

INTRODUCTION

MIGRATION CHALLENGES IN THE 21ST CENTURY¹

BACKGROUND

MIGRATION is a multifaceted and complex global issue, which today touches every country in the world. All 190 or so sovereign states of the world are now either points of origin, transit or destination for migrants; often all three at once. The UN's current official estimate remains at 175 million migrants globally. By extrapolating the growth of the known migrant stocks for the period 1990–2000, the UN Population Division predicted a total of between 185 million and 192 million migrants by early 2005 (UN, 2004a).²

At 2.9 per cent, the share of migrants in global population numbers is not high, though their presence and visibility in social, economic and political terms can be, particularly given the uncounted share of irregular migrants. The majority of migrants are concentrated in a relatively small number of advanced industrialized countries. Of these, almost half are women (49% in 2000), a proportion that has changed little in recent decades, despite an increase in the participation of women in migration, particularly in Africa or Asia, where women nevertheless remain under-represented (see chapter 23).

Migration flows have shifted in recent years with the changing poles of attraction for labour migration; for example more Asians are finding job opportunities within Asia itself, while more Latin Americans are

moving to work in Europe. High labour force participation by migrants in Europe, the US and Australia confirms that economic incentives remain high for migration to those market economies. The UN also confirms the significant contribution of migration to population growth in Australia, the US and some European countries (ibid). Yet, reliable data on actual migration flows continue to be scarce.

The world is changing, and migration is contributing to that change. For instance, Ireland, traditionally a country of emigration, had one of the fastest growing immigrant populations in Europe in the early years of the 21st century (chapter 7); Germany, a country that until recently saw itself as a non-immigration country, has passed an Immigration Bill, to come into effect in 2005, and the UK recently elected its first local councillor of Somali origin.³ Similar stories are recurring throughout the world. But the nature of migration is also changing. Taking the UK example, history and geographic proximity are no longer the primary drivers of migration, as more countries outside the British Commonwealth and the EU have become large net exporters of people to the UK.

World Migration 2005 examines these and other international migration trends from a geographic, thematic and statistical perspective with a view to updating and offering policymakers relevant data and models to inform policy decisions prompted by such developments. The thematic focus on costs and benefits of international migration points to the fact that policy decisions are determined by social,

1. The authors of this chapter are Irena Omelaniuk, Editor-in-Chief, and Thomas Lothar Weiss, IOM Regional Representative, Helsinki.

2. These UN statistics are based on data from governments, which can include some irregular migrants (chapter 23).

3. In Toxteth, Liverpool, *The Economist*, October 9, 2004, p. 38.

economic and political considerations of the causes and effects of migration. The report is accordingly organized into three sections:

- 1) *Regional Overview – Selected Geographic Regions*: a factual tour of the migration patterns and policy responses in the major regions of the world.
- 2) *Costs and Benefits of International Migration* – a selection of essays on how migration can benefit and cost migrants, societies and governments in social, economic and political terms, particularly at its interface with labour markets, development, integration, health and institutional structures.
- 3) *Migration Data and Statistics* – maps, tables and texts to illustrate a wide range of issues covered in this report.

EMERGING KEY TRENDS

MUCH has happened in the two years since World Migration 2003, for example international dialogue and cooperation on migration has intensified in the Western Mediterranean region through the “5+5” conferences; in Asia through the Labour Ministers’ Consultations, the Bali Process workshops or Pacific Immigration Directors’ conferences; in Africa through continent-wide consultations towards a strategic migration policy framework; in Geneva through the “GMG” meetings of heads of international organizations,⁴ and the further globalization of the Swiss Government-led Berne Initiative; the founding of the Global Commission on International Migration (GCIM), and various global migration policy dialogues held by IOM in cooperation with WTO, the World Bank, WHO, DFID and others. These are just some examples of the burgeoning international dialogue around migration (chapter 22).⁵

At the same time, migration laws, institutional structures and procedures have tightened – particularly in the US and other immigration countries – as part of the broader efforts to combat terrorism. These are affecting migration patterns and the distribution of their costs and benefits, as well as relations between governments. Restrictive migration regimes contradict the increasingly open flow of goods, capital and foreign direct investments (UN, 2004b), an asymmetry that increasingly tries to correct itself through irregular and clandestine migration.

National and international development agencies are also more actively engaged today in evaluating and harnessing the benefits from migration for the development of countries and regions of origin with remittance management high on everybody’s agenda.

While many of the usual pressures and motivations for migration remain – widening disparities in income and employment, low education and life opportunities, environmental degradation, political upheaval and armed conflict, poverty and human rights abuse – the types of migration are changing rapidly. More people today are moving temporarily, often staying longer, but then returning to their countries of origin. Overseas study options are expanding at a rapid and competitive pace among such countries as Australia, China, Japan, Germany, the UK and the US, increasingly opening ways into other, longer term skilled migration categories. Today, some 40 per cent of Australia’s skilled migrants are drawn from the overseas student caseload, a trend noticeable also in Canada, the US and Europe.

With increased temporary migration, particularly of highly skilled persons, voluntary return has become a major feature of migration in recent years. As one author writes, today’s migration of the highly skilled is characterized by “hypermobility involving remi-

4. The “Geneva Migration Group” comprises the heads of ILO, IOM, OHCHR, UNCTAD, UNHCR and UNODC, and meets regularly to discuss how migration cross-cuts with trade, labour, development, health, security, crime et al.

5. For a comprehensive listing of meetings held under the auspices of ongoing regional integration processes – e.g. in the EU, Central and South America, Africa, Asia, the Middle East and Oceania, see chapters 1–7 and chapter 22. There are also regular international conferences and dialogues held by ILO, IOM, UNHCR, WHO, WTO and others.

gration and return” (Hugo et al., 2001, p. 19). This is most widespread in countries experiencing vigorous economic growth, e.g. China, the Taiwan Province of China and Korea, or where there are financial and career incentives to return home (chapter 16).

There is talk of a “new transnational model of skills sharing” (chapter 8), and a new emphasis by both sending and receiving countries on return and circulation of skills (chapter 11). For developed countries, particularly in Europe, North America, East Asia and Oceania, immigration offers an alternative source of people and labour at a time of declining population and labour supply, and a reassessment of policies towards migration (Chamie, 2003). For developing countries, it can help relieve surplus labour, unemployment and population pressures at home. The report explores the strategic and economic advantages of temporary foreign labour schemes (chapters 9, 10), bilateral labour agreements to support these (Textbox 12.2), and electronic visa systems to expedite cross-border business travel (chapter 22). The General Agreement on Trade in Services framework could enhance the positive contribution of migration by offering more predictability and market access for temporary labour migrants (chapter 9).

Alongside this is the complex networking between migrant *diasporas* and their home countries. Globalization has greatly expanded the means by which migrants can remain actively involved in the economic, cultural, social and political life of sending countries. Financial remittances, internet communications and travel, diaspora and hometown associations, and other mechanisms for expatriates to reside abroad and maintain ties with their country of origin are today creating powerful tools for development (chapters 14 and 15). While not a new phenomenon, these are acquiring a new sophistication in Latin America, Asia and Africa, partly through policy and institutional adjustments by governments, partly through the initiatives of the

migrants, and partly through internationally-supported programmes like IOM’s MIDA.⁶

Another significant feature of contemporary migration is the large *emigration* flows out of traditional immigration countries, both of nationals and migrants. These are mostly temporary and work related, but can also lead to more permanent resettlement and reflect the general *laissez faire*ism of skilled migration in a globalized world. For the first time, immigration countries like Australia, New Zealand and the UK are seriously examining their real or perceived “brain drain”, with Australia considering its options for attracting back highly skilled and talented *émigrés* (chapter 6).

Another pervasive theme of the report is gender, which in itself would warrant a separate report in the context of migration (chapters 2, 6, 11, 13, 19, 23). Women and men circulate differently in the global economy (Kofman, 2003), women predominantly entering (or being entered into) the services and welfare sectors; and apparently featuring in skilled migration streams only if admission policies are specifically developed for their preferred occupations (e.g. the previous H1A visa to recruit nurses and carers for the US) (chapter 11). Migrant women play increasingly important roles as family providers and development agents in parts of Africa, Southeast Asia and South Asia, yet few data are collected on their remittance patterns. They also make up the majority of victims of trafficking in persons in the world.⁷ They comprise 70 per cent of the estimated 25 million persons internally displaced by conflict, yet are generally not invited to the peace negotiating tables (Textbox 1.1). This report draws attention to the fact that there is insufficient gender analysis in the migration field.

The report also shows how changes in migration patterns can reflect changes in approach to managing and collecting information on migration. For example, the surge of immigration in Europe at the

6. *Migration for Development in Africa Programme launched in 2000* (see chapters 2 and 16).

7. *US Victims of Trafficking and Violence Prevention Act, Section 102, 2000.*

beginning of the 21st century can be partly explained by some of the large-scale regularization initiatives in southern European states, which make migrant populations statistically more visible (chapter 7).

Many of the current patterns can be ascribed generally to globalization, but have also been greatly influenced by government policies. In 2004, the UN called for greater investment in migration policies that are balanced and avoid unnecessary social costs.⁸ For example, where integration policies are absent or inadequate, migrants' lack of access to welfare can cause immeasurable social and financial costs; just as early policy interventions against trafficking can help reduce the risks and accompanying costs for poorer migrants, in particular women in vulnerable circumstances.

With increasing visibility and importance, migration also attracts more controversy, in both sending and receiving states, which in turn influences policies. While migration from poor countries to wealthy countries, and the possible return of migrants to their countries of origin, can offer good opportunities for advancing welfare and income in both countries of origin and destination, the divergent interests of economics and politics can make it difficult, if not impossible, to evaluate the costs and benefits of international migration – and to explain them publicly. Effects that look like benefits from an economic viewpoint might look like costs from the political perspective (*The Economist*, May 6, 2004).

World Migration 2005 aims to fill the most common gaps of knowledge about migration, and to do so by evaluating social, economic and political costs and benefits of migration, and pointing to areas for further research, to foster balanced public debate and policymaking.

STRUCTURE OF THE WORLD MIGRATION 2005 REPORT

REGIONAL OVERVIEW OF MIGRATION

The report begins with overviews of recent migration trends in the major world regions. It highlights the new importance of migration as an engine for regional cooperation in Africa, and how the African Union's Vision and Strategic Plan 2004–2007 places the diaspora at the centre of its aspirations to maximize the benefits of migration for development in Africa. 2004 saw the start of implementation of the OAU/AU decision of 2001 (Lusaka Decision) to develop a strategic migration policy framework for Africa (chapters 1 and 2). New attention is given to the Middle East and the western Mediterranean regions, and their complex, volatile intra- and inter-regional labour migration dynamics. Emerging cooperation within these and with other regions is seen as critical for future successful management of migration, for example through the current efforts of the "5+5" process between the Maghreb and southern European states (chapters 3 and 4).

The vast and complex migrant sending-receiving dynamics of the Americas are explored in terms of the measures and institutional changes effected by the US and Canada in the wake of the September 11 events, many of which have come to fruition in 2003 and 2004. The region is an important crucible for regional cooperation such as under the "Puebla Process",⁹ and for pioneering work in remittance management. Migration in that region has become more internationalized, with more people emigrating to Europe rather than intra-regionally (chapter 5).

This is a recent pattern also in Asia, the primary source of most of the world's immigrant-receiving countries. Asia offers some important models of

8. See the 92nd session of the International Labour Conference, June, 2004, and the UN Secretary General's lecture at Columbia University, 2003, where he observed that restrictive policies can inadvertently lead to human rights abuse (e.g. irregular migrants have less access to occupational health and safety) (Annan, 2003).

9. Regional Conference on Migration begun in 1996 in Mexico (see chapter 22).

labour emigration and diaspora management (for example in the Philippines and China). The intensified trade and economic activities spur both large-scale labour migration and huge irregular movements, with all the attendant health and human rights problems. The Oceania region, with its large immigrant-receiving states Australia and New Zealand, is today working more cooperatively to manage the growing incidence of smuggling and trafficking into and through the region; and to strengthen the capacities of its members, such as Papua New Guinea and other Pacific states, to cope with new migration challenges (chapter 6).

The *Europe* chapter highlights the critical demography-migration interplay for Europe; and the difficulty of collecting and using migration data across a region where definitions and concepts vary widely. Statistics reveal much about the prevailing immigration policy culture of a state; for example, statistics on foreign nationals are usually much higher in countries with low naturalization rates. The chapter provides an update on current EU priorities such as integration and border management, and common EU policies on asylum and migration achieved by 2004. In spite of the EU enlargement after 1 May 2004, Europe will need to develop proactive immigration policies after 2010, and draw more migrants from outside Europe, in order to remain competitive with other major immigrant receiving regions in the world (chapter 7).

Common themes covered in the regional chapters include the feminization of migration in some regions, the growing challenges of migration health, in particular HIV/AIDS, and the need for urgent, joint measures to combat migrant smuggling and trafficking in persons. These issues are further contextualized in the thematic chapters.

COSTS AND BENEFITS OF INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION – THE THEMATIC CHAPTERS

THE THEMATIC section of the report looks principally at the impacts of migration in terms of social, economic and political costs and benefits, and the investments of migrants, governments and societies in their attempts to steer migration to their benefit. It shows that the costs and benefits of migration tend to be unequally distributed across sectors and between sending and receiving countries. Looking at impacts, some chapters also consider causes, as the two are closely interlinked, and early actions can minimize costs further down the migration track. (chapters 8, 9, 13, 19, 20). The impetus for this theme has come from governments themselves, which increasingly need to be accountable for their policy choices in this complex area, with inadequate information and tools at their disposal.¹⁰

The overview chapter of this section (chapter 8) cautions that economic considerations alone do not determine migration policies; but economic arguments, notably about benefits and costs of migration, can play a critical part in policy making. It explores those arguments, over time and through theoretical models and empirical studies, and shows how they confirm the all-round beneficial effect of migration, with gains to all, or nearly all, involved – depending on contextual factors. It laments the lack of a sound and comprehensive analytical framework for assessing the effects of migration, but shows how this assessment could be achieved by pulling together all available theories, analyses, and empirical evidence in a balanced way.

Migration can have a minimal negative effect on wages, employment and welfare systems in receiving countries, but this is highly variable and dependent on the timeframe and contextual factors, including government policies. For example, the extent to

10. See Papademetriou, 2003: "policy-makers are ... asked to make virtually instant calculations about complex cost-benefit ratios across a maddening array of policy domains – and all that with grossly inadequate information and crude policy tools."

which immigrants may use welfare systems depends heavily on the integration policy of the receiving society (ibid). But successful integration can also create an environment conducive to productive diaspora activity of mutual longer-term benefit to the migrants and sending and receiving countries.

As new patterns of transnational mobility emerge, governments need to consider the trade potential of migration in the context of GATS (Textbox 9.1).¹¹ The greater openness of some GATS signatories to temporary labour schemes, and the palpable support of immigration to population planning in those countries, challenges GATS negotiators to expand the scope, or interpretation of the GATS provisions for temporary labour migration. Market openness makes migration work best. Some economists even see a far greater potential for economic growth in migration than in new trade rounds or international financial structures (chapter 9). The question is how to value migration in order to understand its beneficial force, and devise appropriate policies to manage this.

LABOUR MIGRATION

International labour migration generates a complex set of economic and social costs and benefits for the receiving country, migrant workers and their countries of origin. Families often pool their economic resources to send one member into the world to improve their lot back home; and an intricate network of recruiters, employers, immigration authorities, relatives and friends abroad makes the rest of the process possible (ibid).

All chapters in this section demonstrate the overall benefits of migration for receiving countries and the potential gains for sending countries. Most economists welcome migration of all types of workers from lower to higher-wage countries, since it tends to allocate scarce labour resources to their highest value use, allowing maximal global production. The economic gains from immigration are small but positive, with the benefits however invariably

distributed unequally. Most gains accrue to the migrants and owners of capital, and can have positive flow-on effects for global GDP levels. The “losers” are often the local workers with similar skills to the migrants, but again the overall losses seem minimal (ibid). It is also difficult to measure the longer-term integration or diversity costs of labour migration (chapters 9 and 17).

The consequences may sometimes conflict with each other and therefore policies cannot be decided without certain trade-offs. One expert concludes that this makes the design of labour immigration policy an inherently moral exercise, requiring a discussion of values and ethics rather than just facts. Policy makers often have to choose between economic efficiencies, unequal wage distribution and human rights, and determine the most sustainable policy options for the individual, society, the country, the region and the world. Sorting the potential from real trade-offs is an important task for empirical research (chapter 10).

A cogent and cost/benefits-based argument is made in favour of a new and expanded Temporary Foreign Workers’ programme as a realistic, cost-effective and rights-based policy option for governments in a world of globalized economies on the one hand, and sovereign migration management cultures on the other (chapter 10). Bilateral labour agreements are one way of framing such an approach (Textbox 12.1). The Philippines offers an important model of a highly regulated large-scale and widely marketed labour export programme, with or without bilateral agreements. It supports the case for inclusive government approaches (involving ministries of labour, foreign affairs, finance, interior and justice), and for comprehensive policies to protect migrants and enhance their new role as growth and development agents at both ends of the migration spectrum (chapter 12).

Skilled migration patterns in the Asia-Pacific region demonstrate how sending and receiving countries with vastly different economies and approaches to

11. *General Agreement on Trade in Services* (see the Textbox “Trade and Migration: GATS Mode 4” in chapter 9).

migration, ranging from the giant growth economies of China, Japan, Korea and the Taiwan Province of China to the poorer economies of Bangladesh, plan and manage labour migration. The benefits for receiving countries, or for sending countries with large economies, are well documented. But the costs for smaller, economically weaker sending countries, or for migrants in vulnerable situations, are not sufficiently known and factored into migration policies. There is a call for more ethical approaches by migrant receivers (chapter 11).

MIGRATION AND DEVELOPMENT

The relationship between migration and development is complex and difficult to assess, yet many national and international development agencies are seriously exploring ways of reaping the development gains from migration.¹² Public perceptions are often negative: migration grows out of and causes further poverty both in the sending and receiving country. Experts have examined the cause-effect relationship between migration and poverty and concluded that sometimes, where poverty does seem to result from migration and displacements, it is rather the result of poor policy planning (chapter 13).

The report looks at some still neglected research areas such as the potential for migration-induced poverty to generate destabilizing social movements, i.e. through the vicious cycle of migration-poverty- destruction- more poverty- more migration. Despite the paucity of data, there is emerging evidence that emigration brings relative benefits in terms of reducing absolute poverty, although not necessarily lessening deprivation (or perceptions of it). It is not a panacea for broad-based poverty (UK, 2004).

Remittances – a pervasive theme in the report (chapters 8, 9, 13, 14, 15) – are high on the agendas of governments and development agencies around the world, as they now seriously rival official development aid in many countries. All authors agree that remittances can help alleviate poverty under certain

circumstances. One expert on Latin America and the Caribbean sees migrant remittances as critical for drawing developing countries into the global economy, particularly through the intermediation of migrant communities (hometown associations) (chapter 15).

Household surveys conducted over the past two years in Latin America, Europe and Asia confirm the beneficial impact of remittances on vulnerable households (making up 80 per cent of household income for recipients in Armenia, for example (chapters 13, 14, 15)). Migration impacts sometimes play themselves out most significantly at the local level, and in the economic tensions between rural and urban development (chapter 13).

But the effect of remittances as development aids is often limited. For example, migrants who settle abroad and have their family join them are likely to contribute less to development through remittances. Experts warn against an over-reliance on remittances, and urge that they be seen as an initial investment in longer-term economic growth rather than a way of life (chapters 13 and 14). They should also not be concentrated in one sector to the disadvantage of others (e.g. construction over agriculture).

Some major growing economies in Asia are seeing a shift from *brain drain* to *brain gain*, also as a result of increasingly pro-active policies to attract back émigrés with newly acquired skills and education (China, Philippines, India). Governments ranging from Morocco to Bangladesh have established ministries/departments or agencies to deal with their *émigré* communities (including the Hassan II Foundation for Moroccans living abroad and the “amicales” (friendly associations) created by Maghreb countries to act on behalf of their governments as official or associated offices to manage expatriate affairs and relations with host countries (chapter 4).

Regarding the role migrants can play in supporting development of their home countries, one author

12. See, for example: Newland, 2004; UK House of Commons, 2004; and the World Bank, 2004.

corrects a frequently made complaint that remittance costs are too high. In fact, transfer costs can be quite low in some places, such as the Philippines where they range from less than one per cent to 2.5 per cent. High costs can also be caused by inefficiencies in the regulatory framework, e.g. ad hoc rules can often hinder competition in the remittance industry (chapter 14). Governments may need to be circumspect about imposing management strategies on migrants and their families at the expense of household survival strategies: obliging remittance recipients to save more and consume less could reduce their personal welfare. Regulatory and compliance requirements should as far as possible be harmonized between sending and receiving countries.

One chapter explores the potential for sending countries to gain from the improved human capital of their returning migrants. Given the vagaries of migration, and the vast differences in institutional capacities and approaches across sending and receiving countries, this requires careful planning and cooperation, particularly of incentives for return, and involving migrants and home communities in jointly drawing the benefits from this (chapter 16).

There is still insufficient analysis of the contribution of migrants to development – both skilled and unskilled; or of such social issues as gender and the economic participation of women; and the extent to which temporary labour migration schemes can factor in the potential gains of both virtual and actual return of migrants and their families.

MIGRANT INTEGRATION

At a time of growing resistance to migration in many receiving countries, effective policies aimed at socio-economic inclusion of migrants in their host communities can generate immediate and longer-term benefits for all involved. Better access to employment, education and support services can help migrants and their families adjust and become supportive members of their community; and mutual engagement of migrants, NGOs, community groups and government in activities to foster inclusion can

strengthen a society's ability to withstand social shocks and conflicts. According to one study, the costs of integration are higher in those countries where there is less NGO involvement (Textbox 17.1).

One author notes that global pressures are levelling the differences among destination countries, and that over time, there will be convergences in the way governments and societies value integration as a strategy for social stability, and hence policies on migration and integration will also converge as a matter of necessity and expedience (chapter 17). Another compares the interfaces between migration and welfare across the different welfare regimes of a) Scandinavian countries, b) continental Europe and c) the US and the UK. He focuses on the policy dilemma of open versus exclusive approaches to migration, or how to keep unwanted migrants out while letting desired migrants in, from the perspective of how governments organize their welfare regimes (chapter 18).

The World Values Survey indicates that advanced industrial societies are becoming more open to diversity. The report looks at some existing and potential models and approaches to ensuring that diversity is managed to the mutual benefit of migrants and society.

MIGRATION AND HEALTH

Migration health is a critical issue for policymakers, yet few governments have included it in their public policies, either on health or migration. The report explains that the social and economic costs of neglecting migration health, also as a public health issue, can be immeasurable (chapter 19). It gives concrete examples of how targeted investment of migration policies and development aid can address this both in terms of prevention and assistance. Stigmas arising from perceptions of poor migrant health, for example, can cost society by undermining the benefits of migration. In developed countries, public health policies often target the general population but elude the migrants, yet ill health and even transmission of disease can occur after arrival in the receiving country (chapter 20). Policymakers need

to understand how the immigration experience can increase vulnerability to ill health, yet migrants are often the last to seek medical attention for a variety of reasons ranging from socio-cultural habits to clandestine status. This is not just a migration but a public health issue.

HIV/AIDS is the starkest reminder today that public health is also a development issue, with the pandemic causing far greater long-term damage to national economies than previously assumed.¹³ For example, by depleting families it wrecks an important mechanism for human capital formation, the basis for longer-term economic growth. But there is evidence that early, targeted investment in migration health can also have direct benefits for economic development (chapter 20). Women are particularly vulnerable to risky behaviour resulting from migration, including those left behind by migrating men, and where the spouse does not send money home regularly. The risk of HIV infection among migrants and their families differs from region to region, but ultimately depends on good governance including migrant health in public health, education and information policies (chapters 19 and 20).

INSTITUTIONAL MEASURES TO MANAGE MIGRATION

One of the key messages to emerge from the report is that policy and institutional environments are as important a determinant of the success of migration as, for example, the socio-economic performance of the migrants. Making the right policy choices is ultimately the best way for governments to steer migration in the direction of benefits over costs. A recent study comparing two traditional immigration countries with similar migration regimes found that, despite many similarities in their economies, political systems, living standards and broad approaches to immigration, one experienced a better labour market

performance among recent migrants than the other, for reasons relating to a more centralized administration, more stringent selection criteria and more incentive-inducing social security policies.¹⁴

One of the chapters dealing with this issue asks whether traditional cost-benefit analysis in support of migration policies still makes sense in the wake of the September 11 events and the imperative for effective anti terrorism measures at any cost (chapter 21). It shows how more efficient visa processing can benefit the governments and the migrants (Textbox 21.1). The UK claims it is achieving real savings from its Biometric Identification Programme to check migrant access to social assistance; and the EU-wide electronic database Eurodac is helping to better manage and maintain the integrity of asylum systems across Europe. At a time when many governments are on high security alert regarding international terrorism, advanced computer information and visa systems, such as the APEC¹⁵ Business Travel Card can be critical for raising confidence in joint migration management schemes (Textbox 22.2).

The final thematic chapter deals with the crucial issue of how governments work together more efficiently today at regional and global levels (chapter 22). It looks at old and new consultative and dialogue processes and how they have progressed in the past two years or so from dialogue to action. Regional processes can often leverage efforts at bilateral agreements, but also help place migration on the agendas of larger regional economic processes. Concrete projects have resulted from the “5+5” and Puebla processes, the Labour Ministers’ conferences in Colombo and Manila and the Pacific Immigration Directors’ Conference (PIDC) in the past two years, to name a few examples. In the Pacific, partner countries have started to develop a regional advanced passenger information system along ICAO standards (ibid).

13. For example, South Africa could face progressive economic collapse within several generations unless it successfully combats the HIV/AIDS epidemic (ibid). A report recently completed for UNDP in Asia concludes that Asia may face a bigger AIDS pandemic than Africa in the coming years (chapter 11).

14. The study by Richardson and Lester, 2004, compared the different approaches and levels of effectiveness of Australia’s centralized, federal system and Canada’s de-centralized, provincial system in managing migration. It also compared the two countries’ different systems for selecting migrants and dispensing social welfare entitlements, and the respective impact of these on migrant labour performance.

15. Asia Pacific Economic Cooperation.

The UN is now attempting to correct a situation where migration has been lightly institutionalized within the UN system (UN, 2003). The independent Global Commission on International Migration (GCIM) will report in 2005 to the Secretary General on substantive questions related to current migration dialogues. Also, within IOM, the annual Council session has become an important venue for inter-governmental policy dialogue, and the 92nd session of the International Labour conference (ILC) in 2004 has pointed the way to a non-binding multilateral framework for a rights-based approach to labour migration.

MIGRATION DATA AND STATISTICS

THE FINAL section of the report tours the international migration trends recorded and analysed by the UN Population Division (UNPD), as supporting the discussion of key trends in the earlier chapters. Tables and maps derived from the UNPD, OECD, World Bank, Eurostat and others throw light on some of the less discussed issues such as population, female migration, regularization programmes, foreign students, IDPs, refugees and irregular migration.

IOM statistics also demonstrate the kind of data collected on the ground that may assist policymakers in the key areas of migrant resettlement, return migration, migration health and counter trafficking. These data are unique to IOM and serve to support many of the conclusions and policy pointers in the report.

CONCLUSION

MANY of the chapters in this report bring to light the need for better management of public perceptions of migration, and by extension, for more results-oriented research and consistent data collection. Even some of the now well established regional consultative processes still lack reliable data collection mechanisms, also to evaluate their own effectiveness as migration policy-driving mechanisms (chapter 22). Despite excellent statistics collected by many governments and international agencies, there are still major disparities in methodology, which can hamper comparative analysis and far-sighted policy making.

Causes and impacts of migration and the policies to manage it are not easy to categorize, and even less easy to measure. The report aims to close some of the gaps of unpredictability about migration management, not for purposes of controlling migration, but to ensure maximum benefits derived from it for migrants, governments and society. It points to areas requiring more research, such as the real impact of remittances on poverty alleviation, the effect of the new liberalized forms of recruiting skilled immigrants from within a foreign community on future migration and emigration patterns; the emerging role of women diasporas as development agents, and what could today be useful indicators and determinants of costs and benefits of international migration. Recent studies and surveys in Europe, such as the European Social Survey (ESS) on the attitudes towards immigration, and behavioural patterns of its diverse populations, can be valuable guides for policy choices on such vital new areas of migration management as integration and social stability.¹⁶

Exploding the myths and establishing more clearly the facts about migration and its consequences is a sure way of enabling the debates and design of migration policies to be more informed and reasoned. With its focus on “costs and benefits” of migration, World Migration 2005 is intended to make a useful contribution to this end.

16. See Dustmann and Preston, 2004, and the European Social Survey: www.europeansocialsurvey.org/

