

# Notes

## Chapter 1

1 OECD (2009a).

2 Few developing countries have data on flows of migrants. However, the sum of the stock of internal migrants and international migrants in developing countries is considerably larger than the stock of migrants in developed countries (see section 2.1).

3 See the Statistical Tables for life expectancy and income, and Barro and Lee (2001) for years of education.

4 For a discussion of the reasons behind the poor living conditions in the Lower Rio Grande Valley, see Betts and Slotje (1994). Anderson and Gerber (2007b) provide an overview of living conditions along both sides of the border and their evolution over time. Comprehensive data and analysis on human development within the United States can be found in Burd-Sharps, Lewis, and Martins (2008).

5 The number of Chinese who changed their district of residence over the period 1979–2003 is estimated to exceed 250 million (Lu and Wang, 2006). Inter-provincial flows (corresponding to the definition of internal migration we use in the report—see box 1.3) accounted for about a quarter of these movements.

6 Clemens, Montenegro, and Pritchett (2008).

7 Clemens, Montenegro, and Pritchett (2008), Ortega (2009).

8 UNDP (2008d).

9 The practice of compulsory testing of immigrants is not unique to the Arab states. For example, the United States severely restricts the entry of HIV-positive travellers and bars HIV-positive non-citizens from obtaining permanent residence. See U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services (2008).

10 A search for scholarly articles on international migration using the Social Sciences Citation Index yielded only 1,441 articles—less than a fifth of those dealing with international trade (7,467) and less than one twentieth of those dealing with inflation (30,227).

11 Koslowski (2008).

12 IOM (2008b), World Bank (2006b), ILO (2004), and GFMD (2008).

13 Aliran (2007).

14 Branca (2005).

15 In particular, questioning of the distinction between voluntary and involuntary migration led to terms like 'mixed migration' and the 'migration-asylum nexus'. The use of some of these terms is not uncontroversial, as recognition of economic motives among asylum seekers can have implications for admissions and treatment. See Richmond (1994), van Hear (2003), van Hear, Brubaker, and Bessa (2009), and UNHCR (2001).

16 Bakewell (2008) shows that the return to Angola of many of these migrants since the end of the civil war in 2002 coincided with the attempt by many Zambians to move to Angola in order to participate in expected improvements in social

and economic conditions. This suggests that economic motives were at least as important among expatriate Angolans as the desire to return to their country of origin.

17 Van Hear, Brubaker, and Bessa (2009) and Van Engeland and Monsutti (2005).

18 An interesting example of migration flows being disconnected from economic growth differentials was the 1985/86 recession, when Malaysian per capita GDP shrank by 5.4 percent while the Indonesian economy was unaffected, yet migration flows between the two countries continued unabated. See Hugo (1993).

19 This does not mean that migrants in Malaysia are free from discrimination. See Hugo (1993).

20 Attempts to develop a conceptual framework for understanding migration go back at least to Ravenstein (1885), who proposed a set of 'laws of migration' and emphasized the development of cities as 'poles of attraction'. Within neoclassical economic theory, initial expositions include Lewis (1954), and Harris and Todaro (1970), while the tradition of Marxist studies was initiated by discussion of the 'agrarian question' by Kautsky (1899).

21 Stark and Bloom (1985), Stark (1991).

22 Mesnard (2004), Yang (2006).

23 Massey (1988).

24 Gidwani and Sivaramakrishnan (2003).

25 See Nussbaum (1993) on the origins of this idea.

26 Huan-Chang (1911).

27 Plato (2009).

28 Nussbaum (2000).

29 This definition is consistent with more conventional usage. For example, the Oxford English Dictionary defines mobility as "the ability to move or to be moved; capacity for movement or change of place; ... " (Oxford University Press, 2009). The idea of labour mobility as indicating the absence of restrictions on movement, as distinguished from the action of movement itself, also has a long tradition in international economics; see Mundell (1968).

30 Sainath (2004).

31 Sen (2006), p.4.

32 UNDP (1990), p.89.

33 UNDP (1997).

34 UNDP (2004b).

35 See, for example, the idea of using international transfers to reduce emigration pressures in poor countries, which was featured in the 1994 Human Development Report, UNDP (1994).

## Chapter 2

1. Bell and Muhidin (2009).

2. Less conservative definitions raise the estimates significantly. For example, while our estimate of 42 million internal migrants (4 percent of the population) in India includes all those who have moved between states, there are 307 million people (28 percent of the population) who live in a different city from where they were born (Deshingkar and Akter, 2009). Montenegro

and Hirn (2008) use an intermediate zonal denomination and calculate an average internal migration rate of 19.4 percent for 34 developing countries. Seasonal migration is excluded from both of these estimates. To the best of our knowledge, no comparable cross-country estimates of seasonal migration exist, although country-specific research suggests that it is often high.

3. Immigrants, for example, are defined on the basis of place of birth in 177 countries but on the basis of citizenship in 42 countries. A few countries (including China) do not have information on either their foreign-born or foreign citizens, which means that these countries must be dropped from the sample or that their immigrant share must be estimated. The UN (2009e) estimates used throughout this report do the latter.

4. Migration DRC (2007).

5. HDR team calculations based on Migration DRC (2007) and CEPII (2006).

6. The destination country HDI is calculated as the weighted average of the HDI of all destination countries, where the weights are the shares in the population of migrants. The magnitude presented in figure 2.2 is only a rough approximation of the human development gains from international migration, because the human development of migrants may be different from the average of populations at both home and destination countries, and because the HDI itself is only a partial measure of human development. Box 1.1 and chapter 3 provide a more detailed discussion of the methodological problems inherent in estimating individual gains from migration.

7. Ortega (2009).

8. Cummins, Letouze, Purser, and Rodríguez (2009). These authors use the Migration DRC (2007) database on bilateral stocks of migrants to develop the first gravity (bilateral flows) model covering both OECD and non-OECD countries. Other findings include large and statistically significant effects of characteristics such as land area, population structures, a common border and geographic distance, as well as former colonial ties and having a common language.

9. Martin (1993) observed that development in poor countries typically went hand in hand with increasing rather than decreasing rates of emigration and hypothesized that there may be a non-linear inverted-U relationship between migration and development. The theory has since been discussed by several authors including Martin and Taylor (1996), Massey (various) and Hatton and Williamson (various). The first cross-country test of the theory using data on bilateral flows was carried out by de Haas (2009).

10. A similar figure was first presented by de Haas (2009).

11. Cummins, Letouze, Purser, and Rodríguez (2009).

12. Mobarak, Shyamal, and Gharad (2009).

13. HDR team analysis based on UN (2009e), Migration DRC (2007) and CEPII (2006). These regressions control for a linear and quadratic term in HDI as well as for linear terms and a multiplicative interaction of size and remoteness. Remoteness is measured by the average distance to OECD countries, as calculated by the CEPII (2006). Size is measured by the log of population.
14. For example, female migrants accounted for less than a third of immigrants into the United States 200 years ago (Hatton and Williamson (2005), p.33).
15. See Ramírez, Domínguez, and Morais (2005) for a comprehensive discussion of the key issues.
16. Nava (2006).
17. Rosas (2007).
18. OECD (2008b).
19. Newland (2009) provides a comprehensive survey of the key issues involved in circular migration.
20. Sabates-Wheeler (2009).
21. OECD (2008b).
22. Passel and Cohn (2008).
23. Vogel and Kovacheva (2009).
24. Docquier and Marfouk (2004). If we use a broader definition of the labour force and count as economically active all individuals over the age of 15, we find that 24 percent of immigrants to the OECD have a tertiary degree, as opposed to 5 percent of the population of non-OECD countries.
25. OECD (2009a).
26. Miguel and Hamory (2009).
27. Sun and Fan (2009).
28. Background research carried out by the HDR team in collaboration with the World Bank. This profile of internal migrants also found that those with lower levels of formal education were more likely to migrate in the upper middle-income countries of Latin America. This result suggests that when the average level of income of a country is sufficiently high, even relatively poor people are able to move.
29. King, Skeldon, and Vulnetari (2008).
30. Skeldon (2006) on India and Pakistan, and King, Skeldon, and Vulnetari (2008) on Italy, Korea and Japan.
31. Clemens (2009b).
32. See Jacobs (1970) and Glaeser, Kallal, Scheinkman, and Shleifer (1992). For a comprehensive discussion of the relationship between agglomeration economies, economic development and flows of international and internal migration; see World Bank (2009e).
33. These guidelines are outlined in OECD (2008b).
34. Altman and Horn (1991).
35. Sanjek (2003).
36. In 1907 alone, almost 1.3 million people or 1.5 percent of the population were granted permanent resident status in the United States; a century later, in 2007, both the absolute number and fraction were lower: 1.05 million and only 0.3 percent of the population (DHS, 2007). Hatton and Williamson (2005) estimated for a sample of countries—Denmark, France, Germany, Norway, Sweden, United Kingdom and six 'New World' countries (Argentina, Australia, Brazil, Canada, New Zealand and United States)—that the stock of foreign-born migrants in 1910–1911 was around 23 million, or about 8 percent of their population.
37. Linz et al. (2007).
38. van Lerberghe and Schoors (1995).
39. Rahaei (2009).
40. Bellwood (2005).
41. Williamson (1990).
42. Lucas (2004); 2008 figure from OECD (2008a).
43. By the late 19th century, the cost of steerage passage from the United Kingdom to the United States had fallen to one tenth of average annual income, making the trip feasible for many more people. However, the costs from elsewhere were much higher: for example, from China to California in 1880, it cost approximately six times Chinese per capita income. See Hatton and Williamson (2005) and Galenson (1984).
44. Taylor and Williamson (1997) and Hatton and Williamson (2005). For the Ireland–Great Britain comparison the period is 1852–1913, while for Sweden–United States it is 1856–1913.
45. Magee and Thompson (2006) and Baines (1985).
46. Gould (1980).
47. Cinel (1991), p.98.
48. Nugent and Saggi (2002).
49. Foner (2002).
50. For example, Canada's open policy towards immigration following confederation was seen as a pillar of the national policy to generate economic prosperity through population growth. See Kelley and Trebilcock (1998).
51. See, e.g. Ignatiev (1995).
52. See Timmer and Williamson (1998), who find evidence of tightening between 1860 and 1930 in Argentina, Australia, Brazil, Canada and the United States.
53. A report by the ILO counted 33 million foreign nationals in 1910, equivalent to 2.5 percent of the population covered by the study (which was 76 percent of the world population at the time). In contrast to modern statistics, it counted those with a different nationality than their country of residence as foreigners, thereby probably underestimating the share of foreign-born people (International Labour Office (1936), p. 37). It is also important to note that, since the number of nations has increased significantly during the past century, the rate of international migration could be expected to have increased even if no genuine increases in movement has taken place.
54. Since 1960, world trade as a share of global GDP has more than doubled, increasing at an average rate of 2.2 percent a year.
55. García y Griego (1983).
56. Appleyard (2001).
57. The German restrictions appear to have started before the oil shock but gained intensity after it. See Martin (1994).
58. These percentages refer to the migrants in countries that are developed according to the most recent HDI (See box 1.3). We might expect these patterns to be different if we instead calculated the share of migrants in the countries that were developed in 1960, but in fact the share of migrants in the 17 most developed countries in 1960 (covering 15 percent of the world population, the same share covered by developed countries today) was 6.2 percent, not very different from our 5 percent figure.
59. Czechoslovakia and the Soviet Union were not the only cases where new nations emerged during this period. However, in background analysis carried out for this report, we studied the patterns of changes in the share of migrants that occurred after reunifications or break-ups since 1960 and in other cases (e.g. Germany, former Yugoslavia), the changes in the migrant share were not large enough to have a significant impact on aggregate trends.
60. The exception is the United Kingdom, where large shares of immigrants from developing Commonwealth countries took place during the 1960s.
61. UN-HABITAT (2003).
62. UN (2008c) and UN-HABITAT (2003).
63. This divergence has not occurred for other dimensions of human development, such as health and education (school enrolment rates). These dimensions are critical, although income appears to have a larger impact on the propensity to move (see Cummins, Letouze, Purser, and Rodríguez, 2009).
64. Moreover, China was different from other developing regions during the 1960s because of the restrictions on exit, which also affect comparisons of migration flows over time.
65. Since our exercise compares countries classified according to their current HDI levels, it does not take into account the convergence of some fast-growing developing countries, which moved into the top HDI category. Our method seems better suited to understanding the growing concentration of migrants in the subset of countries that are developed today. Furthermore, if we do the comparison for the group of countries classed as developing in 1960, we get very similar patterns (see endnote 58).
66. For a comprehensive survey of this literature see UN (2006b). The debate on divergence is related to the discussion on whether world inequality has been increasing, although the latter depends also on the evolution of inequality within countries.
67. Doganis (2002).
68. Department of Treasury and Finance (2002).
69. Facchini and Mayda (2009) find that, while greater public opposition towards immigration is associated with higher policy restrictions, there is still a significant gap between the policies desired by most voters and those that are adopted by policy makers. See also Cornelius, Tsuda, Martin, and Hollifield (2004).
70. Hanson (2007).
71. The assessment evaluated several dimensions of migration policy, including admissions criteria, integration policies, the treatment of authorized migrants and the situation of irregular migrants. The openness of each regime was assessed through subjective evaluation by respondents as well as according to a set of objective criteria, such as the existence of numerical limits, entry requirements and international agreements

- on free movement. The developing countries covered were Chile, China (internal mobility only), Costa Rica, Côte d'Ivoire, Ecuador, Egypt, India, Kazakhstan, Malaysia, Mexico, Morocco, Russian Federation, Thailand and Turkey. The developed countries were Australia, Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Portugal, Republic of Korea, Singapore, Spain, Sweden, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom and United States. Further details of the assessment are provided in Klugman and Pereira (2009).
72. Governments often differ in the criteria they use to classify workers as skilled. In order to achieve some degree of homogeneity across countries, we classified as skilled all workers coming under regimes requiring a university degree. When the classification was based on occupation, we tried to match the type of occupation with the education level typically required to perform the job. When there was no explicit distinction in visa regimes based on education level or occupation, we either made a distinction based on information on the most common workers in each visa class, or, in the case of clearly mixed flows, we treated the regulation as applying to both high-skilled and low-skilled workers.
  73. Ruhs (2005) and Singapore Government Ministry of Manpower (2009).
  74. Ruhs (2002) and OECD (2008b).
  75. This concept originated as a mechanism in Arab countries' legislation—which typically does not recognize adoption—whereby adults pledged to take care of orphaned or abandoned children. See Global Legal Information Network (2009).
  76. Longva (1997), pp. 20–21.
  77. See, for example, Bahrain Center for Human Rights (2008) and UNDP (2008d).
  78. Under the new regulation, the Labor Ministry will transfer the sponsorship of the workers from previous government contractors to new ones and the state will bear their iqama (residence permit) and sponsorship transfer fees. See Thaindian News (2009) and Arab News (2009).
  79. Khaleej Times (2009).
  80. Jasso and Rosenzweig (2009).
  81. Hanson and Spillimbergo (2001).
  82. Lawyers for Human Rights (2008).
  83. Human Rights Watch (2007a).
  84. Ruhs and Martin (2008) and Ruhs (2009).
  85. See Cummins and Rodríguez (2009). These authors also address potential issues of reverse causation by using the predicted immigration shares from a bilateral gravity model as an exogenous source of cross-national variation. Their results still point to a statistically insignificant correlation between numbers and rights; indeed, in most of their instrumental variable estimates the correlation turns positive, shedding further doubts on the numbers versus rights hypothesis.
  86. Muñoz de Bustillo and Antón (2009).
  87. Adepouju (2005).
  88. Freedom House (2009).
  89. United States Department of State (2009b), Wang (2005), National Statistics Office (2006), Ivakhnyuk (2009), and Anh (2005).
  90. United States Department of State (2009d).
  91. Kundu (2009).
  92. McKenzie (2007).
  93. Tirtosudarmo (2009).
  94. On Cuba, see Human Rights Watch (2005a) and Amnesty International (2009). On the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, see Freedom House (2005). For other countries, see United States Department of State (2009a), Immigration and Refugee Board of Canada (2008) and IATA (2006).
  95. Human Rights Watch (2007b).
  96. United States Department of State (2009a) and McKenzie (2007).
  97. IMF (2009a).
  98. See IMF (2009c), Consensus Economics (2009a), Consensus Economics (2009c), Consensus Economics (2009d).
  99. Recessions in developed countries tend to last two years, after which trend economic growth is re-established: Chauvet and Yu (2006). However, the mean duration and intensity of recessions is much longer in developing countries. See Hausmann, Rodríguez, and Wagner (2008).
  100. See Perron (1989) and Perron and Wada (2005), who find evidence of persistent effects of the oil shock and the Great Depression on incomes.
  101. OECD (2009b).
  102. United States Bureau of Labor Statistics (2009).
  103. INE (2009).
  104. The correlation is statistically significant at 5 percent. The Asian Development Bank has projected contractions in the key migrant destinations of the region, ranging up to 5 percent in Singapore. In South Africa, home to 1.2 million migrants, the EIU expects the economy to contract by 0.8 percent in 2009, and the economy of the United Arab Emirates is projected to contract by 1.7 percent in 2009. Business Monitor International (2009).
  105. Betcherman and Islam (2001).
  106. Dustmann, Giltz, and Vogel (2006).
  107. OECD (2008a).
  108. Taylor (2009).
  109. Kalita (2009).
  110. The Straits Times (2009) and Son (2009).
  111. Local Government Association (2009).
  112. Preston (2009).
  113. Timmer and Williamson (1998).
  114. de Haas (2009).
  115. See Martin (2003) and Martin (2009a).
  116. Skeldon (1999) and Castles and Vezzoli (2009). There were deportations in order to demonstrate support for local workers, but once governments realized that locals were not interested in migrants' jobs, these restrictions were reversed.
  117. See for example Rodrik (2009) and Castles and Vezzoli (2009).
  118. While all forecasts are inherently uncertain, population projections tend to be quite accurate. The UN has produced 12 different estimates of the 2000 world population since 1950, and all but one of these estimates were within 4 percentage points of the actual number (Population Reference Bureau, 2001). One recent study found average prediction errors of the order of 2 percent even for age sub-groups of the population.
  119. However, these alternative solutions are in themselves costly: technological innovation to substitute for a globally abundant factor uses up resources, and raising retirement ages or contributions reduces leisure or consumption.
  120. Barnett and Webber (2009).
  121. IPCC (2007), chapter 9.
  122. Anthoff, Nicholls, Richard, and Vafeidis (2009).
  123. Revkin (2008).
  124. Myers (2005) and Christian Aid (2007).
  125. Barnett and Webber (2009).
  126. Stark (1991).
  127. Ezra and Kiros (2001).
  128. Black et al. (2008).
  129. Carvajal and Pereira (2009).
  130. UNDP (2007a) and UNDP (2008e).
  131. See Friedman (2005).
  132. Steinbeck (1939). On the Great Dust Bowl Migration see Worster (1979) and Gregory (1989). For the landmark 1941 US Supreme Court decision in the case of *California vs. Edwards* see ACLU (2003).
- ### Chapter 3
1. Clemens, Montenegro, and Pritchett (2008).
  2. McKenzie, Gibson, and Stillman (2006).
  3. Chiswick and Miller (1995).
  4. Sciortino and Punpuing (2009).
  5. Maksakova (2002).
  6. Commander, Chanda, Kangasniemi, and Winters (2008).
  7. Clemens (2009b).
  8. Harttgen and Klasen (2009). Migrants had lower income in two countries (Guatemala and Zambia) and there was no statistically significant difference in one (Viet Nam). See section 3.6.
  9. Del Popolo, Oyarce, Ribotta, and Rodríguez (2008).
  10. Srivastava and Sasikumar (2003), Ellis and Harris (2004) and ECLAC (2007).
  11. See Deshingkar and Akter (2009) on India and MOSWL, PTRC, and UNDP (2004) on Mongolia.
  12. Ghosh (2009).
  13. Gilbertson (1995).
  14. Zhou and Logan (1989).
  15. Cerrutti (2009).
  16. UNDP (2008d).
  17. Castles and Miller (1993) and ICFTU (2009).
  18. Bursell (2007) and Bovenkerk, Gras, Ramsøedh, Dankoor, and Havelaar (1995).
  19. Clark and Drinkwater (2008) and Dustmann and Fabbri (2005).
  20. Iredale (2001).
  21. Chiswick and Miller (1995).
  22. Reitz (2005).
  23. The social transfer programmes included in this analysis are all forms of universal and social insurance benefits, minus income and payroll taxes and social assistance (including all forms of targeted income-tested benefits). The poverty line is defined as half the median income. See Smeeding, Wing, and Robson (2009).
  24. These estimates may over- or underestimate the effect of transfers on poverty because the endogenous response of labour supply decisions to transfers is not factored in.
  25. Martin (2005) and Kaur (2007).

26. UNICEF (2005a).
27. Koslowski (2009).
28. McKenzie (2007) and United States Department of State (2006).
29. United States Department of State (2009a).
30. Agunias (2009) and Martin (2005).
31. Martin (2005).
32. Agunias (2009) and Martin (2005).
33. UNFPA (2006).
34. Ivakhnyuk (2009).
35. Martin (2009b).
36. Martin (2009b).
37. Gibson and McKenzie (2009).
38. The so-called 'healthy migrant effect' has been well documented; see, for example, Fennelly (2005).
39. Rossi (2008).
40. Jasso, Massey, Rosenzweig, and Smith (2004), using the US Citizenship and Immigration Service's New Immigrant Survey.
41. Ortega (2009).
42. Brockerhoff (1990).
43. Brockerhoff (1995) and Harttgen and Klasen (2009).
44. See Chiswick and Lee (2006), and Antecol and Bedard (2005). Another factor clouding these estimates is the possibility that 'regression to the mean' may account for part of the apparent deterioration in health. In particular, if not being ill is an important condition enabling migration, then those who migrate may include people who are not inherently healthier but who nevertheless have had the good luck not to fall ill. These people will also be more likely to fall ill after migrating than those whose lack of illness is due truly to good health.
45. Garcia-Gomez (2007) on Catalonia, Spain; Barros and Pereira (2009) on Portugal.
46. Stillman, McKenzie, and Gibson (2006), Steel, Silove, Chey, Bauman, and Phan T. (2005) and Nazroo (1997).
47. McKay, Macintyre, and Ellaway (2003).
48. Benach, Muntaner, and Santana (2007).
49. Whitehead, Hashim, and Iversen (2007).
50. Tiwari (2005).
51. Deshingkar and Akter (2009).
52. Some migrants gain access to services over time. For example, in many countries, asylum seekers who apply for refugee status often do not have access unless and until their application is successful. In other countries, Australia for example, payment of limited income support is available to some asylum seekers living in the community who have reached a certain stage in visa processing and meet other criteria (such as passing a means test).
53. Carballo (2007) and Goncalves, Dias, Luck, Fernandes, and Cabral (2003).
54. PICUM (2009).
55. Kaur (2007).
56. Landau and Wa Kabwe-Segatti (2009).
57. Hashim (2006) and Pilon (2003).
58. OECD (2008b).
59. Our commissioned research of HDI differences between internal migrants and non-migrants in 16 countries found that the educational level of migrants was higher in 10 countries, not significantly different in 4 and lower in 2 countries.
60. UNICEF (2008). Other studies find similar returns. For a comprehensive review of the evidence on early childhood interventions, see Heckman (2006).
61. Clauss and Nauck (2009).
62. For example, Norwegian authorities are obliged to inform refugee families about the importance and availability of ECD within three months of arrival.
63. For further information on undocumented migrants in Sweden, see PICUM (2009).
64. PICUM (2008a).
65. PICUM (2008a).
66. Landau and Wa Kabwe-Segatti (2009).
67. Rossi (2008).
68. Government of Azad Jammu and Kashmir (2003) and Poverty Task Force (2003).
69. Poverty Task Force (2003).
70. The Programme for International Student Assessment is a triennial survey of pupils aged 15 years.
71. OECD (2007). The Programme for International Student Assessment study focuses on science but also assesses reading and mathematics, which yielded similar comparisons.
72. Australia, France, Germany, Italy, Netherlands, Switzerland, United Kingdom and United States. See Hernandez (2009).
73. Portes and Rumbaut (2001).
74. Karsten et al. (2006), Nordin (2006) and Szulkin and Jonsson (2007).
75. Sen (1992).
76. Rawls (1971).
77. Hugo (2000).
78. Petros (2006), Zambrano and Katty (2005) and Mills (1997).
79. Içduygu (2009).
80. Piper (2005).
81. Ghosh (2009) and Kabeer (2000).
82. Del Popolo, Oyarcce, Ribotta, and Rodríguez (2008).
83. Cerrutti (2009).
84. Uhlaner, Cain, and Kiewiet (1989), Cho (1999), Rosenstone and Hansen (1993), Wolfinger and Rosenstone (1980) and Ramakrishnan and Espenshade (2001).
85. A standard deviation increase of 1 in destination country democracy, as measured by the Polity IV index, leads to an 11 log point increase in immigration, significant at 1 percent. See Cummins, Letouze, Purser, and Rodriguez (2009).
86. Landau (2005).
87. Ministry of Social Welfare and Labour, United Nations Population Fund, and Mongolian Population and Development Association (2005).
88. Crush and Ramachandran (2009).
89. Misago, Landau, and Monson (2009).
90. Pettigrew and Tropp (2005) and Pettigrew (1998).
91. Human Security Centre (2005) and Newman and van Selm (2003).
92. UNHCR (2008). There is no reliable estimate of the share of internally displaced people living in camps, but 70 percent are estimated to live with host-country relatives, families and communities.
93. IDMC (2008).
94. Bakewell and de Haas (2007).
95. van Hear, Brubaker, and Bessa (2009) and Crisp (2006).
96. Camps located in Bangladesh, Kenya, Nepal, Tanzania, Thailand and Uganda: de Bruijn (2009).
97. ECOSOC (1998). Presented to the UN Commission on Human Rights by the Representative of the Secretary General in 1998, the Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement set the basic standards and norms to guide governments, international organizations and all other relevant actors in providing assistance and protection to internally displaced persons in internal conflict situations, natural disasters and other situations of forced displacement worldwide.
98. Estimates in this paragraph come from IDMC (2008).
99. IDMC (2008) lists Azerbaijan, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Côte d'Ivoire, Croatia, Georgia, Lebanon, Liberia, Turkey and Uganda in this category. Noteworthy efforts include financial compensation as part of Turkey's return programme and specific efforts towards property restitution across the Balkans, which had largely been completed by 2007.
100. Ghosh (2009).
101. UNRWA (2008).
102. Gibney (2009) and Hatton and Williamson (2005). In the United Kingdom, for example, only 19 out of every 100 people who applied for asylum in 2007 were recognized as refugees and had their applications granted, while another nine who applied for asylum but did not qualify were given permission to stay for humanitarian or other reasons.
103. UNHCR (2008).
104. UNRWA-ECOSOC (2008).
105. UNHCR (2002).
106. See, for example, UNECA (2005).
107. Robinson (2003).
108. Bartolome, de Wet, Mander, and Nagraj (2000), p. 7.
109. See IIED and WBCSD (2003), Global IDP Project and Norwegian Refugee Council (2005) and Survival International (2007).
110. La Rovere and Mendes (1999).
111. For World Bank, CIEL (2009); there are other examples: for ADB, see Asian Development Bank (2009); for IDB, see IDB (2009).
112. UNDP (2007b).
113. UNODC (2009).
114. Clert, Gomart, Aleksic, and Otel (2005).
115. See, for example, Carling (2006).
116. USAID (2007).
117. Laczo and Danailova-Trainor (2009).
118. Koser (2008).
119. Ortega (2009).
120. Harttgen and Klasen (2009).
121. These numbers are taken from the 2005/2006 World Values Survey. The survey records whether at least one parent is a migrant, which we use as a proxy for migrant status. These particular results are consistent with data from the 1995 World Values Survey, which show whether or not the respondent is foreign-born.

Chapter 4

1. Sarreal (2002).
2. Yang (2009).
3. UNDP (2008b).
4. For a list of least and most costly international corridors, see World Bank (2009c).
5. Stark (1991).
6. Savage and Harvey (2007).
7. Yang (2008a).
8. Yang and Choi (2007).
9. Halliday (2006).
10. Ratha and Mohapatra (2009a). This is the 'base case' scenario, which assumes that new migration flows to major destination countries will be zero, implying that the stock of existing migrants will remain unchanged.
11. Fajnzylber and Lopez (2007).
12. Schiff (1994).
13. Kapur (2004).
14. Zhu and Luo (2008).
15. Lucas and Chappell (2009).
16. Deshingkar and Akter (2009).
17. Rayhan and Grote (2007).
18. Beegle, De Weerd, and Dercon (2008).
19. Deb and Seck (2009).
20. Murison (2005). For example, Bangladeshi women working in the Middle East remit up to 72 percent of their earnings on average, and Colombian women working in Spain remit more than men (68 versus 54 percent).
21. Docquier, Rapoport, and Shen (2003) and Stark, Taylor, and Yitzhaki (1986).
22. Adelman and Taylor (1988) and Durand, Kandel, Emilio, and Massey (1996).
23. Yang (2009).
24. Massey et al. (1998), Taylor et al. (1996) and Berriane (1997).
25. Behrman et al. (2008).
26. Adelman and Taylor (1988), Durand, Kandel, Emilio, and Massey (1996) and Stark (1980) (1980).
27. Adams Jr. (2005), Cox Edwards and Ureta (2003) and Yang (2008b).
28. Adams Jr. (2005).
29. Mansuri (2006).
30. Deb and Seck (2009).
31. Fan and Stark (2007) and Stark, Helmenstein, and Prskawetz (1997).
32. Chand and Clemens (2008).
33. Castles and Delgado Wise (2008).
34. McKenzie and Rapoport (2006).
35. Ha, Yi, and Zhang (2009a).
36. Frank and Hummer (2002).
37. Hildebrandt, McKenzie, Esquivel, and Schargrodsky (2005).
38. Wilson (2003).
39. Cerrutti (2009).
40. Bowlby (1982), Cortes (2008), Smith, Lalaonde, and Johnson (2004) and Suarez-Orozco, Todorova, and Louie (2002).
41. For a review of gender empowerment and migration see Ghosh (2009).
42. King and Vullnetari (2006).
43. See Deshingkar and Grimm (2005).
44. Fargues (2006).
45. Beine, Docquier, and Schiff (2008).
46. Hampshire (2006) and King, Skeldon, and Vullnetari (2008).
47. Cordova and Hiskey (2009). The countries covered were Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico and Nicaragua.
48. See the review of this literature in Clemens (2009b).
49. Lipton (1980) and Rubenstein (1992).
50. Tirtosudarmo (2009).
51. World Bank (2009e), p. 165.
52. Docquier and Rapoport (2004) and Dumont, Martin, and Spielvogel (2007).
53. An analogy can be drawn with the sharp decline in the skills and qualifications of schoolteachers in the United States over the past half century, which is attributed to the fact that skilled women now have a much broader range of career choices available to them than teaching (Corcoran, William, and Schwab, 2004).
54. Saxenian (2002).
55. Commander, Chanda, Kangasniemi, and Winters (2008).
56. Saxenian (2006).
57. The World Bank, which has been closely tracking flows, estimates that unrecorded flows would add at least 50 percent to the total remittance figure.
58. Chami, Fullenkamp, and Jahjah (2005) and Leon-Ledesma and Piracha (2004).
59. Eckstein (2004) and Ahoure (2008).
60. World Bank (2006b) and Kireyev (2006).
61. Buch, Kuckulenz, and Le Manchec (2002) and de Haas and Plug (2006).
62. Taylor, Moran-Taylor and Ruiz (2006).
63. de Haas (2006).
64. Levitt (1998) and Levitt (2006).
65. Quirk (2008).
66. World Bank (2009a).
67. World Bank (2009a).
68. Massey, Arango, Hugo, Kouaouci, Pellegrino and Taylor (1993) and Thomas-Hope (2009).
69. Adesina (2007).
70. Ali (2009).
71. Bakewell (2009).
72. Ba, Awumbila, Ndiaye, Kassibo, and Ba (2008).
73. Jonsson (2007).
74. Black, Natali and Skinner (2005).
75. If the incomes and consumption of those abroad were included in these measures of inequality the distribution would widen considerably, since incomes abroad are so much higher.
76. Taylor, Mora, Adams, and Lopez-Feldman (2005) for Mexico; Yang (2009) for Thailand.
77. Ha, Yi, and Zhang (2009b).
78. Goldring (2004) and Lacroix (2005).
79. Orozco and Rouse (2007) and Zamora (2007).
80. HDR team estimates based on figures cited in Anonuevo and Anonuevo (2008).
81. Tabar (2009).
82. Spilimbergo (2009).
83. Iskander (2009).
84. Castles and Delgado Wise (2008).
85. Massey et al. (1998).
86. Eckstein (2004), Massey et al. (1998), Newland and Patrick (2004) and van Hear, Pieke, and Vertovec (2004).
87. Gamlen (2006) and Newland and Patrick (2004).
88. IMF and World Bank (1999).
89. Jobbins (2008) and Martin (2008).
90. Black and Sward (2009).
91. These countries are Australia, Austria, Belgium, Canada, France, Germany, Ireland, Luxembourg, Netherlands, New Zealand, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland and United States; see Statistical Table A. The share of foreign-born migrants in the United Kingdom was estimated at about 9 percent at that time.
92. Van der Mensbrugge and Roland-Holst (2009). These simulations extend and update those presented in World Bank (2006b).
93. Ortega and Peri (2009).
94. See Barrell, Fitzgerald, and Railey (2007). In the United States, Borjas (1999) estimated the aggregate effect to be positive but small, at 0.1 percent of GDP.
95. Hunt and Gauthier-Loiselle (2008).
96. See, for example, the Council of the European Union (2009).
97. See, *inter alia*, Baumol, Litan, and Schramm (2007) and Zucker and Darby (2008).
98. OECD (2008b).
99. EurActiv.com News (2008).
100. Martin (2009b).
101. This finding must be qualified because of the inability to distinguish the labour supply (immigrants tend to work in these restaurants) from labour demand effects (if they consume there); see Mazzolari and Neumark (2009).
102. For example, 38 percent of Britons believe this is the case: Dustmann, Frattini, and Preston (2008a).
103. For instance, see Longhi, Nijkamp, and Poot (2005), Ottaviano and Peri (2008), and Münz, Straubhaar, Vadean, and Vadean (2006).
104. For Spain, see Carrasco, Jimeno, and Ortega (2008), for France, Constant (2005), for the United Kingdom, Dustmann, Frattini, and Preston (2008).
105. See, for example, Borjas (1995). A substitute is when an increased supply of one input lowers the price of the other input, while a complement is when an increased supply raises the price of the other input.
106. For example, in the United States, workers with less than high-school education may in most respects be perfect substitutes for high-school graduates, throwing doubt on the assumption that completion per se matters; see Card (2009).
107. Kremer and Watt (2006) and Castles and Miller (1993).
108. For a survey, see Münz, Straubhaar, Vadean, and Vadean (2006).
109. Reyneri (1998).
110. The first estimate comes from Borjas (2003), for the period 1980–2000, while the second comes from Ottaviano and Peri (2008) and refers to the 1990–2006 period. Using Borjas's methodology for the 1990–2006 period gives an estimate of -7.8 percent (Ottaviano and Peri (2008), p. 59). The approaches differ in their assumptions regarding the substitutability between high-school dropouts and high-school graduates. See also Card (1990) and Borjas, Grogger, and Hanson (2008).
111. Peri, Sparber, and Drive (2008); Amuedo-Dorantes and de la Rica (2008) for Spain.

112. Manacorda, Manning, and Wadsworth (2006).
  113. Angrist and Kugler (2003).
  114. Jayaweera and Anderson (2009).
  115. Bryant and Rukumnuaykit (2007).
  116. Suen (2002).
  117. A comprehensive discussion of this issue can be found in World Bank (2009e).
  118. Henderson, Shalizi, and Venables (2001).
  119. Amis (2002).
  120. The Cities Alliance (2007).
  121. Dreze and Sen (1999).
  122. Kundu (2009).
  123. See Hossain, Khan, and Seeley (2003) and Afsar (2003).
  124. Hanson (2009).
  125. For example, Borjas (1995) and Lee and Miller (2000).
  126. IMF (2009b).
  127. Hanson, Scheve, and Slaughter (2007).
  128. Facchini and Mayda (2008).
  129. Brucker et al. (2002). Countries with greater migrant dependence on welfare included Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France and Netherlands, while those with less dependence included Germany, Greece, Spain, Portugal and United Kingdom.
  130. Vasquez, Alloza, Vegas, and Bertozzi (2009).
  131. Rowthorn (2008).
  132. Alternative estimates could be derived by considering the entire future stream of taxes and spending associated with immigrants and their dependents, plus future generations. However, estimating the net present value would be very difficult given all the assumptions needed about people's future behaviour (fertility, schooling, employment prospects, and so on), so in practice a static approach is used: see Rowthorn (2008). Some authors have estimated the net present fiscal value of an immigrant in the United States and have found largely positive estimates; see Lee and Miller (2000).
  133. Lucassen (2005).
  134. IPC (2007).
  135. Butcher and Piehl (1998).
  136. Australian Institute of Criminology (1999).
  137. Savona, Di Nicola, and Da Col (1996).
  138. However, particularly in medium-HDI countries (such as Egypt, Indonesia, Islamic Republic of Iran, Jordan, South Africa and Thailand), a significant proportion did favour more restrictions on access. Similarly, in countries with higher income inequality, people were more likely to favour limiting migration and said that employers should give priority to local people when jobs are scarce. See Kleemans and Klugman (2009).
  139. Zimmermann (2009).
  140. Massey and Sánchez R. (2009).
  141. O'Rourke and Sinnott (2003).
  142. Earnest (2008).
  143. Several studies have investigated the long-run effects of immigration on political values, with differing results. Bueker (2005) finds significant differences in turnout and participation among US voters of different immigrant backgrounds, while Rodríguez and Wagner (2009) find that the well-documented patterns of civic engagement and attitudes towards redistribution across different regions of Italy are not reflected in the political behaviour of Italians from these regions who are living in Venezuela.
  144. Castles and Miller (1993).
  145. Kleemans and Klugman (2009).
- Chapter 5**
1. Scheve and Slaughter (2007).
  2. This chapter does not provide a comprehensive review of policies that are relevant to migration, since these have been well documented elsewhere: see OECD (2008b), IOM (2008a), Migration Policy Group and British Council (2007) and ILO (2004).
  3. Agunias (2009) and Klugman and Pereira (2009).
  4. Government of Sweden (2008).
  5. Khoo, Hugo, and McDonald (2008) and Klugman and Pereira (2009).
  6. See ICMPD (2009) for an excellent review.
  7. Papademetriou (2005).
  8. ICMPD (2009), p. 47.
  9. For example, in the United Kingdom the Foreign and Commonwealth Office team working on promoting the return of irregular migrants and failed asylum seekers is currently five times larger than the team focused on migration and development in the Department for International Development. See Black and Sward (2009).
  10. Hagan, Eschbach, and Rodríguez (2008).
  11. Migrant Forum in Asia (2006) and Human Rights Watch (2005b).
  12. See European Parliament (2008); on criticisms, see, for example, Amnesty International (2008).
  13. UNHCR (2007).
  14. See international conventions on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR 1966), on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR 1966), on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (ICERD 1966), on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW 1979), Against Torture, and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (CAT 1984), and on the Rights of the Child (CRC 1989). The ratification rates are lowest among Asian and Middle Eastern states (47 percent) and stand at 58 and 70 percent for Latin America and Africa respectively. While 131 countries have ratified all six core human rights treaties, some of these treaties have more than 131 signatories. The total number of parties to individual treaties can be found in the Statistical Annex.
  15. ICCPR Art 2, 26; ICESCR Art 2; see Opekin (2009).
  16. The European Community, which is listed as a separate signatory, is not included here.
  17. IOM (2008b), p. 62.
  18. UNODC (2009).
  19. See for example Carling (2006) (on trafficking from Nigeria) and de Haas (2008).
  20. December 18 vzw (2008).
  21. Alvarez (2005) and Betts (2008).
  22. Martin and Abimourchad (2008).
  23. PICUM (2008b).
  24. Kleemans and Klugman (2009).
  25. For examples of such activities, see the Joint Initiative of the European Commission and the United Nations (EC-UN Joint Migration and Development Initiative, 2008). The joint initiative has at its heart a knowledge management platform of activities related to remittances, communities, capacities and rights led by civil society and local authorities. See GFMD (2008).
  26. Martin (2009b) and Agunias (2009).
  27. McKenzie (2007).
  28. Martin (2005), p. 20.
  29. Martin (2009a), p. 47.
  30. Hamel (2009).
  31. Martin (2009a).
  32. Horst (2006).
  33. The 1997 ILO Convention on Private Employment Agencies prohibits the charging of fees to workers, but this has been ratified by only 21 countries.
  34. Agunias (2008), Ruhunage (2006) and Siddiqui (2006).
  35. Betcherman, Olivas, and Dar (2004) review the effectiveness of active labour market programmes, drawing on 159 evaluations in developing and developed countries.
  36. Martin (2009b) and Sciortino and Punpuing (2009).
  37. See Colombo Process (2008).
  38. Marquette (2006).
  39. Christensen and Stanat (2007).
  40. Success for All Foundation (2008).
  41. Misago, Landau, and Monson (2009).
  42. This might include, for example, leaflets explaining who does what and where to go to complain.
  43. World Bank (2002).
  44. Zamble (2008).
  45. One World Net (2008).
  46. Council of Europe (2006).
  47. Martin (2009a).
  48. Government of Western Australia (2004).
  49. Deshingkar and Akter (2009), pp. 38-40.
  50. UN (2008a).
  51. The Cities Alliance (2007).
  52. Black and Sward (2009).
  53. For example, in Myanmar, college graduates must reimburse the government for the cost of their education before they can receive a passport; United States Department of State (2009c).
  54. As Ranis and Stewart (2000) note, while there are many paths to good human development performance, in general successes have been characterized by initiatives that give priority to girls and women (education, incomes), effective expenditure policies (e.g. Chile) and good economic performance (e.g. Viet Nam).
  55. Kleemans and Klugman (2009).
  56. Sides and Citrin (2007).
  57. Facchini and Mayda (2009).
  58. Ghosh (2007).
  59. Bedford (2008).

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