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# A Review of the Evidences of the Effects of Migration on Economic Development

**Dr. Roselin Basumatary**
*Assistant Professor, Economics, Kokrajhar Government College, Kokrajhar, Assam*

***Abstract:***

*Human migration denotes any movement by human from one place to another. Humans are known to have migrated extensively throughout history and prehistory. Migration is a truly global phenomenon, with movements both within nations and internationally across borders. The world has an estimated 244 million international migrants (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2016) and 763 million internal migrants (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2013). In other words, migrants make up more than 1 billion people, or one-seventh of the world's population. Migration can be classified as internal migration and international migration according to political boundaries; step migration, circular migration and chain migration according to movement patterns and voluntary and involuntary migration according to decision making approach. Typically, the causes of migration are economic, socio-political and ecological. In all the three aspects there are pull factors as well as push factors. This paper reviews the literature on the effects of migration on economic development. Firstly, it shows the evidences on the economic impact of migration on origin countries and secondly, it shows the evidences on the economic impact of migration on the destination countries. Having found evidences of the positive and negative impacts of migration on origin and destination areas, the paper concludes that the development potential of migration should be harnessed by setting up suitable policies for it.*

***Key words: migration, economic, effects, evidences, review.***

**Introduction:** Human migration denotes any movement by human from one locality to another, sometimes over long distances or in large groups. Migration is a truly global phenomenon, with movements both within nations and internationally across borders. People who migrate are called migrants, or, more specifically, emigrants, immigrants or settlers, depending on historical setting, circumstances and perspective. Humans are known to have migrated extensively throughout history and prehistory. The world has an estimated 244 million international migrants (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2016) and 763 million internal migrants (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2013). In other words, migrants make up more than 1 billion people, or one-seventh of the world's population.

There are different types of migration. Migration can be classified according to political boundaries, according to movement patterns and according to decision making approach. According to political boundaries, migration is classified as internal migration and international migration. Internal migration is the migration occurring within a country from crossing political boundaries, either within a state or between states, whether urban to rural, urban to urban, rural to rural, or rural to urban. The term associated with migrants arriving at their destination is "in-migrants", and with those leaving their place of origin is "out-migration". This form of migration also includes movement between villages, blocks and districts. Migration occurring across country boundaries is called international migration. Migrants coming into a foreign country are called immigrants and migrants leaving their own country are called emigrants. By movement patterns, migration can be divided into step migration, circular migration, seasonal migration and chain migration. Migration initiating from a small settlement and moving to a larger one in the urban hierarchy over the years is called step migration. Cyclical migration experiences between an origin and destination with at least one migration and return. Migrants share their time between multiple locations, with their family, work etc. Seasonal migration is a very common form of circular migration, driven by seasonal peaks in labour demand, mostly in agriculture. Migration of families at different stages of the life cycle from one location to the next, who subsequently bring people from their home location to this new place, is called chain migration. In theory, a chain of people constantly moves from place to place supported by those who migrated before them. As per decision making, migration can be classified as voluntary and involuntary. Voluntary migration is based on a person's free will, initiative and desire to live in a better place and to improve their financial status, among other factors. Involuntary migration is a migration based on a person's being forced out of their home due to certain unfavourable environmental and political situations. Involuntary migration is classified into reluctant or impelled or imposed migration and forced migration. When a person is put in a situation that encourages relocation or movement outside their place of residence, it is called reluctant or impelled or imposed migration and forced migration. Forced migration arises when a person is unable to return home, or undergoes a legal procedure to qualify as a refugee in the host country, or is forced to leave their home due to a conflict or development but does not cross any boundaries (internally displaced persons).

Both the origin and destination are characterised by pull and push factors. The favourable attributes of a location are pull factors, which attract a person. The unfavourable attributes operating at a location are the push factors, which force or compel a person to move away. Typically the causes of migration are economic, sociopolitical and ecological. From the economic point of view, unemployment or lack of employment opportunities, rural poverty and unsustainable livelihood are push factors and job opportunities, better income and prospects for wealth creation, industrial innovation and technical know-how for a new industry and pursuit of specialised education are push factors. From the sociopolitical point of view, political instability, safety and security concerns (ethnic, religious, racial or cultural persecution), conflicts or threat of a conflict, slavery or bonded labour, inadequate or limited urban services and infrastructure (including healthcare, education, utilities, transport and water) are push factors and, family reunification, independence and freedom, integration and social cohesion, food security and affordable and accessible urban services (including healthcare, education, utilities and transport) are pull factors. From the ecological point of view, climate change (including extreme weather events), crop failure and scarcity of food are push factors and abundance of natural resources and minerals (e.g. water, oil, uranium) and favourable climate are pull factors.

**Objectives:** The paper reviews the literature on the effects of migration on economic development. Firstly, it discusses the available evidence on the economic impact of migration on area of origin and secondly, it discusses the available evidence on the economic impact of migration on the destination areas.

**Methodology:** As the paper is a review of literature, only secondary data is used.

**Discussion:**

**1. Evidence of positive economic impacts in area(s) of origin:** Adams and Page (2003) analysed the impact of international remittances in reducing poverty using data upon poverty, international migration and remittances for 74 low and middle income developing countries. They found that, international remittances defined as the share of remittances in country Gross Domestic Product (GDP) have a strong, statistical impact in reducing poverty. They found that, on an average, a 10 per cent increase in the share of international remittances in a country's GDP would lead to a 1.6 per cent decline in the share of people living in poverty. Quartey in 2006 investigated the role of remittances in preparing households against natural disasters and in coping with the loss afterwards in Ghana, Bangladesh, Ethiopia and Burkina Faso. The results suggest a positive role of remittances in preparing households against natural disasters and in coping with the loss afterwards. Aggrawal et al (2006) studied the link between remittances and financial sector development of 109 developing countries during 1975-2007. Their study provides evidence of a positive, significant and robust link between remittances and financial development in developing countries. Adams (2006) examined the economic impact of international remittances on countries and households in the developing world (115 developing countries). The results suggest that, those countries which are fortunate enough to receive remittances, these resource flows do tend to reduce the level and depth of poverty. Quartey (2006) investigated whether migrant remittances significantly affect household poverty (welfare) by using waves 1 to 4 of the GLSS in Ghana. The study found that remittances improve household welfare and help to minimize the effects of economic shocks to household welfare. Fajnzylber and Lopez (2007) studied the poverty reducing impact of observed remittances flows in Latin America. They found that, even though the estimated impact is moderate in most cases and country heterogeneity is very significant, higher remittances inflows tend to be associated with lower poverty levels and with improvements in human capital indicators (education and health) of the recipient countries. They also found that remittances also seem to contribute to higher growth and investment rates and lower output volatility. Koechlin and Leon (2007) studied the relationship between international remittances and income inequality in a cross section of 78 countries. Using several cross-sectional and panel-data, their study showed the existence of an inverted U-shaped relationship between international remittances and income inequality. Toxopeus and Lensink (2007) investigated the relationship between remittance inflows and financial inclusion in developing countries. Their regression results confirm that remittances have a development impact through their effect on financial inclusion. Adams et al (2008) analyzed how the receipt of internal remittances and international remittances affects the marginal spending behaviour of households on a broad range of consumption and investment goods, including food, education and housing in Ghana. The findings show that households receiving remittances in Ghana do not spend more at the margin on food, education and housing than households with similar income levels and characteristics that do not receive remittances. Yang (2008) examined Philipine households' responses to overseas members economic shocks. He found that appreciation of a migrant's currency against the Phillipine peso leads to increases in household remittances received from overseas. He also found that positive income shocks lead to enhanced human capital accumulation and entrepreneurship in origin households. Moreover, he found that favourable migrant shocks lead to greater child schooling, reduced child labor and increased educational expenditure in origin households. Chami, Hakura and Montiel (2009) estimated the impact of remittances on output stability for countries that are dependent on these income flows. Using a sample of 70 countries, including 16 advanced economies and 54 developing countries, they found robust evidence that remittances have a negative effect on output growth volatility of recipient countries. The results support the notion that remittance flows are a stabilizing influence on output. Anyanwu and Erhijakpor (2010) examined the impact of international remittances on poverty reduction in 33 African Countries over the period 1990-2005 using a panel data set on poverty and international remittances. Their result show that, international remittances, defined as the share of remittances in country GDP reduce the level, depth and severity of poverty and hence inequality in Africa. Docquier, Rapoport and Shen (2010) developed a model to study the effects of migration and remittances on inequality in the origin communities. In their study, they found that, while wealth inequality is monotonically reduced along the time-span, the short and the long run impacts on income inequality may be of opposite signs, suggesting that the dynamic relationship between migration/remittances and inequality may well be characterized by an inverse U shaped pattern. Dinkelman and Mariotti (2016) estimated the net effects of migration from Malawi to South African Mines. They provided evidence of one channel through which circular labour migration has long run effects on origin communities: by raising completed human capital of the next generation.

**2. Evidence of negative economic impacts in area(s) of origin:** Lipton (1980) did a study upon "Migration from Rural Areas of Poor Countries: The Impact of Rural Productivity and Income Distribution". He found that downward emigration, and its after-effects (remittances, return migration), increases interpersonal and inter household inequality within and between villages. Barham and Boucher (1998) in their study upon "Migration, Remittances and Inequality: Estimating the Net Effects of Migration on Income Distribution" examined the net effects of migration and remittances on income distribution. They found that for a sample of households in Bluefields, Nicaragua, migration and remittances increase income inequality when compared with the no-migration counterfactual. Kahn et al (2003), Brummer (2002) and Kane et al (1993) assessed temporary expatriation as a risk factor for HIV infection in a rural area of Senegal and also examined the transmission of HIV from expatriates to their families. They concluded that, penetration of HIV 1 infection in a country where HIV 2 was endemic showed that, the HIV 1 epidemic was spreading to rural West Africa, which showed that migrant workers appeared to play a major role in the epidemic. Bernhard, Nathan and Gilles (2003) reviewed the factors such as the serious brain drain of health professionals that have and are influencing the availability of human resources. They concluded that, several issues such as offering internally competitive wages and benefit packages to retain highly trained staff be focused. Bourdet and Falck (2006) in their study concentrated on the macro economic impact of remittances on the real exchange rate in Cape Verde. They found that remittances can lead to exchange rate appreciation, which can reduce the competitiveness of the tradable sector called Dutch Disease. . Makasa (2008) in his paper mentioned that one of the major causes of the human resource crisis in the Zambian public health sector was brain drain due to immigration to the developed world outside Africa and to more developed countries with Africa such as South Africa. Docquier et al (2016) in their paper "Brain Drain in Globalisation : A General Equilibrium Analysis from the Sending Countries Prespective" evaluated the relative magnitude of various brain drain channels and quantifying their global impact on migrants' sending countries. Their findings suggest that the short run impact of brain drain on resident human capital is extremely crucial, as it affects not only the number of high skilled workers available to domestic production, but also the sending economy's capacity to innovate/ adopt modern technologies, which is particularly important in globalisation, where capital investments are made in places with high production efficiencies.

**3. Evidence of positive economic impacts in destination area(s):** In the study upon “The Impact of Immigration on American Import Trade in the late Nineteenth and Early Twentieth Century” by Dunlevy and Hutchinson in 1999, it is found that the presence of an immigrant population is associated with an increase in trade between the immigrants’ host and origin countries. Winters, Walmsley, Wang and Grynberg (2003) found that the biggest economic concern from temporary mobility is its competitive challenge to local less skilled workers. However, they showed the positive economic impact in destination country by showing that, as population age and the average levels of training and education rise, developed countries will face an increasing scarcity of less skilled labour. Kremer and Watt (2006) in their paper "The Globalisation of Household Production", showed that increased labor supply by native high skilled workers can increase the wages of low skilled natives and provide a fiscal benefit by correcting distortions toward home production created by income taxes. Van der Mensbrugghe and Roland-Holst (2009) reported new projections on global migration patterns in their paper "Global Economic Prospects for Increasing

Developing Country Migration into Developed Countries". The results found strongly support the argument that migration has beneficial growth effects on global real economic activity, improving the efficiency of international resource allocation for the benefit of both sending and receiving countries. Hunt and Gauthier-Loiselle (2008) in their study "How much does Immigration Boost Innovation?", used a 1950-2000 state panel and showed that natives are not crowded out by immigrants, and the immigrants do have positive spill over, resulting in an increase in patents per capita of about 25% in response to a 1% point increase in immigrant college graduates. Ortega and Peri (2009) in their paper "The Causes and Effects of International Labor Mobility: Evidence from Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) Countries 1980-2005", estimated the impact of immigration flows on employment, investment and productivity in the receiving OECD countries. They found that, immigration increases employment one for one, implying no crowding-out of natives. In addition, they found that, investment responds rapidly and vigorously, and total factor productivity is not affected. Their results imply that immigration increases the total GDP of the receiving country in the short-run one-for-one, without affecting average wages or labor productivity. Peri and Sparber (2009) in their paper "Task Specialization, Immigration and Wages", using occupational task intensity data from the O*Net dataset and individual United States (US) census data, demonstrated that foreign born workers specialize in occupations intensive in manual physical labor skills while natives pursue jobs more intensive in communication language tasks which shows only modest wage consequences of immigration for less educated native born workers. Giovanni Peri (2010) found that immigrants promoted efficient task specialization and thus promoted productivity in United States. The results of the study in Italy by M. Bratti, L. De Benedictis and G. Santoni in 2013 showed that immigrants have a significant positive effect on both exports and imports. According to the study in United States made by Gaetano Basso, Giovanni Peri and Ahmed Rahman (2017), unskilled immigration enhances skill-upgrading for natives, and raises economy- wide productivity and welfare. Assaf Razin (2018) found that immigration raised productivity in Israel. The study of Christopher Parsons and Pierre-Louis Vezina (2018) showed that due to the lifting of trade restrictions in 1994, United States exports to Vietnam grew most in United States with larger Vietnamese populations, who were themselves the result of larger refugee inflows 20 years earlier. Gaetano Basso, Giovanni Peri and Ahmed Rahman (2018) found that immigration partially reversed natives' polarization of employment opportunities and wages by expanding aggregate demand and allowing natives to move to better paying occupations in United States and Europe.

**4. Evidence of negative economic impacts in destination area(s):** Johnson (1980) found that in non recessionary periods the most important effect of a high rate of illegal immigration is on the wage rates of low-skilled labour rather than on the employment of low skilled native workers in United States. Longhi, Nijkamp and Poot (2005) in their paper "A Meta-Analytic Assessment of the effect of Immigration on wages" analysed the effect of immigration on wages applying meta analytic techniques to a sample of eighteen papers. While many studies in the sample employed United States data, estimates were also obtained from Germany, the Netherlands, France, Norway, Austria, Israel and Australia. They noted that results vary across countries and are inter alia related to the type of modeling approach. They found that, a negative but small effect of immigration on wages of native groups with similar skills appears rather robust. Dustmann, Fabbri and Preston (2005) found no strong evidence that immigration has overall effects on aggregate employment, participation, unemployment and wages but some differences according to education. Ratha and Shaw (2007) in their paper, "South-South Migration and Remittances" found that, the costs of South-South remittances (where such remittances are permitted) are even higher than those of North-South remittances, because of lack of competition in the remittance market, a lack of financial development in general, and high foreign exchange commission's at both ends of the transaction. Smolensky and Raphael (2008) found that competition with immigrations does adversely impact those natives and only those natives with the least education. Joan Llull (2008), in his study on "The Impact of Immigration on Productivity" provided cross country macro evidence on the effect of immigration on productivity. His result showed a negative impact of immigration on productivity that was partially offset by a positive effect on participation and employment. Whether positive or negative, the net fiscal impact of immigration is not likely to be large. When it comes to the provision of health care, however, the destination countries in South might face an increased burden. Irregular migrants in the South may have health needs that often remain unaddressed (United Nations Development Program, 2009). Fromentin (2011) in his study for France found that high and intermediate-skilled migrant workers are respectively substitutable for intermediate and low-skilled native workers. Kangasniemi, Mas, Robinson and Serrano (2012) in their study on "The economic impact of migration: productivity analysis for Spain and the UK" observed a positive long term effect on total factor productivity from migrant workers in the United Kingdom and a negative effect in Spain. Nickell and Salaheen (2015) found that the immigrant to native ratio has a small negative impact on average British wages. Their results reveal that the biggest impact of immigration on wages is within the semi or unskilled services occupational group. Xu, Garand and Zhu (2015) in their study "Imported Inequality? Immigration and Income Inequality in the American States" explored the effects of immigration on income inequality. They found that, the positive relationship between immigration and state income inequality was driven primarily by low- skilled immigrants (rather than high skilled immigrants) and they provided some evidence that high skilled immigrants lowered income inequality for some segments of the income distribution. Alexander W. and Dennis C. (2016) in their study on "Immigration and Welfare Support in Germany" found that native born populations become more reluctant to support welfare programmes when the proportion of foreigners at the regional level increases. Ortega and Verdugo (2016) found that an increase in the workforce due to the entry of immigrants at the local level lowers the average wage of natives. They also found a stronger negative impact for blue collar native workers from the construction sector. Those results suggested that immigration mostly affected the wages of native workers who had the same skills as migrants, which was in line with the distributional effects highlighted by structural studies. They found that although the average wage effect of immigration was modest, immigration seemed to redistribute the income of native workers by lowering the wages of competing workers (who had skills similar to those of the migrants) and increasing the wages of complementary workers (who had skill that complement those of immigrants). Migration Advisory Committee (2018) upon the impact of migrants on the overall employment and unemployment outcomes of the United Kingdom born workforce, showed that the impact may vary across different United Kingdom born groups with more negative effects for the lower skilled and more positive effects for the higher skilled. However, their robustness checks suggested that those findings were subject to uncertainty. Upon migration as a determinant of wages of United Kingdom born workers, they found evidence suggesting that lower skilled workers faced a negative impact while higher skilled workers benefitted. However they found that magnitude of the impacts were generally small.

**Conclusion:** Migration has positive as well as negative economic impacts in both the origin as well as destination areas. Therefore migration should be managed. To harness the development potential of migration, the decision makers need to make policies based on the problems and conditions of the area(s). However, improving data on migration is an important aspect.

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