ratified.

^d Supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime.

larly contributing to the formulation of global norms on migration management. The 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees and the 1967 Protocol thereto have been ratified by a large number of countries, and the more recent protocols against the trafficking in persons have received increasing attention. Nevertheless, the conventions regarding the rights of migrant workers and their families have been ratified by only a limited number of countries and, particularly, by very few destination countries. Most importantly, however, there is no global institutional framework within which to address the full spectrum of international migration issues in a comprehensive and systematic manner.

Prospects and future role for international migration

Like the newly industrializing economies of the nineteenth century, many of the developed countries of the twenty-first century face shortages of labour, although the reasons and their consequences—low fertility rates and population ageing, resulting in a natural decline of population and rapidly rising support ratios—differ from those of the past. Many developed countries also face labour scarcity in a variety of specific areas, including highly skilled work in information and communication technologies (ICT), skilled labour in service activities and manual labour in agriculture, manufacturing and construction. Without increased migration, many of the demands for such labour will not be met and economic output and personal well-being in these countries will suffer. A less restrictive migration policy can contribute to overcoming these demographic and labour demands.

Migrants move today predominantly from developing to developed countries, but the need for migrant labour is also present in some developing countries, including the newly industrializing economies of South-East Asia and the oil-rich countries of the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC). As noted above, however, migration policies in a growing number of developing countries are also becoming more restrictive. Such countries also need to give greater consideration to the benefits that a more liberal admission policy might produce.

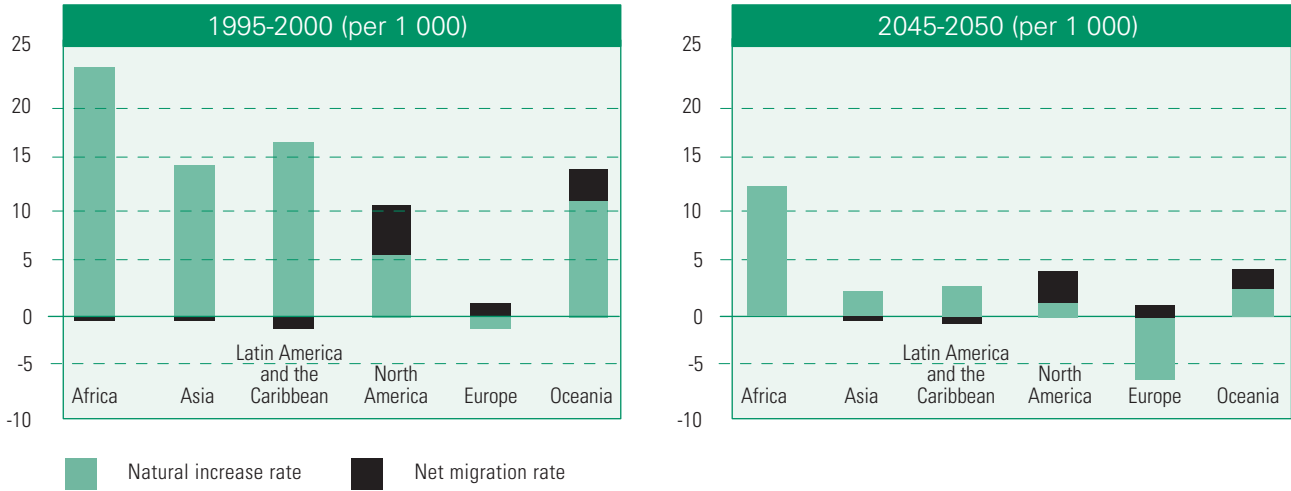
Future trends in international migration are more difficult to predict than the other determinants of national population growth, particularly because, as the first half of the twentieth century showed, they can be directly and substantially affected by changes in migration policy in destination countries. At present, no radical or widespread shifts in policy are anticipated and the economic forces prompting migration are also expected to remain relatively unchanged. Under these assumptions, the migration trends of the past 40 years can reasonably be used to project migration flows over the next 40 years.

Combined with population projections to 2050, such extrapolations suggest that net emigration will continue to have only a small impact on the total population growth of developing regions in the future. Without migration, the increase in the population of developing regions from 2000 to 2050 is projected to be nearly 3 billion. With net emigration, the increase would be reduced to 2.8 billion. The reduction of population growth because of net emigration will be largest for Latin America and the Caribbean (13 per cent) but will be relatively small for Asia (5 per cent) and, particularly, for Africa (1 per cent) (see figure III).

In contrast, the natural increase in population in developed regions is expected to be negative and net migration is expected to be positive. Without net migration, the population of the more developed regions would decline from 1.2 billion in 2000 to 1.0 billion in 2050 but net international migration is expected to more than counterbalance the natural decline and a slight increase in the population will result. Among developed regions, the population decline due to an excess of deaths over births would be most acute in Europe—its population would decline by 139 million between 2000 and 2050. With the levels of international migration projected, Europe's population is still expected to decline, but by only 96 million.

Sustained positive levels of net international migration can play a role in offsetting natural reductions of the overall population or in the working-age population, but migration inflows should not be seen as an antidote to population ageing. The levels of

Figure 3. Contribution of net international migration to population change, by region, 1995-2000 and 2045-2050



international migration needed to maintain the potential support ratio are high and unlikely to be socially or politically acceptable or sustainable for any society. For instance, the number of migrants required to maintain the potential support ratio constant in 2003 in the 15 States members of EU during 2000-2050 would be 13.5 million persons per year, some 20 times higher than recently recorded levels. By 2040-2050, the equivalent of about half of the world's annual population growth would have to emigrate to EU in order to maintain its present support ratio. Maintaining the size of the working population constant would require close to 1.6 million migrants a year, about three times the recent levels.

These estimates indicate that sustained or, better, rising migration flows can play a role in preventing reductions of the working-age population in developed countries. Nevertheless, the challenge of ageing population will require a comprehensive strategy that should also include reassessing the age of retirement and retirement benefits and increasing the labour-force participation of the working-age population.

One possibility for reducing the gaps between the demand and supply of labour in developed countries would be to increase temporary migrant flows. For destination countries, temporary migration might present fewer difficulties of social integration. For countries of origin, temporary work could reduce domestic unemployment and be a source of remittances (and, possibly, also of a capital gain in the form of repatriated assets); it might also reduce the impact of the brain drain if temporary migrants returned to their country of origin and use their newly acquired skills there.

The temporary movement of unskilled workers from developing to developed countries promises to bring the greatest gains because it is with regard to these two groups of countries that the difference between factor prices is greatest and the gaps between demand and supply are often the largest in absolute terms. The bilateral arrangements between Mexico and Canada, and Mexico and the United States, regarding the temporary movement of workers provide useful examples. Some oil-exporting developing countries also have well-defined schemes for temporary migration that exclude the possibility of long-term settlement.

There is also a demand for the temporary movement of skilled workers which may or may not include the highly skilled. Reflecting this demand, a multilateral framework for short-term movement is already in place in the form of Mode 4 of the General Agreement on Trade in Services under the World Trade Organization. Mode 4 illustrates the advantages of security and predictability that are provided by a binding multilateral instrument, such as the General Agreement on Trade in Services, compared with the bilateral agreements that are used to govern temporary flows of unskilled labour. However, Mode 4 could usefully be liberalized in a number of respects and the Doha work programme provides an opportunity for doing so. Simplifying some of the technicalities in the implementation of Mode 4 and broadening it to encompass less skilled labour would be major improvements.

Improving conditions for the migrant in the country of destination

At the level of the individual, both countries of origin and countries of destination need to ensure that the human rights of migrants are fully respected. In the first instance, all countries should take decisive action to eliminate smuggling and trafficking in migrants. Having been legally admitted into a country, migrants should obey national laws but should also be given protection by national legislation, especially to prevent discrimination, in accordance with international agreements relating to the protection of migrants. Governments should ensure that migrant workers are not exploited. Special protection may need to be accorded to migrant women, including illegal migrants, who have been subject to exploitation.

Governments of destination countries need to take measures to facilitate the integration of migrants in a manner that both protects their human rights and dignity and fosters mutual understanding between migrants and the host society. Such programmes and policies should be developed in partnership with associations of migrants, employers and trade unions. Offering appropriate education and labour training that allow all groups of migrants to access labour markets will also enhance the integration process. As part of this process, special attention should be accorded to measures that facilitate the naturalization of those migrants who have undergone a long period of residence in their country of destination. The decision of some countries to allow long-term migrants to vote in local elections should also be seen as a welcome development.

Public attitudes in a number of countries remain hostile to migrants. In several States, policies and programmes addressing migrants are unclear, enabling the issue of migration to become highly politicized and spurring the formation of anti-immigration movements. Governments should actively seek to reverse this trend by highlighting the benefits that migrants bring to the host country, promoting tolerance and understanding, and combating all forms of xenophobia.

One area of explicit social inequity in many countries is the non-portability of migrants' acquired retirement benefits. In addition to being in the interest of the migrant, this portability may foster the return of older migrants to their countries of origin. It is also of interest to employers wishing to attract internationally mobile workers with needed skills. Increasing the recognition of foreign educational and professional qualifications, skills and experience would be a further improvement in policy in countries of destination. The lack of such recognition often forces qualified migrants to work in jobs at a level well below their potential, resulting in a waste of human capital.

During the 1990s, as a result of both the proliferation of conflict in some areas of the world and the increasingly restrictive admission policies in developed countries, the number of persons seeking asylum in those countries increased. Recognition rates among asylum-seekers, however, remained low, suggesting that the asylum system was being used as a means of back-door entry by migrants. In order to reduce such potential abuse of the system, measures to expedite the processing of asylum claims have been introduced. It is important, however, to ensure that cases are adjudicated openly and fairly, with full respect for the human rights of those concerned, and that no person is forced to return to a situation where her or his life is in danger.

Increasing the benefits and reducing the costs of international migration for countries of origin

The flurry of attention being given to remittances by policy makers provides an opportunity to increase the benefits they provide. An immediate goal should be to reduce the transaction costs of remittances through a mix of improved regulation and enhanced competition, including making more information available about alternative means of transferring remittances. However, a balance has to be struck between efforts to facilitate the transfer of remittances and those to reduce money-laundering and other illegal financial practices. Countries of origin need to improve their financial environment to ensure that remittances are put to effective use. The measures needed to that end are similar to those required to promote development, although additional attention may need to be given to enhancing financial services, particularly in the rural communities from which many migrants originate.

Policies to facilitate the transfer of migrants' remittances should be part of broader policies in countries of origin to enhance the benefits from international migration, one of the most positive trends in recent years, as we have seen. Such policies should also include support to hometown associations, and business and academic networks that link migrants to their country of origin; the facilitation of return migration; the promotion of exports of idiosyncratic products destined to communities of migrants; and mechanisms that allow the political participation of migrants in the life of their countries of origin and dual citizenship.

The loss of skilled personnel by developing countries (brain drain) is related to the migration policies of destination countries wishing to attract persons with needed skills. To reduce the negative effects of the brain drain, destination countries should ensure that the selection of skilled migrants does not end up removing a critical proportion of the skilled personnel of individual developing countries, particularly in areas such as health, education and information technology. Coordination in this respect is crucial. For that reason, efforts to reduce the outflow of essential personnel from developing countries should be taken at the multilateral level. A complementary and useful approach would be for destination countries to defray the training costs involved if they continue attracting migrants in critical fields. For their part, countries of origin should monitor the extent of skilled emigration and, if necessary, take measures to address it, inter alia, by training more personnel in areas where there is an excessive outflow.

Towards improved international cooperation on migration

Since international migration is not likely to decrease in volume or importance in the foreseeable future, Governments have an interest in continuing to seek new and effective forms of international cooperation in migration management. While bilateral, regional and multilateral approaches each have their own strengths and limitations, the achievement of orderly migration calls for efforts at all levels, but preferably in the context of an overarching, universally agreed and applied international framework. Broad-based ratification of existing conventions and protocols would be a first major step in that direction.

A first responsibility in managing international migration flows requires an improvement in conditions and opportunities for potential migrants in their home countries and a reduction in the enormous gap between the well-being of the average individual in a developed country and that of most inhabitants of poorer countries. The international community's overall development agenda is therefore one essential component of the overall effort to manage international migration. Improving human well-being in the developing countries by achieving the Millennium Development Goals should, for example, reduce the large numbers of people who would emigrate if they had the opportunity.

At the same time, international migration is itself increasingly seen as a development issue. However, national and international migration policies do not yet fully reflect this development perspective and are sometimes inconsistent with other dimensions of development policy, particularly in the developed countries. It is therefore necessary to integrate migration policy into development policy, ensuring complete consistency and coherence between the two. Within both countries of origin and countries of destination, migration is usually not dealt with by the same ministry or ministries that deal with development policy; changes in institutional arrangements at the national level may therefore be needed if this divide is to be crossed.

From a development perspective, the present policy stances on international migration appear to be limiting the benefits that all could derive from larger migration flows. To overcome this limitation, it is important to ensure that all concerned—countries of destination, countries of origin, transit countries, the individuals who migrate and those left behind—recognize that well-managed international migration can be mutually advantageous. With such recognition, a process could be developed to ensure that the gains related to international migration are maximized, that the costs are minimized and that both gains and costs are shared appropriately.

In order to improve the necessary analysis and policy formulation, data on migration need to be improved. Concepts and definitions vary across countries and data collection is not universal. The most comprehensive data relate to the stock of migrants but they are not available for all countries. Data on flows of migrants are even scarcer, yet they are becoming increasingly important with the growing number and complexity of flows. To address some of these problems, the United Nations Statistics Division has issued a set of recommendations on how to improve international migration statistics. While the scarcity of resources for such purposes is recognized, it would be highly desirable to achieve nonetheless some improvement in international reporting on migration flows.

In addition to addressing the issue of international reporting, individual countries—particularly developed countries, since they are the destination of most migrants—may wish to consider producing national reports on international migration. These could indicate, for instance, the number of international migrants and such char-

acteristics as age, sex, country of birth, citizenship, type of migration status, length of stay, type of employment, and nature and extent of financial and other resource flows to the countries of origin.

In terms of legislative actions, all countries should become parties to the international conventions and protocols on trafficking of persons, and on the rights of migrant workers and their families. In particular, many countries, including most destination countries, have yet to ratify the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families, which was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly in 1990 and entered into force in 2003.

International policies also need to address the situation of those who feel compelled to leave their home country out of fear for their safety. At the end of 2003, almost three quarters of the world's refugees were living in developing countries. To reduce the burden that large refugee flows impose on those countries, the international community needs to improve the mechanisms for burden-sharing, as called for by the Convention Plus initiative launched by the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees.

Beyond existing conventions and protocols, the international community lacks a comprehensive international framework that addresses the wide range of issues pertaining to international migration. EU is at the forefront in addressing these matters within its region, primarily in terms of the harmonizing of policies and coordinating of actions that are being undertaken by its members cooperating as a group of destination countries. Migration is a global and transnational phenomenon involving various parties with differing perspectives and interests. It therefore calls for a global approach and a global framework.

There remains a need for cooperation, in the area of movements of people, as in that of flows of goods and capital, between countries of origin and countries of destination to ensure that the large international imbalances between the supply and demand for labour at all skill levels do not cause economic and social disruption at either the national, the regional or the global level. However, multilateral cooperation regarding international flows of labour has been negligible, particularly in comparison with the progress made in respect of international flows of goods and capital. This gap in international cooperation must be bridged, through an international framework that looks after the interests of both migrants and host communities.

The creation of the Global Commission on International Migration marks an important recent step in addressing international migration from a global perspective. Within the United Nations General Assembly, there have been calls for an international conference on migration, although no agreement has been reached. The high-level dialogue on international migration and development that will take place in the Assembly in 2006 will provide an opportunity to discuss all aspects of international migration with a view to maximizing its development benefits and minimizing its negative impacts. It will also create a valuable opportunity to integrate the results of various national, regional and international migration processes, so as to enhance cooperation among the members of the international community on this issue of global importance.



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Under-Secretary-General for Economic and Social Affairs

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Explanatory Notes

The following symbols have been used in the tables throughout the report:

- .. **Two dots** indicate that data are not available or are not separately reported.
- **A dash** indicates that the amount is nil or negligible.
- **A hyphen (-)** indicates that the item is not applicable.
- **A minus sign (-)** indicates deficit or decrease, except as indicated.
- . **A full stop (.)** is used to indicate decimals.
- / **A slash (/)** between years indicates a crop year or financial year, for example, 1990/91.
- **Use of a hyphen (-)** between years, for example, 1990-1991, signifies the full period involved, including the beginning and end years.

Reference to “dollars” (\$) indicates United States dollars, unless otherwise stated.

Reference to “tons” indicates metric tons, unless otherwise stated.

Annual rates of growth or change, unless otherwise stated, refer to annual compound rates.

In most cases, the growth rate forecasts for 2004 and 2005 are rounded to the nearest quarter of a percentage point.

Details and percentages in tables do not necessarily add to totals, because of rounding.

The following abbreviations have been used:

APEC	Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
CEMAC	Central African Economic and Monetary Community
CIS	Commonwealth of Independent States
COMESA	Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa
ECE	Economic Commission for Europe

ECLAC	Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
ENT	economic needs test
ESCAP	Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific
ESCWA	Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia
EU	European Union
Eurostat	Statistical Office of the European Communities
FDI	foreign direct investment
GCC	Gulf Cooperation Council
GDP	gross domestic product
GNP	gross national product
HTA	hometown association
ICMPD	International Centre for Migration Policy Development
IGC	Intergovernmental Consultations on Asylum, Refugee and Migration Policies in Europe, North America and Australia
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IOM	International Organization for Migration
IRCA	Immigration Reform and Control Act (United States)
MERCOSUR	Southern Common Market
MFN	most favoured nation
MIDA	Migration for Development in Africa
MIDSA	Migration Dialogue for Southern Africa
MIDWA	Migration Dialogue for Western Africa

MRA s	mutual recognition arrangements	UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
NAFTA	North American Free Trade Agreement	UN/DESA	Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat
NBER	National Bureau of Economic Research (Cambridge, Massachusetts)	UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
OAS	Organization of American States	UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
ODA	official development assistance	UNHCR	Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development	UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
OSCE	Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe	UNITAR	United Nations Institute for Training and Research
SAARC	South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation	UNRWA	United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East
SOPEMI	Continuous Reporting System on Migration (OECD)	WHO	World Health Organization
TOKTEN	Transfer of Knowledge through Expatriate Nationals (UNDP)		

The designations employed and the presentation of the material in this publication do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of the United Nations Secretariat concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries.

The term "country" as used in the text of this report also refers, as appropriate, to territories or areas.

For analytical purposes, the following country groupings and subgroupings have been used:^a

Developed economies:

Europe, excluding the European transition economies
Canada and the United States of America
Japan, Australia and New Zealand.

European Union:^b

Austria, Belgium, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland.

Economies in transition:

Central and Eastern European transition economies:

Albania, Bulgaria, Romania and the following successor States of the Socialist Federal Republic of Yugoslavia: Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Serbia and Montenegro, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia.

Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS)

Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Republic of Moldova, Russian Federation, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Ukraine, Uzbekistan.

Developing economies:

Africa

Asia and the Pacific (excluding Japan, Australia, New Zealand and the member States of CIS in Asia)

Latin America and the Caribbean.

Subgroupings of Asia and the Pacific:

Western Asia:

Bahrain, Cyprus, Iran (Islamic Republic of), Iraq, Israel, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Syrian Arab Republic, Turkey, United Arab Emirates, Yemen.

Eastern and Southern Asia:

All other developing economies in Asia and the Pacific (including China, unless listed separately). This group has in some cases been subdivided into:

China

South Asia: Bangladesh, India, Nepal, Pakistan, Sri Lanka
East Asia: all other developing economies in Asia and the Pacific.

Subgrouping of Africa:

Sub-Saharan Africa, excluding Nigeria and South Africa (commonly contracted to "sub-Saharan Africa"):

All of Africa except Algeria, Egypt, Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, Morocco, Nigeria, South Africa, Tunisia.

^a Names and composition of geographical areas follow those of "Standard country or area codes for statistical use" (ST/ESA/STAT/SER.M/49/Rev.3), with one exception, namely, Western Asia, which in the *Survey* includes the Islamic Republic of Iran (owing to the large role of the petroleum sector in its economy) and excludes the transition economies of the region. Also, "Eastern Europe", as used in this *Survey*, is a contraction of "Central and Eastern Europe"; thus the composition of the region designated by the term differs from that of the strictly geographical grouping.

^b Reflects membership of the European Union up to 30 April 2004. Ten additional countries joined the Union on 1 May 2004.