

INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION PAPERS

**55**

**Skilled Labour Migration from  
Developing Countries:  
Annotated Bibliography**

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INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION PROGRAMME

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE

GENEVA



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## Foreword

This paper forms part of a series of studies conducted by the International Labour Office under the DFID-sponsored project on “*Skilled labour migration (the ‘brain drain’) from developing countries: Analysis of impact and policy issues.*”

International migration of skilled persons has assumed increased importance in recent years reflecting the impact of globalisation, revival of growth in the world economy and the explosive growth in the information and communications technology (ICT). A number of developed countries have liberalized their policies for the admission of highly skilled professionals.

The problem lies in that this demand is largely met by developing countries, triggering an exodus of their skilled personnel. While some amount of mobility is obviously necessary if developing countries are to integrate into the global economy, a large outflow of skilled persons poses the threat of a ‘brain drain’, which can adversely impact growth and development. The recent UK government (DFID) White Paper on International Development, “*Eliminating World Poverty: Making Globalisation Work for the Poor*” has rightly pointed out the need on the part of developed countries to be more sensitive to the impact on developing countries of the brain drain. It was in this context that the Department for International Development, United Kingdom, approached the ILO for carrying out research relevant to the above issues.

This bibliography, prepared by Professor Allan Findlay and Ms Emma Stewart, is divided into eight sections to reflect the research questions set by the Department for International Development in relation to the wider DFID/ILO project, which this bibliography supports. The references have been organized according to the issues addressed by Professor Findlay.

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Mr. Piyasiri Wickramasekara, Senior Migration Specialist, International Migration Programme, acted as the ILO Project Coordinator and technically backstopped all the studies. ILO is most grateful to Professor Allan Findlay and Ms. Emma Stewart for their valuable contribution.

Geneva, July 2002

Manolo I. Abella  
Chief  
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**Research Question 1**  
**How does migration of skilled workers and students affect developing country labour markets?**

**Adepoju, A., 2001. 'Regional integration, continuity and changing patterns of intra-regional migration in sub-Saharan Africa'. In: Saddique, M. (Editor), *International Migration into the 21st Century*. Elgar, Cheltenham, pp. 50-73.**

Amongst other features, this chapter argues that regional economic integration in Africa has transformed the brain drain from many African economies into a brain exchange.

**Appleyard, R. (Editor), 1989. *International migration and developing countries*. OECD Publications, Paris, pp. 401.**

Amongst the 23 chapters in this text are some dealing specifically with the brain drain, skilled migration and policy implications of high-level manpower transfers.

**Appleyard, R.T., 1990. 'International migration and development: Mauritius and Seychelles'. *Indian Ocean Policy Papers, Australian National University, Research School of Pacific Studies, National Centre for Development Studies*, 2: 141-52.**

Explores the applicability to Mauritius and Seychelles of the proposition that governments not only utilize non-refugee international migration to facilitate their countries' economic development, but they also encourage (or discourage) certain types of migration at different stages of their economic evolution. Unless the governments impose restrictions on emigration, brain drain losses of professionals seeking higher incomes abroad, or students not returning home, are inevitable. And because a country at an early stage of economic evolution is likely to be experiencing high rates of unemployment/under-employment, contract labour emigration will not be discouraged by governments, especially if the workers remit incomes from hard currency countries and return home in due course with new skills. At stages of higher economic development, permanent immigration is likely to increase, initially comprising former nationals who emigrated as part of the brain drain and are attracted home by newly created professional opportunities. If rates of economic growth are especially high, the country may admit workers to fill semiskilled/unskilled jobs for which local labour is not available.

**Basu, B., 1998. 'Efficiency wages, unemployment and international factor movements'. *Journal of International Trade and Economic Development*, 7(3): 317-38.**

This paper examines the implications of unemployment resulting from efficiency wages for international factor movements in a standard Heckscher-Ohlin model where the relative size of the endowments of skilled and unskilled workers and the efficiency wage induced unemployment level in the unskilled labour market are simultaneously determined given the population, supply of capital and its distribution in the economy. Capital in the economy is used only to train individuals for the skilled labour market, where workers are fully employed. It is shown that the optimum labour inflow in the market with domestic distortion and the optimum capital inflow are

always positive because they reduce the severity of distortion by raising employment and income for the residents. The income and employment of foreigners also increase. Under this situation the optimum labour or capital outflow on the other hand is always zero. These conclusions directly contradict the result obtained for international factor movements in the presence of exogenously determined unemployment.

**Beaverstock, J.V., 1996. 'Subcontracting the accountant? Professional labour markets, migration, and organisational networks in the global accountancy industry'. *Environment and Planning A*, 28(2): 303-26.**

In this paper, the notion of the labour market is discussed within the context of international migration of skilled labour in the accountancy industry. The principal arguments reported are that the labour-market practices of large accountancy firms have restructured the demand for professional labour on a global scale. Accounting staff are subcontracted to their firm's international office networks or multinational clients through secondment, transfer, or exchange procedures. Equally, those firms who are members of global accountancy networks subcontract their staff to the international independent member firms.

**Beine, M., Docquier, F. and Rapoport, H., 2001. 'Brain drain and economic growth: theory and evidence'. *Journal of Development Economics*, 64(1): 275-89.**

This article focuses on the impact of migration prospects on human capital formation and growth in a small, open developing economy. It assumes that agents are heterogeneous in skills and take their educational decisions in a context of uncertainty regarding future migrations. It further distinguishes two growth effects: an ex ante "brain effect" (migration prospects foster investments in education because of higher returns abroad), and an ex post "drain effect" (because of actual migration flows). The case for a beneficial brain drain (BBD) emerges when the first effect dominates, i.e., when the average level of human capital is higher in the economy opened to migrations than in the closed economy. The authors derive the theoretical conditions required for such a possibility to be observed. Using cross-section data for 37 developing countries, it is discovered that the possibility of a BBD could be more than a theoretical curiosity.

**Bhagwati, J. (Editor), 1976. *The Brain Drain and Taxation - Theory and Empirical Analysis*. North-Holland Publishing Company, Amsterdam.**

An edited conference volume arising from a conference in 1975 which explores the idea of levying a surtax on the incomes of professional immigrants from the LDC's to the developed economies. One version of this tax would be routed to the United Nations to disburse in LDC's for their development programmes. Difficulties of implementing such a tax include uncertainty over: (1) whether skilled migration is permanent or temporary, (2) who pays the tax when - at point of exit, on income as it is earned by the migrant, in a bond, or by the DC government's treasury, (3) who receives the revenues? (4) how would the tax rate be chosen and (5) who levies the tax?

**Bhagwati, J. and Hamada, K., 1976. 'The brain drain, international integration or markets for professionals and employment'. In: Bhagwati, J. (Editor), *The Brain Drain and Taxation - Theory and Empirical Analysis*. North-Holland Publishing Company, Amsterdam, pp. 113-38.**

The authors question the earlier position of Grubel and Scott (1966) on the economic effects of the brain drain. First, they argue that loss of taxation from skilled emigrants means a loss to those in the original sending country who require this return on investment to finance further training. Second, the strong externalities associated with emigration of doctors and gifted academics is argued to be a loss. By comparison with Grubel and Scott's more favourable view of brain drain and the international integration of markets for professionals, the authors identify more negative outcomes in terms of social welfare costs through potentially, for example, creating (a) a sense of inadequacy in being unable to retain members of a profession, and (b) a loss of independence and creativity in the population.

**Bhagwati, J. and Rodriguez, C., 1976. 'Welfare - theoretical analyses of the brain drain'. In: Bhagwati, J. (Editor), *The Brain Drain and Taxation - Theory and Empirical Analysis*. North-Holland Publishing Company, Amsterdam, pp. 85-111.**

The chapter commences by asking 'whose welfare is being assessed?' - LDC non-emigrants, migrants or DC non-immigrants. It then proceeds to investigate static and dynamic models of migration addressing questions such as 'is it beneficial for an unemployed doctor to emigrate from an LDC or does this exacerbate the welfare impact?' It is concluded that skilled migration could either increase or reduce distortions to labour markets in sending countries depending on the cause of the distortions - e.g. if the LDC is under-remunerating the migrant's skills the effect of emigration could be to reduce the state's power over the labour market.

**Borjas, G.J., 1989. 'Economic theory and international migration'. *International Migration Review*, 23(3): 457-85.**

The modern literature on the economics of immigration focuses on three related issues: what determines the size and skill composition of immigrant flows to any particular host country; how do the immigrants adapt to the host country's economy; and what is the impact of immigrants on the host country's economy? This article reviews the theoretical framework and empirical evidence provided by the economics literature on these questions.

**Boussaid, L., 1998. 'The brain-drain and developing countries'. *Migrations Societe*, 10(56): 65-71.**

The flow of educated people from developing countries and of those in search of university education in developed countries has given rise to a great deal of concern. Drawing on a range of examples, this theme is related to the topic of technology transfers in the final years of the century.

**Business Advisory Panel, 1999. *Business Entry in a Global Economy*, BAP, Canberra. pp. 125.**

This monograph presents Australian immigration policy for people with business skills. It argues for the benefits to the Australian economy of business immigration. It notes that applications for the new scheme are not global but localised in countries with specific push factors.



**Carrington, W.J. and Detragiache, E., 1998. *How big is the brain drain?*, IMF Working Paper, Washington. WP/98 pp. 102.**

Knowledge of the size of the brain drain is scant. The paper offers estimates of immigration rates from 61 developing countries for 3 educational categories using 1990 US Census data and OECD migration data.

**Carrington, W.J. and Detragiache, E., 1999. 'How extensive is the brain drain?' *Finance and Development*, 36(2): 46-49.**

How extensive is the 'brain drain,' and which countries and regions are most strongly affected by it? This article estimates the extent of migration, by level of education, from developing countries to the United States and other OECD countries. Our estimates show that there is an overall tendency for migration rates to be higher for highly educated individuals. With the important exceptions of Central America and Mexico, the highest migration rates are for individuals with a tertiary education. A number of countries-especially small countries in Africa, the Caribbean, and Central America-lost more than 30 percent of this group to migration. We have also found a sizeable brain drain from Iran, Korea, the Philippines, and Taiwan Province of China. These numbers suggest that in several developing countries the outflow of highly educated individuals is a phenomenon that policy-makers cannot ignore.

**Castanos Lomnitz, H., 1998. 'The brain drain from Mexico: the experience of scientists'. *Science and Public Policy*, 25(4): 247-53.**

What are the causes of Mexico's brain drain? Mexican scientists are rarely asked: yet they are the principal actors and, arguably, those most directly affected by the phenomenon. The interviews presented in this paper are largely reproduced verbatim to reveal some unsuspected features of a wider process of self-doubt and reassessment, which is being undergone by the Mexican scientific community.

**Danso, K., 1995. 'The African brain drain: causes and policy prescriptions'. *Scandinavian Journal of Development Alternatives*, 14(1-2): 249-64.**

This article analyzes the causes of the African brain drain. It also identifies policy prescriptions to stem the tide of the brain drain. The significance of the study lies in the fact that estimates place the number of Africans who were trained in Europe and remain there at 70 000. There are, at the same time, some 10 000 trained Nigerians now working in the US. Ironically there are 100 000 expatriates at work in Africa, a greater number than at independence. Technical assistance to Sub-Saharan Africa increased by 50% between 1984 and 1987 and current estimates put the total cost at \$4 billion annually. The analysis shows that African governments should try to retain their skilled personnel by significantly improving their economies so as to provide the basic necessities of life to their people. African governments should also democratise their political institutions and respect individual human rights. Finally, they should create a conducive socio political environment for the skilled professional to operate, otherwise even the most patriotic of them would be tempted to emigrate.

**De Wenden, C.W., 1995. 'East-West and North-South drain: a comparison of the flows in Western Europe'. *Studi Emigrazione*, 117: 90-97.**

This paper compares the East-West and North-South flows of highly qualified migrants to Western Europe. The East is increasingly regarded as a competitor to the South as both areas compete to benefit from economic support and co-operation with the West. However the political discourses towards the flows from these two source

areas are very different. Labour migration from the South is discouraged with Western countries increasingly closing borders. Brain drain from these areas is only accepted to fill temporary, existing vacancies in labour markets e.g. in hospitals, teachers and dentists. In contrast many OECD countries are actively investing in initiatives to promote the mobility of central and eastern European researchers as a means to preventing a brain drain. Despite differing attitudes towards the East and South, there is a similar dilemma as to whether brain drain migration and mobility/training should be encouraged.

**Fellat, F.M., 1995. 'Les scientifiques marocains a l'etranger'. *Studi Emigrazione*, 117(32): 200.**

The paper reviews Moroccan scientific emigration to Europe. Eight recommendations are made to increase the benefit to Morocco including encouraging technology transfer, establishing a register of Moroccan professionals abroad, encouraging networking between scientists abroad and establishing a bond to encourage professionals training abroad to return home.

**Findlay, A., 1990. 'A migration channels approach to the study of high-level manpower movements: a theoretical perspective'. *International Migration*, 28(1): 15-23.**

Whatever the terminology used, there can be little doubt that major changes have taken place in recent years in the nature and organisation of skilled manpower moves. This short article sets out to investigate the ways in which these trends in high-level manpower moves might be analysed. The article commences by briefly considering the significance of skilled international migration before turning to consider a theoretical framework by which such movements might be analysed. It pays particular attention to the impact of skilled international migration on sub-national units or regions.

**Gaillard, A. and Gaillard, J., 1998. *International migration of the highly qualified: a bibliographic and conceptual itinerary*. CMS, New York.**

A short 29 page commentary introduces this listing (no annotations) of over 1200 items found from database searches under the headings 'brain drain, exode de cerveaux, fuite des cerveaux, reverse transfer of technology'.

**Gieseck, A., Heilemann, U. and Von-Loeffelholz, H.D., 1995. 'Economic implications of migration into the Federal Republic of Germany, 1988-1992'. *International Migration Review*, 29(3): 693-709.**

An analysis of the effects of the last wave of migration into West Germany on labour markets, public finances and economic growth, this study points at the often ignored fact that the migrants were rather successful in finding jobs and thus helped in eliminating labour shortages in certain industries. Simulations with a macroeconomic model for the FRG indicate that in 1992 the GDP was almost 6% higher than without migration, that 90 000 jobs were created and that migration created a surplus of DM14 billion in the public sector, compared to the baseline. This study also makes clear, however that these effects mainly depend on a quick absorption of migrants by FRG labour markets, and as to the social system, the relief may be only transitory.

**Glaessel-Brown, E.E., 1998. 'Use of Immigration Policy to Manage Nursing Shortages'. *Image*, 30(4): 323-27.**

The purpose of this paper is to examine long-term implications of using temporary, non-immigrant nurse programs to manage fluctuations in the demand for registered nurses. The discussion is organised and located in the full context of migration by means of reviewing theories and concepts of labour migration, referring to experience with guest-worker programs world-wide, outlining recent nursing shortages in the United States, describing the Immigration Nursing Relief Act (INRA), and raising questions for nurses in the United States and in the global marketplace. Data sources includes a review of scholarly literature on international migration, existing studies on nurse migration to the United States, and original research, conducted between 1992 and 1994, for the Immigration Nursing Relief Advisory Committee (INRAC) Report. There is policy analysis of theories, concepts, and perspectives related to nurse migration. The main findings include that in the United States, highly skilled foreign nurses tend to complement rather than displace local labour. However recruiting foreign-educated nurses for entry-level jobs perpetuates patterns of dependency in the sending country and delays creative solutions to staff development in the host country. Non-immigrant status creates a vulnerable workforce. There may be a disparity between the ideal of nurse migration as collaborative exchange and the reality of institutionalised occupational migration networks. The author concludes that while foreign nurse recruitment might solve short-term needs, repetitive temporary nurse migration programs create long-term consequences that are not in the best interests of the profession. The absence of consistent policy creates an opportunity for nursing to take an active role in developing the rules and direction of future nurse migration.

**Hazari, B.R., 1994. 'An analysis of the impact of outmigration on unemployment, income and structural change'. *Journal of International Trade and Economic Development*, 3(2): 165-75.**

Analyses the impact of temporary skilled migration on urban unemployment, the relative price of urban and rural non-traded goods, the real rewards of the factors of production and income in the source country. The analysis is conducted on the basis of an extended version of the Harris-Todaro model. It is established that the outmigration of skilled labour affects unskilled workers in the source country. Outmigration may raise the level of urban unskilled unemployment and lower income in the source country. It may also raise the price of both urban and rural non-traded goods thereby giving rise to Dutch disease type effects. These are disturbing results for the policymakers in the source country.

**Johry, K.N., 1995. 'Human resource development and migration of trained manpower'. *Journal of Scientific and Industrial Research*, 54(4): 243-48.**

The problem of 'brain drain' from the developing countries is discussed. It is suggested that the developing countries be given financial compensation for the loss of trained manpower, and the funds thus received be invested in developing R & D competence and establishing new centres of excellence for higher education and research.

**Kaplan, D.E., Meyer, J.B. and Brown, M., 1998. *Brain Drain: New Data, New Option*, South African Network of Skills Abroad, Cape Town. pp. 6.**

This paper assesses the exodus of skilled professionals from South Africa over the last decade. The costs of emigration are considered as well as the benefits of establishing a network amongst skilled emigrants. This network provides a basis for South Africa to benefit from the knowledge systems of its national abroad. To quote (p4) "Human capital is no longer lost through physical mobility and furthermore is multiplied by the socio-professional networks that may be mobilised through individual expatriates".

**Korner, H., 1997. 'The brain drain from developing countries - an enduring problem'. *Intereconomics*, 32: 26-30.**

The article criticises the view that the inflow of human capital to developing countries through multi-national companies compensates for earlier brain drain losses. Immigration of qualified workers to industrial countries is seen as a subsidy of the rich by the poor. Despite this view the author does not support a compensation tax of the sort proposed by Bhagwati because he fears that the increased regulation of the world economy would have been difficult to verify and would in any case have failed to eliminate the causes of the brain drain. Instead Korner recommends measures, which reduce labour market imperfections (reduced training subsidies, wages linked to productivity and not to status and greater sectoral and regional mobility). The case of India's policy of liberal reforms and its supposed effect on encouraging Indian specialists to return home is cited as evidence in support of this view.

**Logan, I.B., 1992. 'The brain drain of professional, technical and kindred workers from developing countries: some lessons from the Africa-US flow of professionals (1980-1989)'. *International Migration*, 30(3-4): 289-312.**

The central concern of the study is to explore the dimensions and trends of the 'brain drain' from African countries, to assess its potential economic impacts, and to comment on some approaches for alleviating these impacts. The study has twin, complementary foci. The first is an examination of the total flow of trained Africans into the US during 1980-1989 from a sample number of sub-Saharan countries and for the whole continent. These data are used to determine the flow of professionals from Africa to the US in absolute terms, and to make comparisons with similar flows from the rest of the world. Generalizing from this particular case, the second focus of the study is to assess the potential impacts of such labour losses on African development.

**Lowell, B.L., 1999. *Skilled immigration to the United States*, ISIM Working Paper, Georgetown University. pp. 37.**

The paper defines the different categories of temporary and permanent admission categories in the US migration system. The period since introduction of the Immigration Act of 1990 is reviewed, with special attention being given to the rise in the number of HIB visas and intra-company transfers (L). The labour market impacts of temporary skilled immigration are discussed. Concern is expressed about the postdoctoral labour market. The trend for employers to engage in 'job shops' is also seen as undercutting US workers with skilled immigrants.

**Miller, E.A., Laugesen, M., Lee, S.Y. and Mick, S.S., 1998. 'Emigration of New Zealand and Australian physicians to the United States and the international flow of medical personnel'. *Health Policy*, 43; ISSUE 3: 253-70.**

One in five physicians practising in the US received their initial medical qualifications in another country. Contrary to expectations, a large cadre come from developed nations such as New Zealand and Australia. In particular, these two countries provide a unique prism with which to view the international flow of medical talent. While they differ from developing nations that primarily export physicians without attracting others in return, they are distinguished from importing nations such as the

**Mundende, D.C., 1989. 'The brain drain and developing countries'. In: Appleyard, R. (Editor), *The impact of international migration on developing countries*. OECD Publications, Paris, pp. 183-95.**

This book section highlights the brain drain with specific reference to the effect on developing countries. There is a discussion of both the causes and impacts of the brain drain with evaluative consideration of nationalist and internationalist perspectives. The author notes the overall negative impacts and presents a subsequent list of possible measures to take: preventive, restrictive, restorative and compensatory. There is also a useful note on research priorities highlighting 4 areas of data deficiency concerning the brain drain.

**OECD, 2000. *Trend in International Migration, 2000*. OECD, Paris.**

This annual report provides country specific data on skilled and unskilled migration stocks and flows. The report issued in 2000 regards recent developments in the employment of skilled foreigners especially in the service sector (p.47-48).

**Ojo, K.O., 1990. 'International migration of health manpower in sub-Saharan Africa'. *Social Science and Medicine*, 31(6): 631-37.**

This paper concerns itself with a few questions related to the impact of the emigration of health manpower on the health status of individuals and economic development of sub-Saharan Africa. The paper evaluates the harmfulness of the migration from sub-Saharan Africa. The analysis leads to some observations about the effect of the quality of the migration on Africa's health care system development and the appropriateness of some of Africa's policies for controlling the migration.

**Paganoni, T. and Todisco, E., 1995. 'Skilled migrations'. *Studi Emigrazione*, 117(32): 223.**

In October 1993, the first international seminar on skilled and highly skilled migration took place in Latina, Italy. The aim of the seminar was to review the state of the art in studies of international migration of highly skilled people. The focus was predominantly European, but input from Asian and American regions was also made. This Special Issue contains 17 papers, revised and updated, presented at the seminar. The papers are divided into four main themes: spatial and temporal patterns of skilled movements; the transition to open markets, with reference to East-West migrations in Europe; students, professionals, scientists, and their training and employment in private or public foreign systems; and skilled people and new development models, with particular reference to theoretical approaches. The conclusion reached from the seminar is that there is clearly a need to develop a theoretical framework for the analysis of skilled migration processes.

**Peixoto, J., 2001. 'Migration and Policies in the European Union: Highly Skilled Mobility, Free Movement of Labour and Recognition of Diplomas'. *International Migration*, 39(1): 33-61.**

This article evaluates the relationship between highly skilled mobility (especially by individuals with university-led degrees) and migration policies. Data from the European Union (EU) and Portugal (in particular) provide the empirical basis of the research. EU policies regarding the free circulation of individuals which aim to build the "common market" for economic factors (including labour) are reviewed, as are the more specific recognition of diplomas policies for professional and academic purposes, and recent levels of international mobility in both the EU and Portugal. The article also enumerates the main obstacles that, from a political and legal or social and cultural perspective, explain the low mobility revealed by those figures. Obstacles include the broad denial of citizenship rights; the necessity of assuring a means of sustenance; linguistic and technical exigencies for diploma recognition; the social attributes of work (more explicit in the service sector); and the institutional nature of national skilled labour markets. The main exception to the low mobility rule - movements of cadres in the internal labour markets of transnational corporations - together with flows in other multinational organisations, are also reviewed. In these, migrations are relatively exempt from political constraints and, significantly, avoid the recognition procedures adopted by the EU. In other words, it seems that the entry of highly skilled individuals in a transnational corporation, and not their citizenship in a Europe without frontiers, is what enables them to achieve effective mobility.

**Rockett, I.R.H. and Putnam, S.L., 1989. 'Physician-nurse migration to the United States: regional and health status origins in relation to legislation and policy'. *International Migration*, 27(3): 389-409.**

The aim in this research is to enhance knowledge of high-talent migration through an examination of the origins of physicians and nurses who were admitted as permanent immigrants to the United States between fiscal years 1962 and 1979. Against the backdrop of changes in immigration legislation and policy, origins are studied both regionally, and developmentally using a population health status indicator. Physicians and nurses have been chosen as the foci for investigation not only because of their core roles in health care systems, but also because of their predominance among immigrants to the United States with health-related occupations. While the actual occupational adjustment that physicians and nurses make at the destination cannot be determined from the available data, the question is addressed as to whether the more occupationally selective nature of immigration policy associated with the 1965 Act tended to favour those from countries with an English language.

**Rueyling, T., 1995. 'International labour migration through multinational enterprises'. *International Migration Review*, 29(1): 139-54.**

This research studies international migration of company transferees. The main purposes are to address how their individual characteristics have influences on their overseas assignment and what kinds of migration patterns are created by the multinational business enterprises. US firms in Taiwan are the primary study focus. By using both quantitative and qualitative data, the results show that although an overseas appointment is mainly based on individual competence, nationality, ethnicity and gender also play crucial roles. And, multinationals are important channels for sustainable, return and circular migration.

**Russell, M.L., 1992. 'The female brain drain, the state, and development in Egypt'. *Journal of Developing Societies*, 8(1): 122-43.**

Education meets both individual and state needs in developing societies. However, permanent migration to the West may deplete a country's resources of educated persons. Few studies have addressed the female component of the brain drain. A survey of Egyptian women emigrants to the US and study of other materials show that Egypt has lost more than it has gained through its policy of encouraging emigration to relieve the pressures resulting from too few jobs for too many graduates.

**Salt, J., 1989. 'A comparative overview of international trends and types, 1950-80'. *International Migration Review*, 23(3): 431-56.**

Provides a general overview of international migration trends and types during the post-war period. Its thesis is that international migration consists of a set of spatial networks, which share many of the processes that create them, but that the networks are characterized by factors, which vary geographically and distinguish one from another. It concludes that our ability to forecast future world patterns of international migration must be based on an assessment of the likely behaviour of the component macro-regional systems we can recognize.

**Salt, J., 1992. 'The future of international labour migration'. *International Migration Review*, 26(4): 1077-111.**

The article reviews the nature of international labour migration today and the economic and political rationale for its occurrence. It suggests that while the developed economies will continue to attract and exchange highly skilled labour, they will have little need for mass immigration by those with low skill levels. In contrast, poorer countries with rapid population growth and low living standards will encourage emigration, except by the highly skilled. One consequence will be more illegal immigration. Geographical patterns will continue to be dominated by a set of macro-regional networks, among which the Asia-Pacific region is the most recently developed. China and the former Soviet Union (as senders) and Japan (as receiver) constitute the main enigmas.

**Salt, J. and Findlay, A., 1989. 'International migration of highly skilled manpower: theoretical and developmental issues'. In: Appleyard, R. (Editor), *The Impact of International Migration on Developing Countries*. OECD Publications, Paris, pp. 159-80.**

The latter part of this paper (p168-80) deals with development impacts in developing countries. Highly skilled migration from developed to developing countries within the labour markets of large firms are argued to result in very little technology transfer. This in part reflects the policies of MNC's to protecting their knowledge system from competitors and to discourage rootedness amongst skilled staff who might start up their own companies.

**Schmid, G., 1992. 'The development of migration policies and their contradictions'. *Innovation in Social Sciences Research*, 5(2): 41-50.**

The present article looks at the contradictions of migration policies that reveal how the latter are ultimately directed by labour market demands. Contradictions in migration regulation policy arise not only across different time periods but spatially as well; hence, the different attitudes of European governments towards the Eastern

European countries and Third World countries; also in terms of how similar phenomena are variably interpreted: the case of brain drain illustrates this very well.

**Schweitzer, G.E., 1995. 'Can research and development recover in Russia?' *Technology in Society*, 17(2): 121-42.**

Foreign funding has enabled a limited number of Russian laboratories to continue functioning effectively. While the external brain drain has been very small, the massive exodus of highly trained, young researchers and students from science and engineering into the commercial sector will adversely impact Russian capabilities for many years. The rate of recovery of Russian ability to focus resources on fewer research targets of greater relevance to near-term needs, to restructure the higher educational system, and to create a business infrastructure that will encourage meaningful technical innovation. The US should become a much more effective science and technology partner with Russia while phasing out its programs of foreign assistance.

**Shaban, R.A., Assaad, R. and Al-Qudsi, S.S., 1995. 'The challenge of unemployment in the Arab region'. *International Labour Review*, 134(1): 65-81.**

The authors examine the forces that have shaped Arab labour markets over the past two decades, namely demographic pressures, oil price fluctuations, state domination of the economy, and international migration. Since the mid-1980s, while labour force growth rates have remained high, migration has no longer provided an adequate safety valve for the over-supplied urban labour markets of the region's more populous countries. Against this background, the article examines the employment policy challenges facing the region's decision-makers, including massive unemployment, disproportionate public sector employment, structural adjustment and labour market regulation.

**Shyh Jer, C., 1995. 'Migrant selectivity and returns to skills: the case of Taiwanese immigrants in the United States'. *International Migration*, 33(2): 251-74.**

This article examines the selection of international migration from Taiwan to the US in terms of the skills and abilities of emigrants. Micro data from Taiwan and the US are used to test Borjas' self-selection model (1987). Because the emigrants are not randomly selected from the population of origin, inherent selectivity bias occurs in using ordinary least square to estimate the wage equation. Based on the assumption that emigrants choose to move to the destination that can maximize their expected lifetime earnings and provide higher returns to their human capital, Heckman (1979) developed a two-stage method that allows one to correct the problem of selectivity bias and to estimate directions on the selection on the basis of the levels of skills or education (observed characteristics) and innate ability or motivation (unobserved characteristics) for both emigrants and non-emigrants.

**Stahl, C.W., 1999. 'Trade in labour services and migrant worker protection with special reference to East Asia'. *International Migration*, 37(3): 545-68.**

This article argues that the East Asia international labour market is best viewed as bisected along productivity lines. Within this market, the labour-exporting countries of East Asia provide the overwhelming proportion of low-skilled migrant workers to the region, and are responding to perceived advantages of a policy of labour export. On the other hand, the movement of highly skilled and professional (HSP) workers is



best viewed as the result of globalisation and the internationalisation of education, training and the professions, rather than the result of explicit labour export policies of specific countries. The central concern of the article is that protection of migrant workers is also bisected along productivity lines with HSP workers given special consideration under international policy, while measures to protect and facilitate the movement of low-skilled workers are virtually non-existent. Various policy measures are suggested that might be employed to advance the cause of migrant worker protection in East Asia.

**Stark, O., Helmenstein, C. and Prskawetz, A., 1997. 'A brain gain with a brain drain'. *Economics Letters*, 55(2): 227-34.**

This article studies human capital depletion and formation in an economy open to out-migration, as opposed to an economy which is closed. Under the assumption of asymmetric information, the enlarged opportunities and the associated different structure of incentives can give rise to a brain gain in conjunction with a brain drain. Migration by high-skill members of its workforce notwithstanding, the home country can end up with a higher average level of human capital per worker.

**Stark, O., Helmenstein, C. and Prskawetz, A., 1998. 'Human capital depletion, human capital formation, and migration: a blessing in a "curse"?' *Economics Letters*, 60(3): 363-67.**

The paper specifies conditions under which a strictly positive probability of employment in a foreign country raises the level of human capital formed by optimising workers in the home country. While some workers migrate, "taking along" more human capital than if they had migrated without factoring in the possibility of migration (a form of brain drain), other workers stay at home with more human capital than they would have formed in the absence of the possibility of migration (a form of brain gain).

**Straubhaar, T. and Wolter, A., 1997. 'Globalisation, Internal Labour Markets and the Migration of the Highly Skilled'. *Intereconomics*, 32(4): 174-80.**

The paper argues that the internationalisation of a firm requires different levels of expatriation at different stages. Early on, the firms need intensive expatriation of managers to run activities and to promote company-specific expertise. Later, with consolidation, the importance of expatriates declines with local professionals being able to take over many managerial roles. This varies between multinationals of different origins, with Japanese companies having a higher proportion of expatriates.

**Tsokhas, K., 1999. 'Between supply and demand: permanent skilled migration to Australia'. *Prometheus*, 17(1): 41-57.**

Research on skilled migration has dealt overwhelmingly with the contribution of migration to productivity growth, to changes in the income of migrants and the factors influencing their employment. Much less attention has been paid to the institutional mechanisms that mediate between the external supply and the host-country demand for skilled labour, even though these play a vital role in the selection of such migrants. Australia has maintained a selective, highly regulated permanent skilled migration program for much of its contemporary history. This program contains both general and specific skilled entry. The former is not linked to any particular needs of individual firms or industries. Rather, in seeking some balance between supply and demand, entry is on the basis of general criteria such as the possession of a

qualification recognised in Australia and English-language proficiency. Short-term imbalances between the supply of general skills and occupational demand have led to changes in entry criteria in response to labour market information and pressure from professional associations and trade unions. Specific skilled migration is closely tied to employer nominations. They cannot proceed unless certain institutional processes are met. The firm concerned must demonstrate that the required human capital cannot be found in Australia, that the position is in fact a highly skilled one, and that the firm has a training strategy for Australians.

**Williams, P., 2000. *The Brain Drain*, Imfundo Knowledge Bank, First Draft, August 21.**

This draft paper provides a useful discussion of issues relating to the brain drain from developing countries. There is an interesting section which claims that the brain drain represents a normal rather than abnormal manifestation of the functioning of labour markets. This is based on 4 main arguments:

1. the brain drain is not confined to the labour market interface between developing and industrialised countries, but also takes place within the industrialised and among developing countries,
2. some developing countries make a living from and encourage export of skills,
3. the same phenomenon of skill transfer occurs within countries as well as internationally, between economy sectors, between firms and between geographical regions,
4. restrictions on labour mobility raises issues of economic efficiency as well as the relationship between individuals to society and citizens of the state.

The article further examines the impact of the world-wide revolution in Information and Communication Technologies (ICT's) on the brain drain. This is discussed with reference to the planned Imfundo project designed to use new information and communication technology in Africa for training of teachers. Possible brain-drain implications of the project and counter-measures are presented.

## **Research Question 2**

**How does migration of skilled workers and students affect developing countries' ability to integrate into global markets?**

**Abu-Rashed, J. and Slottje, D.J., 1991. 'A Theoretical Analysis of the Beneficial Effects of the Brain Drain Phenomenon'. *Canadian Journal of Development Studies*, 12(2): 357-66.**

This paper develops a two-sector model which is characterized by the Harris-Todaro (1970) type of rural-urban migration and, possibly, urban unemployment. The model is laid out in order to allow us to examine the impact of migration (and ultimately remittances) on growth and development in a less developed country. For this purpose a two-period development model is constructed wherein the country loses professional workers in the first period, but receives foreign exchange remittances in the second period. Then we discover the conditions in which the so called "brain drain" may promote social welfare over the two periods. In this course of the analysis

we find that emigration of skilled labour causes the real rate of return to capital to fall and the real wage to labour in the home country to rise. Emigration of skilled labour unambiguously causes a real income loss in less developed labour-exporting countries in the first period, but may cause a real income gain to the LDC in the long run. We also find that the per capita income in an LDC may rise as a consequence of emigration in the short-run, but in the long run capita income unambiguously rises.

**Adir, Y., 1995. 'The Israeli Brain Drain: A Psychological Perspective'. *Journal of Social Behaviour and Personality*, 10(3): 731.**

This study evaluated the problem of an Israeli brain drain from a psychological perspective, exploring personality, demographic, and economic factors related to remaining in the United States or returning to Israel. A questionnaire and the NEO Five-Factor Inventory were used to gather data. The sample consisted of 134 Israelis who came to the U.S. in order to attend institutions of higher education, and completed their education, here. Seventy made a decision to remain in the United States and 64 to return to Israel. Only one NEO factor differentiated returnees and settlers, the latter scoring significantly higher on the Conscientiousness scale. Overall, the results suggest that financial and professional incentives as well as socio-cultural factors are better predictors and more powerful motivators than are personality factors for the decision to remain in the United States or return to Israel.

**Alarcon, R., 1995. 'Transnational communities, regional development, and the future of Mexican immigration'. *Berkeley Planning Journal*, 10: 36-54.**

This article examines the relationship between regional development and labour migration to the US in the context of NAFTA. The article develops two principal arguments. First, the current migration process between Mexico and the US is not only the result of push-pull economic factors, as is generally assumed, but also the result of well-developed social networks and the implementation of US and Mexican government policies as manifested by the formation of a number of 'transnational communities'. This observation leads to a second and related argument; the additional job creation resulting from NAFTA will not necessarily stem the international migration flows from regions with a long tradition of migration to the US.

**Amankwaa, A.A., 1995. 'The world economic system and international migration in less developed countries: an ecological approach'. *International Migration*, 33(1): 93-114.**

The subject matter relating to the world economic system and the urban ecological system have not produced a coherent and comprehensive theory of international migration. This is not surprising because technological progress, human resources and physical capital are the principal initiators through trade which, in turn, affects the overall productivity of an economy. In this context, the size, composition and predisposition of people in developing countries to move seem to be a central feature of the world economic system and ecological dominance. This article takes into account issues involving the world economic system and ecological complex. It employs linear structural equation modelling to examine determinants of international migration, using data from The World Bank World Tables, World Development Reports and the World Bank.

**Appleyard, R., 1992. 'International migration and development - an unresolved relationship'. *International Migration*, 30(3-4): 251-66.**

If, as argued here, there is widespread agreement that migration can facilitate development based on packages that incorporate trade, debt, investment and aid components, we should be setting our minds to appraising the viability of such proposals and then looking at ways in which international migration could be factored into the development process. In the author's view, this represents the migration agenda for the 90s and is a major challenge and opportunity for all persons involved in migration policy, administration and research.

**Ardittis, S., 1991. 'Targeted reintegration of expatriate brains into developing countries of origin: the EEC-IOM experience in Central America'. *International Migration*, 29(3): 371-88.**

Reviews the major findings of the EEC-International Organization for Migration (IOM) project, a five-year scheme to promote a selective and development-oriented return of Latin American professionals to Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, Honduras, Nicaragua and Panama. Initiated in 1984 in order to relieve shortages of qualified manpower, the EEC-IOM project aimed at reintegrating, and placing in specific job vacancies in crucial economic areas, 75 highly qualified Latin American expatriates. The paper reviews the project's main results in the training, health, counselling of central governments, engineering, and management fields; the project's incentives and the socio-economic reintegration of returned professionals; cost effectiveness; and contribution of local development policies.

**Ardittis, S., 1995. 'Exchange of experience between the Russian Federation and southern European regions in the field of migrant reintegration policies'. *International Migration Review*, 29(4): 1049-56.**

This article provides a short outline of a project initiated in 1994 by the European Commission and aimed at organizing exchanges of experience in the field of socio-economic re-integration of returnees between the regional authorities of Andalusia (Spain) and East Macedonia-Thrace (Greece), and the federal authorities of Russia. The objective of this network on migration, entitled MIGRA, is to enable the Russian Federation, and to a lesser extent Macedonia-Thrace, to benefit from experience gained by Andalusia in reintegrating its returning migrants. Return migration can be of intrinsic relevance to regional socio-economic development. Migrants, who tend to reintegrate into their regions of origin, have a clear potential to revitalize economically disadvantaged and demographically unbalanced regions by transferring new skills and experience. In the case of the MIGRA partner regions, the setting up of an interregional network on the reintegration of migrants is even more appropriate and timely after the break-up of the Soviet Union and the resulting mass migration of Russians and ethnic Greeks.

**Athukorala, P., 1990. 'International contract migration and the reintegration of return migrants: the experience of Sri Lanka'. *International Migration Review*, 24(2): 323-46.**

This article attempts to shed light on the issue of how far the labour exporting countries can monitor the process of reinsertion of return migrants in the domestic economy, with a view to maximizing net gains from international labour migration, drawing upon the experience of Sri Lanka. It begins with an examination of the socio-economic characteristics of migrant workers with special emphasis on their post-

migration activity status and the pattern of remittance utilization. Then it proceeds to evaluate critically the self-employment scheme that has been introduced by the Sri Lankan labour administration to advise and train return migrants in establishing themselves in business. The findings point to the danger of expecting too much from policy initiatives in this sphere.

**Attafi, A., 1994. 'The Brain Drain - Theoretical Framework and Hypotheses'. *Canadian Journal of Development Studies*, 15(1): 89-99.**

This article studies the "brain drain" issue from the sociological perspective. It analyzes the various reasons why students from developing countries go to North American and European universities and why they decide either to return or not to return to their own country after graduation. The author analyzes the transformation of the "project" from the beginning to the end and concludes that, although there are political, socio-economic and academic factors, one's decision to return or not to return to one's country depends mainly on individual aspirations (personal and cultural development) and collective aspirations (perceived possibilities of playing a constructive role), political or otherwise, in one's native country.

**Baldwin, R. and Venables, A.J., 1994. 'International migration, capital mobility and transitional dynamics'. *Economica*, 61(243): 285-300.**

This article studies interactions between goods trade and international factor mobility in a context suggestive of transition in Central and Eastern Europe. If complementarities between skilled labour and capital are strong - e.g. owing to externalities between skilled labour and costs of absorbing capital inflow - then there are multiple rational expectations equilibria. The 'virtuous' transition path has capital inflow and little emigration; the 'vicious' path involves significant emigration and little capital inflow. The equilibrium transition path is not socially optimal even absent externalities. Externalities associated with skilled labour increase the case for intervention; policy should be used to delete the 'vicious' equilibrium.

**Bang Soon, L.Y., 1992. 'Reverse brain drain in South Korea: state-led model'. *Studies in Comparative International Development*, 27(1): 4-26.**

Korea's reverse brain drain (RBD) has been an organized government effort, rather than a spontaneous social phenomenon. Particular features of Korea's RBD policies are the creation of a conducive domestic environment (i.e. government-sponsored strategic R&D institution-building, legal and administrative reforms), and importantly, the empowerment of returnees (via, i.e. exceptionally good material benefits, guarantees of research autonomy. For President Park, empowerment of returning 'brains' was necessary to accomplish his national industrialization plan, thereby enhancing his political legitimacy in domestic politics. An alliance with the R&D cadre was functionally necessary to successfully consolidate strong presidential power. Korea's future R&D, however, needs to pay closer attention to the following four problems: research autonomy; equality issues; skill-based repatriation of technicians and engineers rather than PhD's; and subsidies to small and medium industry for RBD.

**Beaverstock, J.V., 1994. 'Re-thinking skilled international labour migration: world cities and banking organisations'. *Geoforum*, 25(3): 323-38.**

Skilled professional and managerial labour migration has become an important facet of the contemporary world economy. The operations of transnational corporations

have created more opportunities for skilled migrants to work abroad. There is a growing interest amongst economic geographers to examine this form of migration through an appreciation of global economic restructuring, labour market change and world cities. This paper introduces a new conceptual framework for understanding professional and managerial labour migration; based on the rationale that world cities, and the patterns of labour market demand that exist within them, are of paramount importance in influencing highly skilled professional and managerial labour migration within the world economy. The author uses an example of highly skilled labour migration within the transnational banking sector to illustrate this new conceptual framework.

**Bertelsmaan Foundation, 2000. *Migration in the New Millennium*, Bertelsmaan Foundation, Gutersloh. pp. 52.**

The report calls for greater harmonization of migration policy in North America and Europe. Recognising that international migration is a continuing phenomenon, the paper makes specific recommendations about highly skilled workers and students. It suggests (p25-27) that policies should provide incentives for foreign students and workers to invest in their home countries. It argues that neither nationalist nor internationalist perspectives fully recognises the realities of today's global economy. Skilled moves can advance investment and trade thus contributing to economic development in their origin countries. But this only is effective if developing countries do not lose too many of their best educated citizens. In particular right of return is important to maximize benefits to origin countries. The benefits to the Indian IT sector is discussed. It is claimed best practice of fostering scientific and cultural exchange is found in France (new law of 1998 on temporary entry of scholars) and the US (J visas). Migration links to trade and development are reviewed (p34-37). It is recommended that governments should target efforts to reduce emigration from particular areas such as Morocco to Europe because of the risk of cumulative underdevelopment of sending areas. Governments are also encouraged to fostering higher returns from remittances by fostering investments in productive sectors in the sending countries.

**Bodega-Fernandez, I., Cebrian-De-Miguel, J.A., Alonso, T.F., D'Ocon, G.L.T. and Lou, A.M., 1995. 'South-North migration. The case of Spain'. *Geographia Polonica*, 66: 125-45.**

International migrations caused by socio-economic and demographic reasons, especially from underdeveloped countries to the rich and prosperous areas of the globe are discussed with the focus on Western Europe and particularly on Maghrebi immigration to Spain. Emigration of the people from a backward region even increases the deterioration of local economy, provoking stagnation and inflation. Therefore emigration only can not be seen as an economic take-off for sustained economic development over the frontier areas between developed and depressed territories. Related social questions as well as economic, religious and political may add factors affecting the structural balance of the societies concerned.

**Chang, S.L., 1992. 'Causes of brain drain and solutions: the Taiwan experience'. *Studies in Comparative International Development*, 27(1): 27-43.**

Over the years, Taiwan has experienced 'brain drain', as more than 80% of its students who completed their graduate study in the United States have failed to return. Instead, they have found their ways into the faculties of American colleges and universities or

employment opportunities in various research organizations and industries. This article examines brain drain, its origin in Taiwan, and government response. One of the major findings is that elite emigration in Taiwan has been caused by a host of complex academic, social, economic, and personal factors. Second, Taiwan's brain drain into the United States is primarily a case of 'education and migration'. It is an outflow of college graduates, not an exodus of trained scientists and engineers; therefore, Taiwan's manpower loss in the short run is not as serious as the case where mature and experienced scientists and professionals leave.

**Chen, T.J. and Su, H.Y., 1995. 'On-the-Job Training as a Cause of Brain Drain'. *Weltwirtschaftliches Archiv*, 131(3): 526.**

This paper presents a simple model based on the assertion that the efficacy of on-the-job training, as well as the productivity of skills, depends on the social stock of capital. It shows that as the degree of this dependency of on-the-job training upon capital stock increases, the problem of brain drain becomes more severe and more difficult to correct. The model may explain why the failure of foreign-educated students to repatriate is a more prevalent form of brain drain than outright migration of skilled labour. It is consistent with the repatriation pattern of Taiwanese students who received post-secondary education in Japan.

**Cheng, L. and Yang, P.Q., 1998. 'Global interaction, global inequality, and migration of the highly trained to the United States'. *International Migration Review*, 32(3): 626-53.**

Following recent attempts to link migration of the highly trained to broader global processes, we argue that national variation in the size of highly trained migration can be explained by interaction and inequality between nations, both reflecting the process of global integration. Guided by this analytical framework, we tested the structural determinants of highly skilled migration to the United States. The evidence confirms our hypotheses that economic and educational interactions between sending countries and the United States increase the flow of the highly trained to the United States. Results also provide mixed proof for our hypotheses that levels of professional migration are positively associated with disparities between sending countries and the United States in living conditions, research conditions, children's educational opportunities, political conditions, and professional employment opportunities.

**Cohen, R., 1997. *Global Diasporas*. UCL Press, London.**

This text provides a masterly overview of major diaspora movements. Of particular interest to the current research project are comments about the commercial and trade links created by migrants with their regions of origin.

**Condon, S.A. and Ogden, P.E., 1996. 'Questions of emigration, circulation and return: mobility between the French Caribbean and France'. *International Journal of Population Geography*, 2(1): 35-50.**

This paper focuses on the more complex migratory links including continuing emigration from the islands for work and education, return migration and circulation which have come to characterise the 1980s. Findings are based on the newly-available results of the 1990 population census, on interviews with migrants in the Paris region, and on migrant files and other documents kept by the state agencies responsible in part for the migration flows. The principal conclusions reveal that the more straightforward labour migration of the years from 1963 to 1981 has been replaced by

some considerable return migration (amongst young adults particularly) and circulation, reflecting the variety of factors influencing the types and volume of movement and the continued distinctiveness of the Caribbean islands' status as departments d'outre-mer, with strong economic and social ties and no migration controls. The paper also demonstrates that the role of migration in reducing population growth and fertility in the islands has been much altered during the course of the 1980s.

**D'Arca, R., 1994. 'Social, cultural and material conditions of students from developing countries in Italy'. *International Migration Review*, 28(2): 355-69.**

World-wide there are about 1 million students studying abroad, according to UNESCO sources for the mid-1980's, but the number of foreign students in Italy was falling throughout the 1980's. This paper reports on a survey of foreign students in four Italian cities, clearly differentiating between EC and non-EC foreigners, examining attitudes and aspirations for themselves and their country of origin. Non-EC students are poorly integrated into Italian society and more interested in their home country and its development prospects.

**Diamantides, N.D., 1992. 'The macrodynamics of international migration as a socio-cultural diffusion process. Part A: theory'. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, 42(3): 273-89.**

This study formulates a model of the macrodynamics of international migration using a differential equation to capture the push-pull forces that propel it. The model's architecture rests on the functioning of information feedback between settled friends and family at the destination and potential emigrants at the origin. The intensity of the ensuing migratory flow is determined by a nexus of mediators prevailing in either society and comprising legal prerogatives such as migration laws, economic prerogatives such as war or other forms of compulsion, natural stimulants such as climatic extremes and epidemics, societal conditions such as job-hierarchy differences and network characteristics, and causes other than the ones motivating the pool members, such as the reasons for the so-called 'brain drain.' The mathematical entity thus constructed is named the mediating factor, and features both steady-state and transient components that are accommodated by the model. Two specific paradigms of diverse nature serve to demonstrate the model's tenets and pertinence, one being Greek emigration to the US since 1820, and the other total out-migration from Cyprus since statehood (1946).

**Diatta, M.A. and Mbow, N., 1999. 'Releasing the development potential of return migration: The case of Senegal'. *International Migration*, 37(1): 243-66.**

Migration has long been a permanent part of Senegal's history. Indeed, as a land of migrants and immigrants, Senegal has always been an important pole of West African immigration because of its colonial heritage, political stability and economic growth which, until the mid-seventies, had been relatively good. Nonetheless, events of the past few decades have induced changes in migration. Continuing desertification, globalisation of the economy and accelerated pauperisation have intensified the human exodus. The emergence of world markets has stimulated demand for both cheap and highly skilled labour. In general, Senegalese who left the country did so in search of work. These migrations have not been limited to a South-North direction but also, and increasingly, to a South-South one. France, Cote d'Ivoire and Gabon have long been countries of call for Senegalese workers. This article seeks to evaluate the



manner in which Senegal has undertaken to develop the potential of its returning migrants, to better assess the effects of the return and reinsertion of these migrants within the present context of restrictions on the flow of migrants. The first section presents the profile of Senegalese migrants and then evaluates what may be described as the 'French-Senegalese' experience. The latter offers an example of concerted efforts to ensure the reintegration and participation of returning migrants in the economic development of their country of origin. The second section reviews Senegal's official policies for the protection and promotion of Senegalese living abroad and assess the Programme of Support of Migrant Workers. The third section presents recommendations for actions which could accompany migrants returning to their countries of origin and facilitate their reinsertion in the current economic and social environment.

**Durand, J., Parrado, E.A. and Massey, D.S., 1996. 'Migradollars and development: a reconsideration of the Mexican case'. *International Migration Review*, 30(2): 423-44.**

Economic arguments, quantitative data, and ethnographic case studies are presented in this paper to counter popular misconceptions about international labour migration and its economic consequences in Mexico. The prevailing view is that Mexico-US migration discourages autonomous economic growth within Mexico, at both the local and national levels, and that it promotes economic dependency. However, results estimated from a multiplier model suggest that the inflow of migradollars stimulates economic activity, both directly and indirectly, and that it leads to significantly higher levels of employment, investment, and income within specific communities and the nation as a whole. The annual arrival of around US\$ 2 billion migradollars generates economic activity that accounts for 10% of Mexico's output and 3% of its Gross Domestic Product.

**Findlay, A., 1994. 'New technology, high-level movements and the concept of the brain drain'. In: OECD (Editor), *The Changing Course of International Migration*. OECD, Paris, pp. 149-60.**

Having reviewed the traditional brain drain literature, the paper turns to considering the impact on developing countries of inward investment by large multi-national companies. It is concluded that barriers to knowledge transfer to local staff in developing countries need to be tackled in order for globalising influences to fully benefit the developing countries.

**Findlay, A.M., Jones, H. and Davidson, G.M., 1998. 'Migration transition or migration transformation in the Asian dragon economies?' *International Journal of Urban and Regional Research*, 22(4): 643-63.**

There has been a marked tendency to interpret the recent transformation of international migration systems in Eastern Asia in terms of a 'migration transition' model. The transition in these countries from net emigration to net immigration, with major inflows from poorer adjacent countries, is seen as being driven by an intricate regional pattern of uneven development but growing economic integration. This paper challenges this view through an examination of the trade, investment and migration linkages of the region's four dragon economies (Hong Kong, Singapore, South Korea and Taiwan). It argues that the key influences on their international migration streams reflect, above all, the functions of these states as second-order, global city regions. Their place in the global capitalist system creates a shared demand for very particular

types of both highly skilled and unskilled labour, but the migration policies of the four states are independently, and therefore distinctively, socially constructed.

**Findlay, A.M., Li, F.L.N., Jowett, A.J. and Skeldon, R., 1996. 'Skilled international migration and the global city: a study of expatriates in Hong Kong'. *Transactions of the Institute of British Geographers*, 21(1): 49-61.**

Large companies employ more skilled international migrants than small ones and, since global cities are very attractive locations for transnational companies, they are also host to large numbers of skilled expatriates. Lack of research on skilled migrants in the global city is unfortunate since it appears that they are both consequence and part-cause of global city formation. Results from research in Hong Kong help to illustrate some of the salient characteristics of an expatriate community in a global city and to explore why business culture determines that companies employ expatriates in very different ways.

**Germidis, D., 1978. 'International sub-contracting and transfer of technology to LDC's'. In: Zahlan, A. (Editor), *Technology Transfer and Change in the Arab World*. Pergamon Press, Oxford, pp. 170-87.**

The paper reviews factors facilitating technology transfer to developing countries. Amongst other important conclusions the author notes that it is not in the interests of large companies to transfer knowledge to local workforces, for fear of providing a means to local companies to compete in the global marketplace.

**Ghosh, B., 1997. 'Migration and development: some selected issues.' *Revista de la OIM sobre Migraciones Internacionales en America Latina*, 15: 1-12.**

The paper calls for new forms of co-operation between migrant sending and migrant receiving countries to tackle irregular migration by increasing the benefits of orderly migration. Amongst other factors Ghosh claims that GATS "half-opened" a window of opportunity for developing countries to exercise their comparative advantage in such services as engineering, accounting, legal management consulting, nursing, software development and data processing and cleaning. So far GATS has only really committed to intra-company transfers. But new negotiations should open up a wider trade in self-employed, professionals and medium skilled groups which would not only improve the efficiency of the world economy, but would reduce pressure for longer-term migration including the brain drain.

**Ghosh, B. (Editor), 2000. *Return Migration*. IOM, Geneva, pp. 236.**

Although most chapters in this edited volume focus on the problematic return of irregular migrants, rejected asylum seekers and temporary refugees, there are also papers on the linkages between return and development. Recommendations are made about making return both sustainable and attractive.

**Glick, J.E., 1999. 'Economic support from and to extended kin: A comparison of Mexican Americans and Mexican immigrants'. *International Migration Review*, 33(3): 745-65.**

This article explores the prevalence of economic exchanges with extended kin within the Mexican-origin population in the United States. Data from the 1990 U.S. Census and the 1990 Panel Study of Income Dynamics-Latino Sample are employed to compare the characteristics of those contributing income to and receiving income from co-resident extended relatives and extended family members in other

households. The results suggest that immigrants, particularly recent immigrants, are more likely to participate in exchanges with relatives both within and beyond their household. There is a life course dimension to these exchanges. Mexican Americans, who are more likely to live in extended family households consisting of multiple generations, engage in economic exchanges from older adults to younger adults. Mexican immigrants, who are more likely to live with relatives at similar stages of the life course, are more likely to exchange resources with these kin in other households as well.

**Gonzalez, A., 1992. 'Higher Education, Brain Drain and Overseas Employment in the Philippines - Towards a Differentiated Set of Solutions'. *Higher Education*, 23(1): 21-31.**

This paper describes the interlocking conflicts and resulting problems of higher education in the Philippines. The educational system produces first degree graduates for certain professions and fields of specialization while failing to produce enough graduates in 'unpopular' fields of pure science, middle-level technician specializations, and graduate training for research and higher education. The few scientists and graduate degree holders trained abroad migrate to other countries, making the shortage even more acute. For oversubscribed professions, graduates seek overseas employment. In the meantime, the mismatch continues. The author proposes different solutions for each problem; no uniform solution is possible as the nature of the problem is different for each area. For oversubscribed professions, the writer accepts overseas employment as a viable option; it is a source of foreign exchange and a natural way of population control. For undersubscribed professions he proposes a system of incentives tied to a period of mandatory service, after which the beneficiary may exercise his/her options. The writer concludes with some general insights about allowing the 'invisible hand' to regulate the process of manpower demand and supply but supports limited and specific government interventions at the right moment.

**Goss, J. and Lindquist, B., 1995. 'Conceptualizing international labour migration: a structuration perspective'. *International Migration Review*, 29(2): 317-51.**

This article applies the theory of structuration to international labour migration using case study material from the Philippines. It first provides a brief review of the functional and structural approaches to understanding labour migration and the theoretical impasse that has been created between them. It then reviews several attempts to resolve this impasse, including systems and networks approaches; these solutions are rejected on theoretical and empirical grounds. Suggests that migrant institutions may be a more appropriate mid-level concept than households or social networks to articulate various levels of analysis. The authors develop this concept in the context of the structuration theory of Anthony Giddens and attempt to apply this to the Philippines, concluding that this framework is eminently suited for further research on international labour migration.

**Hamilton, N. and Chinchilla, N.S., 1996. 'Global economic restructuring and international migration: some observations based on the Mexican and Central American experiences'. *International Migration*, 34(2): 195-231.**

This paper discusses theoretical and empirical studies as the basis for formulating propositions on the relationship between economic restructuring, international migration and transnational communities. These are explored first through an

examination of historical patterns of Mexican and Central American to the US, and subsequently through a more detailed analysis of migration, respective migrant communities in the US, and the relationship between migrant communities and their home countries during the last quarter century. The analysis draws upon observation of the Central American community in Los Angeles over the past decade and preliminary data from a survey on Central Americans in California carried out in the San Francisco area.

**Held, D., McGrew, A., Goldblatt, D. and Perraton, J., 1999. *Global Transformations*. Polity Press, Cambridge.**

This major text on globalisation processes devotes over 40 pages to considering how international migration has been affected. Contemporary linkages between international labour and capital flows are reviewed relative to the changing context of the nation state and its attempts to survey and control borders.

**Helou, M., 1995. 'Contingency planning for systems evolution after crisis: reconstructive brain drain policy-oriented implications - the case of Lebanon, 1975-1994'. *Journal of Contingencies and Crisis Management*, 3(3): 149-64.**

This paper evaluates the impact of the multinational intellectual emigration crisis, during the period 1975-1994, on reconstruction policy implications and the future development of Lebanon. The first section discusses a socio-demographic trend analysis of Lebanese emigrants during the period 1975-1994. In the second section, policy implications and conditions are identified and evaluated. Finally, the author identifies a work-in-progress research agenda.

**Jing, S. and Hawthorne, L., 1996. 'Asian student migration to Australia'. *International Migration*, 34(1): 65-95.**

This paper presents an overview of Asian student migration to Australia, together with an analysis of political and educational aspects of the overseas student programme. It focuses on some significant consequences of this flow for Australia. The characteristics of key student groups are contrasted to provide some perspective on the diversity of historical and cultural backgrounds, with the source countries of Malaysia, Indonesia and China selected as case studies. Since the issues of China students in Australia has attracted considerable public attention and policy consideration, particular focus is placed on their experience.

**Kanjanapan, W., 1995. 'The immigration of Asian professionals to the United States: 1988- 1990'. *International Migration Review*, 29(1): 7-32.**

This article examines recent flows of Asian professionals to the US based on the Immigration and Naturalization Service data for the fiscal years 1988-1990. Three specific dimensions of the Asian migration stream were investigated, namely, size, composition and mode of entry. Asians emerge as a dominant group in the immigration of all professionals. An examination of mode of entry indicates an existing demand for foreign professionals of certain occupational backgrounds in the US labour market. Engineers and computer scientists represent this pattern as reflected by a heavy usage of the occupational preferences to enter the host country. Adjustment of status from temporary visas appears to be a common strategy. By contrast, health professionals were more likely to be admitted through kinship ties and the majority are new arrivals.

**Khadria, B., 1999. *The Migration of Knowledge Workers*. Sage, New Delhi.**

The book presents an economic perspective on skilled Indian emigration. So called "first generation effects" are reported in a traditional fashion. These include remittances, technology transfer, human resource flows and skill exchanges. Khadria is more interested in "second generation effects", namely the transfer of resources by skilled migrants to help increase the productiveness of India's population. Khadria argues for the channelling of investment by non-resident Indians to key sectors (health and education) that will increase future Indian productivity. Further, how this is to be achieved is not clear. The key policy point seems sound: namely returns of talent programmes are unlikely to be effective when the conditions producing the initial brain drain remains. Instead attention should focus on measures to maximise the benefits which sending countries could achieve from skilled emigration. But skilled migration is not theorised relative to the emerging literature on migration and globalisation.

**King, R. (Editor), 1986. *Return Migration and Regional Economic Problems*. Croom Helm, London.**

This twelve chapter volume reviews the resistance to return migration by guestworkers in Europe and the limited economic impact of voluntary return migration. King offers a framework for analysing return including the return of failure, return of conservatism, return of innovation and return of retirement. The return of improved human capital is shown to be almost entirely fallacious, while the economic impact of remittances is shown largely to be dissipated in the housing sector or used to boost economic demand for consumer imports.

**Koser, K. and Salt, J., 1997. 'The geography of highly skilled international migration'. *International Journal of Population Geography*, 3(4): 285-303.**

The present paper provides a research review of recent literature on international migration by the highly skilled. Its principal aim is to identify the themes which are being discussed, and suggest where research into the subject might best proceed. The paper begins by examining the existing framework for study. Definitions and data availability are discussed, followed by a consideration of theoretical perspectives and their attendant methodologies and models. This is followed by a review of the two most important perspectives in extant research, economic and socio-cultural, leading into a review of what is known about the geography of migration by the highly skilled. The systems described are subject to a process of management which is discussed in the penultimate section. Finally, the paper proposes future directions for research which involve a reconceptualisation of migration by the highly skilled as one element in the international movement of expertise.

**Ku Sup, C., In Jin, Y. and Smith, D., 1996. 'Immigrant small business and international economic linkage: a case of the Korean wig business in Los Angeles, 1968-1977'. *International Migration Review*, 30(2): 485-510.**

This article investigates factors that have contributed to the growth of the import-export business among Asian immigrants. The central argument is that the development of Asian immigrants' import-export business has been closely related to the increasing economic linkages between Asian countries and their countrymen in the US. The Korean immigrants' wig business in Los Angeles is studied as a case of contemporary import-export trade among Asian immigrants, with major findings summarized as follows: first, the increased reliance of the US on imported goods by

the 1970s led to a rapid growth of the export-oriented industry in South Korea; second, wigs became the major export item of South Korea due to its cheap labour force and government-aid loans to the wig industry; third, a strong vertical integration developed between Korean wig manufacturers in South Korea and Korean importers, wholesalers, and retailers in the US - that integration provided Korean immigrants with initial business opportunities in the US economy, particularly in the low-income minority areas.

**Kumar, N., 2001. 'Developing countries in international division of labour in software and service industry: Lessons from the Indian experience'. *Background paper for World Employment Report*, New Delhi, India.**

This paper reviews the emergence of India as a significant supplier of software services. It sets IT employment as one part of a global division of labour and discusses the way in which India entered the industry as a site of industrial outsourcing to take advantage of lower labour costs. Subsequent indigenous development has transformed the sector with it now becoming a significant global player. This success initially led to some return migration from the west. At the same time the geographical reach of the Indian industry has become truly global facilitated by the transfer of skills through Indian software engineers. Western shortages of IT staff has led to increasing recruitment from India. It is possible that this trend might lead to a scarcity of talent in India and rising wages undermining the competitiveness of the Indian industry. As a result India is increasing investment in training new staff and companies have engaged in an effort to encourage return migration. The industry also needs to pay attention to R and D activity for sustaining its competitiveness and to invest in marketing networks if it is to continue to succeed.

**Lateef, A., 1997. 'Linking up with the global economy: a case study of the Bangalore software industry'. *NIOP Discussion paper 96/97*, International Institute for Labour Studies, Geneva.**

This paper provides a history of the growth of the IT sector in Bangalore which has become the second largest cluster of software activity in India. The linkage through migration with the US IT computer industry is shown to be important.

**Li, F.L.N., Findlay, A.M., Jowett, A.J. and Skeldon, R., 1996. 'Migrating to Learn and Learning to Migrate: A Study of the Experiences and Intentions of International Student Migrants'. *International Journal of Population Geography*, 2: 51-67.**

The article reviews the literature on international student migrations. This provides the context for a survey of the intentions of students migrating to the UK. The conclusion of the survey is that students studying overseas do not necessarily see it as part of a strategy to work abroad. UK restrictions on employment of students after their studies means that those set on migration opportunities go elsewhere for work. Despite the barriers to remaining after study, the UK remains a popular student destination. Recognition in other countries of UK qualifications and the good quality of UK education were key factors attracting students to the UK. Amongst the engineering and medical students surveyed (both in the UK and abroad) it emerged that emigration for study was not part of a conscious strategy to become future labour migrants. However study in the UK had a positive effect in increasing the attraction of staying to work in the UK, in contrast with students who had not come to the UK, who continued to favour the US and Canadian labour markets.

**Mahroum, S., 2000. 'Highly skilled globetrotters: mapping the international migration of human capital'. *R and D Management*, 30(1): 23-32.**

The value of this paper lies in its typology of skilled migrants (managers and executives; engineers and technicians; academics and scientists; entrepreneurs; students). While clearly some skill groups are missing from this classification, the author usefully shows how each group experiences different push and pull forces, and as a consequence the trade and development effects vary greatly for sending countries. Similarly, the policies that will maximise benefits and minimise brain drain 'damage' differ by actor and the stage of development.

**Martin, P., 2001. 'Economic integration and migration: the Mexico-US experience'. In: Saddique, M. (Editor), *International Migration into the 21st Century*. Elgar, Cheltenham, pp. 29-49.**

The chapter reviews the evolution of the world's largest volume migration regime - US/Mexico. The effects of inequalities in development in the two countries and their relative development trajectories during the 20th century are reviewed in relation to the "hump" of Mexican migration. The chapter concludes with an explanation of the likely consequences of NAFTA for migration. Of particular interest is discussion of the development effects along the US-Mexico frontier.

**Meyer, J.B. and Brown, M., 1999. *Scientific Diasporas: A New Approach to the Brain Drain*, World Conference on Science. UNESCO, ICSU Budapest, Hungary, 26 June - 1 July 1999.**

Today's global knowledge based economy generates international migration flows more than ever before. Scientific diasporas are seen as a strong potential resource for effective and mutually beneficial co-operation between developing and highly developed countries.

**Meyer, J.B. and Charum, J., 1995. 'Is the brain drain over'? The lost paradigm and new prospects'. *Cahiers des Sciences Humaines*, 31(4): 1003-17.**

The migration of scientists is a key topic in the 1990s. However, the 'brain drain' model that was used to describe and explain the phenomenon in recent decades has served its time. It is based on economic premises which cannot now serve as satisfactory tools for analysing the present situation in science and technology. Activities in the latter respond to specific forms of circulation and association of entities that were ignored or minimised by the macroscopic 'brain drain' approach. Science policies are indeed set up which rely on originally national intellectuals with positions in foreign countries to generate technologically driven economic growth at home. This 'brain gain' approach has different features and applications in different countries. The Caldas network in Colombia is of particular interest.

**Morokvasic, M., 1996. 'Movement of scientific elites from the other Europe: Exodus or circulation?' *Revue D'Etudes Comparative Est-Ouest*, 27(3): 31.**

The aim of this text is to explain the dynamics of migration in which scientists from Central and Eastern Europe figure, sometimes prominently, as social actors and to suggest a typology of situations, given both the global and the specific transformations in that part of Europe since the fall of the Berlin Wall. The geographic field of the investigation was delineated by theoretical considerations about international migration in general, and the migration of "brains" in particular : the analysis centred on Poland, Russia, Croatia and Serbia and was based on the

empirical evidence and secondary analyses available. The research revealed certain overall tendencies : firstly, science seems to be everywhere in a paradoxical situation. Challenged by high expectations as an important factor of transformation, it is at the same time jeopardized in that same function by its own transformation; whatever the country, the situation in which science finds itself, the status and working conditions of the scientists are the driving forces behind emigration (less massive than it is believed to be, internal migration being more frequent than emigration abroad). Secondly, as far as migration is concerned, the situation is different from that observed during the cold war period : the possibility to leave and to return, i.e. the chance to circulate, replaces a situation where, in most Central and Eastern European countries, emigration abroad implied expatriation for good. These global tendencies can, however, have a different meaning in each country. The author's theoretical framework draws on the opposition between a dynamic approach to international migration versus the push-pull approach, and the "nationalist-internationalist" dilemma as far as brain drain and mobility are concerned. They pinpoint two situations as "ideal types" : the first directly reflects the changes in Central and Eastern Europe, and is represented by Poland and Russia, where a relative freedom of movement is gradually replacing departures which used to be rare and permanent; the second is one of confinement and restricted mobility, in other words a break between the worlds of departure and arrival, represented in this study by the former Yugoslav republics of Croatia and Serbia. Unlike the first situation, it takes the place of an earlier period of openness and relative freedom of circulation enjoyed by the citizens of former Yugoslavia. The assumption was that, in the first case, the departure and the mobility of scientists contribute to the multiplication of links between Poland, Russia and the rest of Europe, whereas in the second, the departure of top scientists deprives the countries in question of an elite necessary for the rebuilding of the country and its democratisation.

**Muschkin, C.G., 1993. 'Consequences of return migrant status for employment in Puerto Rico'. *International Migration Review*, 27(1): 79-102.**

At the aggregate level, return migrants in Puerto Rico in 1970 and 1980 faced greater employment-related difficulties, as compared with non-migrants. This article explores the individual-level relationship of return migrant status to employment outcomes. The conceptual framework takes into consideration local and regional contextual factors. Within this framework, specific hypotheses suggest a negative influence of return migrant status. The findings substantiate the hypotheses for both census years and indicate the importance of the duration of residence in the US and the timing of the return move as mediating factors.

**Nair, P.R.G., 1999. 'Return of overseas contract workers and their rehabilitation and development in Kerala (India). A critical account of policies, performance and prospects'. *International Migration*, 37(1): 209-42.**

Large-scale emigration of temporary contract workers from Kerala to countries in the Middle East began in the early 1970s. Return migration flows into Kerala assumed large proportions only after the mid-1980s. Returned migrants include repatriated illegal immigrants and immigrants evacuated during times of political upheaval and hostilities. Since the end of the 1980s there have been several instances of such repatriation. While reliable information on migration-related matters is not available in Kerala, not even on the magnitudes of onward and return flows, the total number of returned migrants in Kerala must be already around 0.5 million. Returned migrants



are, in general, middle-aged persons with low levels of education, skills and experience. After return, about one-half remain unemployed and of the other half, a few retire from active work and the rest enter into self-employment, mostly in the services sector, or get into salaried jobs, or become wage labour in agriculture or fishing. Returned migrants have received little assistance from the state government or any other institution for rehabilitation and development. The socio-political and economic climate in the state has remained unfriendly to investment, due to a variety of constraints such as scarcity of land, segmentation of the labour market, wage rates much higher than labour productivity, militant trade unionism, political ideology inimical to the growth of the private capitalist sector and inadequacy of the energy and transport infrastructure. Loss-making public capitalist sector enterprises have discouraged returned migrants from entrusting their savings with government and several fake private sector enterprises which lured them into taking shares have cheated them. The inertia on the part of the state government to attend to the problems of the emigrants began to thaw after 1996, when it introduced an accident-cum-life insurance policy for non-resident Keralites. But no specified scheme for harnessing the development potential of return migrants has as yet emerged. The novel experiment begun in Kerala for local level development with the active participation of the people, the availability of co-operative credit agencies at all the local levels and the immense possibilities of development of the state, offer a new opportunity for channelling the development potential of the returned migrants into productive investment.

**N'Diaye, L., 1994. 'Migration: an opportunity for source countries?' *Hommes et Terres du Nord*, 4: 172-78.**

This article shows the evolution of associative traditions based on development projects for villages of the Senegal River valley begun by migrants. A first classification of those projects is proposed. This is followed by a discussion of the extent to which migrations are positive for countries of origin.

**Obia, G.C., 1993. 'Brain drain and African development: a descriptive framework for deriving indirect benefits'. *Journal of Third World Studies*, 10(2): 74-97.**

The journal article outlines a descriptive framework, the Return Educational Migration Investment Targets and Strategies, (REMITs). The primary objective is to help developing countries of Africa recoup losses (real or potential) suffered as a result of the permanent residence of their professional citizens abroad, and, at the same time, engender a co-operative and mutually beneficial relationship between professionals abroad and their counterparts in Africa.

**Oommen, T.K., 1989. 'India: 'brain drain' or the migration of talent?' *International Migration*, 27(3): 411-25.**

This investigates the size and importance of the migration of professionals such as scientists, engineers and allopathic doctors from India to the West. The factors which attract migrants (largely students) are discussed - such as better remuneration and working conditions, and less bureaucracy. There are other factors, such as racism, which promote return migration.

**Oukil, M.S., 1995. 'Transfer of technology to Algeria by nationals living abroad'. *Science, Technology and Development*, 13(3): 61-68.**

Transfer of technology can take place by different means. The potential contribution to the transfer process of Algerian scientists and technologists who work abroad is explored. While the emigration trend is on the increase, the question is whether the brain drain effect can be reversed to the benefit of the home economies. Some governments of developing countries have recently begun to address the issue seriously as a strategy for promoting their capacity building programmes. This article notes the significance of the case for Algeria and considers ways and means by which Algerian nationals abroad could be mobilised to contribute to the national scientific and technological capability development effort.

**Pang, Y., 1994. 'An eclectic approach to turning points in migration'. *Asian and Pacific Migration Journal*, 7: 219-34.**

The thesis proposed in this paper is that net labour flows reflect the stage of economic development in an economy. At the early stages of development neo-classical economics determines that net emigration takes place to maximize returns on labour relative to capital. The "turning point" occurs when development raises the returns to labour making wages rise and reducing the incentive to emigrate. At more advanced levels of development an economy becomes attractive to immigration from less developed labour markets and to return migration of labour study of its own workers living abroad. The thesis is examined for Asian-Pacific economies.

**Parris, C. and Zhiduan, D., 1992. 'The Chinese brain drain and policy options'. *Studies in Comparative International Development*, 27(1): 44-60.**

Brain drain has become a growing problem in China's overseas education, especially since the Tiananmen incident of June 1989. Family members often discourage students from returning. Incentives to attract students to return are inadequate. Most important, after Tiananmen Western governments refused to co-operate with Beijing and allowed Chinese students to stay. Concerned with the brain drain, Beijing is reconsidering its policy on foreign study. Of the policy alternatives, a continuation of the open policy appears to remain optimal, though some adjustments are necessary. In addition, several technical solutions to the brain drain problem are worth considering.

**Portes, A., 1999. 'Conclusion: towards a new world - the origins and effects of transnational activities'. *Ethnic and Racial Studies*, 22(2): 463-77.**

The preceding set of articles is reviewed with a focus on the forces affecting the rise and character of grass-roots transnationalism and its effects in countries of origin and destination. The increasing visibility of the phenomenon has led to recent attacks based on its alleged disintegrative consequences for the host society and culture. From a review of the evidence in the volume and the recent literature on immigrant adaptation, the author concludes that the opposite is the case. Implications of findings presented in this collection for official policies towards transnationalism and the latter's effect on sending countries are examined.

**Pries, L., 1999. 'Mexican Labour Migration to the U.S.: Present structure and new forms of transmigration'. *Geographische Rundschau*, 51(7-8): 382-87.**

This article documents labour migration from Mexico to the USA roots in the first half of the past century. From the beginning until now it is a mostly undocumented bi-directional flow of cheap labour force. Job seekers, employers, transfer organizations,

and the two states participate in and tolerate the 'real existing migration system' of official and legal declarations and of informal practices and 'vested interests'. Labour migration forms an integrative part of social, economic, and cultural life at both sides of the border. Based on the transnational migration systems and networks new transnational social spaces span between and above the two countries. This leads to the emergence of a new type of migrant, the transmigrant who differs from the traditional immigrant and the traditional guest worker. The actual and changing structure and dynamic of labour migration between Mexico and the USA is analysed and empirical data for the existence of the new type of transmigrants are presented, and the far-reaching consequences of the emergence of transnational social spaces for migration and integration policy are briefly indicated. The author highlights that scientific research and socio-political debate in Germany could learn a lot from this experience.

**Quibria, M.G., 1993. 'International migration, increasing returns, and real wages'. *Canadian Journal of Economics*, 26(2): 457-68.**

The paper makes an exploratory attempt to investigate the impact of emigration on real wages in the presence of increasing returns to scale in production. The problem has been posed in the context of a 2 X 2 model of international trade, where one of the commodities is a non-traded good and is subject to a type of increasing returns to scale that are external to the firm but internal to the industry. Analysis indicates that, in this instance, international emigration unambiguously increases real wages in the source country. This result, which seems to be at odds with the general presumption in this area, is quite robust to variations in the underlying assumptions behind the analysis.

**Quibria, M.G., 1997. 'Labour migration and labour market integration in Asia'. *World Economy*, 20(1): 21-42.**

This paper addresses a set of issues similar to those posed in the companion paper on capital market integration. These issues include: are labour markets in Asia becoming increasingly integrated with each other and with the world labour markets with greater labour migration across countries? What are the implications of labour migration and labour market integration for economic efficiency, growth and unemployment? What are the political-economic implications of labour migration and labour market integration? What is the role of policies to promote labour migration and labour market integration? This paper discusses the nature and magnitude of labour flows across Asian countries as well as their likely changes in the future. It addresses the implications of labour market integration for economic efficiency, long-term growth and unemployment, and discusses why, despite its putative beneficial economic effects, labour movement is restricted across countries, including those in Asia. The paper explores under what circumstances trade, aid and investments are substitutes for international migration. Case studies for Hong Kong and Singapore showing how labour migration has contributed to the economic success of these economies.

**Rivera-Batiz, F.L., 1989. 'The impact of international migration on real wages: another look'. *Journal of Development Economics*, 31(1): 185-95.**

The analysis is carried out first using the two-class framework developed by Rivera-Batiz (1984) and then by means of a simple model of scale economies and imperfect competition. Results indicate that, within these contexts, real wages are likely to decline in response to emigration if (1) the migrants possess a large fraction of

physical or human capital that they take with them when migration occurs, or (2) emigration reduces the scale of operation of domestic firms. The conclusions are compared to those of Quibria.

**Robolis, S. and Xideas, E., 1996. 'The economic determinants of Greek return migration to the islands of the east Aegean'. *International Migration*, 34(2): 297-319.**

This article investigates the economic determinants of Greek return migration to the islands of the East Aegean, a region comprising hundreds of islands of different size in four administrative departments. The four largest islands constitute part of the country's east border: Lesbos, Chios, Samos and Rhodes. Each is in one of the four departments and occupies the largest part of the administrative area, ranging from 52% in the case of Rhodes to 93% in the case of Chios. They also comprise the vast majority of the region's population and almost all its economic activity and as well as the place of settlement of the majority of return migrants. The product of the place of settlement, together with economic conditions prevailing in the place of departure, determine the variance of return migration flow. Because of local economic features, unemployment in the islands does not influence decisions to return.

**Rosewarne, S., 1998. 'The globalisation and liberalisation of Asian labour markets'. *World Economy*, 21(7): 963-79.**

The successful and sustained development of the East and Southeast Asian economies has been associated with the globalisation and liberalisation of commodity and capital markets. Commodity market liberalisation, especially in the area of trade, has been seen as providing an impetus to sustained growth. The role of capital market liberalisation was initially seen as beneficial to growth, in particular through the supply of foreign investment. Now it is less clear and in 1997 the globalisation of capital markets was cited as one factor underlying the recent crisis. Recently, attention has focused on another dimension of the development of these economies, the increased significance of the international migration of Asian labour. This is the specific issue addressed in this paper. The association of globalisation with the liberalisation of labour markets requires more critical scrutiny if global labour market segmentation is to be explained. This paper takes issue with the neo-classical analysis by arguing that the globalisation of labour markets across Asia is more appropriately represented as an attenuated liberalisation of labour markets. In seeking to understand this process, the paper examines the continuing force of institutions, and especially the role of the nation-state, in labour market formation. The paper also focuses on the globalisation of labour markets within East and Southeast Africa in order to concentrate the analysis on the role of the state, but does not address the place of labour from the Asian sub-continent in the developing global labour market.

**Rothboeck, S., Vijaybhaskar, V. and Gayathri, V., 2001. 'Labour in the New Economy'. *Background paper for the World Employment Report*, ILO, Geneva.**

This paper looks at the Indian software labour market as an example of a peripherally located sector that, through strong linkage to a global commodity chain, has succeeded in being one of the fastest growing segments of the global software industry. Migration of skills from India to the west has both been a means of linkage and a potential threat to the industry.

**Rubin-Kurtzman, J.R., Ham-Chande, R. and Van-Arsdol, M.D., Jr., 1996. 'Population in trans-border regions: the southern California-Baja California urban system'. *International Migration Review*, 30(4): 1020-45.**

This article is a case study of population growth and composition in the Southern California-Baja California trans-border urban system (TBS). The central question guiding the research is how the combination of geographic proximity and economic integration in two very different regions affects population characteristics in the Southern California-Baja California TBS. The authors begin by defining trans-border urban systems, then specify the attributes of the Southern California-Baja California TBS, contrasting them with attributes observed elsewhere in the US and Mexico. The impact of the Mexican-origin population on population growth, composition, age structure and trans-border mobility is emphasized. The authors conclude by outlining several national and international policy implications that can be derived from a regional focus on the Southern California-Baja California TBS. The units of analysis are the aggregate TBS and the component counties and municipios. The data are drawn primarily from the US and Mexican censuses. Secondary data from a variety of sources also are discussed.

**Rudolph, H. and Hillman, N.F., 1998. 'How Turkish is the donar kebab?' *Scottish Geographical Magazine*, 114: 138-47.**

The article shows that internationalisation of the food industry has allowed migrants to establish niche labour markets which link to their places of origin and to other migrants from the same community in the sourcing of materials and skills.

**Ruiz-Gelices, E., King, R. and Favell, A., 2000. 'International student migration in Europe and the institutionalisation of a European identity, Unpublished paper presented to a conference on International Migration'. *Nottingham Trent University*, 11-13 September, 2000.**

This paper describes a very small survey of 50 students from the University of Sussex who were engaged in European exchange programmes. It showed that this type of mobility has the potential to create a new European 'consciousness' but that a large proportion of students anticipated returning to their country of origin for employment. Since the results are based on student views before their year abroad the conclusions need to be treated with caution.

**Russell, S.S. and Teitelbaum, M.S., 1992. 'International migration and international trade'. *World Bank Discussion Papers*, 160: 84.**

This paper reviews the major types of international migration and recent global and regional trends in population movements, as well as conceptual issues and recent trends in the volume of remittance flows. It further considers the extent to which trade, aid, and development can be expected to stem future migration flows, the role of international migration in trade in services, and implications for future research.

**Saith, A., 1992. 'Absorbing external shocks: the Gulf crisis, international migration linkages and the Indian economy, 1990 (with special reference to the impact on Kerala)'. *Development and Change*, 23(1): 101-46.**

This analyses the impact of the Gulf crisis on the Indian economy as a whole, on the state of Kerala which was the origin of the majority of the Indian migrants in Kuwait and Iraq, and on the returning migrants themselves. The scale of the disturbances is estimated both with respect to the labour market, as well as the flow of remittances.

Alternative policy responses are discussed, especially in the context of the Kerala economy, and the problem is viewed separately from the vantage point of the returning migrants, as well as that of the state government. The effects of the crisis become more acute as the focus shifts from the level of the macroeconomy, to the state of Kerala, to the migrants themselves.

**Salt, J. and Ford, R., 1993. 'Skilled international migration Europe: the shape of things to come?' In: King, R. (Editor), *Mass Migration in Europe*. Wiley, Chichester.**

This book chapter shows the heterogeneous nature of highly skilled migration. Trends are discussed relative to the global division of labour and the growth of business travel and expatriation of staff by transnational companies. Discussion focuses on intra-company transfers and recruitment agencies. It is suggested that the cost of skilled international migration to the companies involved may favour a reduction in this form of movement in favour of more business travel.

**Sassen, S., 1993. 'Economic internationalization: the new migration in Japan and the United States'. *International Migration*, 31(1): 73-102.**

The general proposition argued in this paper is that international migrations are embedded in larger social, economic and political processes. While individuals experience migration as the outcome of their personal decisions, the option to migrate is itself socially produced. This paper explores whether the concrete processes through which economic internationalisation binds major immigration receiving countries to their emigration sending countries are one form of this embeddedness. The first section of the paper addresses the impact of economic internationalisation on the formation of new immigration flows into the US during the last 25 years. The second section examines both the magnitude and forms of Japan's recent economic presence in South and Southeast Asia. The third and fourth sections briefly review questions of policy in the US and Japan during the last few years. The policy issue is now of great concern in Japan. The fifth section conveys evidence of illegal immigration to Japan. The sixth section discusses conditions in receiving countries that make possible the adaptation of immigrants with a view to understanding how illegal immigrants in Japan could become part of the Japanese economy.

**Shah, N.M., 2000. 'Relative success of male workers in the host country, Kuwait: Does the channel of migration matter?' *International Migration Review*, 34(1): 59-78.**

A survey of 800 South Asian males employed in skilled or unskilled jobs in Kuwait showed the channel of migration to be a highly significant factor of migrant success. About 34% moved through friends/relatives and 50% through recruitment agents. Multivariate analyses indicate that those who came through friends/relatives earned a higher salary, found the job to fit their expectation, and were happier than those who came through agents, but more of the former came on an Azad visa which may be illegal. Personal networks are likely to encourage additional future migration and are very difficult to regulate through government initiatives.

**Shah, N.M. and Menon, I., 1999. 'Chain migration through the social network: Experience of labour migrants in Kuwait'. *International Migration*, 37(2): 361-82.**

Labour migration to the Gulf countries is predominantly contract based and a majority of workers fall below the salary ceiling necessary for sponsoring family members.

Despite this, social networks have expanded in Kuwait, primarily in the form of sponsorship of additional labour migrants by those already in the country. The objectives of the article are to describe how the process of arranging sponsorship works, to delineate the predictors of moving through a friend or relative, or arranging sponsorship for a subsequent labour migrant, and to assess the 'multiplier' effect of the above process. The article is based on a survey among 800 South Asian skilled and unskilled male migrants, 200 each from Bangladesh, India, Pakistan and Sri Lanka. About 34 per cent of all respondents moved through friends or relatives, 50 per cent through agents and 16 per cent through direct hiring or the government bureau. Logistic regression analysis indicated that the factors most likely to predict a move through the social network consisted of being a Pakistani or Indian, being a Muslim, and possessing some skills. One-quarter of all migrants had arranged the visa for another migrant since they came to Kuwait. Logistic regression analysis showed the respondent's duration of stay in Kuwait to be an exceptionally important predictor for arranging sponsorship for an additional migrant. Monthly income, being married and being a Muslim were also positively associated with arranging sponsorship. In terms of the multiplier effect, about 0.78 visas had been arranged per migrant. Pakistanis, who had the longest average duration of stay in Kuwait, arranged the maximum number (1.6) of visas on average.

**Simon, G., 1996. 'North African migration 25 years on'. *Espace Populations Societes*, 1: 29-36.**

The author endeavours to review the most significant migratory changes since 1972. North African migration, which was once focused on France and its north-east neighbours, is now becoming world-wide with more and more migrants settling in the Persian Gulf and North America. The classic migrations for work, mainly men with a high rate of return, have created a real system of relationships, structured by the diaspora of workmen and tradesmen which mainly concern Moroccans. The North African migrants at the moment have completely accepted that they now work within transnational areas, which have more and more potential. It is from this new conceptual context that it might be suitable to examine the question of the contribution that international migration makes to local development.

**Skeldon, R., 1997. *Migration and Development*. Longman, London.**

The book examines the links between migrations and development through the lens of a set of functionally integrated development zones. Variations in mobility are placed within the context of a global hierarchy of relationships. Amongst many features, the author makes interesting comments on the development consequences for source regions of migrant diasporas.

**Stahl, C.W., 1991. 'South-North migration in the Asia-Pacific region'. *International Migration*, 29(2): 163-93.**

This paper is concerned with one manifestation of growing economic and demographic disparities between countries within the Asian-Pacific region (APR), the international movement of manpower, and the impact that this has had on the economic development of the region's economies. Although Asian workers have been going to the Middle East in large numbers since the mid 1970s, and currently there are over three million in oil-rich states, the focus of this paper is on migration within and into the APR. This movement takes two basic forms: intra-regional migration of low-level (unskilled and semiskilled) manpower from the poor labour-abundant countries

to the relatively rapidly growing capital/resource rich countries; and the movement of high-level manpower into and within the APR in association with direct foreign investment and foreign aid. Manpower relocations of both types are pervasive throughout the region and have served to inexorably and inextricably link the economies of the region. Both types of movement have important but nonetheless different implications for development policy.

**Stalker, P., 2000. *Workers without Frontiers: the Impact of Globalization on International Development*, International Labour Office (ILO), Geneva.** This text examines how migration interacts with international movements of goods and capital. Chapter 8 specifically addresses the "international skill exchange" in terms of brain drain, globalisation of education, transnational employers and the likelihood of return migration. It recognises that professional development and career opportunities may be as crucial as salary differences in encouraging skill moves between countries. The positive skew of developed country policies to attract the highly skilled could however severely affect the development of sending countries. Education systems have been one specific route by which the US has recruited talented individuals, subsequently gaining through their tendency to remain and become citizens. TNC's use expatriates to different extents, but cost makes use of host company professionals more attractive. With rising living standards in some of the newly industrialising countries a reverse drain has been observed from the US. Other effects include Western skilled workers taking up employment in NIC's.

**Stark, O., 1994. *Frontier issues in international migration*, World Bank. pp. 361-403.**

The paper addresses three main issues: why do some migrants return even though the inter-country wage differential does not reverse? Second, why do migrants who stay tend to share their higher earnings with others at origin, even in the absence of altruism or of a need to establish an exchange relationship? Can the size of these transfers be predicted? Third, what explains the earnings of migrants? Why do they often dominate the earnings of equivalent native-born workers even if differences in human capital are fully controlled for? The article suggests that when informational symmetry is re-established, the low-skill workers, who are no longer pooled with the high-skill workers, return. Second, migrants' remittances are conceived as side-payments, made under asymmetric information, by high-skill migrant workers to low-skill workers, who, if they were to migrate, would erode the wages of the high-skill workers. And third, the edge migrants have over native-born workers arises from the lower recognition costs of partners to trade whose types is unknown.

**Stark, O., Helmenstein, C. and Prskawetz, A., 1997. 'A brain gain with a brain drain'. *Economics Letters*, 55(2): 227-34.**

The approach adopted studies human capital depletion and formation in an economy open to out-migration, as opposed to an economy which is closed. Under the assumption of asymmetric information, the enlarged opportunities and the associated different structure of incentives can give rise to a brain gain in conjunction with a brain drain. Migration by high-skill members of its workforce notwithstanding, the home country can end up with a higher average level of human capital per worker.



**Stark, O., Helmenstein, C. and Prskawetz, A., 1998. 'Human capital depletion, human capital formation, and migration: a blessing in a "curse"?' *Economics Letters*, 60(3): 363-67.**

In this paper, the authors specify conditions under which a strictly positive probability of employment in a foreign country raises the level of human capital formed by optimising workers in the home country. While some workers migrate, "taking along" more human capital than if they had migrated without factoring in the possibility of migration (a form of brain drain), other workers stay at home with more human capital than they would have formed in the absence of the possibility of migration (a form of brain gain).

**Straubhaar, T. and Wolburg, M.R., 1999. 'Brain Drain and Brain Gain in Europe - An Evaluation of the East-European Migration to Germany'. *Jahrbucher Fur Nationalokonomie Und Statistik*, 218(5/6): 574-604.**

This article seeks empirically for some brain effects in the migration flows from East European countries to Germany. Using previously unpublished Eurostat data it was discovered that highly qualified persons tend to immigrate overproportionally into Germany so that the stock of human capital within the sending countries is reduced. With the help of a panel data analysis the authors then estimate a European production function and find that the share of highly qualified persons in the population has a significant and positive effect on the explanation of income differentials across the EU(12) countries. The obtained parameters of the production function for the East European countries are used to calibrate the welfare effects of the brain drain. The major findings are: First, Germany gains from migration from Eastern Europe whereas Eastern European countries lose from free migration because the average shock of human capital is lowered. Second, the overall increase in income is positive, thus international welfare increases. Third, taking remittances into account does not alter the qualitative findings.

**Taslim, M.A., 1998. 'Do migrants worsen the current account?' *International Migration*, 36(3): 409-26.**

There is some concern in Australia that immigration contributes to a widening of its current account deficit. Several cross-section studies have found that migrant households have a lower saving rate than the local born households. In conjunction with a well-known national income identity that the current account deficit is equal to the excess of investment over saving, such findings have been interpreted by many to mean that the migrants contribute to increasing the level of foreign liabilities at a rate greater than that by the local-born. However, it should be realized that immigration impacts on the economy in a complex way through various demand and supply side channels. Its direct and chain effects on such variables as the current account are spread over both the short and the long term. These effects are neither unidirectional nor always easy to isolate. The final outcome, which is the sum total of all the effects, is uncertain, and cannot be fully understood from a knowledge of cross-sectional saving performance alone. This article utilizes aggregate time series data to investigate the relationship between the current account and immigration. It finds that although an increase in net migration tends to raise the current account deficit, the longer term effect of immigration on the current account is negligible.

**Thomas Hope, E., 1999. 'Return migration to Jamaica and its development potential'. *International Migration*, 37(1): 183-207.**

Return migration to Jamaica is associated closely with the existence and nature of the transnational linkages established between migrants and their home country, especially at the level of the household and family. Remittances invariably precede, accompany and follow the actual return of migrants and comprise money as well as a range of consumer goods. Data on the number of returning migrants to Jamaica have been collected officially only since 1992; other information is derived from field studies. The figures show that the US is the source of most return migrants to Jamaica, with the United Kingdom second. Likewise, there are few official statistics on remittances, especially of those entering the country through informal channels. Nevertheless, data on the receipt of money through the Bank of Jamaica, indicate that during the 1990s remittances as a percentage of GDP exceeded that of the traditional foreign currency earners of bauxite and sugar. Growing awareness of the potential of the Jamaican overseas community has led the Government of Jamaica to establish programmes, including The Return of Talent programme, supported by the International Organization for Migration (IOM), to encourage the return of nationals. Different types of return migrants have the potential to make different kinds of contributions to national development - some through their skills, educational and professional experience, others through the financial capital which they transfer for investment or as retirement income. However, the most significant development potential of return lies in the social and economic conditions in Jamaica itself. If confidence levels are high, there will be little difficulty in attracting persons to return and financial transfers and investments will increase. Furthermore, the social and economic environment largely conditions the extent to which skills and talent as well as the financial capital are effectively utilized.

**Todisco, E., 1993. 'Intellectual, professional and skilled migrations'. *Studi Emigrazione*, 112: 574-90.**

Thousands of professionals, technicians migrate every year. This flow, known as brain drain in the countries of origin, possesses several distinct characteristics. In the US, for example, the upper layer of the immigrant population does not tend to form ethnic enclaves, but is usually dispersed throughout cities and regions. They join the primary labour market, where they help to alleviate shortages in specific occupations. In particular countries and regions, small groups of immigrants turn into commercial intermediaries. These middlemen become a buffer to deflect mass frustration and an instrument to conduct commercial activities in impoverished areas. The perceived risks are counterbalanced by commercial and financial benefits. A considerable number of entrepreneurial immigrants groups fall back on extensive division of labour within ethnic enclaves for the production of goods and services both for the ethnic and outside markets. The theory of alternate modes of structural incorporation captures the growing diversity of situations experienced by recent immigrant groups in both advanced and not so advanced economies.

**Tseng, Y.F., 2000. 'The mobility of entrepreneurs and capital: Taiwanese capital-linked migration'. *International Migration*, 38(2): 143-68.**

Much of the literature concerning international investment focuses on the movement of capital or trade flows and does not cover the persons who migrate with the capital, even though in a globalising economic system new conditions emerge for the international migration of capitalists. On the one hand, capital owners have been

recruited directly by business migration programmes in countries such as Canada, Australia, and the US. On the other hand, global economic restructuring, one part of which entails increasing foreign direct investment from a wider range of countries, has induced the migration of an entrepreneurial/managerial class. This article analyses the relation between the mobility of capital and of entrepreneurs by investigating Taiwan's capital-linked migrations. It aims to show that people can integrate migration and capital investment as a strategy to best serve their interests. Although their moves are mediated and constrained by different migration channels (governmental policies, recruitment agencies, transnational corporations, etc.), capital-linked migrants are not passive players in international migration systems. They actively position themselves with regard to migration channels and select active strategies that best suit their objectives. Sometimes immigration serves capitalists' interest in capital accumulation, at other times capital investment serves as the means for securing a second nationality. In this way, Taiwanese capitalist mobility has been incorporated into the open-ended logic of flexible capitalism itself. Such understanding of the processes of capital-linked migration and its implications contribute to new theories of the relationship between international flows of capital and international migration.

**Vertovec, S., 1999. 'Conceiving and researching transnationalism'. *Ethnic and Racial Studies*, 22(2): 447-62.**

A review of recent research across several disciplines not surprisingly finds a wide variety of descriptions surrounding meanings, processes, scales and methods concerning the notion of 'transnationalism'. Here, several clusters or themes are suggested by way of disentangling the term. These include transnationalism as a social morphology, as a type of consciousness, as a mode of cultural reproduction, as an avenue of capital, as a site of political engagement, and as a reconstruction of 'place' or locality. These and other approaches to transnationalism are being explored in a newly commissioned ESRC research programme on Transnational Communities.

**Vidal, J.P., 1998. 'The effect of emigration on human capital formation'. *Journal of Population Economics*, 11(4): 589-600.**

This paper focuses on a possible effect of emigration on human capital formation. Emigration to a higher returns to skill country provides an incentive to invest in human capital. The level of human capital formation in the source country can therefore be positively correlated with the probability of emigration. Incidentally a surge in emigration can lead the source country out of an under-development trap. The implications of the model for the convergence controversy are also discussed.

**Vizi, E.S., 1993. 'Reversing the Brain Drain from Eastern European Countries: The "Push" and "Pull" Factors'. *Technology in Society*, 15(1): 101-09.**

Having reported on the exodus of professionals from Eastern Europe, the author proceeds to make recommendations about how to reduce "push and pull" factors. First Eastern European countries need to pay "market" prices for their skilled staff. More important than salaries are working and living conditions and the intellectual climate. Thus creating a favourable R&D climate is key to encouraging return migration of scientists. International agencies by creating research networks and links can reduce emigration, because of the positive effects in stimulating R&D environments. Direct assistance is also needed to strengthen the technological and scientific infrastructure. This should be financed by western agencies.

**Waldinger, R., 1989. 'Structural opportunity or ethnic advantage? Immigrant business development in New York'. *International Migration Review*, 23(1): 48-72.**

Research on ethnic enterprise emerged in the US as part of an attempt to explain the historical differences in business activity between blacks and other ethnic groups. Glazer and Moynihan argued that 'the small shopkeeper, small manufacturer, or small entrepreneur of any kind played such an important role in the rise of immigrant groups in America that its absence from the Negro community warrants at least some discussion'. The first extended treatment came with the publication of Ivan Light's now classic comparison of Blacks, with immigrants - Japanese, Chinese, West Indians - whose racial characteristics made them equally distinctive; the argument developed an imaginative variant of the Weber thesis, showing that it was ethnic solidarity that gave these immigrants an 'elective affinity' with the requirements of small business.

**Waldinger, R., 1994. 'The making of an immigrant niche'. *International Migration Review*, 28(1): 3-30.**

Although the dominant paradigm of immigrant employment views immigrants as clustered in a limited number of occupations or industries that comprise a niche, the explanations of how immigrants enter and establish these niches remain incomplete. The social network approach begs the issues of how to account for the insertion and consolidation of immigrant networks as opposed to those dominated by incumbent native workers. This article seeks to answer this question through a case study of immigrant professional employees in New York City government. The growth of this immigrant niche resulted from changes in the relative supply of native workers and in the structure of employment, which opened the bureaucracy to immigrants and reduced native/immigrant competition. These shifts opened hiring portals; given the advantages of network hiring for workers and managers, and an immigrant propensity for government employment, network recruitment led to a rapid build-up in immigrant ranks.

**Warner, D., 1998. 'The globalization of medical care'. In: UNCTAD (Editor), *International Trade in Health Services*. UNCTAD, Geneva, pp. 71-78.**

Access to medical knowledge has globalised, while finance for provision of health services is highly uneven resulting in a trade in doctors and nurses. For developing countries affiliation of medical schools with hospitals in developed countries provides the opportunity for enhanced medical education. Having top research institutions in the medical field helps slow or reverse the brain drain of doctors. Providing funding for medical research to be conducted in the developing countries also reduces the outflow of people seeking opportunities to this abroad.

**Weintraub, S., 1992. 'North American free trade and the European situation compared'. *International Migration Review*, 26(2): 506-24.**

The Treaty of Rome, establishing what is now the EC, consciously used economic means to foster political cohesion in Western Europe; whereas, the NAFTA negotiations seek free trade rather than more comprehensive economic integration precisely to minimize political content. The EC contains many social provisions absent from the NAFTA discussions, the most important of which is the right of migration from one EC country to another. Migration between Mexico and the US, is more extensive than between any of the EC countries. This migration is unlikely to diminish in the near to medium term because of the great disparity that exists in the

levels of income of the two countries. However, a reduction in the pressure to emigrate from Mexico over the long term requires sustained economic growth there, to which free trade with the US can contribute.

**Willis, K.D. and Yeoh, B.S.A., 2000. 'Gender and transnational household strategies: Singaporean migration to China'. *Regional Studies*, 34(3): 253-64.**

Increases in international flows of highly-skilled migrants have been characteristic of the economic globalisation process. Professional and managerial employees are in increasing demand as transnational companies expand their locations of operation. However, research on these skilled migrants' movements has been predominantly linked to the firm itself, focusing on the productive sphere alone. This has led to a failure to consider the fact that migration decisions are usually made in the context of a household and that a separation of the productive from the reproductive elements fails to recognize the interdependence of the two sectors and how 'successful' migration depends on both the workplace and the home. This paper addresses this interdependence in the context of Singaporean migration to China using material from interviews with 130 Singaporeans.

**Winchie, D.B. and Carment, D.W., 1989. 'Migration and motivation: the migrant's perspective'. *International Migration Review*, 23(1): 96-104.**

Migration is often viewed as economically motivated. The data indicate that non-monetary career reasons are important instigators of migration among well educated international migrants. In addition these factors tend to be major perceived gains from migration. However, choice of destination is strongly influenced by location of friends and/or relatives.

**Wong, K.Y. and Yip, C.K., 1999. 'Education, economic growth, and brain drain'. *Journal of Economic Dynamics and Control*, 23(5-6): 699-726.**

This paper constructs a two-sector overlapping-generations model of endogenous growth to study the effects of brain drain on growth, education and income distribution. It is shown that brain drain reduces the economic growth rate and generally hurts the non-emigrants through the static income-distributional effects and the dynamic damage on economic growth and human capital accumulation. If the initial rate of human capital accumulation is relatively low, brain drain could deteriorate both the sum of discounted income and lifetime discounted utility of a representative non-emigrant. The government can choose to spend more on education to lessen the detrimental growth effects of brain drain.

**Yap Mui, T., 1994. 'Brain drain or links to the world: views on emigrants from Singapore'. *Asian and Pacific Migration Journal*, 3(2-3): 411-29.**

The changes in Singapore's recent policies toward emigration correspond with the growing importance to Singaporean overseas business ventures. Moving from viewing emigration as brain drain and the decision to migrate as an act of disloyalty to the nation, recent statements by government officials have begun to identify the overseas community as a valuable link to the world economy. 'Globalisation' and more recently 'regionalisation' are the popular terms which indicate Singapore's current economic strategy of shifting from a focus on high technology, high value-added industries to a program of building an external economy through overseas expansion and the promotion of offshore activities.

**Yen Fen, T., 1995. 'Beyond 'Little Taipei': the development of Taiwanese immigrant businesses in Los Angeles'. *International Migration Review*, 29(1): 33-58.**

Both in their choice to settle in predominantly non-ethnic neighbourhoods and in their economic development, recent Taiwanese immigrants in Los Angeles represent a fundamental break with the past. It is this new type of economic development that brings an unprecedented impact on the society at large. Quantitative as well as qualitative methods were employed in this study. The data were obtained from document files, field observations, in-depth interviews, US census data, and a telephone survey of 310 Taiwanese business owners in the greater Los Angeles area. The data analysis closely examined entrepreneurial process ethnic integration, and industrial diversity among Taiwanese immigrant businesses. Provided with entrepreneurial capacity, Taiwanese enterprises grow rapidly within the context of Los Angeles's economic restructuring and dependency on Asian Pacific trade.

**Yen Fen, T., 1997. 'Immigration industry: immigration consulting firms in the process of Taiwanese business immigration'. *Asian and Pacific Migration Journal*, 6(3-4): 275-94.**

Today various countries actively promote business migration programs to bring in more resourceful immigrants, thereby increasing immigration channels for people with physical capital. How to match the right migrants with the right destinations has become a business niche for private agencies. In this article, the impact of the immigration industry on the immigration process has been analysed, based on a case study of Taiwanese business immigration. Immigration consultants have facilitated recent Taiwanese business migration by increasing awareness of business migration programs, providing needed assistance and organizing the actual migration process. The involvement of immigration consultants in facilitating the migration of the wealthy class represents one of the outstanding characteristics of the so-called 'new Asian migration'. Data are mainly from various documentary sources and in-depth interviews with immigration consulting firms.

**Young Bum, P., 1994. 'The turning point in international migration and economic development in Korea'. *Asian and Pacific Migration Journal*, 3(1): 149-74.**

From the 1960s to the 1980s, international migration was initiated and pursued by the government, bringing in remittances which improved the balance of payments and helped fund investment projects necessary for industrial upgrading. Rapid upgrading, coupled with demographic and social changes, have led to a need for unskilled foreign workers on a large scale. With a large influx of illegal workers, the Korean government now faces changing its policy to allow unskilled workers to enter the country.

**Zelinsky, W. and Lee, B.A., 1998. 'Heterolocalism: An Alternative Model of the Sociospatial Behaviour of Immigrant Ethnic Communities'. *International Journal of Population Geography*, 4(4): 281-98.**

The paper criticises the assimilation and pluralist models of contemporary migration. Instead it is noted that heterolocalism is ever more important in a global economy where "communities without propinquity" are becoming more important in the economic functions of transnational communities.

**Zweig, D., 1997. 'To Return or Not To Return?: Politics vs. Economics in China's Brain Drain'. *Studies in Comparative International Development*, 32(1): 92-125.**

The article reports a study of Chinese professionals and students in the USA in 1993. Only 9% has concrete plans to return, although one third positively viewed returning a possibility. The determinants of discouraging return included having a wife and child abroad and concern about a lack of freedom in China. Professional, housing and income factors also discouraged return. Another factor was concern about being unable to leave again if they did return.

### **Research Question 3**

#### **What role do remittances play?**

**Adams-Jr, R.H., 1989. 'Worker remittances and inequality in rural Egypt'. *Economic Development and Cultural Change*, 38(1): 45-71.**

Analyses the impact of international migration and remittances on the rural socio-economic order in Egypt. The empirical findings show that age, marital status, employment, size of land farmed, and number of household males over 13 years are all statistically related to the decision of an individual to go to work abroad. The remittance earnings had a negative impact on rural income distribution in Egypt, both in gross terms and in per capita terms, because they were earned mainly by upper income villagers. However, it should be noted that in the once-abroad category of migrants, the poorest households did send virtually the same number of workers abroad as households in the upper income groups. Had households sending migrants abroad been as evenly distributed in the past, it may be logically inferred that the impact of remittances on rural income distribution would also have been more equitable.

**Adams-Jr, R.H., 1991. *The effects of international remittances on poverty, inequality, and development in rural Egypt*, International Food Policy Research Institute. pp. 88.**

Examines the effects of international remittances on rural Egypt, where international migration has been extensive in recent years. It is based on a household survey conducted in 1986/87 in three villages in Minya Governorate, a rural province about 250 kilometres south of Cairo. The study examines the social and economic determinants of international migration within the context of migration and human capital models of development. It finds that although international remittances have a positive effect on poverty, they have a negative effect on income distribution, because at the time of the survey most of the still-abroad migrants were from the upper-income groups. Contrary to popular belief, the data show that once-abroad migrants do not devote large shares of their remittance earnings to personal consumption (food, clothing, schooling, medical, pilgrimage, and marriage expenses). Once-abroad migrant households tend to spend the bulk of their remittance earnings on housing. Approximately 73% of total per capita expenditure on investment by once-abroad migrant households goes to the purchase of agricultural land or to land for building.

**Ahlburg, D.A., 1991. *Remittances and their impact: a study of Tonga and Western Samoa*, Research School of Pacific Studies, National Centre for Development Studies, Australian National University.**

Over the last 15-20 years Tonga and Western Samoa have come to rely on migration and remittances (labour export) to maintain external economic balance and low population growth. Recently Australia, New Zealand and the US, the most important countries for migration from Tonga and Western Samoa, have initiated points based immigration schemes which may limit access of Pacific islanders. The possibility that migration levels may decline raises serious issues. It is the aim of this study to assist policy makers and planners to assess the impact and maximize the benefits of migration and remittances.

**Athukorala, P., 1993. 'Improving the contribution of migrant remittances to development: the experience of Asian labour-exporting countries'. *International Migration Review*, 31(1): 103-24.**

An area of study that has not received adequate attention is the potential role of government policy in the mobilisation of remittances with a view to maximising its developmental impact in labour-exporting countries. The purpose of this paper is to review policy initiatives in six major labour-exporting countries in Asia - Bangladesh, India, Korea, the Philippines, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, and Thailand. Where relevant, the experience of these countries will be compared and contrasted with those of labour-exporting countries in other parts of the world in order to place the key inferences in a wider perspective. The most obvious benefit of labour migration to a labour-exporting country is remittances. These provide an important source of foreign exchange which is often considered a constraining factor on economic development. Government policy towards remittance mobilisation has two major objectives: attract inflows into the formal banking sector and direct the deployment of counterpart domestic currency receipts of migrant households towards the fulfilment of national development priorities.

**Funkhouser, E., 1995. 'Remittances from international migration: a comparison of El Salvador and Nicaragua'. *Review of Economics and Statistics*, 77(1): 137-46.**

Nearly twice as many households in San Salvador receive remittances from relatives abroad than do households in Managua, and of those who receive remittances, the average remittance received in San Salvador is over double that in Managua - \$119/month to \$45/month. The role of observable characteristics in explaining differences in the level of remittances, accounting for the self-selection in the decision to remit, is not large. The difference is explained by differences in the behavioural coefficients and by differences in the self-selection bias of those who remit out of the pool of emigrants between the two countries.

**Grecic, V., 1990. 'The importance of migrant workers' and emigrants' remittances for the Yugoslav economy'. *International Migration*, 28(2): 201-13.**

Although there have been numerous studies of Yugoslav migration, the aspect of migrants' remittances and their effect on the Yugoslav economy has been neglected despite its great importance. Focuses on certain methodological difficulties, the gathering of reliable statistical data for foreign currency remittances from Yugoslavs working abroad and emigrants, as well as the monitoring of these remittances and the analysis of remittance flows and private transfers. Attention has also been given to remittances in relation to the Yugoslav balance of payments, to their major effects, to



the mechanisms used to attract foreign currency remittances, as well as to measures for the more rational utilization of remittances and foreign currency savings.

**Hammarstedt, M., 2000. 'The receipt of transfer payments by immigrants in Sweden'. *International Migration*, 38(2): 239-68.**

Using the native-born as a benchmark, this article examines the reliance of immigrants on Sweden's social safety net. Both in the raw data, and after conditioning on a number of explanatory variables, we find that there are differences between immigrants and natives regarding participation in the Swedish income security system. We also find that there are differences in this respect between immigrants from different regions as well as between more recent and earlier cohorts of immigrants. As regards unemployment insurance benefits and cash labour market assistance, no clear pattern can be discerned in the results. In the case of early retirement pension and social assistance, however, the picture looks different. Immigrants arriving at an early date from typical labour immigration regions are over-represented in early retirement. Immigrants, especially non-European immigrants with a recent date of arrival, are over-represented among recipients of social assistance. The overall conclusion is that the immigrants' total rate of participation in the income security system is determined by their rate of unemployment and their state of health. On the other hand, the distribution of their participation among the different components of the income security system is highly dependent on their length of residence in Sweden and where they come from.

**Kandil, M. and Metwally, M.F., 1990. 'The impact of migrants' remittances on the Egyptian economy'. *International Migration*, 28(2): 159-80.**

This paper addresses the issue of the impact of workers' remittances on the Egyptian economy in some detail. One of the major effects of the massive Egyptian workers' migration has been the resulting remittances and the dependency of the Egyptian economy on this source of foreign exchange. Starts by summarizing some figures about the recent magnitudes of Egyptian labour migration and some related facts. Analyzes the impact of remittances in the context of the standard Keynesian macroeconomic model. The empirical section of the paper proceeds to estimate the structural equations identifying the aggregate Egyptian economy using the specifications of the standard Keynesian model. Concludes by drawing some policy implications that are necessary in order to maximize the positive impact of migrants' remittances on the Egyptian economy.

**Karafolas, S., 1998. 'Migrant remittances in Greece and Portugal: distribution by country of provenance and the role of the banking presence'. *International Migration*, 36(3): 357-82.**

The article examines migrant remittances per country of origin of remittances for two emigration countries, Greece and Portugal. It also examines the relationship between remittances and the number of banks of the emigration country in the host country. From the analysis it appears that remittances are concentrated in a small number of host countries-the US and Germany for the Greek case; France (mainly) and the US, Germany and Switzerland for the Portuguese case. Remittances followed similar trends, characterized by especially high growth during the 1970s and also during the second half of the 1980s. For both countries similar trends are observed regarding the relationship between remittances and remittances per migrant with the presence of banks of the home country at the important countries of origin of remittances. The

growth of the banking presence in host countries had a significant impact on the growth of migrant remittances. However, remittances and migrant population are neither the unique nor main reason for banking expansion abroad. The common European financial and banking market is expected to play a major role in the banking presence abroad, particularly in European Union countries.

**Keely, C.B. and Bao Nga, T., 1989. 'Remittances from labour migration: evaluations, performance and implications'. *International Migration Review*, 23(3): 500-25.**

Presented are two evaluative views of worker remittances which draw opposite conclusions. The negative one posits that remittances increase dependency, contribute to economic and political instability and development distortion, and lead to economic decline that overshadows a temporary advantage for a fortunate few. The positive view sees remittances as an effective response to market forces, providing a transition to an otherwise unsustainable development. They improve income distribution and quality of life beyond what other available development approaches could deliver. The implications are tested for labour supply countries to Europe and to the Middle East. The implications of the negative view are not supported.

**Looney, R.E., 1990. 'Macroeconomic impacts of worker remittances on Arab world labour exporting countries'. *International Migration*, 28(1): 25-45.**

In recent years, the trade in human capital in the Arab world has generated significant financial flows, in the form of remittances, into the non-oil producing states, flows which in a number of cases greatly exceed earnings from commodity trade. The resulting expansion in aggregate demand in these countries, unaccompanied in the short run by any increase in domestic supply, led to pressure on both the price level and the current account of the balance of payments. One theory is that such pressures and the inadequacy of domestic capital markets mitigated against the optimal employment of emigrants' remittances. The purpose of this paper is to empirically test this thesis. Do worker remittances affect the macroeconomic development patterns in the Arab world in a manner significantly different than other sources of foreign exchange?

**Poirine, B., 1994. 'Emigration in Oceania: a socio-economic theory'. *Espace Populations Societes*, 2: 213-24.**

In the Oceanian context, just as everywhere, international migration, depends on legal and macroeconomic factors, such as the wage differential between the sending and the receiving country. But there is also a microeconomic aspect: it is necessary to explain why emigrants send home remittances permanently, and why only some members of the family emigrate. A standard microeconomic model fails to explain this, since local migrants maximize a family utility, not an individual one. Furthermore, the utility function depends not only on material welfare, but also on 'socio-cultural' welfare, or the 'quality of life', which in turn depends on two variables: the amount of leisure, and the cultural environment where the leisure is spent.

**Quibria, M.G., 1997. 'International migration, remittances and income distribution in the source country: a synthesis'. *Bulletin of Economic Research*, 49(1): 29-46.**

The paper explores, under a wide variety of circumstances, the welfare impact of emigration. The analytical framework posited is a simple two-factor, two-commodity,

two-class general equilibrium model that makes a distinction between traded and non-traded goods. The principal aim is to collect and synthesize the well-known results in the literature, derived from diverse analytical frameworks, as well as to establish a number of new ones. It is shown that pure emigration can be beneficial to the non-emigrants in the source country, irrespective of the welfare criteria adopted, if accompanied by sufficient remittances. The paper also highlights the fact that emigration does not affect all classes in society symmetrically. The division of losers and gainers depends on the volume of remittances, the distribution of factor endowments and the type of emigration.

**Rallu, J.L., 1994. 'Australia and Pacific Islander migration'. *Asian and Pacific Migration Journal*, 3(2-3): 431-43.**

The net migration gains of Pacific Islands-born to Australia increased steeply from 1986, mostly due to migration from Fiji in 1987-1988 after the coups. This is reflected in the differing migration trends and characteristics of the Fiji-born compared to other Islander migrants. Due to poor job opportunities in the Islands and economic restructuring in the countries of the Pacific Rim, Island states seem to have adopted a policy of increased brain drain to ensure remittances flows. This could also be related to changing fertility rates in the Islands in the 1980s.

**Rodriguez, E.R., 1998. 'International migration and income distribution in the Philippines'. *Economic Development and Cultural Change*, 46(2): 329-50.**

This article uses household data on remittances from migrants to determine the effects of migration on household income and its distribution. Two different approaches were used to measure these effects. The first uses actual and counterfactual scenarios with and without migration to isolate the impact of an increase in emigration. The author interprets this change in emigration as the change from zero to the migration levels of 1991 (representing approximately 1.7 million migrants overseas). The second assumes only very small changes in emigration (a 1% rise in emigration levels). This difference in the magnitude of change in migration levels is reflected in the impact on incomes. The first approach shows an increase of 6.3% for the country's average per capita household income. The second approach represents an increase of only 0.06% in total household income (because of a 1% rise in emigration). While increases in incomes tend to raise resident households' welfare, inequality would tend to reduce it. Both methods suggest that inequality rises with emigration. According to the first method, an increase in incomes coincides with an increase of 7.9% in income inequality. The second method, which indicates a very small increase in total income because of remittances, also results in an equally small increase in inequality (0.032%).

**Rubenstein, H., 1992. 'Migration, development and remittances in rural Mexico'. *International Migration*, 30(2): 127-53.**

This paper explores the extent to which incentives and constraints on overall development and individual economic well-being can be identified in rural parts of Mexico by examining the magnitude of remittances from migrants, the manner in which cash received is allocated, and the economic impact of repatriated funds on rural areas. The effects of migrant remittances are examined by using a historical-structural framework that highlights the relation between economically developed metropolitan countries and their economically underdeveloped satellites. From this perspective, the migration of rural Mexicans is viewed as an example of global

movement in which labour is manipulated in the interest of developed countries to the detriment of underdeveloped ones. This proposition requires the relation between migration, remittances and development to be examined simultaneously from the perspective of both labour- exporting and labour-importing countries. The author concludes that remittances, and perhaps the entire migratory system as presently constituted in Mexico, are detrimental to the long-range prospects for economic improvement in most of the country's rural enclaves. In 'cost-benefit' terms, remittances are a minor component of surplus labour extraction, a small charge to capital in a grossly unequal process of exchange between core and peripheral societies.

**Russell, S.S., 1992. 'Migrant remittances and development'. *International Migration*, 30(3-4): 267-87.**

This paper reviews selected issues in the measurement of remittances and presents recent findings on the volume and direction of flows. It then considers evidence concerning the uses of remittances and their consequences for development, and finally discusses policy options for increasing and channelling remittance flows.

**Russell, S.S., Jacobsen, K. and Stanley, W.D., 1990. 'International migration and development in sub-Saharan Africa. Volume I: overview'. *World Bank Discussion Papers*, 101: 168.**

This two-volume study provides a 'state of knowledge' analysis of important interactions between international migration and development in sub-Saharan Africa. Based upon a critical review of more than 900 documents as well as original quantitative analysis, Volume I documents the scale and magnitude of migration trends and their interrelationships with remittances, labour markets, highly skilled manpower, education, health, and agriculture. Policies toward population movements and the subject of refugees are also treated. An extensive selected bibliography and subject index are included. Overall, the review of data on the scale and magnitude of migration in sub-Saharan Africa found no evidence to suggest that the volume of international migration will be substantially reduced in future.

**Samha, M., 1990. 'The impact of migratory flows on population changes in Jordan: a Middle Eastern case study'. *International Migration*, 28(2): 215-28.**

Migration in Jordan flourished under the joint influence of political and economic events in the Middle East, and was given a strong impetus by the development of both forces. The inflow of refugees from Palestine in 1948 and from the West Bank and Gaza Strip in 1967 and internal migration from rural to urban areas, all significantly boosted the population in the country as a whole and in major urban areas in particular. While the refugee movement created a huge economic burden on Jordan, emigration of Jordanians to the oil countries in the Gulf was a blessing to the economy of the country. The discussion on the impact of migration reveals the fact that remittances of emigrants abroad changed the deficit in the balance of payments to a surplus. However, it appears that migration accelerated the population concentration in the largest urban areas, and has strengthened the unguided dependency of Jordan on remittances.

**Taylor, J.E., 1999. 'The new economics of labour migration and the role of remittances in the migration process'. *International Migration*, 37(1): 63-88.**

The article reviews the role of remittances in shaping development. The article argues that a more positive view is needed of the potential for remittances to unlock a development dynamic by lessening investment constraints and creating income growth linkages. The article contains however no primary research evidence to support these optimistic claims.

#### **Research Question 4**

**What impact does skilled migration have on poverty in developing countries?**

**Adams-Jr, R.H., 1992. 'The effects of migration and remittances on inequality in rural Pakistan'. *Pakistan Development Review*, 31(4): 1189-206.**

Presents a framework for analysing the impact of internal and international remittances on rural income distribution. This framework uses predicted income equations to predict (estimate) the incomes of households in two situations: excluding and including remittances. The results are then used to evaluate the changes in income distribution that occur when internal and international remittances are excluded, compared to when they are included. Data come from a three-year study (1986-87 to 1988-89) of 727 households in three provinces in rural Pakistan. The study shows that both internal and international remittances have an essentially neutral impact on rural income distribution in Pakistan. This is because they are distributed fairly equally throughout the income order. With the exception of the lowest income quintile, most quintile groups of households manage to produce their percentage share of both internal and international migrants. The latter result is particularly surprising, given the high - and ostensibly prohibitive - 'entry costs' to international migration in Pakistan. At the time of this study, the average estimated cost of international migration in Pakistan was 21 000 rupees (US\$302). The results suggest that international migrants from the lower income quintile groups actually were able to either find or borrow such large sums of money in order to migrate.

**Adepoju, A., 1995. 'Emigration dynamics in sub-Saharan Africa'. *International Migration*, 33(3-4): 315-90.**

This paper demonstrates that emigration dynamics in sub-Saharan Africa cannot be understood without careful assessment being made of the influence and linkage between the variables proposed for the conceptual framework. While the country and sub-regional studies on which the author has drawn indicate diverse stages of development, colonial heritage, ethnic base, political systems and degrees of human rights, there is no doubt that low and declining per capita income created levels of poverty which, in some countries, have been the major precipitator of both achieved and likely future emigration. The country/sub-regional studies also confirm that within this economic/demographic setting, ethnic conflict, type of government and dearth of human rights have also precipitated emigration.

**Davies, J.B. and Wooton, I., 1992. 'Income inequality and international migration'. *Economic Journal*, 102(413): 789-802.**

Analyses the impact of international factor movements on the personal distribution of income, using a simple model of trade and migration in which there are two traded goods and three factors. For any given country one of the traded goods corresponds to exports and the other to imports. The three factors include capital and two types of labour - skilled and unskilled. The authors focus mainly on the alternative results of international migration of the two types of labour.

**Docquier, F. and Rapoport, H., 1999. 'The effects of brain drain on growth, redistribution and inequalities'. *Revue Economique*, 50(3): 499-510.**

This paper examines the total effect of brain drain on economic growth and inequalities in the country of origin. By introducing heterogeneity in individual abilities and uncertainty this allows derivation of the conditions under which brain drain may be beneficial in terms of growth and lower inequality for any exogenous rate of redistribution. Next the authors introduce the political economy specifications which lead to an endogenous rate of redistribution. Three regimes are distinguished: a democratic system in which the median voter plays a central role, a "progressive" and an "elitist" system in which the government privileges the situation of a social group.

**Findlay, A., 1987, The development implications of skilled international migration for host and sender societies, *Occasional Paper Series*, 20, Department of Geography, University of Glasgow, Glasgow.**

Following a discussion of the role of MNC's and international recruitment agencies in stimulating highly skilled migration, the paper devotes attention specifically to the impact on localities of origin and the development implications. It is noted that many development projects neither add value to the economy in which they occur nor improve the quality of life of the local population. Transnational investments need to be accompanied by international knowledge transfer. The reasons for limited technology transfer are reviewed.

**Mountford, A., 1997. 'Can a brain drain be good for growth in the source economy?' *Journal of Development Economics*, 53(2): 287-304.**

This paper analyzes the interaction between income distribution, human capital accumulation and migration. It shows that when migration is not a certainty, a brain drain may increase average productivity and equality in the source economy even though average productivity is a positive function of past average levels of human capital in an economy. It is also shown how the temporary possibility of emigration may permanently increase the average level of productivity of an economy.

**Rhode, B., 1993. 'Brain drain, brain gain, brain waste: reflections on the emigration of highly educated and scientific personnel from Eastern Europe'. In: King, R. (Editor), *The New Geography of European migrations*. Belhaven, London, pp. 228-45.**

This is a very useful literature review for its time. The classification of skilled emigration provided in this chapter usefully distinguishes moves by their economic impact relative to the sender country and the use of qualified personnel before and after movement. The situation resulting from skilled emigration from Eastern Europe is largely seen as 'brain waste'. 'Nationalist' and 'internationalist' perspectives are contrasted and impediments to movement are reviewed. The scale of skill loss from

Easter Europe is reported in empirical terms, and concern expressed that the brain drain will reduce skill stocks below the critical mass required for economic 'take off'.

**Rowlands, D., 1999. 'Domestic governance and international migration'. *World Development*, 27(8): 1477-91.**

With growing disparities between the levels of material wealth in rich and poor countries, migration appears to be a attractive option for inhabitants of less developed countries. Simultaneously, there has been a growing interest in the potential contribution of good governance to economic development. This paper explores the link between governance and migration, and concludes on the basis of cross-sectional empirical evidence that governance may indeed be a significant factor in determining the rates of emigration from poor countries to wealthy ones.

**Seccombe, I. and Findlay, A., 1989. 'The consequences of temporary emigration and remittance expenditure'. In: Appleyard, R. (Editor), *The Impact of International Migration on Developing Countries*. OECD, Paris, pp. 109-28.**

This paper, based on surveys in urban and rural Jordan illustrates the very limited benefits of remittances in developing productive activities. Most remittances are used for housing and debt settlement.

**Stark, O. and Taylor, J.E., 1991. 'Migration incentives, migration types: the role of relative deprivation'. *Economic Journal*, 101(408): 1163-78.**

A recent study found empirical evidence that the initial relative deprivation of households in their village reference group plays a significant role in migration from Mexico to the US. Controlling for initial absolute income and the expected income gains from migration, the propensity of households to participate in international migration was directly related to the households' initial relative deprivation. In this paper we expand this earlier work by addressing the role of absolute income versus relative deprivation incentives for internal and international migration in LDC households, taking into account continuities across some labour markets and discontinuities across others. The rationale for the analysis is threefold. First, there are reasons to expect that the role of relative deprivation will differ between international migration and migration within a country, as we explain below. Second, sharp discontinuities in the returns to human capital between home- and host-country labour markets may affect the ability of households that differ in their human capital endowments to achieve income position gains through international migration. Third, a relative deprivation approach to migration has important implications for development policy. Section I of the paper outlines the relative deprivation model of migration and present an illustration of the divergent policy implications of a relative deprivation model versus an absolute income model. In section II a migration decision model is estimated and is used to explore absolute and relative income motives for internal and international migration in a sample of rural Mexican households, as well as to test the extent to which discontinuity in labour markets shapes the choice of migrant destination. In section III conclusions are presented.

### **Research Question 5**

**How important is the UK currently as a destination for skilled workers and students from developing countries? How important is it likely to become?**

**Beaverstock, J.V. and Boardwell, J.T., 2000. 'Negotiating globalization, transnational corporations and global city financial centres in transient migration studies'. *Applied Geography*, 20: 277-304.**

This paper reports on recent results of the UK International Passenger Survey as well as the authors own research in skilled migrants in Singapore. It seeks to build a theoretical framework linking skilled transient behaviour to the functioning of global cities.

**Beaverstock, J.V. and Smith, J., 1996. 'Lending Jobs to Global Cities: Skilled International Labour Migration, Investment Banking and the City of London'. *Urban Studies*, 33(8): 1377-94.**

The agglomeration of skilled international migrants in global cities' financial communities has paralleled the globalisation of financial capital, international markets and deregulation, International workers have clustered in global cities as a response to their geo-economic functions, and in particular those labour market demands created within transnational corporate headquarters, Within this context, this paper will provide a discussion of the significance of skilled international labour migration within a global city: the City of London's transnational investment banking community.

**Boyle, M., Findlay, A., Lelievre, E. and Paddison, R., 1996. 'World cities and the limits to global control'. *International Journal of Urban and Regional Research*, 20: 498-517.**

This paper examines the functioning of recruitment agencies in providing global reach to firms located in a global city. It illustrates that differences exist between different economies in the propensity of indigenous labour to indulge in expatriation and consequently the need for TNC's based particularly in certain European countries to make greater use of international recruitment agencies.

**Bundred, P.E. and Levitt, C., 2000. 'Medical migration: who are the real losers?' *The Lancet*, 356(July 15): 245-46.**

The paper reports on the damage to developing countries such as Zambia and Uganda of the brain drain of doctors to developed countries. Barriers to emigration include longer training prior to registration. South Africa has banned (1995) recruitment of doctors from poorer African countries. In the UK foreign doctors are recruited to jobs and areas where British doctors do not want to live. Foreign doctors also often accept positions that do not fully use their qualifications.



Three policy measures are recommended:

1. compensation to developing countries for their loss on training costs,
2. increase training of doctors in developed countries and a strategy to deliver services to underserved areas,
3. support modernisation of medical education systems appropriate to the technology of their countries.

**Dyer, C., 1994. 'London scientists blame NHS reforms for brain drain'. *British Medical Journal*, 309: 291.**

This brief article presents two sides to the emigration of leading medical scientists (some of non-UK origin) from London. The migrants explained their moves chiefly in terms of low morale in the major London hospitals. By contrast, the government's chief science adviser noted the international dimension of headhunting, and stressed that the process was two-way.

**Findlay, A., 1987. 'The role of international migration in the transformation of an economy: the case of Yemen'. *International Migration for Employment Working Paper*, 35: ILO, Geneva.**

This paper looks at the development implications for Yemen of being a 'migrant dependent' state. This is shown to not only affect the labour market, but also to impact on agricultural development, urbanisation and patterns of trade. One section of the paper discusses return migration examining the lagged correlation between emigration and return migration.

**Findlay, A., 1988. 'From settlers to skilled transients'. *Geoforum*, 19: 401-10.**

This paper examines UK International Passenger Survey to analyse recent trends in skilled migration. Amongst other features it notes the increasing importance of skilled transient migrants amongst British citizen flows into and out of UK. The trend is linked with the so-called new international division of labour and the needs of large companies to shift staff between branch plants in different parts of the global economy.

**Findlay, A., 1994. 'An economic audit of contemporary immigration'. In: Spencer, S. (Editor), *Strangers & citizens: a positive approach to migrants and refugees*. Rivers Oram Press, London, pp. 159-201.**

This chapter reviews the costs and benefits to the UK of skilled and unskilled labour migration. The significance of market demand for labour immigration, as witnessed through the skills transferred through the UK Work Permit Scheme, is stressed. The positive benefit of entrepreneurial immigration is also evaluated. The chapter concludes by identifying problems with current UK legislation and suggests ways in which policy might be altered to increase the benefits to the UK of skilled immigration.

**Fletcher, E., 1997. 'Home medical students account for less than half of the full registrants Britain requires'. *British Medical Journal*, 314: 1278.**

A short comment which shows the declining percentage of qualified doctors in the UK who are British trained. The author argues for increased medical places for UK students.

**Ford, R., 1994. 'Current and future migration flows'. In: Spencer, S. (Editor), *Strangers & citizens: a positive approach to migrants and refugees*. Rivers Oram Press, London, pp. 44-90.**

This account of trends in immigration to the UK shows the rising importance of highly skilled migration. Nine scenarios for future trends are reviewed including a continued increase in highly skilled moves. The author notes that the UK government has been reactive rather than pro-active in relation to international migration events. The danger of immigration policy being used to diffuse domestic xenophobic prejudice is discussed. The paper also calls for a more reliable system of data collection on stocks and flows.

**Glover, S. et al., 2001. *Migration: an economic and social analysis*, Research Development and Statistics Directorate (RDS) Occasional Paper No 67, Home Office: London. pp. 68.**

This paper reviews economic and social theory about migration, before reviewing migration trends to the UK and the outcomes of these trends in social and economic terms. It concludes with policy recommendations and suggestions for future research.

Key research findings include:

- a. migration tends to promote economic growth (in receiving countries),
- b. globalisation has been a driving force behind much of the growth in migration to the UK, and will not be reversed in the medium/longer term,
- c. migration of skilled workers such as doctors and nurses may have negative impacts on development in poor countries,
- d. greater integration of immigration policy would enhance migrants' social and economic contributions.

An eight point research agenda relevant to policy makers is presented.

**Jinks, C., Ong, B.N. and Paton, C., 1998. 'Catching the drift'. *Health Services Journal*, 17 Sep: 24-26.**

The article notes a lack of data collection and analysis relating to mobility of doctors and nurses in the EU. For the UK health service this is serious since EU trained doctors make up 10% of senior house officers in England and Wales. Numbers coming to the UK in the past were high because of the over supply of doctors in most of the EU. This trend is declining with medical unemployment falling in the EU. At the same time Britain has sought to increase the number of doctors and nurses without significantly increasing training positions. This is likely to increase the need for immigration of health staff from outside the EU.

**Reubens, E., 1976. 'Some dimensions of professional immigration into developed countries from less developed countries, 1960-1973'. In: Bhagwati, J. (Editor), *The Brain Drain and Taxation - Theory and Empirical Analysis*. North-Holland Publishing Company, Amsterdam, pp. 217-46.**

The paper provides empirical details of professional and technical migration to the US, Canada and UK and assesses their labour market contribution to these receiving countries.

For the UK the study shows that one of the highest dependencies on professional immigration was in the health service where, in certain lower grades of doctor's employment, the LDC share was as high as 63%. The report notes on the other hand that 40% of the LDC doctors were trained in British Medical Schools. Overall it is concluded that the UK has little need except for doctors and nurses, for overseas skills, at least in terms of vacancies reported. The avoided costs of education are calculated for different kinds of professional immigrants. The magnitude of avoided education costs is proposed as one measure for calculating compensation to the sending country.

**Robinson, V. and Carey, M., 2000. 'Peopling skilled international migration: Indian doctors in the UK'. *International Migration*, 38(1): 89-108.**

This article uses a case-study approach in relation to the migration of Indian doctors to the UK in order to illustrate the complexity and multi-levelled nature of explanations for international migration. It argues that whereas, at the level of discursive consciousness, the movement of Indian doctors to the UK appears an economically driven and shaped phenomenon akin to other examples of highly skilled international migration, when the practical consciousness of participants is investigated through qualitative methods, the migration can also be seen as a cultural and social phenomenon. Although migrants move to 'better themselves', they also make choices based on factors such as the kind of novels they read as children or 'taken for granted' familial obligations rooted in the everyday life of their culture.

**Rule, S.P., 1994. 'A second-phase diaspora: South African migration to Australia'. *Geoforum*, 25(1): 33-39.**

South Africa has experienced a significant continuous outflow of professional and technical skills in recent decades. The international marketability of such skills has encouraged a 'brain drain' phenomenon. A section of the South African middle class do not perceive that their long-term interests will be served by their continued residence in the country. Many of those with sufficient financial liquidity and career years ahead have thus opted to emigrate. Since the 1970s, socio-political instability has been the major reason that in excess of 200 000 South African residents have left the country. This new diaspora consists predominantly of young people or couples and their small children, with European (mainly British) origins. The most popular destinations are the UK, Australia, New Zealand, Canada and the US. This paper examines aspects of the phenomenon, with particular reference to the South African community now domiciled in Australia.

**Salt, J., 1992. 'Migration processes among the highly skilled in Europe'. *International Migration Review*, 26(2): 484-505.**

This article seeks to show that the migration process for highly skilled workers in contemporary Europe is part of the structuring of European business. It focuses on the employer's perspective and role in articulating movement, using data from various official sources as well as survey evidence from the UK. It suggests that the increasing importance of this form of mobility is related to the process of internationalisation by large employers and that the particular form of movement is dependent on the evolution of corporate business structures.

**Salt, J. and Singleton, A., 1995. 'The international migration of expertise: the case of the United Kingdom'. *Studi Emigrazione*, 117(32): 12-30.**

This review of statistical sources (1991-93) on skilled immigration to the UK, notes the inverse relation between the number of work permits issued and levels of UK unemployment. Changes to the work permit system since 1981 are described including the division into Tier 1 and Tier 2 permits. Non EU immigrants are shown to be dominantly professionals and service workers. USA and Japan are the dominant origin countries. Salt and Singleton suggest "brain exchanges" rather than a brain drain is taking place.

**Salt, J., Singleton, A. and Hogarth, J., 1994. *Europe's international migrants: data sources, patterns and trends*, HMSO, London. pp. 224.**

In the last few years international migration has become an important issue on the European political agenda. The Single European Act, the Schengen agreement, the Treaty of Maastricht, and the creation of the European Economic Area, have led to moves towards migration policy harmonisation in the West. New migration pressures, related to political events in Eastern Europe and the former Soviet Union, the rise in asylum applications, and emigration from the poorer countries of the South, have given the harmonisation process added impetus. These trends have made it desirable to establish an information system to inform policy makers on current international migration trends. The system, presented here, allows evaluation of the strengths and weaknesses of existing information sources, enables contemporary patterns and trends in European international migration, together with the processes creating them, to be discerned, and serves as a basis for identifying pertinent new research issues. Successive sections deal with: the information system (source inventories, tables, bibliography) and contemporary trends (typology, demography and economic background, stocks and flows, migration in the Mediterranean region and in E. Europe, asylum seekers and refugees, the international context).

**Secombe, I. and Ball, J., 1992. 'Motivation, morale and mobility: a profile of qualified nurses in the 1990's'. *Institute of Manpower Studies Report*, 233.**

The report describes the results of a survey of 3,000 qualified nurses. Amongst other findings it notes the difficulty of retaining qualified staff. The scale of both inflows and outflows is high (e.g. 39% of initial admissions to the UKCC register. Many nurses (20%) were actively considering working abroad.

**Secombe, I., Buchan, J. and Ball, J., 1993. 'Nurse mobility in Europe: implications for the United Kingdom'. *International Migration*, 31(1): 125-48.**

International mobility has long been a characteristic of many health-care professions, including nursing. With the move towards a single integrated market in the European Community (EC), the mobility of nursing staff has been given increasing prominence. This paper reviews the implications for nursing in the UK of an integrated labour market in Europe. This paper has three main objectives: first, to consider the dimensions of the nursing labour market in Europe; second, to consider the magnitude of 'flows' of nurses to and from the UK - to the remainder of Europe and elsewhere; and third, to consider trends in nurse mobility against a backdrop of changing international labour market conditions.

**Wadda, R., 2000, Brain drain and capacity building in Africa: the Gambian experience, *Paper for the Regional Conference on Brain Drain and Capacity building in Africa*, Addis-Ababa, 22-24 February.**

Concern is expressed that the brain drain is worsening in the Gambia. The problem is most pronounced in the public sector where skilled emigration is raising a problem of capacity retention. A stronger database is needed in Gambia to analyse exactly how many students return home after training abroad. Means of attracting qualified professionals to return should also be considered. Better salaries in the public sector would help.

**White, P., 1998. 'The settlement patterns of developed world migrants in London'. *Urban Studies*, 35(10): 1725-44.**

Contemporary international migration flows into European cities are now more diverse than used to be the case. The movement of less-skilled labour migrants has been replaced by the circulation of high-skill executives and specialist personnel involved in transnational corporations and in the financial services and other sectors affected by economic globalisation. To these are added other new service migrants and increased flows of students and independent young people. As a result, world cities are now witnessing the emergence of important categories of non-racialised international migrant groups. This paper considers whether such groups form distinctive residential concentrations in Greater London and uses the limited aggregate data available from the census to establish a general view of the geography of developed world migrants. There are important implications for urban theory and for discussions of urban ethnicity.

**Zweig, D., 1997. 'To Return or Not To Return?: Politics vs. Economics in China's Brain Drain'. *Studies in Comparative International Development*, 32(1): 92-125.**

The article reports a study of Chinese professionals and students in the USA in 1993. Only 9% has concrete plans to return, although one third positively viewed returning a possibility. The determinants of discouraging return included having a wife and child abroad and concern about a lack of freedom in China. Professional, housing and income factors also discouraged return. Another factor was concern about being unable to leave again if they did return.

### **Research Question 6**

**What should the UK government do to ensure that impacts on developing countries are taken account of in design and delivery of policies on areas that relate to skilled migration?**

**Christian, B.P., 2000. *Facilitating high-skilled migration to advanced industrial countries: comparative policies*. Georgetown University, pp. 84.**

The paper reviews policies and programmes of advanced economies on recruiting highly skilled workers. GATS multi-lateral framework is also reviewed. This along with regional and national policies constitute an emerging regime for regulating moves of the highly skilled. The shift in emphasis from brain drain to brain exchanges is discussed.

**Department for International Development, 2000. *Eliminating Poverty: Making Globalisation Work for the Poor*, DFID, London. pp. 108.**

This is the second white paper on international development produced by the UK government since Clare Short became Minister. It argues that it is clear that openness to the global economy is a necessary but insufficient condition for national prosperity. The premise is therefore that engagement with globalising influences is essential for all decision makers (in government, institutions, the private sector and civil society) and that only by making wise choices can globalisation be managed in such a fashion as to help lift people in developing countries from poverty, rather than allowing further marginalisation and impoverishment. This is elaborated relative to economic issues linked to trade and investment flows. Skilled migration is explicitly addressed on pages 42-43 in terms of policy principles. The paper lays a foundation for considering how a positive approach to migration might be taken. Consider, for example, the identification in Chapter 1 of the role of government in managing the processes of change to equip people through education and active labour market policies to take advantage of the opportunities presented by globalisation.

**Glover, S. et al., 2001. *Migration: an economic and social analysis*, Research Development and Statistics Directorate (RDS) Occasional Paper No 67, Home Office: London. pp. 68.**

This paper reviews economic and social theory about migration, before reviewing migration trends to the UK and the outcomes of these trends in social and economic terms. It concludes with policy recommendations and suggestions for future research.

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- c. migration of skilled workers such as doctors and nurses may have negative impacts on development in poor countries,
- d. greater integration of immigration policy would enhance migrants' social and economic contributions.

An eight point research agenda relevant to policy makers is presented.

**Iredale, R., 1997. *Skill Transfer*. University of Wollongong Press, Wollongong, pp. 172.**

The book reviews the rising importance of skilled migration issues in the UK, USA, Canada, New Zealand and Australia. Excluded from discussion are skilled transients within international organisations and MNC's. The key focus is the role of government institutions in influencing flows of skilled labour. Iredale contrasts the situation up until the 1980's when the main institutional concern was with the recognition of qualifications and the transferability of skills, with the situation in the 1990's when institutional efforts were directed to promoting labour mobility and reflected a greater openness to foreign skills and to reduce employer prejudice.

**Iredale, R., 1999. 'The need to import skilled personnel: Factors favouring and hindering its international mobility'. *International Migration*, 37(1): 89-123.**

The article discusses two related issues: should sending countries free up or tighten skilled migration and should receiving countries encourage or discourage temporary or permanent skilled migrations? Using SOPEMI data Iredale forms a negative view of the effects of skilled emigration on sending countries and then concentrates analysis on the role of bilateral and multi-lateral agreements in limiting the damaging effects. A comparison is made between countries with permanent settlement policies. Then the operation of regional labour markets are reviewed relative to the effect on skill transfers. Iredale concludes that the forces behind skilled migration will not decline. Policies to prevent skill losses are expected to fail, while policies designed to build immigration as a means of aiding development are growing in number including mechanisms designed to favour return. It is concluded that pursuing compensation through taxation would be unwieldy at the multinational level although it could work in the case of bilateral agreements. Other measures could include increased training assistance and technology transfer.

Receiving countries need to:

- a. determine the balance of permanent and temporary skilled workers,
- b. establish what level of entry is possible without increasing social unrest and increased racial discrimination,
- c. the best mechanism for selecting skilled migrants,
- d. the balance between protecting national jobs and creating a neutral or advantageous system of skill entry.

**Martin, P., 2001. 'Economic trends and professional labour migration: US experience and implications for Asia'. *Paper given to Workshop on International Migration and Labour Markets in Asia*, Tokyo, February 1-2, 2001.**

The paper reviews the role of foreign professional workers in the US labour market. Asians play a large role especially in the HIB visa scheme. The current system is open to abuse to the disadvantage of employers and migrants. Martin proposes attaching a significant fee to the visa issuing process as a disincentive for non-essential skills and to cover costs as well as offering other compensation mechanisms.

**Martin, P., Chen, R. and Madamba, M., 2000. 'United States policies for admission of professionals and technical workers: objectives and outcomes'. *International Migration Papers*, 35: ILO, Geneva, pp. 30.**

The paper looks at the experience of the United States in regulating the admission of foreign professionals and technical workers. It offers insight into the problems of implementing an immigration programme with complex and multiple policy goals. Martin et al argue that the present system is not working as is intended because of the weakness of the method of calculating labour market shortages. They propose that employers be made to pay taxes or fees for each foreign worker they employ.

**Morris, L., 1998. 'Governing at a distance: The elaboration of controls in British immigration'. *International Migration Review*, 32(4): 949-73.**

This article considers the possibility that aspects of recent thinking on governmentality could be applied to the delimitation of rights and elaboration of controls in the policy and practice of British immigration over the period of

Conservative rule. First, the complex of external strategies which interact to control and inhibit migration, including the discursive assertion of sovereign boundaries in the face of moves towards a frontier-free Europe are reviewed. Then, turning to official expressions of concern over public funds, the centrality of this rationale in the drive for correspondence between benefit regulations and immigration rules is documented. This drive, it is argued, is a key tactic in the development of internal controls, both as a basis for inter-agency co-operation and the means by which service providers can be encouraged to police migration. Finally, the paper shows how the rationality dictating these changes has itself been questioned and further elaborates the limits of 'governmentality' in practice.

**Niessen, J., 1992. 'European Community legislation and intergovernmental co-operation on migration'. *International Migration Review*, 26(2): 678-84.**

The member states of the EC continue to intensify their co-operation in migration issues, for national policies cannot be effective. However, an intergovernmental approach is preferred over a community approach. Relations on migration are extended to non-member states, but this means that the EC will determine migration policies throughout Europe.

**Portes, A. and Borocz, J., 1989. 'Contemporary immigration: theoretical perspectives on its determinants and modes of incorporation'. *International Migration Review*, 23(3): 606-30.**

This useful article identifies three modes of incorporation of professional/technical international migrants:

- a. a reception handicapped by discrimination in the form of racism and closed shop trade union practices, producing a situation in which skilled migrants become "ghetto service providers",
- b. a neutral context where skilled workers enter into the labour market at an appropriate level,
- c. an "advantaged" situation where immigrants experience upward mobility to positions of professional and civic leadership.

**Soberon, G. and Urquidi, V., 1992. 'The case of Mexico'. *Technology in Society*, 14(1): 131-36.**

S&T progress in Mexico is rather slow. First efforts on the part of government to further S&T in the early 1960s came to fruition in 1970 with the creation of the National Council of Science and Technology (CONACYT). The burden of economic crises, including external debt, caused drastic reductions in expenditures on S&T research. To diminish the resulting brain drain, a National System of Scientific Researchers was created in 1985 to provide supplemental financing to selected researchers, on the basis of merit. A National Development Plan (1989) and a National Program of Science and Technological Modernization call for S&T to achieve greater productivity. Governmental and higher education research institutions also play their roles. Illustrative examples are presented: the restructuring of the Health Ministry to promote research and the development of a pharmaceutical industry.



**Spencer, S. (Editor), 1994. *Strangers & citizens: a positive approach to migrants and refugees*. Rivers Oram Press, London.**

The 11 chapters of this volume put forward an agenda favouring a positive view of immigration. On one hand the fear that negative approaches to immigration only accommodate rather than tackle racism is discussed. On the other hand the economic and social benefits to the UK of encouraging selective immigration are presented. In more than 50 specific findings and recommendations, the book advocates a more informed and rational approach which would respect international human rights more fully than past UK immigration policy.

**Wotherspoon, T., 1989. 'Immigration and the production of a teaching force: policy implications for education and labour'. *International Migration*, 27(4): 543-62.**

Projections of teacher shortages and rising numbers of minority children in North American public schools in the 1990s have made educational administrators increasingly receptive to the option of recruiting foreign teachers. A report by the National Education Association revealed that 12% of school districts in the US recruited teachers from outside the nation in the 1987-88 school year. This paper, with reference to the Canadian experience, is concerned with how the immigration policy and school board employment practices have been relied upon by the state as devices within the overall framework of regulation over the teaching force. Discusses teaching as a reproductive labour; Canada and teacher immigration in the 1960s; and recent trends in teacher migration.

### **Research Question 7**

**What should the UK government do to ensure that impacts on developing countries are taken account of in GATS negotiations over the temporary movement of natural persons?**

**Adlung, R., 2000. 'Services trade liberalization from developed and developing country perspectives'. In: Sauve, P. and Stern, R.M. (Editors), *GATS 2000: New Directions in Services in Trade Liberalization*. Brookings Institutional Press, Washington, pp. 112-31.**

This useful paper investigates the differences in level of commitment to GATS by developing and developed countries. The authors shows that developed countries have signed up to GATS agreements in relation to a larger number of sectors, but that developing countries concerns about the asymmetry of GATS provisions run deeper than simply their desire to wait till their service economies have developed further.

**Butkeviciene, J., 2000. 'Movement of natural persons under GATS'. In: United Nations (Editor), *Positive Agenda and Future Trade Negotiations*. United Nations, New York, pp. 193-206.**

Following discussion of the growing importance of the trade in services, this paper focuses on the movement of foreign nationals providing services. Limitations on the

movement of foreign workers are discussed relative to horizontal and sector specific commitments. Problems include definitions of occupations, a lack of transparency in the regulation of movements and the administration of the visa systems. The paper concludes by discussing how the trade in services under Mode 4 of GATS can be measured.

**Butkeviciene, J. and Diaz, D., 1998. 'GATS commitments in the health service sector and the scope for future negotiations'. In: UNCTAD (Editor), *International Trade in Health Services*. UNCTAD, Geneva, pp. 135-60.**

Major modes of supply under GATS are reviewed. The role of insurance services is recognised as very important to future liberalisation of flows of patients to developing countries. The challenge for developing countries is to make gains from the trade when finance for their own public health systems is very short. To get patients to travel to developing countries for health services insurance needs to be portable. There is also more work to be done on the equivalence of qualifications.

**Christian, B.P., 2000. *Facilitating high-skilled migration to advanced industrial countries: comparative policies*. Georgetown University, pp. 84.**

The paper reviews policies and programmes of advanced economies on recruiting highly skilled workers. GATS multi-lateral framework is also reviewed. This along with regional and national policies constitute an emerging regime for regulating moves of the highly skilled. The shift in emphasis from brain drain to brain exchanges is discussed.

**European Services Forum, 1999. *The temporary movement of key business personnel*, ESF, Brussels. pp. 5.**

ESF is a consortium of 45 major European service providers. The paper describes the 4 modes of service migration identified in the GATS. The group then call for:

1. common definitions of key business staff,
2. transparent procedures for applying GATS resolutions on service migration,
3. common terms for intra-company transfers,
4. expedited procedures for short-term moves, and
5. co-ordinated treatment of different types of service migration.

**European Services Forum, 2000. *The temporary movement of key business personnel: Paper 2*, ESF, Brussels. pp. 7.**

This position paper is prepared by a group of 45 major European service companies eager to advance the new round of multi-lateral WTO negotiations. In particular it argues for the existing GATS framework to be improved in terms of greater clarity and consistency of treatment of business people. Member countries of the WTO seem defensive on immigration, despite the need for an internationally mobile workforce to service the needs of the global market place. An approach to achieve greater liberalisation of movement of natural persons is advocated which includes self administration by companies of intra-company transfers for defined categories of personnel. The system would be backed up by a standing bond which would be forfeited if the system was abused. A similar scheme is proposed for movement of key personnel between two businesses. In addition a new category of mover is proposed: intra-corporate transfer for training and career development.

**Findlay, C. and Warren, T., 2000. 'The GATS and developing economies in the ESCAP region'. *Studies in Trade and Investment*, 37: 11-60.**

Following a review of the basic GATS agreement of 1994 the authors explore the uneven commitment to GATS which exists in relation to level of development, industrial sector and mode of service supply. On all counts the structure of GATS is shown to be of greatest benefit to developed countries, and that the desire by developing countries to gain benefits through the mode of movement of persons is often thwarted by the impediments of the immigration policies of developed countries as well as by the very terminology of GATS itself in terms of what is "service provision". Four recommendations are made for developing economies to consider in the 2000 GATS round. 1) lobbying to increase the comprehensiveness of GATS to cover all service sectors. 2) defining more clearly the distribution between market access and national treatment. 3) developing a rule of conduct for foreign labour and 4) encouraging negotiating clusters to increase the benefits of GATS to all countries.

**Garnier, P., 1996. 'International trade in services: a growing trend among highly skilled migrants with special reference to Asia'. *Asian and Pacific Migration Journal*, 5(4): 367-97.**

International trade in services gained world-wide recognition with the 1994 GATT Agreements in Marrakech. Its predominant role in international exchanges as well as its contribution to the development of a global economy is now widely acknowledged. An essential component of trade in services is cross-border movements of service providers. There are international movements of skilled transients who emigrate for individual reasons in a long term perspective. Conversely there are skilled temporary migrants who perform services abroad without the intention or right to settle or seek employment in the host country. This study aims to clarify these differences using the example provided by the Asia-Pacific region. This study shows that the dynamics of skilled international migration is largely determined by the circulatory movement of skills of international service providers and has emerged as an essential component of economic development strategy of the countries in the region.

**Ghosh, B., 1997. 'Migration and development: some selected issues.' *Revista de la OIM sobre Migraciones Internacionales en America Latina*, 15: 1-12.**

The paper calls for new forms of co-operation between migrant sending and migrant receiving countries to tackle irregular migration by increasing the benefits of orderly migration. Amongst other factors Ghosh claims that GATS "half-opened" a window of opportunity for developing countries to exercise their comparative advantage in such services as engineering, accounting, legal management consulting, nursing, software development and data processing and cleaning. So far GATS has only really committed to intra-company transfers. But new negotiations should open up a wider trade in self-employed, professionals and medium skilled groups which would not only improve the efficiency of the world economy, but would reduce pressure for longer-term migration including the brain drain.

**Goyal, A., 2000. 'India'. *Studies in Trade and Investment*, 37: 154-58.**

This short paper reviews India's commitment to GATS and identifies the obstacles to greater market access for Indian service providers. Goyal is concerned that many skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled workers were not included in the original Uruguay round and that only highly qualified staff working for MNC's benefit.

**Gupta, I., Goldar, B. and Mitra, A., 1998. 'The Case of India'. In: UNCTAD (Editor), *International Trade in Health Services*. UNCTAD, Geneva, pp. 213-36.**

Trade in Indian health services is set in the context of national health practices and provision. The needs for further investment in preventative and promotive health care is clear making it important that doctors trained abroad return home. It is shown that the UK is the most popular destination for training Indian doctors, but only 48% return home. If India had better medical infrastructure more doctors would come back home. Migration into the private health sector within India is a further reason for India not meeting its basic health care goals especially in rural areas and amongst the urban poor. If doctors could, however, take short term assignments abroad they might be less likely to go into the Indian private sector. Greater trade could also improve skill levels. The authors conclude that, despite problems, GATS liberalisation could improve health care because short term trade in health staff could encourage professionals to stay in the public sector and enhance their skills.

**Hoekman, B., 1995. 'Assessing the General Agreement on Trade and Services'. In: Martin, W. and Winters, L. (Editors), *The Uruguay Round and the Developing Economies*. World Bank, Washington, pp. 346.**

This paper argues that market access commitments made by high income countries tend to be restrictive with respect to activities where developing countries have a comparative advantage, including both low and high-skill labour intensive activities that require temporary entry or work permits.

**Karsenty, G., 2000. 'Assessing trade in services by mode of supply'. In: Sauve, P. and Stern, R.M. (Editors), *GATS 2000: New Directions in Services Trade Liberalization*. Brookings Institutional Press, Washington, pp. 33-56.**

This paper seeks to measure the significance of the 4 modes by which GATS operate. It concludes that Mode 4 presence of natural persons is very small relative to other modes accounting financially for less than 4 percent of the value of cross-border trade in services. The value of compensation for migrant services under mode 4 is transferred mainly from one developed country to another (64% in 1997), mostly within the EU (52% of receipts in 1997). Developing countries gain little from compensation: Latin America 3%, Africa 3% and Asia 3%. Despite this the largest single earner by compensation is the Philippines, and in relative terms the contribution of the compensation is highly important to some small states in the developing world such as Lesotho, Armenia, Djibouti and Rwanda.

**Lavenex, S., 2000. The liberalization of trade in services as a venue for economic immigration in Europe: links between the EU and the GATS, Paper presented at the ECPR Workshop "Beyond Fortress Europe?" April 14-19, 2000, Copenhagen.**

This conference paper reviews the scope of labour mobility in GATS, before contrasting the economic rationale for labour mobility with the statist rationale against immigration. Key barriers to free movement of natural persons include a) the use of definitional problems as a reason for ignoring GATS and giving discretion to implementing immigration authorities the decision over who is a 'specialist' or 'service provider'. b) the continuation of economic needs tests as a barrier to market access of natural persons. In summary GATS is seen as "a trade deal for the MNC's from the industrial countries" (p3).

**Mashayekhi, M., 2000. 'GATS 2000 Negotiations: Options for Developing Countries'. *Working Paper*, UNCTAD: Geneva.**

The paper reviews the operations of GATS and brings forward proposals for how GATS might be renegotiated in the 2001 round. Amongst other proposals it identifies specific measures to reduce the barriers to movement of natural persons. Proposals include GATS visas and a relaxation of economic needs tests.

**Mattoo, A., 2000. 'Developing Countries in the New Round of GATS Negotiations: Towards a Pro-Active Role'. *World Economy*, 23(4): 471-90.**

The paper is concerned with the wider implications for developing countries of GATS negotiations, but this includes specific reference to migration as one dimension of GATS. Mattoo suggests that developing countries have been defensive in their approach which has been to their disadvantage. It is recommended, inter alia, that developing countries push for more effective liberalisation of foreign service markets by eliminating both explicit and implicit barriers to service flows. It is assumed the main effect will be a flow of capital to developing countries (as FDI) and a human capital flow to developed countries. Both links promote economic growth. The Indian software industry is used to illustrate this. 60% of software exports are through temporary migration of programmes. Where migration was restricted growth of the industry was limited. Cuba's experience in trying to become a world medical power through encouraging health/tourism packages is reviewed. Insurance, however is often immobile. Creating foreign labour content entitlements is one option which Mattoo believe would help overcome barriers to GATS.

**Mukherjee, N., 1999. 'Market access commitments under GATS in WTO'. *Paper presented at the World Service Congress on Services: Generating Global Growth and Opportunity*, Atlanta, 1-3 November 1999.**

This paper criticises the future of GATS to deliver a liberalization of skilled personnel flows from developing to developed countries, leaving the GATS agreement as little more than a trade deal for western multi-nationals.

**Niessen, J., 2000. *The Management and Managers of Immigration*, Migration Policy Group, Brussels. pp. 45.**

This monograph lists eight reasons for the EU to adopt a common immigration policy. Introduced by the chair of the European Parliament's Committee on Citizen's Rights, it argues that in an age of globalisation, with ever freer movement of goods, services and capital, denial of freedom of movement of labour is increasingly perverse. If interdependence demands greater mobility, the paper also argues greater movement of persons into Europe would have economic benefits, while a negative stance on migration threatens to support xenophobia. GATS is only the most obvious example of treaties signed in a spirit favouring integration and interdependence. The paper goes on to argue that voluntary migration is a fundamental human right. "Claims by some governments that they are not countries of immigration, while the numbers of immigrants .. steadily increase, undermine these government's credibility". Public support for selective positive immigration policies should be encouraged.

**Niessen, J. and Rowlands, D. (Editors), 2000. *The Amsterdam Proposals or how to influence policy debates on asylum and immigration*. European Network against Racism (ENAR), the Immigration Law Practitioners' Association (ILPA) and the Migration Policy Group (MPG), Brussels and London, pp. 63.**

The European Union needs common immigration and asylum policies. Building on the potentials of the Amsterdam Treaty, NGO's have drafted their own legislative proposals as a means to influencing policy debates at the European, national and local level. The result is the 'Amsterdam Proposals' which contains six Proposed Directives on issues including Asylum, Family Reunion and Irregular Migrants. Of interest to the recent project is the Directive on Visas and Border Controls which proposes the free movement of persons (including EU citizens and third country nationals) within the EU by abolishing internal borders. The Directive on Admission of Migrants also specifies admission conditions for the purposes of employment, self-employment and education.

**Ramcharran, H., 1999. 'Obstacles and opportunities in International trade in accounting services in an era of globalization'. *American Business Review*: 94-103.**

Harmonization of accounting procedures, mergers and acquisitions, global management strategies and international labour migration have all brought key changes that affect international accounting. The article describes the effects of GATS, trade expansion and privatisation on international accounting.

**Roberts, C., 2000. 'Promoting international trade in services: a priority for Europe'. *European Business Journal*: 199-206.**

This paper focuses on where GATS goes after the collapse of the Seattle conference. The author identifies the likely route followed by future negotiations. Concerning labour migration he explains the basis for India and Pakistan's disquiet about GATS and proposes that industrial nation employers take responsibility for immigrant service workers, ensuring that they leave after completing their short-term assignments. The complementarity with ESF is noted.

**Srinivasan, G., 1999. *India for free movement of persons*, Government of India: Paper submitted to the World Trade Organisation, New Delhi.** Ahead of the Seattle WTO talks of November 1999, this paper sets out why India favours a separate agreement on the free trade in services through personal mobility, in view of the failure of GATS to meet the needs of developing countries. GATS is largely restricted to business visitors and intra-company transfers, and therefore does not address the significant flow of services from developing countries (e.g. doctors and other professionals) that occurs in an individual capacity without a pre-existing commercial presence in the destination country. To quote the paper (p3) "GATS appears to becoming merely an exercise in fostering greater capital movement with most of the commitments being made in the commercial presence mode". The paper then sets out 8 principles for the proposed separate agreement on service sector migration.

**Stahl, C., 1996. *Trade in Labour Services*, Mimeo University of Newcastle, Newcastle.** This paper makes observations on how service providers are defined under GATS legislation and makes recommendations about changes that might be

made to make GATS operate in a fashion which might be more sympathetic to the needs of LDC service providers.

**Thompson, R., 2000. 'Formula approaches to improving GATS commitments'. In: Sauve, P. and Stern, R.M. (Editors), *GATS 2000: New Directions in Services Trade Liberalization*. Brookings Institutional Press, Washington, pp. 473-86.**

Amongst many other suggestions about how to improve GATS a number of changes to Mode 4 are proposed. These include:

- a. expanding and standardizing the definitions of service occupations and professions for use in GATS schedules
- b. phasing out or relaxing economic needs tests and quotas for skilled service providers and offering permanent residence for intra-corporate transferees
- c. reviewing limitations on ICT and business visitors
- d. creating a new category for small teams and self-employed foreign specialists and professionals on contract
- e. specify minimum and maximum time frames for initial stays and for extensions.

**UNCTAD, 1998. *International Trade in Health Services*. UNCTAD, Geneva.**

This volume is written in the context of the review of GATS relative to the medical sector. Difficulties and opportunities for developing countries in engaging in the international trade in health services are reviewed. Discussion covers not only the movement of doctors and nurses but also international transfers of patients, students and issues of tele-health. Country case studies include Mexico, Brazil, India, China, Thailand and Mozambique. It is considered that students prefer to study at home and tend to emigrate for training mainly when specialist local facilities do not exist. Developing countries are estimated to supply 56% of all migrating doctors and to receive less than 11%. Many countries have both in and out flows of doctors. South Africa decided to stop solving its medical emigration by not buying in doctors from neighbours who were in short supply, buying them in instead from Cuba. Doctors from Mozambique were persuaded to work part-time only in South Africa in order to maintain some reasonable service in Mozambique.

**UNESCAP, 2000. 'Implications of GATS for Asia-Pacific economies', *Studies in Trade and Investment* (37). United Nations, New York.**

This 176 page volume reports on a seminar held in 1998 in Bangkok to identify new opportunities for developing countries in relation to the round of GATS negotiations to be held in 2000. In the Asia-Pacific context the discussions were inevitably coloured by the Asian economic crisis without its ramifications for how globalisation and liberalization have highly uneven impacts on labour markets and trade in services. Many developed countries noted that the benefits from the first GATS round had been small relative to the gains made by developed countries. Processing information was identified as an important service in which developing countries had a comparative advantage and that more effort should be made to encourage export, inter alia, of software programming, accounting and data processing. Concern was expressed about the limited concessions for the temporary movement of natural persons.

**Wickremasinghe, U., 2000. 'Liberalization of trade and emerging export opportunities in services for developing countries'. *Studies in Trade and Investment*, 37: 115-48.**

Following a review of the importance of the service sector to developing countries, this paper explores the measures of selected OECD countries which affect the trade in professional services. It is shown for example that OECD countries are more restrictive about the movement of accountants and lawyers than about the transfer of engineers or architects and that many OECD countries had no procedures for facilitating temporary entry and stay of professionals in the service sector.

**Young, A., 2000. 'Where next for labour mobility under GATS?' In: Sauve, P. and Stern, R.M. (Editors), *GATS 2000: New Directions in Services Trade Liberalization*. Brookings Institution Press, Washington, pp. 184-210.**

Having defined Mode 4 within GATS, details are given about how countries have committed themselves to it horizontally and by sector. Problems in defining Mode 4 are discussed in terms of how employers and employment contracts are drawn up. It is concluded that definitional problems lend support to the idea of establishing a separate regime in GATS for labour mobility. Some developing countries favour the establishment of an occupation services list that might be excluded from needs tests by immigration controls in developed countries, similar to a scheme operated by Canada in the mid 1990's. Some have proposed a GATS visa regime similar to the APEC system, but inevitably the proposal faces huge political resistance.

### Articles of General Interest

**Abusharaf, R.M., 1997. 'Sudanese migration to the New World: socio-economic characteristics'. *International Migration*, 35(4): 513-36.**

Sudanese migration is one of the most recent waves from the developing world to the US and Canada. Previous studies on Sudanese international migration were concerned with migration to Egypt and the oil-rich Arab countries (i.e. Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates, Libya, Qatar and Iraq). This article, the first on Sudanese-New World migration, focuses on the period since the advent of the current Islamic military government of Lieutenant General Umar al Bashir in 1989, the Gulf war of 1991 and the renewal of the civil war in the Sudan. The article demonstrates that an earlier, small, temporary migration from the Sudan to the New World, based principally (but not exclusively) on seeking higher education, has been replaced by a larger migration stemming from political unrest, economic stringency and a perceived lack of choice in migration. The article also provides basic descriptive data on this phenomenon.

**Adepoju, A., 1991. 'South-North migration: the African experience'. *International Migration*, 29(2): 205-21.**

It would be fairly accurate to say that the people of Africa are perpetually on the move, for there are few other regions in the world where the population is so mobile. Migrants within the region include farmers, pastoralists, nomads, refugees of mixed



characteristics, labourers and traders. Increasingly, a substantial number of highly skilled persons have joined the stream, originating from countries where economies have collapsed and where both secondary and tertiary education, which expanded tremendously in the late 1960s have created a pool of educated and skilled cadres. The focus of this paper is on migration from Africa to countries of the North. Attention is drawn to a significant stream of intra-African migration, which gained momentum in the late 1970s, partly in response to tightened immigration laws in countries of the North but also as a result of the increasingly differentiated African economies. Although data on the magnitude of migration, like other areas of population, are scarce, some general observations can be made on the direction and causes of flows and the broad characteristics of the migrants.

**Agiomirgianakis, G.M., 1996. 'International macroeconomic interdependence and international migration of labour'. *International Journal of Finance and Economics*, 1/2: 133-47.**

International migration of labour (IML) has been very little analysed in the context of a macroeconomic framework. This paper incorporates IML into a macroeconomic model and examines its policy implications. It extends a standard macroeconomic model by allowing real consumption-wage differentials to affect labour supply flows. The analysis shows that even in the case of an inelastic labour supply with market clearing, IML generates interdependence by allowing fiscal disturbances to be transmitted between countries. More specifically, it shows that a foreign fiscal contraction, by reducing the foreign consumption wages, induces out-migration of labour which, over time, reduces foreign output and raises domestic output. It also shows that the higher the degree of IML, the shorter the period during which real wage differentials between countries persist.

**Akbari, A.H., 1999. 'Immigrant 'Quality' in Canada: More direct evidence of human capital content, 1956-1994'. *International Migration Review*, 33(1): 156-75.**

This article provides direct evidence about educational attainments of new arrivals in Canada over the period 1956 to 1994. This evidence is based on immigrants' educational attainment data obtained from two sources: different population censuses from 1961 to 1986, including those from 1961, 1971, 1981 and 1986; and landing documents of immigrants. Data from these two sources allow an analysis of educational attainment trends over a longer period than that conducted in some other studies and in more depth. Finally, immigrant data are also compared with the educational attainment of the Canadian-born population in corresponding periods. Individuals aged 25 years or older are considered. Results show that, in the total immigrant inflows of any sub-period since 1956, the percentages of those with high school education or less have been declining and have been lower than those for the Canadian-born population, while the percentages of those with university degrees have been rising and have been higher than those for the Canadian-born population. These results contradict the generally held view in Canada that in the post-1967 period, the immigration policy's increased focus on family and refugee classes has resulted in the admission of immigrants who are less educated than those who arrived before 1967. This result indicates that other factors such as discrimination and general economic conditions in the country should be investigated in depth to explain the recently cited decline in the economic performance of Canadian immigrants.

**Aktar, C. and Ogelman, N., 1994. 'Recent developments in East-West migration: Turkey and the petty traders'. *International Migration*, 32(2): 343-54.**

Although traditionally regarded as a country of origin, Turkey is increasingly becoming a receiving state as well. During the past few years it has attracted many economic migrants, including workers with characteristics similar to those of persons involved in many historic temporary labour programmes. It has also attracted short-term commuting peddlers; self-employed petty traders who travel from their homes for short periods to sell goods in the receiving state. Traditional receiving states should take greater notice of Turkey's involvement in co-operative policies with Georgia, Azerbaijan, Bulgaria and other states that represent new sources of migration, and perhaps work towards including Turkey in their long-term economic and political endeavours.

**Appleyard, R., 1995. 'Emigration dynamics in developing countries'. *International Migration*, 33(3-4): 291-765.**

This special issue contains 10 papers, revised and edited, presented at a conference held at the Rockerfeller Study and Conference Centre, Bellagio, Italy in October 1994. The occasion was a mid-term review of research being undertaken for the IOM/UNFPA project, Emigration Dynamics in Developing Countries. This issue contains the research findings in two of the three regions during the first 2 years of the 4 year project - sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia. Papers are abstracted separately in International Development Abstracts .

**Appleyard, R.T., 1989. 'Migration and development: myths and reality'. *International Migration Review*, 23(3): 486-99.**

Recent research on the impact of labour migration on the socio-economic development of developing countries has provided opportunity to try and resolve some of the long-standing polemics that have pervaded the literature on migration and development. This article focuses on findings concerning the labour, remittance and social impacts of emigration on countries that have participated in labour emigration. While a great deal more research needs to be done, recent findings confirm that in some situations the short-term impacts of labour migration on sending countries have been considerable.

**Athukorala, P.C. and Wickramasekara, P., 1996. 'International labour migration statistics in Asia: an appraisal'. *International Migration*, 34(4): 539-66.**

This article focuses on 'official' data on international labour migration. Narrowing the focus to official data facilitates in- depth analysis which can form the basis of suggestions for improving national recording systems. Research on this article commenced with a detailed review of the institutional aspects of overseas labour administration in Asia as they relate to data generation process, and a study of the existing information base through extensive library research. Survey missions were undertaken to India, Sri Lanka, Pakistan and the Philippines for in-depth study of specific issues identified in the library research. Bangladesh, Thailand and Indonesia were covered through library research and by using unpublished data and information fields in the ILO Regional Office in Thailand and ILO-ARTEP office in New Delhi. This article is structured in terms of classification of data source; data from these sources are discussed under separate sections focusing on limitations as well as potential for further exploitation. The major findings are summarised and suggestions are offered for improvement of information on labour migration.

**Baca, R., Bryan, D., McLean-Bardwell, C. and Gomez, F., 1989. 'Mexican immigration and the port-of-entry school'. *International Migration Review*, 23(1): 3-23.**

The results of an immigrant student census in a port-of-entry school district are used to describe the educational backgrounds of Mexican immigrant students and to distinguish types by school entry patterns. Interviews with recently arrived Mexican immigrant parents reveal the educational and occupational expectations they hold for their children in the US. The study findings are used as a basis for raising policy questions and generating research issues.

**Barbero, N., 1993. 'Northern international education policies and the South-North brain drain'. *Development*, 2: 36-38.**

Discusses the role of the language of education in creating social hierarchies in developing countries, arguing that international student-recruitment policies in the North can well lead to a 'brain drain' trap.

**Beaverstock, J.V., 1991. 'Skilled international migration: an analysis of the geography of international secondments within large accountancy firms'. *Environment and Planning A*, 23(8): 113-1146.**

In this paper the issue of skilled transient movements (international secondments) within large multinational accountancy firms is considered. The principal argument in the paper is that chartered accountants are involved in transient moves through global secondment programmes as a response to the corporate strategy of the firm and as a tool which enhances the career development of the individual.

**Berglof, E., 2000. 'Reversing the Brain Drain in Transition Economies'. *Transition Newsletter*: May, 29-34.**

This paper argues that a brain drain is inevitable in the early part of the economic transition being experienced by Eastern European countries. Concern about the low level of return migration of students studying abroad is expressed. Poland is identified as the country which has been most successful in repatriating students. In the case of Russia it is proposed that the brain drain can only be reversed in the social sciences by building capacity through investment in new world class institutions. Critical mass is seen as essential in these institutions to achieving the kind of stimulating intellectual environment that can attract people back from abroad.

**Buga, D., 1996. 'Population dynamics and migratory movements from Romania between 1980-1995'. *Revue Roumaine de Geographie*, 40: 77-82.**

This paper examines the factors influencing Romania's 15-year depressed population growth, and migratory movements from the country. With the support of statistics it details the evolution of Romania's population, focusing, in particular, on the period between 1990-1994, and identifies the profile of emigrants and their countries of destination. The paper presents some of socio-economic problems resulting from such population change, such as, the loss of young and mature people, representing people capable of reproduction and skilled labour.

**Buttrick, J., 1992. 'Migration between Canada and the United States, 1970-85: some new estimates'. *International Migration Review*, 26(4): 1448-56.**

Using US and Canadian census data, it can be shown that, as expected, movers from both countries have higher incomes than non-movers, and there is every indication of a 'brain drain' from Canada to the US.

**Carey, M., 1993. 'The application of "dependency theory" to the study of skilled international migration'. *Swansea Geographer*, 30: 57-67.**

It has been suggested by critics that "dependency theory" is both misguided and no longer relevant to any study of today's free market global capitalist economy. However, the theory which remained of key influence during the 1970s still appears influential and increasingly appropriate, especially in relation to the continued polarisation of socio-economic fortunes of "the three worlds". Nowhere is this more the case than in the study of migration, particularly with the flight of highly skilled "human capital" from the less developed countries to Western nations now increasingly dominating the movement of labour internationally.

**Castles, S., 1999. 'International migration and the global agenda: Reflections on the 1998 UN Technical Symposium'. *International Migration*, 37(1): 5-19.**

As a cross-border phenomenon affecting many countries, migration should be an important area for international co-operation. Yet such co-operation has been slow to emerge. Politically, the topic has been marked by interest conflicts and differing national policy approaches. As a field of social scientific research, it has been characterized by fragmentation according to disciplines, paradigms, methodologies and ideologies. The 1998 United Nations Technical Symposium on International Migration and Development was therefore highly significant as a step towards a global response, although as a meeting of experts it fell short of the intergovernmental deliberations some states (especially emigration countries) have called for. The Symposium reviewed knowledge on the links between migration and development and discussed the relative success of various policy approaches. A number of key themes emerged. An inclusive research framework is needed which takes account of all types of population mobility and all stages of the migratory process. The contributions of a range of social scientific disciplines and paradigms should be integrated. An important advance has been the growing understanding of the role of social networks and cultural capital in the migratory process. The Symposium discussed the need for strategies which reflect the ambivalence of women's experience: international migration can be both a source of exploitation and abuse, and an opportunity for greater autonomy. Issues of settlement and of return migration were debated: both need to be considered in strategies for maximizing the benefits of migration for the various participants. An urgent need for better public information and education on migration and settlement was noted. Overall, the Symposium showed the great complexity of links between migration and development. It also found that a knowledge base does exist for greatly improved policy formation and international co-operation in this area of growing global significance.

**Chapman, B.J. and Iredale, R.R., 1993. 'Immigrant qualifications: recognition and relative wage outcomes'. *International Migration Review*, 27(2): 359-87.**

Australian society is most unusual in that it is characterized by relatively large numbers of immigrants, many of whom are ostensibly skilled workers. The data revealed that around 39% of skilled immigrants chose to subject their overseas

qualifications to local assessment and, of these, 42% were recognized as being equivalent to their Australian counterpart. The econometric wage estimations reveal that immigrants from non-English-speaking countries, as a whole, received low increments as a consequence of overseas qualifications compared to those having Australian qualifications.

**Chiswick, B., 2001. 'The economics of illegal migration for the host economy'. In: Saddique, M. (Editor), *International Migration into the 21st Century*. Elgar, Cheltenham, pp. 74-85.**

The chapter reviews the costs of migration for a host economy. The traditional neo-classical approach to labour as a factor of production considers why illegal migrants tend to be low-skilled workers. It also assesses their impact on the distribution of income in the host economy.

**Christian, B.P., 2000. 'Transatlantic Workshop on High Skilled Migration'. *Georgetown Immigration Law Journal*, 14(4): 907-26.**

This document summarises a meeting held at Georgetown University in 1999. The focus is on the policy implications of the growth of highly skilled migration.

**Clark, D.P. and Thompson, H., 1990. 'Factor migration and income distribution in some developing countries'. *Bulletin of Economic Research*, 42(2): 131-40.**

A three factor, two sector general equilibrium model is used to determine long run income distributional impacts of factor supply changes associated with international migration in developing and newly industrializing countries. Factor intensity rankings among three factors (capital, skilled and unskilled labour) between two industries (agriculture and manufacturing-services) play a critical role in determining which factors are natural friends with respect to migration. A result common to all countries is observed friendship between capital and unskilled labour: reducing (increasing) the supply of one will lower (raise) payments to the other.

**Cobb Clark, D.A. and Connolly, M.D., 1997. 'The world-wide market for skilled migrants: can Australia compete?' *International Migration Review*, 31(3): 670-93.**

Immigration, particularly skilled immigration, is an important area for policy-related research because it has been traditionally viewed as the one component of labour market growth which policymakers control directly. One should remember that there are other participants in the immigration market, i.e., the migrants themselves and other receiving countries. Increased competition for skilled migrants among receiving countries may constrain policymakers' ability to control both the number and the quality of the migrants they accept. The purpose of this article is to address these issues by analysing the relative importance of internal and external factors on the demand for skilled immigration visas to Australia. Our objectives are to determine how the size of the pool of potential migrants is influenced by factors such as relative economic conditions and US and Canadian immigration policies and to determine what implications these factors have on the relative quality (skill level) of potential migrants to Australia. Our results indicate that the demand for skilled immigration visas to Australia is related to the number of immigrants' possibilities in Australia. We do not find a relationship between US and Canadian policy and the relative quality of the applicant pool. Caution is indicated, however, because Australia has had to increase its acceptance rates in recent years to reach its desired intake levels, perhaps suggesting a decrease in the selectivity of the evaluation process.

**Connell, J., 1990. *Migration and development in the South Pacific*, Australian National University, Research School of Pacific Studies, National Centre for Development Studies. pp. 199.**

For the past quarter of a century migration has been the most demographic variable in large parts of the South Pacific region. Within the region there is extensive rural-urban migration and beyond the region international migration to the metropolitan states of USA, Australia and New Zealand. The scale of this movement has changed perceptions of development, posed problems for national development and contributed to rapid social and economic change, as island states and islanders have increasingly focused their social and economic aspirations outwards. This collection of papers examines the changing context and impact of migration in eight different states in the region, reviewing such issues as the brain or skill drain, remittances and investment, employment strategies of migrants, the impact of migration on inequality and uneven development and the overall relationship between migration and development. Migration is more closely linked to social issues, including education and suicide, than in many earlier discussions and there is also a strong emphasis on the historical evolution of structures of migration.

**De-Tinguy, A. and De-Wenden, C., 1993. 'Eastern Europe: what benefits from the brain drain?' *OECD Observer*, 184: 33-36.**

Many highly qualified and predominantly young people are leaving Eastern Europe, thereby depriving their home countries of the most dynamic elements of their society at a time when they are badly needed. Reasons for this flight are put forward. Such a brain drain must be put into perspective for it will not necessarily handicap the restructuring of economies since many emigrants hope to return eventually. Various OECD initiatives to encourage the mobility of Central and Eastern European researches are discussed. A wide range of schemes is available emphasising a 'bottom-up' approach rather than a 'top-down' system subject to political control of the sort formerly characteristic of Eastern European states. Mobility will help Eastern Europeans to rejoin the international scientific community even though problems remain to be solved.

**De-Valderrama, C.B.F., 1993. 'The new hosts: the case of Spain'. *International Migration Review*, 27(1): 169-81.**

Spain has moved in the last 200 years from a country of net emigration to one of net immigration. The largest number of immigrants are 'elite' migrants, skilled workers and retirees from other developed countries, but their relative importance is falling with the growing number of 'marginal' immigrants, unskilled workers mostly from underdeveloped countries.

**Djajic, S., 1989. 'Skills and the pattern of migration: the role of qualitative and quantitative restrictions on international labour mobility'. *International Economic Review*, 30(4): 795-809.**

This paper develops a two-country model of international migration in an attempt to study the role of both qualitative and quantitative restrictions on international labour mobility. Individuals are distinguished in terms of their ability and age, enabling the model to examine factors which influence the age and skill profile of those who migrate, as well as the equilibrium flow of migrants and the pattern of factor rewards in the two economies. Effects of changes in certain parameters of the model are

related to the nature of the immigration policy enforced by the host country. The role of emigration restrictions is also considered.

**Dolgikh, E., 1995. 'Determinants of migration potentials among Russian physicists'. *Studi Emigrazione*, 117(32): 144.**

During 1992, nearly 800 Russian physicists were surveyed in several of Russia's leading research centres. The aim was to find the motivations of physicists' inclination to work abroad, the push and pull factors, the obstacles encountered in travel arrangements and likely countries of destination. Result showed that over half of respondents were interested in working abroad, but 90% of this group wanted a temporary contract. Age is an important determinant of those choosing to work abroad, 80% of those who expressed interest in a foreign post were under the age of 30. Although wages and living standards strongly affect a person's interest in working abroad, individuals also wished to gain opportunities to improve their professional career. Would-be emigrants were primarily interested in working in the US and highly developed European countries such as Germany, France and Great Britain.

**Egorov, I., 1996. 'Trends in transforming R and D potential in Russia and Ukraine in the early 1990s'. *Science and Public Policy*, 23(4): 202-14.**

A comparison is made between the developments in R and D in Russia and Ukraine since they became independent. Forecasts about R and D are gloomy: compromises are essential to make transition to a market-oriented economy smoother and S and T must play a more significant role. Currently there is a brain drain of scientists at three levels: leaving the country; moving to other jobs; and the hidden effect of maintaining a workplace but conducting other work. Three solutions are offered: selected state protection for some S and T areas; restructuring the sources of research funding; and the development of an 'educational wing' within research institutes.

**Elnajjar, H., 1993. 'Planned emigration: the Palestinian case'. *International Migration Review*, 27(1): 34-50.**

This article examines the UN policies encouraging emigration from the Palestinian refugee camps through educating Palestinians and sending them for work abroad. Data show that emigration is more related to certain types of employment, especially skilled labour and white-collar jobs, than to employment per se. The data were collected, through personal interviews, from Dair El Balah refugee camp in Gaza Strip in 1986. A major conclusion of this study is that the educational policies initiated and operated by the UN Relief and Works Agency (UNRWA) contributed to the dispersion of about one third of the refugees in the 1960s and the 1970s.

**Fakiolas, R., 1995. 'The role of migration in raising the skill level of the labour force'. *Studi Emigrazione*, 117: 211-23.**

The overall effect of migration is positive. However, the difficulties in determining the costs and benefits of a brain drain for the sending country are noted. There are a series of brief discussions on issues such as specialization in the education system, the role of migration in the supply of skills and return of skilled migrants to developing countries. Policy implications include emphasis being placed on the "process of economic growth and social development, as well as the long term effects of emigration" (p222). Finally, it is argued that free movement of capital should be equally applied towards education and employment of qualified persons. This paper

is not based on empirical research and the author admits that it only presents a series of hypotheses, not research conclusions, which need to be tested.

**Fassmann, H., Kohlbacher, J. and Reeger, U., 1995. 'Forgetting skills at borderline: foreign job-seekers on the Viennese labour market'. *Studi Emigrazione*, 117(32): 78.**

The paper notes how an ethnic segmentation of the Austrian labour market allocates immigrants to specific sectors of activity regardless of qualifications. Skilled migrants become part of a brain waste in a system that fails to discriminate difference in qualifications. Policies should address the brain waste and make better use of the 'brain drain'.

**Findlay, A.M., Li, F.L.N., Jowett, A.J., Brown, M. and Skeldon, R., 1994. 'Doctors Diagnose their Destination - An Analysis of the Length of Employment Abroad for Hong-Kong Doctors'. *Environment and Planning A*, 26(10): 1605-24.**

Much contemporary skilled international migration involves the transient movement of skills between a migrant's country of origin and the destination. This paper shows that international circulation amongst Hong Kong doctors is neither new nor random. A survey of Hong Kong doctors with overseas work experience was undertaken by the authors to examine the factors influencing the length of employment overseas and the propensity to return. Statistical analysis of the results indicates that holding a foreign passport, previous overseas training, and the country of destination were key factors in determining the length of residence abroad and propensity to return to Hong Kong. In the light of the changing importance for Hong Kong professionals of obtaining residency rights abroad, and given the widely varying immigration policies of the main destination countries in relation to issues such as recognition of Hong Kong qualifications, it is suggested that professional groups such as doctors choose their migration destinations in line with a predetermined migration strategy for either temporary emigration or for longer-term resettlement overseas. The survey results are of wider significance in the understanding of changing patterns of skill exchange involving the upper echelons of the populations of newly industrialising countries.

**Grecic, V., 1995. 'Migration of scientists and professionals from the Republic of Serbia'. *Studi Emigrazione*, 117(32): 117-27.**

This paper examines the trend for young scientists and professionals in the Republics of former Yugoslavia to migrate to foreign countries such as USA, Canada, Australia and Western Europe. Empirical research in the Republic of Serbia is used to examine the questions of who migrates, where to and why? The author then presents 7 primary causes to explain the emigration of highly educated and trained professionals from Yugoslavia which include economic, social and political factors. Action is suggested to lessen the impact derived from the brain drain such as investment in education, establishment of scientific and technological policies, material/professional incentives offered and establishing/developing communication networks with existing academics and professionals abroad.

**Hammar, T., 1989. 'Comparing European and North American international migration'. *International Migration Review*, 23(3): 631-37.**

International migration is a vast, complex and heterogeneous field of study. It requires not only knowledge about dynamic processes in the past and at present and in various



regions of the world, but also interdisciplinary co-operation, not least in order to achieve a good theoretical development.

**Hawthorne, L., 1997. 'The question of discrimination: skilled migrants' access to Australian employment'. *International Migration*, 35(3): 395-420.**

Following a decade of increasing non English-speaking background (NESB) migration to Australia, including the migration of unprecedented levels of NESB professionals, this article examines two recent studies which report cases of direct and indirect labour market discrimination. The first relates to qualifications recognition for migrant doctors. Key findings include a growing trend to federal government intervention (in alliance with the medical professional bodies) to limit the entry and registration of migrant doctors, as well as the potential for English language ability to negatively impact on pre-registration examination outcomes. The second study concerns labour market outcomes achieved by an elite sample of Australia's skilled migration programme - migrant engineers of prime workforce age and advanced level English, with fully recognized qualifications pre-migration. Based on longitudinal research conducted over a three year period, this study reports significant evidence of employer bias by region of origin, operating in favour of English-speaking background (ESB) and European origin engineers, compared with those of Asian or Middle Eastern origin. The findings of both studies are contextualised by reference to a 1997 study (based on the Australian census) which reports the employment outcomes obtained by migrant professionals by country of origin, including the length of time taken to achieve professional integration.

**Honekopp, E. and Werner, H., 2000. *Eastward enlargement of the European Union: a wave of immigration?*, IAB Labour Market Research Topics, Number 40, Numberg. pp. 12.**

The paper asks whether current fears in Germany and elsewhere about a massive wave of immigration following EU enlargement are likely. Since this did not happen when South European countries joined the EU, it seems unlikely that eastward extension of the EU will produce a new 'wave'. Large income differences between countries means, however, that full freedom of movement of labour would be unwise until a transition period has been completed. Following enlargement it is expected that instead of "mass migration" more cross-border commuting will occur as well as more short-term work and business trips by highly skilled migrants.

**Hugo, G., 1996. 'Asia on the move: research challenges for population geography'. *International Journal of Population Geography*, 2(2): 94-118.**

This paper focuses on people moving between nations, and argues that population geography is uniquely placed to make a central and significant contribution to improving our understanding of the dynamics of this movement. The paper summarises some of the major changes which have occurred in international migration to, from and within Asia in the last two decades. It identifies a number of research challenges which these developments pose for population geography. The first is a group of conceptual and measurement challenges relating to the increasing diversity and complexity of the types of movement. It is argued that population geography has a long tradition of research which has clarified, defined and intensively studied circulation, circular migration and bilocality. The use of multi-method research approaches which have been well developed in the subject appears especially relevant in this context. A number of theoretical challenges are put forward regarding

the complex interrelationships between international population movements, economic development and social change. The employment of systems approaches, neo-classical economic theory, social networks and institutional approaches, and the potential role of population geography in developing a more comprehensive explanation of the changing dynamics of international migration in the region, are discussed. Also considered are the gender dimension in migration, remittance flows and their consequences, and policy issues. It is argued that only a major and focused multidisciplinary research effort can effectively address the huge gaps in our knowledge of the patterns, causes and consequences of international migration in Asia.

**Hugo, G., 1998. 'Globalisation and international migration in Asia'. *Studi Emigrazione*, 129: 2-47.**

As recently as a quarter century ago authoritative overviews of Asia's population did not mention international migration so minuscule was its scale. This situation has changed dramatically and population movements between nations are not only having a profound influence on the demography of many Asian countries but also are having profound economic, social and political impacts. The present paper attempts to summarise the major contemporary trends in international migration in Asia and how this is related to the rapid demographic transition occurring across most of the region. The diversity of types of mobility is one of the striking features of Asian international migration and developments in each major type is discussed in the paper. It is then argued that there are elements within the Asian migration system that give it a momentum which to some extent operates outside of the influence of economic and political trends. Finally some emerging issues in Asian international migration are briefly addressed. These include the scale and effects of remittances, the feminisation of migration, undocumented migration, increasing government involvement and brain drain issues.

**Hugo, P., 1998. 'Transformation: the changing context of academia in post-apartheid South Africa'. *African Affairs*, 97(386): 5-27.**

The transformatory paradigm of post-apartheid South Africa has left few of the country's institutions free of critical scrutiny. Higher education has been no exception. As elsewhere in Africa under new post-colonial governments, South African universities have a relatively high profile on the agenda of change. This interest has been spurred not only by the ANC government's awareness of its large share in the funding of universities but also because of the political imperatives engendered by the disaffection against the historically white universities (HWU's) among its youth constituency. This article assesses the current interplay between universities and their new environment and focuses on the following issues central to the debate on university transformation: the higher education heritage of apartheid; the impact of the changing racial profile of students at HWU's; perceptions of the role of universities; affirmative action staffing policies; competing claims by universities, the government and the private sector on scarce black and especially African human resources; the negative implications of the African brain drain from universities on civil society; and the question of Afrocentrism versus Eurocentrism. Where relevant these issues are examined against the backdrop of the African experience. In doing so a number of yet to be resolved problems are highlighted.

**King, R. and Shuttleworth, I., 1995. 'Education, identity and migration: the case of young highly-educated Irish emigrants'. *Studi Emigrazione*, 117(32): 159.**

Based on a series of 4 surveys carried out from 1989-1990 (3 directed to Irish graduates and 1 which targeted Irish-based companies), this paper examines the various aspects of the "new highly-educated migration" from Ireland. Preliminary discussion groups with Irish students interestingly found that educational course choices were made with emigration and future financial opportunities abroad in mind (e.g. an engineering degree was viewed as a route to high foreign earnings). The main surveys found that highly educated Irish migrants are highly mobile and transient. However flows are concentrated between Ireland and London. The main motive for emigration is a desire to gain experience however this goal is achieved not through the structure of internal labour markets of MNC's but rather informal social and personal networks. These apparently 'new' Irish emigrants are concluded to be similar to the earlier population outflows from Ireland.

**King, R. and Shuttleworth, I., 1995. 'The emigration and employment of Irish graduates: the export of high-quality labour from the periphery of Europe'. *European Urban and Regional Studies*, 2(1): 21-40.**

During the late 1980s, emigration of university graduates from the Republic of Ireland rose to unprecedented levels. After reviewing the changing socio-economic background to Irish emigration since the early 1950s, the second, and major, part of the article will present the findings of a large-scale empirical investigation of the employment and migration histories of a sample of 383 graduates who left Irish universities in the mid-1980s. Although the survey results do back up popular impressions of an Irish brain drain, in many respects Irish high-skilled migration is merely a subset of total Irish migration since the graduates were found to rely on traditional family and ethnic networks in choosing their destination and often their employment. The destination countries of Irish graduate emigrants closely reflected the destinations of Irish emigrants as a whole, except that graduates showed a higher propensity to migrate to continental European countries. A lot of to-and-fro movement was discovered, indicating that Irish graduates are highly mobile and responsive to opportunities at home and abroad. Finally the theoretical and policy implications of the research are evaluated.

**Klochko, Y. and Issakova, N., 1993. 'Intellectual migration: a view from Ukraine'. *Science and Public Policy*, 20(6): 405-09.**

The brain drain from Ukraine is considered from the point of view of all the players: the donor country, the recipient country, the scientist, the institutions involved and the world scientific community. An effective co-participation strategy is proposed in which the government, in order to counteract the brain drain, would consider all these participants.

**Kofman, E., 2000. 'The Invisibility of Skilled Female Migrants and Gender Relations in Studies of Skilled Migration in Europe'. *International Journal of Population Geography*, 6(1): 45-60.**

This paper examines the reasons for the invisibility of skilled female migrants in studies of skilled migration in Europe. The choice of research agendas has played a major part in rendering women invisible. The emphasis has generally been on transnational corporations, which, especially in their higher ranks, remain resolutely male-dominated. The presence of migrants in welfare sectors (i.e. education, health

and social services), which are strongly feminised, has been ignored. Feminist research has also tended to obscure the role of skilled migrants in its emphasis on the unskilled. Theoretical and methodological developments in studies of migration have also made few inroads into our understanding of skilled migration.

**Kultalahti, O., 1995. 'Migration of educated Finns to Western European countries'. *Studi Emigrazione*, 117: 66-77.**

This paper focuses on Finnish emigration to the European Union amongst immigrants who are aged 18-64 and have vocational or university education. The emigration decision of educated Finns to move to EU countries is based on educational/occupational factors, marriage and retirement. The author identifies 4 typical destinations:

- 1) Belgium - based on factors related to occupational and career aspects, with many migrants having a university degree.
- 2) France, Germany, Denmark and UK - migrants are characterized by a long vocational education, there is a high proportion of females.
- 3) Group of countries which are the destinations of migrants whose motives are not related to career and occupational factors such as marrying a citizen of the country.
- 4) Rest of EU forms a heterogeneous group e.g. Netherlands attract women and university graduates, Portugal/Spain retired people.

**Kuska, M. and Gyarfasova, O., 1997. 'Brain drain: Causes and context'. *Sociologia*, 29(2): 191-209.**

This study presents highlights of the survey on potential migration of scientific and research staff in Slovakia. The project was conducted within the international project "Migration - European Integration and Labour Force Brain Drain", which was initiated and sponsored by the European Commission DGXII. It focuses two different types of migration: migration abroad ("external migration") and migration within the country ("internal migration"). The first part of the study is concentrated on the analysis of socio-demographic and professional characteristics of the potential migrants. The theoretical framework of its second part is based on the concept of pull and push factors, which were covered by preferred professional goals and values, evaluation of conditions for scientific work and respondent's own economic situation. The findings suggest that the process of "internal migration", i.e., brain drain from academic and university research organizations to profit-making interests, e.g., banks, companies, prevails in Slovakia.

**Kuznetsov, E., 1995. 'Is Russia becoming a developing country? Brain drain and allocation of talent in the post-socialist transition'. *Communist Economies and Economic Transformation*, 7(4): 485-97.**

This article is concerned with certain changes in the accumulation of human capital which may prompt Russia to embark on the Argentinean path of development-devolution of its human and technological capabilities which is difficult to reverse. Such a trajectory can still be avoided, and Russia can embark on the trajectory of gradual accumulation of human capital and R&D capabilities, if not on the path of dramatic Japanese take-off. The article identifies three broad types of brain drain and provides some estimates of the relative importance of each of them for the Russian economy in 1992 and 1993. It attempts to estimate the magnitude of the problem of the Russian brain drain on the basis of broad international comparisons. An important distinction between brain drain proper and international mobility of human capital is

also made. Scenarios of Russian economic and technological development with distinctly differing patterns of allocation of talent are then outlined, and certain policy prescriptions are discussed.

**Ledeniova, L., 1995. 'Attitude to emigration among university students in the former USSR'. *Studi Emigrazione*, 117(32): 189-99.**

The study notes that Russian university students are most likely to emigrate if they see their career development being optimised by further study abroad or who have personal motivations for leaving. The author argues for emigration to hold more benefits for the sending country.

**Lee, S.K.V., 1999. 'The demand for business and management education in Hong Kong beyond 1997'. *Asia Pacific Business Review*, 6(1): 56-72.**

In this contribution, the future market of business and management education in Hong Kong is investigated, bearing in mind that Hong Kong reverted to Chinese sovereignty. Hong Kong is expected to continue its prosperity, but the emigration of large numbers of Hong Kong professionals wanting to secure a safety net by acquiring a foreign passport has further created demands for better and more business and management education in an attempt to develop more professional managers. The study starts by discussing the current state of the Hong Kong economy and the phenomenon of the 'brain drain'. In addition, it analyses a survey of the current state of business and management education in Hong Kong so that a market need can be identified to match economic growth. Finally, the study suggests a future research direction for Hong Kong's business and management education.

**Li, F.L.N., Findlay, A.M. and Jones, H., 1998. 'A cultural economy perspective on service sector migration in the global city: the case of Hong Kong'. *International Migration*, 36(2): 131-57.**

This article argues that in order to fully understand the geography of labour migration to global cities, it is necessary to consider economic forces in conjunction with mediating socio-cultural influences. Support for this argument is based on an examination of the pattern of migration to Hong Kong, a city which plays a significant role in the world economy. Reported here are the results of an analysis of recently released 1996 by-census data, and the authors' interviews with foreign domestic workers in Hong Kong. These findings have shown that highly skilled immigrant workers were drawn largely from developed countries, the main sources of inward investment in this city, while less skilled immigrants were drawn from less developed neighbouring labour markets. While the geographical pattern of immigration followed broadly that predicted from Hong Kong's position in the world economy, the results have revealed that cultural influences such as language and social networks are also important in shaping the economic roles of migrant workers.

**Liu, X.F., 1997. 'Refugee Flow or Brain-Drain? The Humanitarian Policy and Post-Tiananmen Mainland Chinese Immigration to Canada'. *International Journal of Population Geography*, 3(1): 15-30.**

The humanitarian policy that the Canadian government implemented in response to the 1989 Tiananmen Square crackdown changed a migration system primarily based on personal networks into a brain drain. Post-Tiananmen mainland Chinese immigrants (MCI's) were better educated than those arriving in Canada previously. Among the post-Tiananmen MCI's, those who landed under the policy were better

educated than those landing in other categories. The analysis suggests that post-Tiananmen MCI's represented a brain-drain rather than a refugee flow, that the humanitarian policy implicitly contained ideological and human capital concerns in addition to humanitarian concerns, and that Canada benefited from the policy by obtaining human capital as well as satisfying its humanitarian obligations and ideological aspirations.

**Lobo, A.P. and Salvo, J.J., 1998. 'Resurgent Irish immigration to the US in the 1980s and early 1990s: a socio-demographic profile'. *International Migration*, 36(2): 257-80.**

Irish immigration to the US has been motivated traditionally by a lack of employment opportunities at home. With the passage of the US Immigration and Nationality Act of 1965, however, Irish immigrants were no longer explicitly favoured. Family reunification became the primary path of entry, which worked against the Irish who had lost their immediate generational link with US residents. During the severe Irish recession of 1980-85 a resurgence in Irish outflows resulted in a large undocumented Irish population in the US. Most of this population was later legalized as a result of special legislation that targeted the Irish. There have been concerns in Ireland that the outflow in the 1980s, unlike prior flows, included a high proportion of skilled persons, leading some to characterize the outflow as a 'new wave'. This article uses US immigration data to assess how the occupational characteristics of recent Irish immigrants compare with prior immigrant cohorts and also examines how Irish immigrants are incorporated into the US economy. Recent Irish immigrants to the US spanned the occupational spectrum: accountants, engineers, nurses and other professionals found a booming job market in the most advanced sectors of the US economy, while less skilled immigrants found jobs in the informal economy. While the number of entering Irish professionals increased, flows of the less skilled increased even more dramatically, resulting in an overall decline in the occupational selectivity of Irish immigrants. The 1980-85 Irish recession has been followed by robust growth for more than a decade. Ireland is now experiencing a net inflow of persons, including many Irish professionals returning from the US. However, Ireland continues to experience a net outflow of the young and less skilled which may once again result in a large undocumented Irish presence in the US.

**Logan, B.I., 1999. 'The reverse transfer of technology from sub-Saharan Africa: The case of Zimbabwe'. *International Migration*, 37(2): 437-63.**

The article investigates the potential reverse transfer of technology (brain drain) from Zimbabwe, using as case study, academic staff at the main campus of the University of Zimbabwe. A questionnaire survey was employed to separate all Zimbabwean academic staff into two groups: those who express an intention to emigrate in the near future (1-3 years) and those who express an intention to stay home. The demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the two groups are discussed, as are the factors cited for dissatisfaction with conditions at the source (the institution and the country), potential destinations, and attractions ('pull' factors) at these destinations. The study concludes that the decision to emigrate is based on an untidy combination of economic, cultural, social and geographic considerations.

**Makinwa-Adebusoye, P.K., 1995. 'Emigration dynamics in West Africa'. *International Migration*, 33(3-4): 435-67.**

Present patterns of migration in West Africa represent a complex picture featuring continuing inflow into traditional immigration countries; sudden changes in the migration status of Ghana and Nigeria which reflect dramatic and sudden changes in their economic fortunes; the 'brain drain' to developed countries; and refugees as a new type of migrant. Available evidence suggests that internal and international migration involves a large number of persons. These migrations are very likely to continue and perhaps increase in the future. A large population base continues to record relatively high annual rates of growth, widening economic differentials between West African and developed countries, as well as economic differentials between and within West African countries. Migration caused by civil wars and ethnic rivalry are not likely to abate in the immediate future. Furthermore, the success of ECOWAS will generate greater migration within the sub-region.

**Malacic, J., 1995. 'Brain drain from Slovenia in the light of regional transitions'. *Studi Emigrazione*, 117: 106-16.**

Based on the example of Slovenia, the main findings in this paper are that transitional economic difficulties create the impetus for prolonged brain drain migrant flows. The implication is that other countries within Eastern Europe which successfully overcome economic transition will fare better in terms of highly qualified migrations.

**Martin, P. and Werner, H., 2000. 'Der amerikanische Weg - ein Modell für Deutschland?' *IAB Kurzbericht*, 5: 1-5.**

This short paper compares the US experience of recruiting highly skilled workers on the HIB visa scheme with the new German Green Card scheme to recruit IT specialists. Following analysis of US data for 1996 and 1997, the paper offers a critique of the HIB programme and evaluates what the implications are for the new twist in German migration policy.

**Massey, D.S. et al., 1993. 'Theories of international migration: a review and appraisal'. *Population and Development Review*, 19(3): 431-66.**

This article surveys contemporary theories of international migration in order to illuminate their leading propositions, assumptions, and hypotheses. The authors divide the theories conceptually into those advanced to explain the initiation of international migration and those put forth to account for the persistence of migration across space and time. The review suggests that, because they are specified at such different levels of analysis, the theories are not inherently logically inconsistent. The task of selecting between theories and propositions thus becomes an empirical exercise, one that must occur before a truly integrated theoretical framework can be fully realized.

**McDowell, J.M. and Singell-Jr, L.D., 1993. 'An assessment of the human capital content of international migrants: an application to US immigration'. *Regional Studies*, 27(4): 351-63.**

Numerous studies have examined the flow of international migrants. This paper extends this by providing a methodology for adding an economic dimension to the measure of the magnitude of international migration. An earnings equation approach is used to attach an economic value to immigration. Applying the methodology to US immigration, we find considerable variation across source regions in the value of immigrants. We find that simply comparing initial earnings without controlling for

differences in the characteristics and migration patterns of immigrants from the various source regions can misrepresent the relative earnings potential or value of migrants.

**Mobo, G. and Xi' an, L., 1998. 'From student to citizen: a survey of students from the People's Republic of China (PRC) in Australia'. *International Migration*, 36(1): 27-48.**

This article is a survey of students from the People's Republic of China (PRC) who arrived in Australia after 1986 and were still there in 1992. Students from the PRC began to enter Australia in 1972 when China and Australia established diplomatic relations. The numbers were insignificant until 1986 when Australia launched its education export policy. The article provides statistics and analysis on the motivation of these students, their education and family backgrounds and their present conditions and aspirations. The article also addresses issues such as Australia's education export and immigration policies, the dilemma between political and economic refugees in terms of human rights and the impact of the 1989 Tiananmen Square massacre on PRC students in Australia at the time. The survey results suggest that the majority of the former PRC students have settled successfully in Australia, though not without considerable difficulties and emotional cost. The question of distinction between political and economic refugees is acknowledged as a very thorny one, and it is suggested that immigration policy based on national interest, and clearly stated, would be more convincing, less hypocritical and therefore in the long run more effective.

**Montanari, A., 1995. 'Skilled migrations from Italy'. *Studi Emigrazione*, 117: 42-53.**

This article examines the emigration of Italians with high levels of education. Main findings are that during the period 1981-90, emigration of qualified individuals from Italian communes, despite substantial regional variations, affected all areas in the country. The highest levels were in northern regions. This demonstrates how the brain drain phenomenon is highly differentiated according to economic transformation and political change.

**Morokvasic, M. and Rudolph, H., 1994. 'New mobilities - new trends in migration'. *Innovation*, 7(2): 107-98.**

This special issue gathers a selection of articles based on the papers presented at the international conference 'New Mobilities - Element of European Integration'. All of the articles deal with the new east-west migratory flows from the perspective of either the 'receiving' or the 'sending' countries. Two of the articles deal with the perspectives of two traditional 'receiving' countries: on the one hand Germany, the country most affected by migration flows from Eastern Europe, and on the other hand France, which has been among the least concerned with new migratory phenomena; the remaining articles address the various facets of the new migratory movements from the perspectives of the new countries of origin: the issue of 'brain drain' is exemplified by the Russian case; the different forms of spatial mobility with particular attention to the relationship between in- and out-migration by the Ukrainian and the Polish case; the refugee issue by the Yugoslav case which illustrates the tragic situation of war and ethnic conflict under which millions of people are driven into forced displacement, mostly within the borders of their former country.



**Muniz, C.M., 1991. 'The emigration of Argentine professionals and scientists'. *International Migration Review*, 29(2): 231-39.**

From being a country which attracted immigrants, particularly scientists and intellectuals during periods of instability in Europe, Argentina has experienced substantial 'brain drain' in recent times. The major factors identified are economic and political uncertainty at home, and greater opportunities and a higher standard of living abroad.

**Munz, R., 1996. 'A continent of migration: European mass migration in the twentieth century'. *New Community*, 22(2): 201-26.**

This article gives an overview of the size and geography of migration to and within Europe. Changing causes, patterns and trends of international migration, as well as key periods, are discussed. It also analyses the composition of foreign resident populations in Europe. The article covers the second half of the 20th century. Different types of mass migration as well as links between particular sending and receiving countries are analysed. The article also looks at public opinion concerning ethnocentric attitudes and the number of foreigners in Europe. Finally, policy options are discussed.

**OECD, 1997. *Trend in International Migration 1996*. OECD, Paris.**

This annual report provides country specific data on skilled and unskilled flows. The 1996 report notes the growing importance of highly skilled workers (p21-23). The trend is explained by the development of internal labour markets in MNC's and the establishment by governments of an institutional framework to facilitate the international exchange of highly skilled people.

**Oucho, J.O., 1995. 'Emigration dynamics of eastern African countries'. *International Migration*, 33(3-4): 391-434.**

Eastern Africa comprises 13 mainland countries and the Indian Ocean islands. From the evidence assembled in this study it is clear that while refugee flows have persisted in the northern portion of Eastern Africa, labour migration has generally accompanied refugee movements in the Southern portion. But the steady development of human resources in the former implies that countries in the northern portion such as Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania and Ethiopia have the potential to participate in skilled labour migration not only to the southern portion, but also to Southern African countries. Moreover, majority rule in South Africa has added a new dimension to international migration in the two sub-regions, making it difficult to project future migration patterns.

**Oucho, J.O., 1995. 'International migration and sustainable human development in Eastern and Southern Africa'. *International Migration*, 33(1): 31-53.**

Comparative analysis of Western-Central (Middle) Africa and Eastern-Southern Africa suggests that there are significant differences in the determinants and consequences of international migratory movements between the two sets of contiguous sub-regions. The two sub-regions have experienced international migration which remains largely covert and rarely addressed in policies that guide population and development inter-relations within individual countries or in the programmes and activities of the various regional co-operations. Countries of the two sub-regions need to take cognisance of salient international migration issues. The ESA Eastern and Southern Africa) conference and the MINESA (Migration Network

for Eastern and Southern Africa) effort were designed to institute a responsible and systematic approach to articulating the role of international migration in sustainable shared development within the context of regional co-operation rather than the needs of individual members states.

**Oushkalov, I.G. and Malakha, I.A., 2000. 'Brain drain as a global phenomenon and its Russian specifics'. *Sotsiologicheskie Issledovaniya*, 3: 110.**

This article discusses the process of interstate migration of academic personnel, particularly its specifics in the Russian Federation of today. The crisis of the whole Russia's scholarly community and its institutions is seen by the author as a major factor for the current brain drain. Step by step, all regions of Russia are being involved into the process of academics' emigration. Basic stimulating and inhibiting factor are studied with a special emphasis on the conceptions of government policies in the sphere of professionals' migration.

**Papademetriou, D.G., 1991. 'South-North migration in the Western Hemisphere and US responses'. *International Migration*, 29(2): 291-316.**

US immigration policy is sketched, with particular reference to Latin American migrants, in the context of demographic and labour market deficits in the US. The author argues that what is needed is a careful evaluation of labour needs, skill shortages, demographic goals, training and educational needs of the domestic workforce, and the ability of the host society to integrate immigrants.

**Penninx, R. and Muus, P., 1989. 'No limits for migration after 1992? The lessons of the past and a reconnaissance of the future'. *International Migration*, 27(3): 373-88.**

'Prophets of doom' alleged that the Treaty of Rome and the free movement of labour would lead to large population shifts from the poorer south to the richer north within Europe (and from outside, where former colonial citizens held right of abode), depressing wages and exploiting the more generous benefits systems. This article reviews the bases on which such predictions were made, sketches the actual experience of the past 20 years, and discusses the likely size and nature of future population movements within the EC.

**Poinard, M., 1993. 'What evaluation of the Portuguese immigration in France teaches us'. *Espace Populations Societes*, 2: 389-98.**

The study of the Portuguese immigration in France presents an efficient pattern for the knowledge of international migrations: about 800 000 people were involved in this movement, which was both of short duration and outside state controls. Deeply established in the French society, the Portuguese community however kept its links and networks with the native country.

**Polonsky, M.J., Scott, D.R. and Suchard, H.T., 1989. 'A profile of emigrants from South Africa: the Australian case'. *International Migration Review*, 23(4): 933-44.**

This paper details the results of a survey of a representative group of persons emigrating from South Africa to Australia. The characteristics of the group are identified and reasons for their emigration are suggested. They are found to be skilled persons of liberal or apolitical leanings, who should be of benefit to a future non-racial Australia and a loss to such a potential future South Africa. It is noted that a

proportion of the emigrants have little knowledge of their country of destination and have strong family ties in their country of origin. It is suggested that this may result in their being unable to settle satisfactorily in their new homeland.

**Portes, A., 1997. 'Immigration theory for a new century: some problems and opportunities'. *International Migration Review*, 31(4): 799-825.**

This essay examines some of the pitfalls in contemporary immigration theory and reviews some of the most promising developments in research in this field. As a data-driven field or study, immigration has not had to contend with grand generalizations for highly abstract theorizing. On the contrary, the bias has run in the opposite direction, that is toward ground-level studies of particular migrant groups or analysis of official migration policies. As the distillate of past research in the field and a source of guidance for future work, theory represents one of the most valuable products of our collective intellectual endeavour. Ways to foster it and problems presented by certain common misunderstandings about the meaning and scope of scientific theorizing are discussed.

**Premdas, R.R., 1993. *Ethnicity and development: the case of Fiji*, United Nations Research Institute for Social Development, Discussion Paper 46. pp. 50.**

This paper traces the historical origins of ethnic problems in Fiji, the key forces which have contributed to their intensification in recent years, the various attempts made to preserve ethnic balance and accommodation and the economic, political, social and psychological dimensions of the crisis in ethnic relations since 1987. The costs of the breakdown in ethnic balance and accommodation have been high. Politically, there has been a loss of regime legitimacy, destruction of democracy, violation of human rights and persistent instability. In the economic domain, unemployment and poverty have intensified as a result of decline in investment and tourism and through capital flight and brain drain. An increased awareness of these costs is contributing to renewed attempts to find enduring solutions to ethnic problems in Fiji.

**Premi, M.K. and Mathur, M.D., 1995. 'Emigration dynamics: the Indian context'. *International Migration*, 33(3-4): 627-66.**

The paper begins by looking at international migration to and from India. The demographic and socio-cultural setting is discussed, followed by sections on the nature and quality of international migration data; emigration to the industrialised countries; migration to the Middle East; characteristics of emigrants; return migration; financial flows; community, family and individual factors; and the political setting. The final section looks at Indian government policy and demand for foreign workers in the Gulf.

**Pyong Gap, M., 1990. 'Problems of Korean immigrant entrepreneurs'. *International Migration Review*, 24(3): 436-55.**

Analyzes major problems of Korean immigrant entrepreneurs in the US, based on interviews with 557 Korean immigrants in Los Angeles, ethnic newspaper articles and personal observations of the Korean community. Korean entrepreneurs' long hours of work are detrimental to their physical and psychological well-being. Also, because of their business concentration in low-income, minority areas, Korean entrepreneurs are subject to frequent armed robberies, shoplifting, strikes, boycotts and other forms of rejection. Korean entrepreneurs are vulnerable to exploitation because of their dependence upon outgroup members for supplies of merchandise and their

dependence on landlords for leases of store buildings. Korean immigrants are engaged in low level, blue collar businesses, and thus most Korean entrepreneurs face the problem of status inconsistency. Finally, Korean immigrants' segregation into the ethnic sub- economy, while enhancing ethnic attachment and ethnic solidarity, hinders cultural and social assimilation.

**Quibria, M.G., 1990. 'On international migration and the social welfare function'. *Bulletin of Economic Research*, 42(2): 141-53.**

In defining optimum population, economists have used two distinct concepts of the social welfare function: the Millian and the Benthamite. Although analytically the issue of the welfare impact of international migration is closely related to the concept of optimum population, the migration analysis has been based almost exclusively on the Benthamite welfare function. As its point of departure, the present note explores the implications of the alternative Millian welfare function for migration analysis. An interesting aspect of the results derived from the present exercise is that they are in sharp contradiction with the results based on the Benthamite social welfare function. This highlights the sensitivity of the results to the welfare criteria used and the need for greater caution in policy formulation.

**Rallu, J.L., 1994. 'Recent migration trends in the South Pacific area'. *Espace Populations Societes*, 2: 201-12.**

From 1980, patterns of migration have changed due to economic recession and restrictive migration policies. People more often migrate to Australia, directly from island countries or via New Zealand, or to smaller countries like American Samoa. A few Polynesian populations count less people in the islands than in migrant communities. Migration from Melanesia remains small. Migration resulted in MIRAB economies, based on remittances, aid and bureaucracy. Expensive living conditions hinder agricultural production and development of the secondary sector, but do not prevent brain drain.

**Reniers, G., 1999. 'On the history and selectivity of Turkish and Moroccan migration to Belgium'. *International Migration*, 37(4): 679-713.**

The classic image of the labour migrant arriving in Western Europe in the 1960s and 1970s is one of an unskilled individual exchanging a life of work on the land for one of manual labour in industry. For Turks and Moroccans, in particular, the image of an undifferentiated immigrant labour force is reinforced by the commencement of migration from both countries during the same period of high labour demand, their common religious beliefs and the similar legal frameworks under which they applied to gain access to European society. This oversimplified image of an uneducated and undifferentiated migrating labour force is challenged in this article through the concept of selectivity. By using a combination of different data sources, a systematic comparison is made of leavers and stayers with respect to their region of origin and educational attainment. The (self-) selection of the immigrants is, in other words, the empirical angle that is chosen to compare and characterize both migration systems. In bringing selection to the forefront, we explicitly focus on a topic other migration theories often have difficulties incorporating, i.e., explaining why some people in a given country or region migrate and others do not. While Turkish and Moroccan migration overlap only partly in their nature, variances suggest a different logic underlying each. Two concepts of Petersen (conservative and innovative migration) are borrowed to characterize the two migration systems and to interpret differences

observed in the selection of immigrants. The advantage of this typology is that it explicitly accounts for migration motives and migrants' aspirations. This enables us to understand and formulate hypotheses with respect to the further evolution of both migration systems under the current context of legally restricted migration opportunities and also helps explain different integration strategies into the host society. Implicit in this article is a plea for the added value of the empirical operationalisation of selectivity in terms of understanding migration systems. However, such an approach requires comparable data on the sending and receiving countries. In this case, data were combined from two national surveys conducted in Belgium between 1994 and 1996, with aggregated data from national statistical institutes of the sending countries, for the analysis of selection with respect to the region of origin. The same survey data were used in combination with the DHS surveys for Morocco (1992) and Turkey (1993) for the analysis of selection with respect to educational level.

**Richmond, A.H., 1992. 'Immigration and structural change: the Canadian experience, 1971- 1986'. *International Migration Review*, 26(4): 1200-21.**

The educational, occupational, industrial and income characteristics of immigrants in Canada, 1971-1986, are considered in the context of post-industrial structural changes in the economic and social system, including declining primary and secondary sectors. Seven alternative theoretical models are reviewed. A composite model of 'segmented structural change' is found to correspond more closely than alternative theoretical perspectives to the empirical evidence. Specifically, immigrants are found at all levels of the system, but there is differential incorporation by gender, ethnicity and period of immigration. Recent immigrants from Third World countries tend to be disadvantaged.

**Russell, S.S., Jacobsen, K. and Stanley, W.D., 1990. 'International migration and development in sub-Saharan Africa: volume II'. *World Bank Discussion Papers*, 102: 156.**

The study reviews current government policies toward entry, exit, and status of international migrants, as well as bilateral and regional arrangements affecting population movements, and summarises important trends and findings on a country-by-country basis. Of 48 countries in sub-Saharan Africa, only 12 view current levels of immigration as too high, and all but one of these have explicit policies to lower existing levels. Of 18 countries reporting significantly high levels of emigration, only 8 have policies to reduce the outflow. The number of official refugees in sub-Saharan Africa increased nearly 15% between 1987 and 1988, to 3.9 million in the latter year. Mozambique is now the major source of refugees, followed by Ethiopia, Angola, Sudan, and Somalia. Despite significant voluntary repatriations in recent years, large numbers of refugees remain in camps and spontaneous settlements, posing a major challenge to development planning and the provision of services in host countries.

**Rystad, G., 1992. 'Immigration history and the future of international migration'. *International Migration Review*, 26(4): 1168-99.**

International migration must be understood as a permanent phenomenon rather than as a temporary movement. In this article, the author proceeds from the premise that in appreciating the relation between the past and the present, we may be able to draw on 'lessons of the past' to modify our definition and perception of current problems and to analyse possible policies and decisions. The article is divided into several sections:

historical changes within migration patterns including different categories of migrants; various phases within the migration process in recent history; theoretical considerations in analysis; distinct types of immigration policies pursued by various states, and current and possible future trends.

**Salt, J. and Clarke, J.A., 1996. 'European migration report'. *New Community*, 22(3): 513-29.**

The phase of international migration in Eastern and central Europe ushered in by the fall of the Iron Curtain was but the latest in a series of movements that have characterised the region in the 20th century. From the turn of the century mass migrations occurred to emerging industrial zones, to the prosperous major conurbations, and to the US, especially from Poland, Czechoslovakia and Ukraine. Many of these migrations were ethnically inspired. What is emerging is a picture of intensified short-term migratory movements in the region, often resulting in illegal working. This has become the predominant form of employment of migrants from the Soviet successor states, Romania and Bulgaria, oriented towards the more affluent countries of Eastern Europe and Turkey. This report uses available statistics to describe the contemporary trends and patterns of international migration involving Central and Eastern Europe. It focuses on the former Warsaw Pact countries, excluding the former Soviet Union (FSU), but omits former Yugoslavia.

**Schiff, M., 1995. 'Trade policy and international migration in the short and medium term'. *Revue d'Economie du Developpement*, 95(1): 3-25.**

The traditional trade literature assumes that trade liberalization reduces international factor price differences and results in lower migration, with trade and migration being substitutes. The assumptions made in that literature do not necessarily reflect South-North conditions. On the other hand, the migration literature claims that trade and migration are complements, so that freeing trade raises migration, at least in the short run. The arguments made in that literature better reflect South-North conditions but have lacked a rigorous basis. In this paper, the author presents three scenarios and related models to explain the complementarity between migration and trade in a South-North context. The first one incorporates migration costs as a constraint, the second one considers factor specificity, and the third one examines the fact that the most protected sectors in a number of reforming LDC's are labour intensive. The results, especially those of the first scenario, suggest that the impact of NAFTA may very well be to increase migration rather than to reduce it.

**Schoeni, R.F., 1998. 'Labour market outcomes of immigrant women in the United States: 1970 to 1990'. *International Migration Review*, 32(1): 57-77.**

Forty-two percent of immigrant workers in the US are women, yet almost all of the evidence on the economic performance of immigrants is based on analyses of men. This study begins to fill the void by examining differences in a wide array of labour market outcomes between US-born and immigrant women, and among immigrant women born in different countries or regions of the world, using the 1970, 1980 and 1990 censuses. Immigrant women were less likely to participate in the labour force, and this gap increased to 7% points by 1990. However, the share of self-employed and the number of weeks and hours worked among employed women were roughly the same for immigrants and natives throughout the 1970-1990 period. The gap in unemployment and weekly wages widened in favour of natives between 1970 and 1990, with a gap in media wages of 14% in 1990. However, immigrants born in the

UK and Canada, Europe, Japan, Korea, China, the Philippines, and the Middle East have had steady or improved wages and unemployment relative to the US-born women. At the same time, immigrants from Mexico and central America, who now represent one-quarter of all immigrant women, have experienced relatively high unemployment and low earnings, and these differences have increased, with the wage gap reaching 35% in 1990. Disparities in completed years of schooling can explain a substantial share of the differences in labour market outcomes.

**Shamshur, O.V., 1992. 'Ukraine in the context of new European migrations'. *International Migration Review*, 26(2): 258-68.**

Like other Soviet successor states, the Ukraine is faced by multiple international migration-related dilemmas and opportunities. However, apocalyptic predictions forecasting mass emigration appear unwarranted. The future character of Ukrainian emigration policies is discernible in the category of those who travel for 'personal reasons', most of whom are tourists. Many tourists are looking for work abroad. Business trips constitute a second class of often concealed labour force movement. The ecological effects of the Chernobyl disaster also will be a long-term factor affecting Ukrainian emigration.

**Shevtsova, L., 1992. 'Post-Soviet emigration today and tomorrow'. *International Migration Review*, 26(2): 241-57.**

This article deals with the problems of post-Soviet emigration. The author tries to answer the question: What will the post-Soviet emigration 'curve' look like within the next few years. Its peak appears most likely to be reached in 1993 to 1994, when the number of departures may go up to 1-1.5 million people a year. This may happen if the present unfavourable socio-economic conditions and instability continue to exist and if technical problems related to exit arrangements are solved. Once the situation normalizes first and foremost in Russia, the scope of emigration may be maintained at a level of 500 000 to 600 000 people per annum within the next two or three years and then begin to decline.

**Siebert, H., 1995. 'International migration from the economic scientific viewpoint'. *Geographische Rundschau*, 47(7-8): 405-09.**

Both goods and migrants flow from low-cost places to high-cost ones, and capital to the best location. This paper questions why migrants move; what are the relations between migration, capital and goods movement; and what can economic policy do? This discussion is from a theoretical article.

**Straubhaar, T., 1992. 'Allocational and distributional aspects of future immigration to Western Europe'. *International Migration Review*, 26(2): 462-83.**

This article shows that an analysis of the impacts of immigration has to be divided into allocational and distributional aspects. From an allocational point of view, like free trade in goods, services and capital, migration is welfare-improving as long as marginal productivities of labour are not equalized world-wide. From a distributional point of view, however, the immigration society has to bear the effects of sharing its common public goods and its social values with the new immigrants. Free immigration will only be allowed if the allocational welfare gains exceed the distributional welfare losses. According to this rule of thumb, a guideline for an efficient migration policy is sketched.

**Stryjan, Y., 1992. 'Czechoslovak agriculture: institutional change and co-operative solutions'. *Journal of Rural Co-operation*, 20(2): 139-65.**

The paper examines the implications of the ongoing institutional change for Czech agriculture, with some reference to the Slovak part of the former federal republic. It opens with a brief general description of the changes in Czechoslovak farming from communist take-over and onwards. The place of co-operation in the changing system is examined. On the macro level, the privatisation process bars producers from control of existing processing and marketing systems, and temporarily blocks the possibility of establishing an agricultural co-operation of the Western model. The transformation of collective farms (CF's) effectively dissolves the majority of these organizations, replacing them with new legal constructions. One dominant construction, hybrid 'owner co-operatives' is examined in the paper. On the local level, transformation generates problems of capital shortage, brain drain, and unemployment in rural areas.

**Szoke, L., 1992. 'Hungarian perspectives on emigration and immigration in the new European architecture'. *International Migration Review*, 26(2): 305-23.**

Since the downfall of the dictatorship, Hungary's approach to migration, traditionally a liberal one, is now mainly shaped by the country's intention to be reintegrated into Europe and to have its migration practice harmonized with that of the Western democracies. Decision-makers in Budapest show no great concern about emigration, which is expected to remain relatively insignificant. Attention is therefore concentrated on the possibility of a massive influx of immigrants, especially from the neighbouring states. This could easily undermine Hungary's political stability and economic development. The question of international migration can be addressed only in an all-European framework. Experts are convinced that migratory pressures originating in Eastern and Central Europe could be considerably limited by measures taken to guarantee the rights of ethnic minorities.

**Tichonov, V., 1995. 'Migration potential within Russia's military-industrial complex'. *Studi Emigrazione*, 117: 128-43.**

This article investigates the emigration intentions of specialists from several defence enterprises in Russia. The research is based on a sample interview survey carried out in 1992. The conclusions include:

- 1) the migration potential of the highly qualified specialists is significant with no less than half of the candidates interested in working abroad;
- 2) the specialists who intend to work abroad are the most promising group i.e. are young and have the most up-to-date qualifications;
- 3) the specialists are motivated not by the political regime but influenced by economic and professional factors.

**Verma, R.B.P. and Basavarajappa, K.G., 1989. 'Employment income of immigrants in metropolitan areas of Canada, 1980'. *International Migration*, 27(3): 441-65.**

For the past two decades, immigrants to Canada have been selected primarily on the basis of education, vocational training, occupation and family reunification with the expectation that they have the best chance of succeeding and integrating into the Canadian society. The purpose of this paper is to examine the economic achievements of immigrant groups and to compare them with those of the Canadian-born population. The data came from the 1981 Census of Canada. The principal economic measure used is the employment income, a measure of returns to human capital in a



given year. To make the comparisons more valid, data on employment income are restricted to members of the labour force who worked 40 weeks or more, on a full-time basis, during the year 1980.

**Waldorf, B., 1996. 'The internal dynamic of international migration systems'. *Environment and Planning A*, 28(4): 631-50.**

This paper provides a conceptualisation of international migration networks, which can be used to identify and integrate the internal components of migration systems, and formalize the relationships in an analytic model of the internal network dynamic. With the use of the operationalised model, and micro-level and macro-level data for guestworkers in German during the period 1970 to 1989, the authors empirically test the relative influence of internal network variables versus external forces on the attraction of immigrants over time. The empirical results suggest that - as the system matures - network variables have an increasing impact on the attraction of immigrants, while the impact of economic factors declines. The research is concluded with a series of simulations that further highlight the internal dynamic of international migration systems.

**Waldorf, B.S. and Esparza, A., 1991. 'A parametric failure time model of international return migration'. *Papers in Regional Science*, 70(4): 419-38.**

International return migration is conceptualised and modelled as the outcome of two opposing forces: assimilation into the host society and attachment to the home country. Assimilation is a cumulative learning process that, over time, lowers the tendency to return; attachment levels are less predictable: they might decrease, increase, or remain constant over time. From this proposition, we derived a generalized gamma function for the probability density function of the duration of stay, allowing for increasing, decreasing, and constant hazards of return. The applicability of the model is explored using the case of foreign migrants returning to their home countries from West Germany.

**Watanabe, S., 1994. 'The Lewisian turning point and international migration: the case of Japan'. *Asian and Pacific Migration Journal*, 3(1): 119-47.**

Contrary to the assumptions of the theory, the findings for Japan indicate that political factors have been more determinative of the rate of migration than purely economic ones. Prior to its turning point in 1960, international relations, war and forced repatriation were the decisive factors. Recently, though the inflow of foreign workers to fill labour shortages has increased, so also has the outflow of Japanese to accompany direct foreign investment. DFI itself is more responsive to trade barriers, exchange rates and incentives offered by host governments than to differing wage levels or labour market conditions.

**Wilson, W.R. and Samuel, T.J., 1996. 'India-born immigrants in Australia and Canada: a comparison of selected characteristics'. *International Migration*, 34(1): 117-42.**

This article examines the Indian component of Asian immigration to Canada and Australia, reviews briefly the historical background of Indian immigration, discusses the characteristics of India-born immigrants and explores their social impact upon both nations. A comparative approach is adopted to highlight similarities and differences. The transition from an exclusionist to a more universal, non-racist approach to Asian-born immigration has characterized the immigration history of the

India-born to Canada and Australia. Although some differences were noted in relation to family class migration and proportions in managerial, professional and technical occupations, some of these were explained in terms of specific forces or data limitations. Among the differences are the larger numbers of arrivals from India to Canada and their diversity in terms of religion, language and economic background.

**Wong, L.L., 1993. 'Immigration as capital accumulation: the impact of business immigration to Canada'. *International Migration*, 31(1): 171-90.**

Capital accumulation in a particular nation state has generally led to a demand for labour which was partially met by permanent or temporary migration. Canadian immigration policy has always been linked to a domestic labour market that reflected the interests of capital mediated by a relatively autonomous Canadian state. This paper examines a recent trend in state policy whereby immigration has been linked directly to, and is part of, the process of capital accumulation. The entry of capitalists under Canada's Business Immigration Program is the result of privilege accorded by the government as it mediates the various interests in Canadian society. The government's recent evaluation of the programme has been favourable (Employment and Immigration Canada, 1990b). So long as Canada remains in a period of economic contraction, capital via immigration is likely to be encouraged by government and therefore affect class and class relations as well as lead to cultural transformations.

**Xiao Feng, L., 1997. 'Refugee flow or brain-drain? The humanitarian policy and post-Tiananmen mainland Chinese immigration to Canada'. *International Journal of Population Geography*, 3(1): 15-29.**

The humanitarian policy that the Canadian government implemented in response to the 1989 Tiananmen Square crackdown changed a migration system primarily based on personal networks into a brain drain. Post-Tiananmen mainland Chinese immigrants (MCI's) were better educated than those arriving in Canada previously. Among the post-Tiananmen MCI's, those who landed under the policy were better educated than those landing in other categories. The analysis suggests that post-Tiananmen MCI's represented a brain-drain rather than a refugee flow, that the humanitarian policy implicitly contained ideological and human capital concerns in addition to humanitarian concerns, and that Canada benefited from the policy by obtaining human capital as well as satisfying its humanitarian obligations and ideological aspirations.

**Yeoh, B.S.A. and Khoo, L.M., 1998. 'Home, work and community: skilled international migration and expatriate women in Singapore'. *International Migration*, 36(2): 159-86.**

While skilled labour migration across international borders is a phenomenon of increasing significance in the age of globalisation and an important component in the production of global cities, it has not been given sufficient attention in traditional migration analyses. Recent research has focused on institutional mechanisms regulating the patterns of skill transfer rather than the individual experience of being part of the international labour circuit. Women, in particular, have usually been relegated to the role of 'trailing spouses' and are generally invisible in the migration process. Using a questionnaire survey and in-depth interviews, this article attempts to reinstate the importance of women's roles by portraying them as active agents who adopt a range of strategies in negotiating the move and coming to terms with the transformations wrought by the move in the domains of home, work and community.

It argues that skilled labour migration is a strongly gendered process, producing different sets of experiences for the men and women involved in it. While international circulation often represents 'career moves' for expatriate men, their spouses often experience a devalorisation of their productive functions and a relegation to the domestic sphere. As an adaptive strategy, expatriate women often turn to the social and community sphere to reach for grounding in their lives. The article also points to the diversity of 'expatriate experiences': while 'western' expatriates tend to recreate a more exclusive world by drawing on strong institutional support, 'Asian' expatriates find that they have to navigate much finer social and cultural divides between themselves and the host society.

**Zang, X., 2000. 'Ecological succession and Asian immigrants in Australia'. *International Migration*, 38(1): 109-25.**

In recent immigration policy debates in Australia, it has been asserted that Asian immigrants concentrate in ethnic ghettos, thus posing a threat to the social cohesion of Australian society. This assertion has been based mainly on selective observations made by anti-immigration groups. Nevertheless, it is more or less consistent with expectations of an ecological succession model that has guided studies on patterns of housing consumption behaviour of new immigrants in the West. The ecological succession model contends that new immigrants concentrate in ethnic ghettos or low-cost housing areas and will move to good neighbourhoods only after they improve their socio-economic position in the host society. Using data from the 1991 Housing and Location Choice Survey conducted in Melbourne and Sydney, the article shows that the assertion concerning the poor housing condition of Asian immigrants in Australia is unfounded. There is no ecological succession among them because they lived in good neighbourhoods in Melbourne and Sydney shortly after their arrival in Australia. The ecological succession model is a valid framework for poor immigrants from Indo-China, but it does not apply to patterns of housing consumption behaviour among well-to-do immigrants from North and South-East Asia.

**Zhou, Y., 1998. 'Brain drain from Chinese universities in the 1990s'. *Journal of Contemporary China*, 7(17): 103-23.**

This paper examines the brain drain that has prevailed in Chinese universities since the beginning of 1990s. A case study on the impact of market economy on higher education has revealed that university teachers in the 1990 attend classes, teach, and are physically present on campus, but their real interests lie elsewhere, and most of their energy goes to other pursuits. Through the voices of university teachers, some changes in higher education have been discussed and causes to the new form of brain drain presented.

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