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INTRODUCTION

Every year hundred millions of people cross national borders and try to find new places of living or working, for learning or training, for leisure or medical treatment. Sometimes they run away from different kinds of political, national, racial and other harassments or ecological disasters. Nowadays, all these migration flows have got a truly global character. In other words, international migration of population becomes one of the global phenomena of contemporary world. The main feature of the contemporary international migration is that it has become one of the global processes and the 'locomotive' of world's globalization development at the same time. Moreover, globalization of the world began to develop at the time of the first 'Great Resettlement of Population', which is related to the era of slavery. Today migration continues to have a particular impact on development of globalization processes. In the long term, the global role of migration will be only growing.

Globalization can be regarded in several aspects. First of all, it is demographical globalization, which means the increasing role of demographic factor in the development of the contemporary world. Here we mean not only dramatic growth of population (from 1 billion people at the beginning of the 19th century to 7 billion in 2011), but about qualitative demographic changes. V. Iontsev and J. Prokhorova argue these issues in their article in this edition, which focuses on the 'fourth demographic transition'.

There is hardly any event in society, which doesn't have any relation to demographic processes. Accidentally, one of distinguished Russian scientists D. Mendeleev, arguing the importance of the demographic factor, wrote: 'Ignorance of priority of population issues is one of principal mistakes of decision-making that explains many of the world's failures' (Mendeleev, 1905). Adding to these words we can say that not only ignorance of priority of population issues but ignorance of demographic development as it is, results in a variety of negative effects of development policies.

Another important aspect is economic globalization, which is understood as integration of national economies into the global system through foreign trade, foreign direct investments by multinational corporations, short-term capital flows, movement of labour and population in the whole, and also international technology exchange' (Bhagwati, 2005). This aspect of globalization is closely related to labour migration issues, whose importance is noted by many experts in this area. For example, in the foreword to the P. Stalker's book "The World of Strangers: A Survey of International Labour Migration" (1996) W. Bohning wrote that 'nowadays international labour migration is one of principal issues of globalization that affects economics and labour force market'. In this edition, some aspects of labour migration and its management in the context of globalization is discussed in a paper of I. Ivakhnyuk.

Of course there are other important aspects of globalization, however, this book is focused mainly on the above-mentioned two aspects. At the same time we would like to emphasize that development of globalization process, which penetrates all spheres of life of the modern societies puts challenges to international migration of population that is a globalization process by itself. Meanwhile, migration is 'blamed' in many social problems arisen by the contemporary society. In particular, one of such challenges is highlighted in the 'third demographic transition' concept, which is debated by the authors of the 'fourth demographic transition' in this book. Another group of challenges is determined by the dual character of the nowadays migration policy. The essence of this duality lies, on the one hand, in liberalization of this policy and, on the other hand, – in severe restrictions of migration from the third countries, which are not included in, say, European unions. Such policy may result in increasing irregular migration flows, which in turn can lead to negative effects both for receiving and sending countries, as well as for migrants who are involved in the unregistered labour. Moreover, when speaking about globalization challenges we should stress that migration can provoke these challenges; Patrick Taran' paper is dealing with these issues.

Many ideas shaped in this book are of theoretical and practical importance; they call for further research and attention in separate countries and the whole world.

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Vladimir Iontsev, Editor-in-Chief of the series

GLOBAL PERSPECTIVES OF INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION AND NUPTIALITY. IS THE FOURTH DEMOGRAPHIC TRANSITION POSSIBLE?

The article deals with the globalization of international migration, its role and place in the demographic development of the developed countries (including Russia) in historical retrospective with emphasis on their future demographic development. The main attention is drawn to the changes in place and role of international migration in the context of the evolution of demographic transition theory, including the concepts of the second and the third demographic transitions. This gives the authors the possibility to offer a new scenario of future demographic development of the world, which is focused on interconnection of two demographic processes – international migration of population and nuptiality. We call this scenario ‘the fourth demographic transition’¹.

Globalization processes going hand-in-hand with impetuous changes in the global political and economical systems result in intensification of global migration streams and dramatic shifts in global migration trends that are resulting in formation of a new stage of migration history of the mankind.

The most significant of these trends are:

1. unprecedented growth of the international migration scale and formation of ‘nation of migrants’, annual number of which is about 1,3 billion people.

- 215 million – classical migrants (re-settlers, immigrants) + refugees;
- 100 million – migrant workers (250 million, is with their family members);
- about 60 million – illegal migrants;
- over 10 million – seasonal and frontier workers;
- over 60 million – forced migrants (ecological refugees, deported, etc. (including Palestinian refugees));
- over 700 million – episodic migrants, including ‘economic tourists’.

2. widening geography of international migration flows when practically all the countries of the world get involved in migration flows;

¹ It is important to note that every next index number of the concept, which goes after the second, for example, the third, the fourth and another possible numbers, doesn’t mean that concepts should go by these numbers. They are, in fact, different scenarios of the future demographic development for the whole world and for its regions and countries.

3. changes in the structure of the world migration flows in compliance with the requirements of globalizing labor market;
4. growing scale and widening geography of forced migration;
5. dual character of migration policy at international, regional and national levels;
6. growing importance of international migration for demographic development of the countries of the world, both sending and receiving ones (see Table 1);

Table 1

**Contribution of international migration to population growth
of developed and developing countries**

Region	1985–1990		1990–1995		2005–2009	
	Net migration rate, ‰	Percentage of migration in total population growth, %	Net migration rate, ‰	Percentage of migration in total population growth, %	Net migration rate, ‰	Percentage of migration in total population growth, %
Developed countries	1,6	26,7	1,8	45,0	3,0	54,0
Developing countries	-0,5	-2,5	-0,5	-2,0	-1,0	-1,7

Source: World Population Prospects 1996, 2010.

So when we speak about global prospects of international migration of population, we can make a conclusion that ‘the world came in motion’ (Massey et al. 2005). In the future, the migration processes will continue to grow regardless of the real (for example, attempt to built the wall between USA and Mexico) and implicit (such as special laws, which try to contain migration flows) obstacles. This is especially true if we pay respect to so called demographic imbalance between the rich North and the poor South. This imbalance is characterized on the one hand, by rapidly growing population in developing countries, and on the other hand, by steady population decrease in some Western European countries which has started in 1970s and puts the developed world to the threat of extinction. This imbalance defines a special role of international migration in demographic development: nearly 90% of the total population increase in developed European countries relies on international migration. The new role of immigration processes in demographic dynamics is reflected in a number of theoretical constructions, among which the demographic transition theory is the most widely recognized.

Migration of population has a special place in the demographic transition theory and in the concepts of the second and the third demographic transition. Evolution of this theory is connected with the changing role and place of international migration: from the total elimination of migration component to its leading role in the third demographic transition concept. Initially the main emphasis in the theory was made on fertility processes. That’s why it is reasonable to call it the concept of

fertility transition or, after W. Zelinsky, 'vital transition'. It is not by chance that in 1971 two concepts (epidemiological transition concept by A. Omran) and mobility transition concept by W. Zelinsky) appeared – they have enriched the initial demographic transition concept and developed it into the comprehensive and universal theory. It is quite clear now that future demographic development of almost all developed countries of the world will be affected by in-flow of international migrants. This gives grounds to a variety of scenarios of their further development.

The demographic transition theory has been developed by different authors during the last three centuries. It takes the beginning from 1800s, when Western European countries, namely France, faced decline in mortality followed by declining fertility. These processes called academics to think about what is known about the trends of development of mankind and what are the possible consequences of shifts in natural increase of populations. At that time the impact of international migration on demographic development of population was not taken consideration. It's explained by different reasons, for example by lack of reliable statistical data about migration processes. However, it looks strange because in this historical period (1850–1939) non-return emigration from European countries was huge – nearly 60 million people.

Between 1830 and 1890 a lot of demographic studies tried to give an explanation for the phenomenon of declining fertility. Especially it characterizes works of French scientists because France was the first country to face stable decline of fertility since 1830. For example, A. Dumont believed that the beginning of this phenomenon is connected with failure of an individual to work for the society and with growing of individual needs over the collective ones (Dumont 1890: 130). Another French scientist P. Leroy-Beaulieu supposed that the main reason of fertility decline lies in changing of moral norms and traditions, which are related to each concrete person (Leroy-Beaulieu 1896: 614). But in the final version of the classical demographic theory minor attention is paid to moral factors. For this reason some scientists, like M. Klupt, suppose that it's one of shortcomings of the theory. It is interesting that despite their different perspectives, both authors (Dumont and Leroy-Beaulieu) have intuitively laid one of the principles ideas of the second demographic transition: transition from the bourgeois to the individualistic family model.

In 1934, the 'classical' work of A. Landry 'The demographic revolution' was published. In this work he developed the theory, the main statement of which is rationalization of individual's behavior in fertility questions (Landry 1982: 186). The first three-stage model of the demographic transition was described in this book.

In 1945, the scientist from the Princeton University K. Davis published the article, where the term 'demographic transition' was used in the headline (Davis 1945). However, F.W. Notestein is regarded to be the author of the 'classical' theory of demographic transition. Within the frames of this theory Notestein tried to explain dynamics of European nations (Notestein 1983). In a presentation made in 1946, Notestein declared that the theory, which he has constructed, is universal and

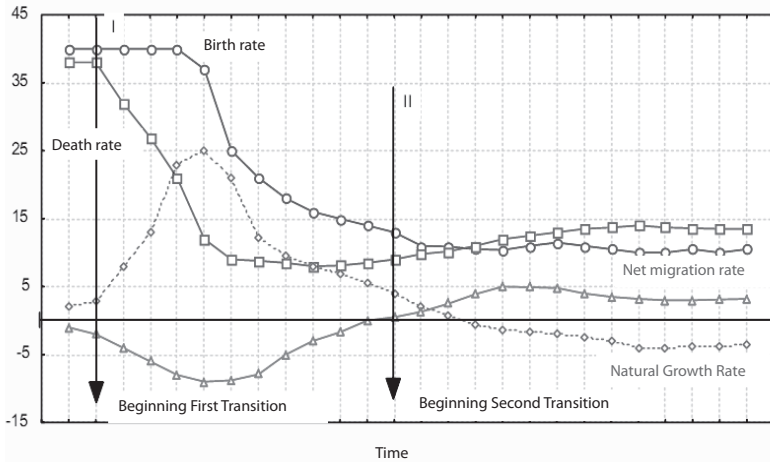
applicable to any country in the world. However, after mid-1960s new demographic trends in European population (dropping of fertility levels below replacement level, conscious refusal from parenthood in favor of self-development, dropping role and value of family and children in society), made academic community to doubt universal character of the classical demographic transition construction. They tried to understand if the theory can shape the model of the future demographic development of European populations. The answer was negative. One of the reasons was that migration was eliminated by above-mentioned authors from their analysis.

In 1987, European demographers D. Van de Kaa and R. Lesthaege published the article 'The Second Demographic Transition?'. The article was not noticed by demographic community because it was published in Dutch. However, these authors were the first to introduce the terms 'the first demographic transition' and 'the second demographic transition', which outlined two different stages of demographical and social development of European countries. In their view the first demographic transition describes and explains consistent declining of mortality in Europe and then, after 1880, fertility decline while the second demographic transition deals with the changes in European population typical for the end of 1960s and at the beginning of 1970s.

Van de Kaa and Lesthaege argued that in addition to changes in the level of fertility there were important shifts in the structure of a family: the individualistic model has replaced the bourgeois model. That was followed by increased numbers of divorces, practices of co-habitation and extramarital births (Kaa 2002: 91). The authors made a special emphasis on the changes in the causes of fertility decline. Earlier the main reason of fertility decline was rooted in higher responsibility for children, their health, education, etc. (i.e. altruistic reasons) while in the last quarter of the 20th century fertility decreased because of the new value of self-development of an individual and unwillingness to bear the burden of parenthood.

The main shortcoming of this approach was eliminating of migration component of population growth, which made the second demographic transition concept over-simplified.

Already in 1987, Van de Kaa separately from Lesthaege in his monograph 'Europe's Second Demographic Transition' tried to correct this lack. When describing the first demographic transition theory he underlines a huge role of emigration in reducing population pressure, which arises from the gap between fertility and mortality levels at the end of the 19th and the beginning of the 20th centuries (Van de Kaa 1987: 38-46). Further, within the frames of the second demographic transition, Van de Kaa analyzes migration flows in historical context and their impact on sex and age structure, fertility levels and integration of migrants into the host society. The milestone of this concept was the report of Van de Kaa made at the European Population Conference (Hague, 1999) entitled 'Europe and its population: view to the future'. In this report, he presented a model of the second demographic transition, which includes the value of net migration (see Picture 1).



Picture 1 Model of the First and the Second Demographic Transitions

Source: Van de Kaa, 1999.

Now the third demographic transition concept is under discussion. For the first time this term was used by the British scientist D. Coleman in his article ‘Immigration and ethnic change in low-fertility countries a third demographic transition’. In his further articles he has developed this concept on the example of the United Kingdom and several European countries. The main idea of the concept consists of the following issues:

1. In some developed countries a rapid change in the composition of the population according to national or ethnic origin, arising from the direct indirect effects of immigration in the last few decades, is already apparent.
2. Projections on plausible assumptions imply, within the conventional time-scale of projections, a substantial alteration of the composition of that population which if continued in the longer term would lead to the displacement of the original population into a minority position (Coleman 2007:10).

So Coleman sees the future of developed countries in ‘dark colors’: European civilization will be replaced by the Asian civilization. Coleman offers some actions to prevent this future: (1) to raise fertility levels among native people, (2) to involve more and more women in economic activity, getting additional labor force, (3) to suspend or deny new immigration flows (Coleman, 2007). In our opinion, there can be some critical comment to the Coleman’s preventive actions. It’s difficult to disagree with the statement about the necessity to increase European fertility levels at least replacement level. Moreover, some European countries (for example, France,

where total fertility rate is 2.1 child per woman, or UK, where it is 1.9) already have reached this level. However, it is hardly possible for developed European countries to reach the level of extended replacement in the foreseen future. There is a number of reasons for this point of view, for example – changes in relation to children, which are described in the second demographic concept, development of such a phenomenon as ‘childfree’, which was born in 1993 in America and expanded in 2006 to Russia, spread of gay marriages etc. In society reaction to such couples may be different, but from demographical point of view only one reaction is possible – a negative one.

If we speak about the statement about more active involvement of women in economic activity, an experience of the USSR shows that such involvement of women without taking into account their marital status and number of children will have exclusively negative impact on their reproductive behaviour.

Finally, the third issue. In fact, can the world, which is in motion, live without new migrants? It is possible to restrict immigration policy but this will hardly help to reduce migration flows. Such policy will inevitably lead to increasing illegal immigration.

To sum up, we want to underline, that migration has a special place in the demographic transition theory and in the second and the third demographic transition concepts. Evolution of this theory is connected with changing understanding of the role and place of migration: from the complete elimination of the migration component to its leading role in the concept of the third demographic transition. At the same time the third demographic transition is not a logical continuation the first demographic transition. It is only one of the possible scenarios of future demographic development of developed countries. As to the second demographic transition, we consider it as the fifth stage of the first demographic transition. Developed European countries have already taken this path and some other countries, including Russia, only try to take this way.

We have already noted that the third demographic transition is just one of the possible scenarios of demographic development according to which native people are to be replaced by migrants. This pessimistic view has pushed us to develop more optimistic scenario, which we call ‘the fourth demographic transition’. When we called it that way, we would like to highlight continuity with the ‘classical’ theory of demographic transition and to show another favorable way of future demographic development for countries, which are now on the path of demographic transition.

The main statement of our concept is that migration can be positive phenomenon for the future demographic development, which takes into account national and global interests through promotion marriages between native people and migrants. With the help of such marriages new children will be born. They will be the symbol of new viable generation. We would like to emphasize that we speak about marriages between native people and migrants, not about marriages between people of different nationality.

The idea of inter-ethnic marriages goes back to the ancient times. Alexander the Great considered mixing of nations like one of the main factors of saving and development of his Empire. Our country also has a great historical experience in this area. For example, Mongol-Tatar yoke and the emergence of population from marriages between Russian and Mongol-Tatar. It was connected with development of huge areas of Russia (Urals, Siberia, Central Asia, the Far East, Kazakhstan, the Caucasus, the Baltic States) by means of migration of population. Later in our country there was an attempt to create a specific nation called ‘Soviet people’. There was a targeted policy ‘in the area of formation the psychological climate of communications between different nations’ (Susokolov 1987: 9). This policy has helped the authorities to maintain the integrity of the State and its stability, thereby solving economic, social and demographic tasks. Available data can provide the success of such policy. In 1959, there were 5.2 million inter-ethnic families (10.2% of the total number of families), in 1979 – 9.9 million (14.9%), and in 1989 – 12.8 million (17.5%). So every 6th family included persons of different nationalities (Topilin 2010: 125).

Correlation between inter-ethnic families and migration was discovered. For example, this statement is proved by A.V. Topilin. With the Census Data (1959, 1970, 1979, 1989) he made the table, which shows correlation between percentage of inter-ethnic families and migration of Russians.

Table 2

**Change of inter-ethnic families formation rate in 1959-1988
and migration of Russians, thousands people**

	Average annual growth rate of inter-ethnic marriages		1979-1988 in % to 1959-1978	Net migration of ethnic Russians			
	1959-1978	1979-1988		1959-1978	1979-1988	In % to Russians population	
						1959	1989
1-st group							
Armenia	1.1	-0.5		2.1	-25	4	37.5
Turkmenistan	1.9	0.8	42	31.7	-37	5.5	10.6
Kazakhstan	2	1.1	55	1140.6	-394	14	6.6
Kyrgyzstan	1.2	0.7	58	150.8	-70	24.2	7.7
Tadzhikistan	1.6	1.3	81	75.7	-37	13	9.4
2-nd group							
Lithuania	3.3	1.25	38	24.8	21	4.9	6.9
Estonia	2.3	1	43	115.4	30	21	7.2
Latvia	2.1	1.3	62	146.4	43	12.8	5.2
Belarus	3.1	2	65	327.7	81	21.9	7.1
Moldova	2.2	1.6	73	147.5	23	22	4.5
Ukraine	1.9	1.5	79	1858.6	293	11.9	2.8

3-d group							
Russia	1.9	2.1	111	-41654.4	313	2	0.3
Azerbaijan	0.3	0.4	133	-124.9	-80	12.	16.8
Uzbekistan	1.25	1.9	152	336.3	-124	14.2	7.4
Georgia	0.8	1.6	200	-115.5	-38	14.3	10.2

Source: Toplin A.V., Interaction of migration and ethnic processes, Moscow, Econom-Inform, 2010, p.127.

A.V. Toplilin divided the former Soviet republics into three groups. In the 1980s, in the first and the second groups there was reduction of the average annual growth rate of inter-ethnic marriages correlated with reduction of net migration of Russians. As to the third group, the rate of forming inter-ethnic families increased. For Russia, it was concerned with the start of Russian, Ukrainian, Belarusian immigration flows, and also with migration of another nations. For example number of Azerbaijanis increased by 148 thousands, Armenians – by 126 thousands, Moldavians – by 58 thousands, Uzbeks – by 51 thousands, Georgians – by 31 thousand, Kirghiz – by 23 thousands, Kazakhs – by 18 thousands. It could not but affect the growth of inter-ethnic families in our country and it is shown in the table 1.

However, the issue of inter-ethnic marriages sustainability compared to mono-ethnic marriages arises. This problem is not well-studied. Let's apply to the research of stability of inter-ethnic marriages in Chisinau, Tbilisi, Tallinn, which was described by A.Susokolov. He came to a conclusion that 'stability of marriage depends not only in the fact if the marriage is mono-ethnic or inter-ethnic, but also on nationality of a spouse' (Susokolov 1987: 109). His next conclusion is that 'native-ethnic marriages are more stable. Marriages where one of the spouses is native-ethnic and another is Russian are also stable like Russian mono-ethnic marriages. Stability of inter-ethnic marriages... depends on culture similarity of nations, which are married' (Susokolov 1987: 110).

Table 3

**Portion of marriages, contracted in 1971
and dissolved within the next 8-10 years, %**

	Mono-ethnic marriages, where husband and wife have:		Inter-ethnic marriages
	Native nationality	Russian nationality	
Chisinau	19%	33%	27%
Tbilisi	10%	15%	17%
Tallinn	26%	30%	39%

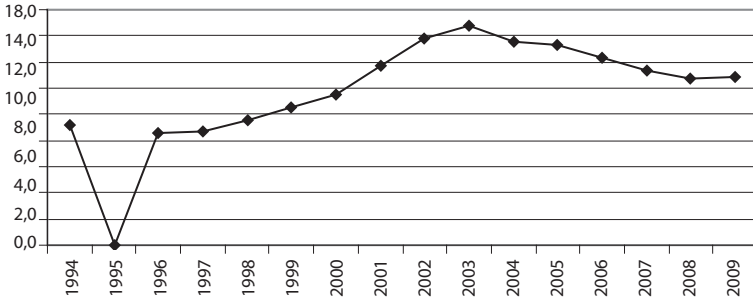
Source: table is based on A.A. Susokolov 1987: 109-110.

The most interesting for demographers are children born in inter-ethnic marriages independent of their stability (in this particular case). Let's apply to the data from former Soviet republics. In Tbilisi in 1983 among the divorced inter-ethnic marriages, 20% were with children. Children born in inter-ethnic marriages can have an impact on population size as a whole and on the size of this or that ethnic groups. However, fears that inter-ethnic marriages can result in full assimilation are not always true. For example, Susokolov writes that 'average size of inter-ethnic families in Central Asia and Caucasus republics is lower than among native population of these republics but higher than among Russians, Ukrainians and other European nations which are living in these republics. That's why we can suppose that number of children in inter-ethnic families and the republics of these regions is a compromise variant between average level of fecundity among nations with different fertility levels' (Susokolov 1987: 118).

Susokolov notes that children born in marriages between national people and migrants have impact not only on the size of some ethnic groups and population of the country in the whole (from demographic point of view it's already important). These children carry 'cultural norms of both parent's nations'. They are more tolerant, less focused on cultural differences and more focused on similarities between different ethnic groups. That's why children from such marriages can be crucially important in terms of formation of the new type of population, which is more tolerant and free from prejudices. These children can be a sort of a basement for more healthy society where relations are built on tolerance and mutual respect. It is important to note that Coleman when he speaks about the third demographic concept states that percentage of ethnic marriages is increasing: 'union-formation migration for marriage is the major open-ended and accelerating channel... growth in inter-ethnic unions would moderate the projected trends in a different way, generating a variety of new populations of inextricably mixed multiple origins' (Coleman 2007: 39).

The path of demographic development that we propose – the fourth demographic transition is more optimistic and more actual for developed European countries than for Russia because Western civilization is on the verge of extinction and demographic degradation and number of migrants in these countries is constantly rising producing a lot of problems related to adaptation and integration. As to French statistics, according to the 1990 Population Census, 12% of families living in France have at least one immigrant member and 51% of marriages are mixed. Among them, 60% are with a male immigrant married to a French woman. Number of inter-ethnic marriages is even more among young men whose native countries are Spain, Portugal, Algeria, or Morocco but who were born in France. For example a half of men and a quarter of women from Algeria are living with French partner, whose parents are French. As we can see from Diagram 1, percentage of mixed couples in France is high.

Diagram 1. Percentage of inter-ethnic marriages in France, %, 1994–2009



Source: INSEE, 2009

Thus, ethnic marriages have already become one of the instruments with the help of which countries can solve their problems within the existing negative demographic situation taking into account rising migration. In this way migration can play positive role and remove ethnic-based tension in society. However, this is possible only in case the policy of isolated immigration enclaves is not applied. Such policy was one of the reasons of multicultural policy collapse. Instead of creation of such enclaves governments should follow the policy, which will stimulate marriages between national people and migrants.

In conclusion let's note, that already the first announcement of the concept of the 4th demographic transition in some conferences in Russia¹ led to a number of reasonable questions: how strong are marriages between migrants and indigenous population? Will not such «mixture» of nationalities lead to ethnic tension in the society? Which policy should be realized according to migrants in terms of their marital status, professional and educational level, their degree of tolerance to other culture and other traditions, etc. How much children of such marriages will combine the culture of different nations?

It should be noted that the scenario of future demographic development, which we have put forward, requires further reflection, new studies, new sociological surveys that'll help to give more convincing interpretation of the fourth demographic transition.

¹ Russian scientific–practical conference «Demographic Development of Russia: problems of population policy and strengthening of social support», 19–20 April, 2011. International Conference on «State management in the XXI Century: Traditions and Innovations», Moscow, May 2011 (the report V.Iontsev «Solution of the ethnic immigration issues in light of the concept of the fourth demographic transition» at a meeting of the Roundtable «Political consequences of ethnic immigration in comparative perspective»).

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MANAGEMENT OF LABOUR MIGRATION IN THE GLOBALIZING ECONOMY: IN SEARCH FOR NEW APPROACHES

International labour migration is one of the key characteristics of the contemporary globalization. At the same time it carries the quintessence of problems relating to globalization. One of the principal problems is contradiction between interests of receiving and origin countries in the context of the growing migration interdependence of the participating states. The search for compromise mechanisms of labour migration management and realization of its development potential is the essence of the ongoing global discussion on migration, which has lived up due to the recent global crisis. International organizations insist that the only possible approach to create an international system of labour migration management is the human rights based approach. This paper is an attempt to evaluate whether the idea of human rights guarantees as a basement for international cooperation in labour migration management is realizable in the contemporary world and how it is modifying under the migration interdependence growing globally.

Acknowledgement of international migration as one of the key features of globalization is hardly useful for improvement of the global order if this acknowledgement is not followed by new understanding of the principles of migration management. The ongoing global dialogue on international migration as a resource for development for both receiving and sending countries presents migration as a process of mutual benefit, which both groups of countries are to be interested in. The conclusion is: more developed states (labour importers) and less developed states (labour exporters) are equal partners in labour migration management at the international level.

Sceptics say that these arguments are no more than a hypocritical ‘package’ for practice of more developed countries to gain skilled workers from less developed ones. Stress on mutual benefit of international migration sounds especially cynical when applied to highly skilled migrants – when *brain drain* is substituted for *brain exchange* and *brain circulation* (Appleyard 2002; Findlay 2001; Iredale 2001; Martin 2003; Regets 2007). In fact, the aging European nations are in desperate need for additional labour resources and they are ready to share their social system partly with migrant workers. Skilled and highly skilled migrants are especially welcome as they give a chance to save national funds for professional training and increase competitive ability of national economy (Iontsev and Mogilat 2000). Growing scale of migrant remittances is an argument for sending countries’ benefit from labour

migration while in fact this benefit is hardly comparable to gains of countries that attract migrant workers. In this context, the human rights rhetoric is likely a 'dress' designed by more developed states for less developed ones to keep up convincing appearance of equal dialogue in migration management. In reality, migrants' rights in countries of employment are not just limited but also encroached, and migrants find themselves in the most vulnerable and unstable position on the labor market (Arango 2000). Migrants are often the first victims of economic crises. In developed countries, governments and employers provide competitiveness of businesses at the expense of migrant workers increased exploitation. The recent economic crisis was a good example of these practices.

Such arguments do have certain grounds, however, they do not neglect the importance of strengthening of interstate cooperation in management of labour migration. In fact, during a crisis migrants are the first to loose jobs. Without crises, they are also often an object of discrimination. Even when in regular status, migrant workers face inequality in terms of employment and salaries, social security, and juridical rights. For irregular migrants, exploitation, indignity and coercion are a daily risk. These negative follow-ups of international labour migration in the contemporary world are to be an object of interstate cooperation, application of related international conventions, bilateral and multilateral regional agreements, international labour standards, and so on.

It is absolutely clear that the existing international instruments designed to be a basis of concerted interstate regulation of labour migration, need further concretization. For example, the general and compulsory for all the UN member states counter-discriminative norm of the international law that calls for respect for human rights and for fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion (Article 1 of the UN Charter) cannot be fully realized under the ideology of limitation of non-citizens' rights, which dominates both in political and social life in receiving countries.

Another example. The right of every person to leave any country, including his/her own, and return to his/her country (the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, article 13, item 2) is not followed by the mirror right of entrance to any country because this right is regulated by national legislation of a country of entry; this imbalance contradicts the freedom of movement principle, in fact. Meanwhile, the 'migration without borders' concept (Pecoud and Guchteneire 2007) does not meet wide support so far.

The degree of openness of migration policy in different states is determined by a variety of factors, among which national security is the most principal. The United States – the country made of migrants – is a remarkable example. Recently, by the initiative of President George Bush Jr. the law on construction of the thousands-kilometer wall on the border with Mexico was approved. According to the ex-President, such type of border fortification is to be a model of secure interstate demarcation in the XXI century (Koukлина 2010).

Generally speaking, migration policy is always a balance between three mutually competing aims: (1) economy, (2) security, (3) human rights. The first one means priority of economic interests of a receiving country; the second one focuses on national security considerations; the third one stands for human approach based on equality and human rights respect.

Obviously, international *labour* migration policy (unlike policy towards refugees, for instance) always signifies economic interests because labour migration is by its nature a process driven by economic considerations. In certain historical periods and in certain countries economic considerations of migration policy are absolutely dominating. That was the situation in Western Europe in 1950s-1960s when migration policy called for attraction of guest workers for the post-war reconstruction of industries. When later in this region restrictions of national migration policies happened they were conditioned again by economic factor – the 1973 oil crisis followed by growth of unemployment. In other periods national security considerations prevailed; that resulted in toughed migration policy. The most impressive example here is restriction of migration policy in many receiving countries as a reaction to 11 September 2001 terrorist attack in the USA; quite peaceful labour migration was also concerned. The third aim – human rights – is realized mainly at the national level in the context of integration policies.

In the recent decade, the trend of a fundamental shift in approach towards labour migration management begins to show. It is seen in activities of the global institutions like the Global Forum on Migration and Development (GFMD), Global Migration Group (GMG), International Organization for Migration (IOM), International Labour Organization (ILO).

A set of recommendations on radical revision of global principles and institutes in the sphere of labour migration management are submitted for consideration of policy-makers globally. The Global Commission on International Migration has initiated establishment of the Global Agency on Economic Migration within the frames of the United Nations (GCIM 2005). Professor of the Columbia University nominated for the Nobel Prize in Economics J.N.Bhagwati repeatedly calls for creating the World Migration Organization (Bhagwati 2003). The specialized research group in the University of Oxford is elaborating a project of creating another – less formalized – global migration institute (Betts 2011).

The essence of a new understanding of possibilities that can be provided by combined actions of the states aimed at ordering international labour migration, first of all, stands for wider use of international instruments that coordinate actions of involved countries. For refugees, there is an established and widely recognized international law that directs actions of countries, which face inflow of refugees. For international labour migration there is no similar law.

Another important element of a new approach towards labour migration management is its focus on human rights that is a recognized principle of international humanitarian cooperation. In other words, it is suggested to shift the

above-mentioned third aim of migration policy – human rights – from national level to international level and make it the basement of the whole structure of interstate cooperation in the field of labour migration.

This position is advocated by international organizations involved in migration issues. For instance, the International Labour Organization insists that the only possible ground for international cooperation in the field of migration management is the human-rights-based approach (ILO 2010). It is specially stressed by the ILO that the key idea of this approach is to reduce risks of exploitation for people who are most often *forced* to seek for jobs outside their own countries because their country cannot give them an opportunity to work and earn money (Taran 2010: 69).

This approach does not carry hypocritical declarations on mutual benefit; it is rather rooted in the idea of growing migration interdependence, which changes the value of migration per se and calls for new principles of elaboration and realization of migration policy corresponding interests of both receiving and origin countries, at the interstate level (Ivakhnyuk 2008). It is acknowledged that interests of these two groups of international migration participants do not coincide objectively.

In the receiving countries, migration policy is based on the pragmatic selective principle, and migrants who have been selected to work and stay in a country legally, are granted with social support and range of human rights. In order to make the selected migrants an integral part of the host society receiving states apply a variety of integration instruments: studying of language, laws and history of the host country, specialized information and consultation services, vocational training, spending leisure time together with national citizens, etc.

Pragmatism is seen in the position of origin countries as well. However, it is to be noted that while receiving states practice migration management for over 4-5 decades, countries of origin started elaboration of migration policies (with rare exceptions like Philippines and Pakistan) no more that 10-15 years ago. At this very moment the scale and role of migrant remittances for improvement of living standards of families left behind, poverty reduction, and social stability in less developed countries was realized at the State level. In the recent years, the tendency of countries of origin to participate in the international dialogue on migration is distinctly exposed: in the first conference of the Global Forum on Migration and Development in 2007 in Brussels 59 countries of origin took part while in the last GFMD conference in 2010 in Mexico they were 85.

It is quite natural that the human rights based approach to labour migration management has been born in Europe. The old European democracies like no other countries are devoted to the principles of human rights respect as a basement of internal policy and international humanitarian collaboration.

However, it should be noted that not all the receiving states take in this approach with understanding. For example the Persian Gulf oil monarchies where the share of foreign workers in labour force is the highest in the world (62% in Bahrain, 82% in Kuwait, 64% in Oman, 82% in Qatar, 56% in Saudi Arabia, 90% in UAE) and

national economy fully depends on migrant workers, inflow of migrants is strictly regulated by the State and migrants' rights are limited. For example, none of Gulf states acknowledges rights for family reunification, allows stay of migrants who have lost their jobs in a country, does not provide migrant workers with social support, medical care, accommodation, vocational training, and does not admit a right for asylum. In all the Gulf states migrants can be deported under administrative decision only. Naturalization of foreigners, including citizens of the neighbour Arab states, is forbidden in the majority of the states of this region.

For all that the Gulf region is one of the most attractive for migrant workers: it accumulates around 15% of the global stock of international labour migrants. Along with others, over 300,000 migrants from Europe are employed in the Gulf states, mostly skilled workers in construction industry, telecommunications, health & pharmacology, and financial sector (Shah 2008). Absence of appropriate respect towards human rights important for Europeans when in Europe, is not an obstacle for them to get a well-paid job in the Gulf. Like for millions of migrant workers from Asian countries.

The fact that human rights based approach is not acknowledged as a universal model of migration policy is also proved by low interest of more developed countries towards joining the 1990 International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families. Among 45 countries, which have ratified the 1990 Convention and 14 others, which have signed it, there are only four European states – Albania, Serbia, Turkey, and Montenegro; all of them (except Turkey) are countries of origin.

The major reason for which more developed countries evade joining to the 1990 Convention is the unilateral commitment for the full range of human rights for migrant workers specified by the Convention. In fact, joining the Convention by countries of origin is not entailed by a set of liabilities for them. As to receiving states, such guarantees as emergency medical aid, right for protection in a court, right to own property, right of migrants' children for education, or a ban on collective expulsion does not meet any rejection from their side. However, rights for employment, accommodation and social security equal with national workers seem to them an over-valued *unilateral* commitment. In Russia, for instance, where poor housing rent market is an important limiting factor for internal migration of population, the State can hardly take upon itself a responsibility to provide foreign workers with proper accommodation without a serious risk of protests of Russian citizens who are unable to realize their right for housing.

Within 20 years that have passed after the 1990 Convention was elaborated, approach towards labour migration management has undergone serious changes. The growing interest of the countries of origin towards participation in migration management and their readiness to take part in multilateral efforts to rationalize migration processes indicate the possibility to shift from *unilateral* model of human rights based approach designed in the UN and ILO Conventions, to a *bilateral* one.

This means that not only receiving states will undertake guarantees of human rights for migrant workers that stay in their territory (according to Conventions) but origin countries as well will undertake guarantees of migrants' rights for pre-departure instructions, professional training, re-integration and employment upon return, freedom to get migrants remittances from abroad, etc. Such a bilateral model of realization of the human rights based approach in migration policy corresponds to the essence of migration interdependence typical for the contemporary stage of globalization and can improve inner imperfection of the existing international law instruments.

It is widely recognized that migration of population can be an important resource for development – global, regional, and national. Employment of this resource strongly depends on how it is managed. For this moment, the function of international labour migration management is shared between a State and a variety of formal and informal institutions. These are: employment agencies, employers who hire foreign workers, migrants associations, informal migrant networks, finally, criminal organizations specializing in smuggling of migrants and trafficking in human beings. A State is no longer a monopolist in migration management. One of the reasons is globalization, which generally narrows ability of a State to influence national economy and implement a national policy and re-focuses policy to over-national/international level. In the context of migration policy this means that under globalization, unilateral national migration policy turns ineffective and short-sighted. For instance, over-restricted or over-complicated entry regulations can result in growth of illegal migration and difficulties in covering labour deficit by attracting workers from other countries as the global labour market tends to be an arena of competition between employers. Similarly, limitation on a right to seek for temporary job abroad will most likely provoke non-return outflow of population.

In the interconnected, interdependent world, labour migration management is to be based on a system approach. Its major principle can be defined as 'concerted multilateralism'. First, this means common understanding of how international migration can be managed, between receiving states and states of origin. It is important to dialogue on migration in a common language. Second, adding a new impulse to interstate cooperation in the field of migration by concretization of international norms and harmonization of national legislations. Third, construction of a bilateral model of human rights based approach as a key principle of international cooperation. Forth, elaboration of new accents in implementation of concerted migration management via agreements with engaged non-government institutions.

The 'concerted multilateralism' principle can call for revision of some international laws and conventions on migration. For instance, this principle is hardly corresponding to the existing conventions on migrant-workers. Revision of conventions towards enhancement of bilateral approach to human rights issue could stimulate receiving states to sign them.

Nowadays, when the world is recovering after the global crisis, which has one more time emphasized its interdependence, it is a proper moment for constructive modification of approaches applied to labour migration management in favour of more systematical ones. Within the general search for new instruments to improve the global economic order, which is now on the agenda of the world community, migration-related element of the world economy can be and should be a special separate object of international relations.

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MIGRATION IN THE GLOBAL WORLD: ECONOMICAL AND DEMOGRAPHICAL ROLES AND PROSPECTS FOR RUSSIA

In accordance with the main objective for demographic development declared in the Demographic Policy Concept of the Russian Federation until 2025, population decline is to be compensated by net migration (Demographic Policy Concept 2007).

However, not every goal is achievable for the migration policy. As Russia is part-and-parcel of the global world, it is influenced by certain principles, which determine scale and direction of the world migration flows.

Additionally, according to Alfred Sauvy, the size of population is important for despotic regimes striving for strengthening of the power, while for a democratic country living standard of population will be most important (Sauvy 1977, v.1, p. 31).

Taking the above considerations into account the author of this paper has taken to the econometric analysis of the ROSSTAT and World Bank data to answer the following questions: (1) Provided that age structure of the population is influenced by migration, can migration influence upon living standards too, and to what extent? (2) What factors determine the volumes and direction of the world migration flows? (3) For what reasons net migration to Russia from various post-Soviet countries is that different? (4) What are the prospects of net migration to Russia? (5) What kind of migration policy does Russia need?

1. Influence of migration upon living standards improvement via influence upon the age structure of population

It is well known that younger labour-age people are the most inclined to migration. With the population ageing trend, this feature of the migration flows is getting more and more important.

The below equation shows the influence produced by the age structure of population upon growth of living standards (GLS) in the world countries:

$$GLS_{C,T} = b_0 + b_1 \times REDWAL_S + b_2 \times P_M(15-39) + b_3 \times P_M(40-64) + \varepsilon_{C,T} \quad (1)$$

where $GLS_{C,T}$ – *growth of living standards* (i.e. GDP per capita growth, measured in constant price terms), % for 19 years, in the country C for the period of time T (totally, 7 periods: 1961-1979, 1966-1984, 1971-1989, 1976-1994, 1981-1999, 1986-2004 and 1991-2009);

$REDWAL_S$ – rate of economic development to the world average level, i. e. GDP per capita rate at purchasing-power parity in the country to the world average level, %; at the beginning of the period (lettered with S);

$P_M(15-39)$ и $P_M(40-64)$ – average share of the specified age group of the population, %, within the period (lettered with M);

b_k – variable held constant;

$\varepsilon_{C,T}$ – random quantity, *the balance of equation*.

The Table 1 shows b_k and other factors of the equation (1) for two groups of observations satisfying the following conditions:

A) Migration balance is positive for the current period: $MB_T > 0$; share of population of the 65+ age group at the beginning of period is bounded below: $P_S(65+) > 3,5\%$; $20 < REDWAL < 450$;

B) $P_S(65+) > 3,5\%$; Migration balance is positive for a long time: $MB_T > 0$; $MB_{T-5} > 0$; $MB_{T-10} > 0$; $MB_{T-15} > 0$; $MB_{T-20} > 0$; $REDWAL > 20$.

Table 1

Factors b_k and other parameters of the Model 1 for two groups of observations

Sample	A		B	
	b_k	Std. Error ¹⁾	b_k	Std. Error
Constant	-317,5	48,3	-418,7	54,9
REDWAL	-0,191	0,032	-0,035	0,033
$P_M(15-39)$	8,18	1,06	9,66	1,12
$P_M(40-64)$	4,46	0,74	3,99	0,82
Other parameters of the model and sample				
Number of observations	201		71	
R ²	0,336		0,553	
GLS, mean	60,5		48,8	
REDWAL, mean	247,3		306,2	
$P_S(65+)$, mean	9,50		10,83	

Estimated on the basis of World Bank data

Note: 1) *standard error* – standard deviation of the coefficient as a random variable

The sampling A does not include the most rich and most poor countries, and it is closer to Russia in terms of the mean parameters $P_S(65+)$ and REDWAL; age structure of population and the current level of economic development determine approximately one third of the variation of the dependent variable ($R^2=0,34$). Also, the REDWAL provides a considerable negative influence – it is easier to run after, than to go ahead.

Rich and aging countries being attractive for migrants for a long time predominate in the sampling B, and age structure of population here explains approx. 55% of the GLS variation, as the other risks influence was minimal in these countries during the given periods of time.

The probable increase in living standards in Russia for the future prospect may be calculated using the Model 1.A parameters and the average variant of the ROSSTAT demographic prognosis till 2030 (Table 2).

Table 2

Probable increase in living standards in Russia, %

Probable increase in living standards, %					
Period	Mean	Spread of values with probability 50%		Spread of values with probability 95%	
		Min	Max	min	max
2010-2028, for the 19 years	83,4	57,2	109,6	6,4	160,5
<i>Annual average:</i>					
2010-2028	3,24	2,41	3,97	0,33	5,17
2010-2014	3,96	3,23	4,61	1,48	5,69
2015-2019	3,29	2,46	4,01	0,39	5,20
2020-2024	2,63	1,69	3,43	-0,76	4,73
2025-2029	2,14	1,11	3,01	-1,68	4,40

A considerable spread of the probable values for GLS in the Table is connected with the fact that increase in living standards is influenced not only by the variables included into equation 1, but also by many other factors. Among those are energy costs, peculiarities of taxation, level of corruption, and political risks. Thus, if the GDP per capita in constant prices will increase less than by 80% between 2010 and 2028, it will not be a result of poor demographic situation, but, rather, ineffective public administration system.

Nevertheless, the percentage of the labour-age population in Russia in 2011-2028 will be going down, and this may bring about a lower growth rate of living standards. Many other countries with low birth rate will be in a similar situation. Globally, percentage of children aged 0-14 in 2009 was lower in comparison with 2000. It means the number of youth in the world will not show any growth in the 2020s. Consequently, the global competition for the labor resources will gain strength.

An actual question within this context is: Could the net migration in Russia exceed the figures built into the ROSSTAT average forecast? And what will it be depending upon? To find an answer, let us consider the factors influencing volumes and directions of the world migration flows.

2. Net migration factors in the countries of the world

Migration balance in a certain country may be whether positive, or negative, depending first of all upon two following factors: comparative level of economic development, and economic growth:

$$\text{NMR}_{C,T} = -57,6 + 0,216 \times \text{REDWAL}_M + 6,65 \times \text{EG}_M + \varepsilon_{C,T}; R^2=0,37; \quad (2)$$

(4,3) (0,015) (0,93)

where $\text{NMR}_{C,T}$ – *net migration rate* in a country C for the period of time T (in general, 3 periods of time: 1981-1995, 1986-2000 and 1991-2005) per 10,000 population annually; 163 countries, 421 observations;

EG_M – economic growth, %, annual average for the period;
the digits in brackets under the coefficients are – standard errors.

Net migration rate in the countries with positive migration balance (80 countries, 178 observations) for the same above-mentioned 3 periods of time is for 40% determined by factors in the empirically found formula:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{NMR}_{C,T} = & 62,9 + 0,183 \times \text{REDWAL}_M + 3,92 \times \text{EG}_M - & (3) \\ & (13,1) \quad (0,019) \quad (1,24) \\ & - 3,17 \times P_M(40-64) - 1,64 \times U - 0,132 \times P_M + \varepsilon_{C,T} \\ & (0,56) \quad (0,56) \quad (0,075) \end{aligned}$$

where U – change in the percent share of the urban population for the period; it enters into the equation with the minus sign, because in the countries with completed urbanization the influx of unskilled foreign workers is required (Massey, 2007, pp. 149-152);

P_M – the country population size, average for the period, M people. Influence is negative, as the countries with numerous populations have more possibilities to satisfy manpower demand due to the internal migration.

Share of the people aged 40-64 also enters into the equation with negative sign, as labour migrants partially return home after work.

Thus, REDWAL provides the most significant influence upon migratory attractiveness of a country, as compared with all other factors of the Model (3).

NMR in the countries with a negative migration balance (108 countries, 239 observations) is determined, for 45%, by factors in the following equation:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{NMR}_{C,T} = & 80,4 + 0,163 \times \text{REDWAL}_M + 6,49 \times \text{EG}_M - & (4) \\ & (38,1) \quad (0,038) \quad (0,95) \\ & - 3,65 \times P_M(15-39) + 12,63 \times \text{LN}(P_M) - 7,86 \times \text{LN}(PD_M) + \varepsilon_{C,T} \\ & (0,97) \quad (1,22) \quad (1,81) \end{aligned}$$

where PD_M – population density in the country of origin, average for the period, people per km^2 . The variable enters into the equation with minus sign, i.e. high density of population is one of the ejecting factors. Nevertheless, lower density of population is not a factor of attraction for migrants.

Population size, on the contrary, enters into the equation (4) with positive sign: the higher the population size, the lower migration loss is. It may be explained

by the fact the countries with large size of population have more opportunities to improve their living standards due to the internal migration. The share of young labour-age people is with minus sign in the equation (4), as tendency for migration is higher among the younger aged people.

If net migration to Russia between 1991-2010 fits to the formula 2, it will be negative (see Table 3). In reality Russia has received a large inflow of migrants due to wide repatriation followed by labour migration from post-Soviet countries. In addition, outflow from the country is restrained by the possibility of people to improve their own living conditions via internal migration.

Table 3

Actual net migration to Russia compared to the calculations by Model 2

Period	Net migration to Russia		
	Calculated by Model 2		Actual, thous. people for the period
	CMG	thous. people for the period	
1991-1995	-84,8	-6228	2560,3
1996-2000	-24,3	-1774	2088,5
2001-2005	9,05	654	827,2
2006-2010	-3,39	-241	1075,5
2011-2015*	1,03	73	...
2016-2020*	-0,17	-12	...
2021-2025*	-2,23	-153	...
2026-2030*	-4,19	-281	...

* where economic growth meets the mean values from the Table 2.

As REDWAL in Russia is not so high in comparison with other countries receiving migrants, Russia in the future cannot expect big volumes of net migration from the countries other than post-Soviet ones. China may be an only exception.

3. Migration gain prospects in Russia

There are three indices characterizing the results of international migration of population in Russia, see Table 4:

- 1) Official data published by ROSSTAT; according to these data the main migration donors for Russia are the 11 post-Soviet countries, and China;
- 2) The balance of foreign citizens crossing the Russian borders (this index is the most changeable and sensitive to the economic situation);
- 3) The number of foreign citizens legally working in Russia.

Table 4

International migration to Russia: Results, thous. people

Country of origin, or citizenship	Balance of migration (by source of data) per a year				Legal work of foreign citizens		
	RF Frontier services *		ROSSTAT				
	2007- 2008	2009	2007- 2009	2010	2008	2009	2010
Total	1491,5	371,3	243,2	158,1	2425,9	2223,6	1640,8
Uzbekistan	235,2	-111,8	45,5	23,3	642,7	666,3	511,5
Ukraine	526,3	427,5	40,4	21,2	245,3	205,3	167,3
Kazakhstan	175,2	84,5	31,4	20,5	10,4	11,2	8,3
Kyrgyz Rep.	96,2	21,6	23,3	20,3	184,6	156,1	117,7
Armenia	15,6	8,2	33,0	19,2	100,1	82,0	59,8
Tajikistan	115,8	-68,1	21,1	17,5	391,4	359,2	268,6
Azerbaijan	28,3	-27,4	21,1	13,4	76,3	60,7	40,3
Moldova	132,1	42,2	14,7	11,2	122,0	101,9	72,2
Georgia	-6,2	1,3	8,4	4,8	4,2	3,2	...
Turkmenistan	6,4	-2,3	4,0	2,2	3,1	2,4	1,2
Belarus	10,9	20,4	1,9	2,0
China	23,8	-17,2	1,2	1,1	281,7	269,9	186,5
Vietnam	10,6	-11,5	0,8	...	95,2	97,5	46,0
Turkey	0,9	-5,6	0,3	...	130,5	77,2	45,7
Korea, Dem. Rep.	1,8	-0,1	0,07	...	34,9	37,7	36,5
Other	118,6	9,6	-4,0	1,4	103,5	93	79,2

Sources of data: Size and Migration of the RF Population, ROSSTAT, 2008-2010; Labour and Employment in Russia, ROSSTAT, 2009; www.gks.ru

* The RF Frontier Service.

Dynamics of all the three indices is influenced upon by circumstances of 2 kinds – (1) objective laws and (2) regulations imposed by the government. Official data on migration of population published by ROSSTAT to a considerable degree depend upon changes in the rules of statistical account, and of granting the Russian citizenship. These indices also are under influence of *temporary residence permission* quotas. Only the migrants with such permission are registered by ROSSTAT as those “arrived to Russia”, however, many of them have been actually staying in the RF for more than one year. The balance of citizens of the Ukraine, Moldova and Kazakhstan crossing the Russian border might be exaggerated (Fig. 1): because they may avoid meeting with border services on the way home, if they stayed longer than it is legally permitted. As for the citizens of other countries, this index is closer to the reality, but it depends on the possibility of legal employment in Russia. The number of legally employed foreigners depends on their net inflow, on obtaining Russian

citizenship, and on the State-established quotas for attracting foreign manpower; excluding the citizens of Belarus working on the equal terms with the Russians (but the number of them is unknown). Thus, net migration only from Belarus has increased in 2009, in accordance with the data of Frontier Service (FS).

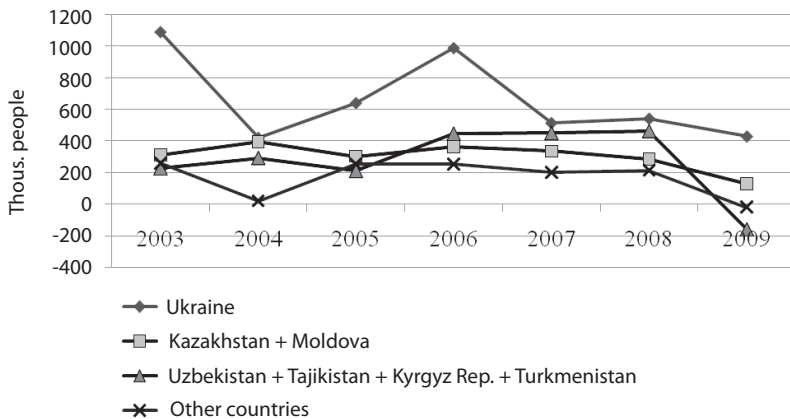


Fig. 1. Balance of foreign citizens crossing the border of Russian Federation

Source: Size and Migration of the RF population, Moscow, ROSSTAT, 2004-2010.

On the whole, the last data for the three indices are lower, as compared to the previous years. In addition to the economic crisis and restrictions from the part of the State, this decline has been caused by certain objective laws. These laws have been revealed by the author with the help of econometric analysis of factors of net migration from the post-Soviet countries (Lifshits 2010, 2011).

In the 1990-s, the major factors of the migration gain in Russia were as follows: (1) the share of non-titular ethnic group of population and (2) economic collapse in the countries of origin; most of the migrants were returning home at that time. In the 2000s, labour migration steps up and as a consequence, the influence of the share of youth in the population of countries of origin and ethnic-migration nets in Russia has increased.

Influence of the economic growth in the countries of origin remains high, that is why growth of net migration to Russia in 2008-2009 has been caused, first of all, by the economic crisis in the number of post-Soviet countries.

Influence of the ethnic-migration nets, on the contrary, starts reducing as the cumulative net migration from certain post-Soviet countries (Kazakhstan, Armenia, Georgia, Kyrgyzstan) has already run a great value in comparison with size of population of the countries of origin.

Net migration from several countries is reducing (Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, Turkmenistan) as living standards there grow faster than in Russia (Fig. 2).

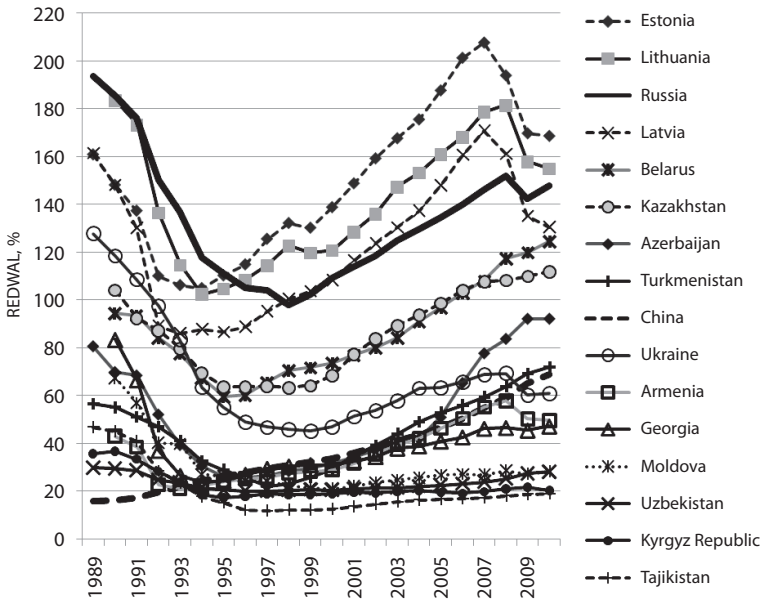


Fig. 2. Rate of economic development to the World average level (REDWAL) in the post-Soviet countries and in China

Sources: World Bank, IMF.

Demographic limitations will also provide negative influence upon the dynamics of net migration to Russia, as the number of youth in the countries of origin will go down (Fig. 3 and 4), and it has already started to reduce in some countries (Ukraine, Georgia, Moldova). One more fact to be taken into account — of late, the Ukraine, Belarus, Kazakhstan, Azerbaijan, and, probably, Turkmenistan, are the post-Soviet countries with a positive migration balance as well.

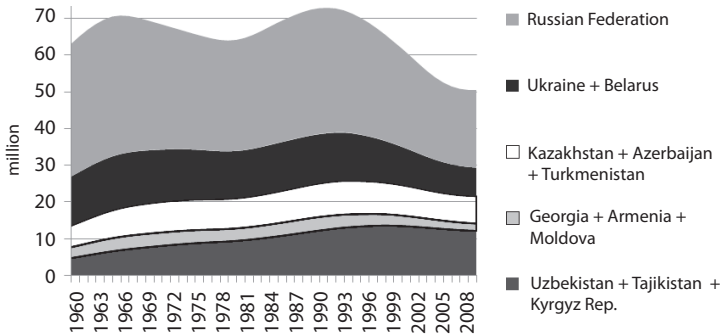


Fig. 3. Number of children of 0-14 in the 12 post-Soviet countries, 1960-2009.

Source of data: World Bank, 2010.

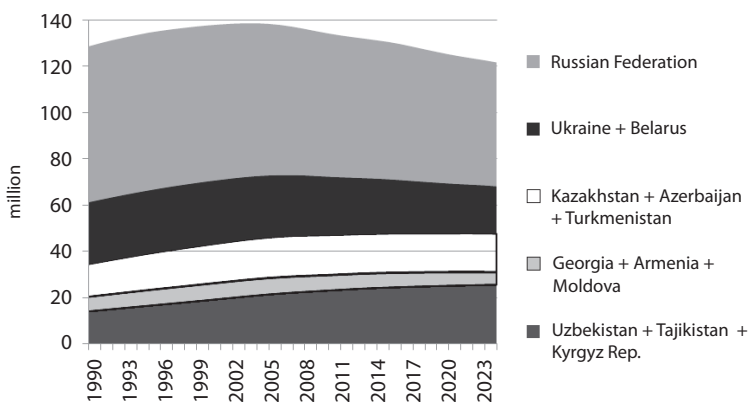


Fig. 4. Number of people aged 15-44, born in the 12 post-Soviet countries.

Calculated on the basis of World Bank data.

Econometric analysis has revealed a considerable influence upon labour migration of the difference between the death rates of adults, especially men, in the country of origin and in Russia. In this respect, the situation in Russia is very complicated, and the most vulnerable category of population (except homeless) is temporary labour migrants, who perish most often for various reasons, like violence, on-the-job traumatism, poor living conditions and lack of medical care.

Factor of ageing of population in the future may inhibit the growth of net migration: some part of the older-aged labour migrants will want to go home having finished their work in Russia, even those who has obtained Russian citizenship.

Visa system negatively influences upon the dynamics of net migration from Turkmenistan and Georgia; and from Uzbekistan – the migrants have certain problems after returning home if they have obtained Russian citizenship (as the Uzbek migrants say). This circumstance proves again, that most migrants do not want to stay in Russia forever.

Thus, there are no factors able to promote increase of the migration gain of the resident population of Russia through the exchange with post-Soviet countries, considered in a long-term perspective.

For the last 20 years migration links of Russia with countries outside the post-Soviet territory have been also developing. But, Russia is only one direction for migration, and not the most attractive one. That is why other countries are unable to compensate for the reduced net migration from post-Soviet countries. China may be an only possible exception.

Dynamics of migration from China has shown a weak and unstable tendency for growth.

One of the deterring circumstances is migration policy of Russia, caused by the concerns of the territorial integrity of the country. But there are other deterring

factors as well. Firstly, standard of living in China grows faster than in Russia. Secondly, the number of Chinese youth aged 15-39 goes down since 2006. Probably, for this reason the aggregate net migration outflow from China in the second half of the 2000s was less than in the first half, amounted at 1,731,080; while in the first half of the 2000s it was 2,058,276 (according to WB data). And it is expected that in 2012 number of population aged 35-49 will start to decrease in China. Thirdly, there are great opportunities for internal migration in China. Fourthly, Russia is not among the most attractive directions for migration, from the point of view of quality of life, especially for the youth. That is why people aged 35-49 are currently prevailing in the migration gain from China. On the other hand, there are several factors in favour of Russia, among those geographic neighborhood, various rates of men and women at the matrimonial market of China and Russia, and emerged migration ties.

5. Summary for policy making

If migration is to be considered only as a method of influence upon age structure of population, the temporary, non-resident migration will be an ideal variant of migration; the labour migrants are sui generis ever-young and non-aging community in the population of the receiving country. On the other hand, knowledge and experience play nowadays a considerable role in the world, so the competition for highly skilled migrants grows now, and Russia gives way to more developed countries.

High economic growth in Russia might improve the migration attractiveness of the country and attract an inflow of migrants (both permanent and temporary ones). This, in turn, will stimulate growth of living standards. At the same time, quite an opposite situation is equally possible as well. If the state will again restrict legal employment of the labour migrants, like in 2009-2010, soon it will lead to intensified reduction of the percentage of population aged 15-64, to negatively influence upon growth of living standards. Then Russia will quickly lose its migration attractiveness, and this vicious circle may result in a complicated economic situation, opening way to the political earthquakes.

The upcoming reduction in size of labour-age population shall not obligatory result in serious problems, as the competitive market economy is characterized by a higher adaptive capability. But, unfortunately, high level of corruption in Russia and ineffective judiciary system create noncompetitive market environment. This is the main threat to the future of Russia. It is necessary to start with introducing honest elections in the country – it is known, the best antidote for corruption is replacement of political authority, alternativeness as a matter of principle.

The regions shall be given the right to make a final decision (in the local legislative assemblies, via open discussion) regarding following issues: how many and what kind of migrants could be received and attracted to work in the region;

on what terms; and, could only the migrants with permits for work in this region be able to work here. The level of xenophobia will decrease then, and migration policy will become a locomotive of movement towards democracy and developed civil society.

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INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANIZATION: AN ANSWER TO GLOBALIZATION CHALLENGES IS A RIGHTS-BASED POLICY

History tells us that migration has been an essential ingredient of economic development and social progress of many countries. Migration is making vast but often unrecognised contributions to economic development most countries of the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS), whether in providing labour power and skills for Kazakhstan and the new Russia, opportunities for employment abroad and remittance income in Central Asia, the Caucasus, Moldova and Ukraine.

Labour migration is becoming one of the most important keys to regional integration and development, whether among European States, in the Southern Africa Development Community, or in South America's Mercosur. It is key in those areas precisely because it is being regulated and harnessed in regional, interstate spaces of economic and social integration. Only such spaces of larger markets, larger resource bases and larger labour forces will be able to meet the competitive demands of a globalized world. This is true for the CIS as well.

However, unless regulated by appropriate laws and regulations, migration entails a high cost in violations of rights of individuals, in social disruption, in lost or reduced productivity, and lost opportunities for economic growth and development.

Migration today, and the contention over recognition of migrants' rights, represents a cutting edge of contention between the economic logic of globalization and the moral values embodied in human rights concepts and law.

Role of migrant labour today

In the economic realm, migrant labour has become a key feature in meeting economic, labour market and productivity challenges in a globalized economy. Migration today serves as an instrument to adjust the skills, age and sectoral composition of national and regional labour markets. Migration provides responses to fast-changing needs for skills and personnel resulting from technological advances, changes in market conditions and industrial transformations. In countries of aging populations, migration offers a potential to replenish declining work forces as well as to inject younger workers, potentially increasing dynamism, innovation and mobility in work forces.

It is a global phenomena; no region and few countries are untouched. ILO has calculated that today, some 105 million foreigners are economically active, that is to say employed, self-employed or otherwise active in remunerative activity, across the world (ILO 2010). That is nearly half of the total 214 million people living outside their country of birth or citizenship as of the year 2010. The foreign born commonly represent 10% of the work force in Western European countries. Proportions in a number of countries in Africa, Asia and the Americas are today similar or higher and some countries in the Gulf rely on foreign workers for 50 to even 90% of their work forces.

Already some time ago, the International Labour Office ran a simulation using the methodology its actuarial section used over the last ten years to predict – quite accurately – the future performance of social security systems. This simulation carried forward calculations to the year 2050 based on presumed continuity of current trends in population aging and decline, retirement age, female workforce participation rates, immigration numbers, and modest economic growth and productivity rates. The simulation outcome suggested that some 40 years from now, the standard of living of Western Europe, as measured by per capita income of gross national product, may be 78% of what it is today. That is to say, 22% lower (ILO 2004).

Due to economic, demographic and technological changes, increasing numbers of jobs in industrialized economies cannot be filled by native-born workers. No country today can train the entire range of rapidly evolving skills and competencies needed to perform the ever more complex work required in a globalized economic context. The result is demand for specialized skills that simply cannot be met locally.

Ageing of native work forces combined with declining populations is another important factor. Latvia and Lithuania have already seen reductions of population by nearly 10% since 1989 – mainly of working age adults. The native Russian work force is currently declining by some 750,000 workers per year, the consequence of more people reaching retirement age than young people entering the labour market. Fertility rates in Hungary, Italy, Spain, Russia, the Ukraine and elsewhere are well below replacement.

The current projection for the European Union region is that while today the average social security dependency is 2 retired persons for seven economically active, the ratio will rise to 4 per 7 by 2050: meaning either twice the contributions per working person or halving the income for retirees.

While migration is not a silver bullet solution to these challenges, it is certainly one of the necessary responses.

Challenges of globalization

Growing economic interdependence of states is a widely acknowledged component of globalisation. Regarding the impact on migration, an ILO study said, “The

evidence points to a likely worsening of migration pressures in many parts of the world.... Processes integral to globalization have intensified the disruptive effects of modernization and capitalist development... Many developing countries face serious social and economic dislocation associated with persistent poverty, growing unemployment, loss of traditional trading patterns, and what has been termed a ‘growing crisis of economic security’ (Stalker 2000).

Accelerated trade is replacing or undercutting domestic industrial and agricultural production with cheap imports, but at the expense of many jobs in those sectors, in numerous developing countries. Meanwhile, data indicates that job creation by private sector in many countries affected by Structural Adjustment Programs has not matched the numbers rendered unemployed by downsizing governments.

As the ILO Director General, Juan Somavia, put it, **if you look at globalization from the point of view of peoples’ concerns, its single biggest failure is its inability to create jobs where people live.** In sum, migration pressures on the “supply side” are increasing as possibilities for employment and economic survival at home disappear.

On the other side, demand for migrant labour is anything but declining. Evolution of technology, transformations of industrial processes and changes in the organization of work itself are expanding demand for skills often unavailable locally. As well, demographic trends and ageing work forces in many industrialized countries mean that immigration has become an increasingly important option to address changing labour force composition and needs and future economic and social security performance.

Growing competition for highly educated specialists in expanding service sectors has resulted in a significant rise in skilled labour migration. Simultaneously, needs around the world to fill the so-called “3-D jobs” (in English: dirty, dangerous and degrading) at low cost produce a continuous demand for cheap and low-skilled migrant labour in numerous sectors of national economies. These sectors commonly include agriculture and food processing, construction, cleaning and maintenance, hotel and restaurant services, labour intensive assembly and manufacturing, the sex industry and others. In fact, immigrant labour has long been utilized in industrialized countries as a low cost means to sustain economic enterprises and sometimes, entire sectors of economic activity that are only marginally competitive and would not survive without cheap foreign labour.

Small and medium size companies and labour-intensive economic sectors do not have the option of relocating operations abroad. Responses include downgrading of manufacturing processes, deregulation, and flexibilization of employment, with increased emphasis on cost-cutting measures and subcontracting (Lean Lim 1998: 277). In a number of countries, these measures are expanding the number of jobs at the bottom of the employment scale. These jobs are simply not filled by national workers. Workers may not be available because of work force aging and numerical

decline –the case in a growing number of European countries and the Russian Federation. Also, unemployed or otherwise available national workers are simply not willing to take such jobs, for reasons of low pay, degrading and dangerous conditions, and/or low status in those jobs and sectors.

The resulting demand for migrant workers provides a significant impetus to labour flows and facilitates the incorporation of undocumented migrants (Escobar Latapí 1997: 4). ILO research in Southern European countries demonstrates the extent to which “the migrants take jobs that the locals refuse. It’s simply a matter of substitution.” (Reynieri 2001). One study noted, “We can conclude that migrants are in competition only with marginal sections of the national labour force ...when they are not sufficiently sustained by welfare provisions, in specific sectors, and/or in the less-developed areas inside these countries.” (ibid).

For the less qualified jobs, employers demand workers who will not exercise pressures on the salary structures. Given that, at least initially, immigrant workers won’t challenge the relation between salary and the social status attached to specific occupations, contracting migrant workers avoids the economic risks – particularly structural inflation – that national workers induce when they demand salary increases.

ILO has estimated that, globally, some ten to twenty percent of international migrant workers are in irregular situations, without legal authorization or undocumented. A newly established on-line database project on irregular migration in the European Union provides detailed estimates indicating that migrants in irregular situations number between 2.8 and 6 million, giving a range of 11% to 23% of total stocks (CLANDESTINO 2007-2009). Migrants in irregular situations are even more vulnerable to exploitation and abuse. However, the presence of migrants in irregular situations appears to have been tolerated by authorities in certain circumstances in some countries. This appears to coincide with the fact that absence of legal recognition heightens the exploitability and lowers the costs of migrant labour, in some cases allowing marginally competitive economic activity to remain in business.

Labour migrants in countries of employment

Treatment of migrants in general and migrant workers in particular is commonly characterized by abuse and violations of norms, both national where they apply to migrants, and international standards. As noted in the Conclusions on Migrant Workers of the 2004 International Labour Conference: “Despite the positive experiences of migrant workers, a significant number face undue hardships and abuse in the form of low wages, poor working conditions, virtual absence of social protection, denial of freedom of association and workers’ rights, discrimination and xenophobia, as well as social exclusion. Gaps in working conditions, wages and treatment exist among migrant workers and between migrant and national workers.

In a significant number of cases unemployment rates, job security and wages differ between regular migrant workers and national workers.”

The pressures of higher unemployment rates among immigrants and ethnic minorities make them less susceptible to unionisation, especially in sectors of precarious employment with strong threats of dismissal for either organizing or simply complaining about absences of occupation safety and health protections and “decent work” conditions. As the International Trade Union Confederation (ITUC) highlights, organizing migrants and immigrants into unions or organizations to defend their interests and rights is often extremely difficult as it is easily intimidated and disrupted by the threat or actual practice of dismissal and deportation (Linard 1998).

A word on the gender dimensions is warranted. Women now comprise half of the total migrant worker population; that is as workers themselves, not dependents. Differential opportunities for legitimate employment affect men and women differently. The feminisation of international labour migration, together with the fact that most job opportunities for women migrants are in unregulated sectors (agriculture, domestic work, sex industry) and the existence of sex-disaggregated labour markets contribute to the increase of discriminative labour markets in countries of destination. Female migrants are thus marginalized even further, they are more often left with no option but irregular migration, and thus exposure to worst forms of abuse.

In a number of countries, migration is being simultaneously encouraged and combated. Distance between policy pronouncements and de facto arrangements reflects a major contemporary contradiction in States’ practice. Despite the political rhetoric about illegal migration, some governments appear to tolerate irregular migration while they officially reinforce controls against “illegal” migrant workers. The consequences are, on the one hand, a supply of cheap labour on their territories, while on the other hand, migrants unable to organize in the workplace to defend their dignity and decent work conditions, and they are stigmatized and isolated from allies and support.

With too few options available for legal migration despite both strong demand for foreign workers and a high supply of willing migrants, irregular migration has become the only alternative. However, the placement of barriers between supply and demand establishes a lucrative “business” opportunity for helping people arrange travel, obtain documents, cross borders and find jobs in destination countries despite border barriers.

The flow of low-skilled migrants to more developed regions is channelled by clandestine means precisely because of the non-existence of legal migration categories that would allow for their legal entry in destination countries. Once they are in host countries, migrants remain confined to jobs in unstructured or informal sectors, in irregular work and under exploitative conditions of employment (Abella 2002).

In a growing number of countries, migration management responsibilities have been shifted from labour ministries to interior or home affairs ministries, thus transforming contexts for policy elaboration and implementation from that of labour market regulation to that of policing and national security.

Despite the vast extent that migration is about work, this shift separates administration of an increasingly sizable portion of the work force from the institution of the State most directly concerned with labour market regulation, conditions of work, industrial relations and other fundamental areas of its competence.

The terminology of *illegal migrant* or *illegal alien* explicitly associates migration with crime, as does placing immigration control in the same category as crime, arms and drug control. While the term ‘illegal migration’ is more ambiguous, the ease by which language of illegal migration is transposed to ‘illegal migrants’ and the manifest association of both these terms with criminality make these terms vehicles to convey – indeed encourage – the antithesis of acceptance and respect.

Legally and semantically, the term *illegal migrant* is an oxymoron – a contradiction – from any reading of human rights values. It contradicts the spirit, if not directly violates the letter, of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, which clearly establishes in Article Six that **every person** has the right to recognition before the law, and in Article 7, that every person has the right to equality of treatment before the law.

Contradictions pitting an amalgam of restriction and control measures against a rights-based approach to regulating migration are further reflected in international political developments. The adoption and growing number of ratifications of two Protocols, one on Combating Trafficking in Persons, the other to suppress smuggling of migrants of the International Convention Against Transnational Organized Crime puts dealing with migration in a context of crime suppression, prevention and punishment. Both of these protocols focus on suppression and prevention measures to confront two particular aspects of irregular migration (trafficking, smuggling). However, human rights protections are subordinate aspects, and essential only provide certain protection for victims of trafficking.

A rights-based approach

A rights-based approach to migration is placement of universal human rights norms defined by the relevant international instruments, as central premises of national migration legislation, policy and practice founded on the rule of law. Application of these norms is, however, conditioned by historical, economic, social and cultural factors.

The central notion of human rights is “the implicit assertion that certain principles are true and valid for all peoples, in all societies, under all conditions of economic, political, ethnic and cultural life.” Human rights are *universal* – they apply everywhere; *indivisible* – in the sense that political and civil rights cannot

be separated from social and cultural rights; and, *inalienable* — they cannot be denied to any human being. This is the basis of the concept of «human rights for all» articulated in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR), which codified in a single instrument, norms common to major religious and historical traditions worldwide.

A corollary notion is that universal principles of human rights implemented in the rule of law provide the foundation for governance—governance of nations, of community relations, and of international migration. This notion reflects historical experience that social cohesion and social peace can only be sustained under conditions of democratic rule, which in turn requires the accountability, the credibility and the enforceability provided under rule of law.

While not a binding legal instrument in itself, the UDHR has subsequently been adopted or formally endorsed by nearly all the World's nation-States. It has acquired the legal status of customary international law—generally universally applicable as legal norm.

Two major International Covenants elaborated the principles of the Universal Declaration into binding normative standards on political and civil rights, and economic, social and cultural rights in the 1960s.¹ Specific conventions explicitly extending the “universal” rights to victims of racial discrimination, women, children, and migrants were elaborated over the three decades from 1960 to 1990: Convention for the Elimination of Racism and Racial Discrimination (CERD), Convention Against Torture (CAT), Convention for the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), and the 1990 Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families (CMR). These seven instruments were characterized as the seven fundamental human rights instruments that define basic, universal human rights and ensure their explicit extension to vulnerable groups worldwide (UN 2000).

Three fundamental notions characterize the protections in existing international law for migrant workers and members of their families:

1. Equality of treatment between regular migrant/immigrant workers and nationals in the realm of employment and work.
2. Core universal human rights apply to all migrants, regardless of status.
3. The broad array of international labour standards providing protection in treatment and conditions at work — safety, health, maximum hours, minimum remuneration, non-discrimination, freedom of association, maternity, etc. — apply to all workers.

¹ International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights

International Labour Organization Standards

Some principles and rights at work that derive from the ILO Constitution and that have been expressed in eight ILO Conventions¹ are deemed to be fundamental for the protection of human rights for all workers, including migrant workers, by the ILO and its member States.

The ILO instruments that promote equality of treatment between migrant workers and nationals in the field of social security are also particularly relevant. ILO social security standards define personal scope of coverage irrespective of nationality, almost all contain similar clauses on equality of treatment between nationals and foreign workers in the host country, and the majority also contains special non-discrimination clauses². The ILO also adopted several complementary standards that deal specifically with the protection of migrant workers' social security rights.³

International jurisprudence has amply reinforced the application of *International Labour Standards* to policy and practice regarding employment dimensions of migration. Decisions and opinions of the ILO Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations have repeatedly underscored the applicability to all migrant workers of International Labour Standards covering conditions at work, occupational safety and health, maximum hours of work, minimum remuneration, non-discrimination, freedom of association, collective bargaining, and maternity leave, among others. The ILO Committee on Freedom of Association supervising the core international conventions on freedom of association and collective bargaining has specifically ruled that all migrant workers regardless of status are entitled to protection and expression of basic association and representation rights.

The ILO Migration for Employment Convention of 1949 (No. 97) establishes equal treatment between nationals and regular migrants in areas such as recruitment procedures, living and working conditions, access to justice, tax and social security regulations. The ILO Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention of

¹ C87 Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organise Convention (1948), C98 Right to Organise and Collective Bargaining Convention (1949), C29 Forced Labour Convention (1930), C105 Abolition of Forced Labour Convention (1957), C100 Equal Remuneration Convention (1951), C111 Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention (1958), C138 Minimum Age Convention (1973), C182 Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention (1999).

² Social Security (Minimum Standards) Convention No. 102 of 1952, Employment Injury Benefits Convention NO. 121 of 1964; Invalidity, Old-Age and Survivors' Benefits Convention No. 128 of 1967, Medical and Sickness Benefits Convention No. 130 of 1969, Employment Promotion and Protection against Unemployment Convention No. 168 of 1988, and Maternity Protection Convention No. 183 of 2000.

³ Equality of Treatment (Accident Compensation) Convention No. 19 of 1925; Equality of Treatment (Social Security) Convention No. 118 of 1962; Maintenance of Social Security Rights Convention No. 157 of 1982.

1975 (No. 143) established norms to reduce exploitation and trafficking of migrants while insuring protections for irregular migrants, and to facilitate integration of regular migrants in host societies.

The content of ILO Conventions 97 and 143 formed the basis for drafting the 1990 International Convention on migrant workers, which expanded and extended recognition of economic, social, cultural and civil rights of migrant workers rights.

Together, the two ILO conventions on migration and the 1990 International Convention comprise an **international charter on migration** providing a broad normative framework covering treatment of migrants and inter-State cooperation on regulating migration.

Eight points describe the importance of these three Conventions:

1. They establish comprehensive “values-based” definitions and legal bases for national policy and practice regarding non-national migrant workers and their family members. They thus serve as tools to encourage States to establish or improve national legislation in harmony with international standards.
2. They lay out a comprehensive agenda for national policy and for consultation and cooperation among States on labour migration policy formulation, exchange of information, providing information to migrants, orderly return and reintegration, etc.
3. The 1990 International Convention further establishes that migrant workers are more than labourers or economic entities; they are social entities with families and accordingly have rights. It reinforces the principles in ILO migrant worker Conventions on equality of treatment with nationals of states of employment in a number of legal, political, economic, social and cultural areas.
4. ILO Convention 143 and the 1990 Convention include provisions intended to prevent and eliminate exploitation of migrants, thus reinforcing the ‘decent work’ agenda defined by International Labour Standards, nearly all of which apply explicitly or implicitly to all migrant workers.
5. ILO Convention 143 and the 1990 Convention explicitly address unauthorized or clandestine movements of migrant workers, and call for resolving irregular or undocumented situations, in particular through international cooperation.
6. These Conventions resolve the lacuna of protection for non-national migrant workers and members of their families in irregular status and in informal work by providing norms for national legislation of receiving states and their own states of origin, including minimum protections for unauthorized migrant workers.
7. While the three Conventions address migrant workers, implementation of their provisions would provide a significant measure of protection for other migrants in vulnerable situations, such as victims of trafficking.

8. The extensive, detailed and complementary text contained in these instruments provides specific normative language that can be incorporated directly into national legislation, reducing ambiguities in interpretation and implementation across diverse political, legal and cultural contexts.

84 different States have ratified one or more of these three complementary standards as of April, 2011¹. 11 member States of the European Union have ratified one or both ILO conventions.²

In the CIS region, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Kirghiz Republic and Moldova have ratified one or more of these three instruments; Tajikistan is the first to have ratified all three. With 14 additional signatories to the UN Convention (signing is a preliminary step to ratification), it can be anticipated that more than 90 States will have adopted some level of international standards as the basis of national law and policy within the next couple of years. This is a high proportion of the some 130 countries for which migration is an important feature, whether as origin, destination and/or transit countries.

Entry into force in 2003 of the 1990 Convention allowed it to be cited as an authoritative standard, and thus it is today exercising persuasive power over non-party States as well, even though they have not agreed to be bound by its standards. Recent legal studies have concluded that existing national law in Belgian, Portugal, Spain and other countries is almost entirely in conformity with the main provisions of the 1990 Convention, meaning few legal hurdles to ratification. (Foblets et al. 2003).

Nonetheless, the slow progress in ratifications of the 1990 International Convention on migrants' rights and of the ILO Conventions in the last decade symbolize a broader political resistance to recognition of application of human rights standards to migrants, particularly undocumented migrants.

Rights and social protection carry costs, an implication which confronts the logic of globalized economic competition. Opposition to wider ratification of this Convention reflects pressures to restrict rights and corresponding labour costs of a now internationalised reserve army of labour in order to ensure that it remains cheap, docile, temporary and easily removable when not needed.

¹ The ILO Migration for Employment Convention No. 97 of 1949 is ratified by 49 countries, the ILO Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention No. 143 of 1975 is ratified by 23 countries; and the 1990 International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families ratified by 45 countries and signed by 14 others. A number of States have ratified both of the ILO Conventions; several have ratified one or both ILO Conventions plus the 1990 International Convention.

² Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, and the United Kingdom

As the ILO put it, market forces alone do not and cannot provide adequate, workable regulation of what is by definition a complex, international phenomenon highly subject to exploitation and conflict.

International dialogue on migration has increasingly focused in recent years in identifying common approaches among States in regulating what is by definition a phenomena requiring international cooperation. Nearly two decades ago, delegates of some 160 countries agreed upon a comprehensive common agenda in the chapter on migration of the Plan of Action adopted by the 1994 International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) in Cairo. More recently, regional migration dialogues, the Berne Initiative's International Agenda for Migration Management (IAMM), and the Global Commission on International Migration (GCIM) continued elaborating common approaches.

A vital contribution was adoption of Conclusions and a **Plan of Action on migrant workers** at the 2004 International Labour Conference in Geneva (ILO 2004). Those Conclusions outline a comprehensive approach to regulating labour migration from a rights based approach in the context of labour market and employment considerations. Especially significant is the fact that they were adopted unanimously by ministerial level government representatives together with the leadership of trade union and employer federations from the 177 ILO member countries. Equally important is the existence of a normative system, institutional structure, organizational competence, and constituent engagement in ILO behind this Plan of Action to see to its effective implementation. Following this Plan of Action, ILO subsequently elaborated a comprehensive Multilateral policy Framework for Labour Migration from a rights' based approach that takes into account labour market concerns and sovereignty of States (ILO 2006).

Promotion of the rule of law, good governance and social cohesion are shared responsibilities among all stakeholders: government, employers, trade unions, civil society and migrants themselves. Social partners –in concert with migrant associations—have key moral and political leadership roles to play in mobilizing societies and governments to ensure implementation of a rights-based framework for international migration.

Key stakeholders are the social partners: the employers and businesses that provide employment and the trade unions – worker organizations –representing the interests of workers, both migrants and nationals.

A shift of major importance is the evolution of trade union attitudes from ignoring migration – or expressing hostility towards irregular migrants – to taking stands of solidarity with migrant workers regardless of status (Taran & Demaret 2006). Major policy shifts followed by extensive organizing drives among migrant workers have taken place over the last decade by mainstream trade unions and national confederations across Europe as well as in Africa, the Americas and Asia. National labour confederations and/or sectoral unions in Argentina, Belgium, Canada, France, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Korea, Mauritius, Mexico,

the Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, South Africa, the UK and the USA – among others – have full-time national staff for migrant worker organizing and anti-discrimination issues; all are active in policy advocacy for improved protection of rights and decent work conditions for migrants. The main global and regional trade union confederations have issued calls for ratification of the 1990 Convention and the ILO conventions on migrant workers.

Establishing a rights-based policy approach

Common approaches, strategies, coordination, and the ability to mobilize human resources are needed to defend rights and dignity of migrants –non-nationals—and to advance proper and sustainable regulation of migration in the context of today’s globalized world. An agenda of ‘next steps’ includes:

1. Ratification and effective implementation by CIS countries of ILO Conventions 97 and 143 on Migrant Workers and the 1990 International Convention on protection of rights of migrant workers.
2. Establishing – where they don’t exist – national consultative mechanisms on labor migration policy and cooperation among social partners (representative national employer and worker organizations) along with relevant government entities.
3. Elaboration of a national labour migration policy framework and strategy for implementation.
4. Expanding and consolidating CIS legislation and policy support on labor mobility across the region.
5. Providing for equality of treatment and anti-discrimination for all workers. This includes avoiding discriminatory “national preference” measures.
6. Supporting and facilitating organizing and union affiliation of migrant workers.
7. Increasing capacity of labour inspection to monitor sectors and workplaces where migrant workers are concentrated, to shore up decent treatment in the face of pressures to increase exploitation.
8. Explicitly avoiding scapegoating of migrants, particularly by preventing forced expulsions or repatriations of migrant workers that implicitly or explicitly target migrant workers as responsible for jobs loss and unemployment.
9. Emphatically repressing racist violence and xenophobia against foreigners, and prosecuting perpetrators of violent acts.
10. Supporting and advocating the implementation of an effective agenda to prevent discrimination and ensure social cohesion.

* * *

Today, in the context of globalization accompanied by a rise in inequalities in distribution of wealth and exclusion of entire populations from economic and social well-being, greater emphasis is needed on advancing rights-based approaches.

Migration is a central arena for expression of values in law, policy and practice. Advancing a rights-based framework for protection of migrants and regulation of migration is thus imperative. This requires advocacy and action in promotion of human rights law, of international labour standards, of humanitarian principles and of respect for diversity. These are the guarantors of democracy and social peace.

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INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION, GLOBALIZATION AND DEMOGRAPHIC DEVELOPMENT OF THE RUSSIAN FEDERATION

In the second half of the 20th century mankind faced the unsurpassable and irreversible power of globalization that in one way or other covered all fields of human life and created global-scale system of interdependence between countries and nations.

Together with the swift changes in global political and economic systems globalization furthered the dramatic intensification of migration flows and lead to the formation of essentially new peculiarities of international migration.

These trends of international migration revealed in the late 1990s and are apparent now in the majority of countries.

They were analyzed by us on a global basis before (see Aleshkovski, Iontsev, 2007). We are going to look at some of them in terms of Russia, taking into account historical statistics and new peculiarities of their development in the 21st century.

Scales of Russian involvement in global migrations

As from the ancient times peoples of different nations migrated to Russia¹. The Moscow state took measures to attract qualified migrants, including military specialists, engineers, physicians, and beginning the second half of the 18th century deliberate policy of engaging foreigners in Russia was realized. Along with that, the scales of international migration were insignificant over the major period of Russian history, and international migration was never a crucial factor of demographic development in Russia till the late 1990s.

Due to the contribution of international migration to the population increase in Russia in the 2nd half of the 20th century – the beginning of the 21st century we can single out three periods for convenience:

- 1) *The 2nd half of the 18th century – the 1990s*: positive international migration balance, migrants' flow favoured some population increase in Russia;

¹ Even the origin of the Russian statehood (the 1150-th anniversary of which is to be celebrated in 2012) is connected directly with international migration – calling of the Varangian prince Rurik by Slavic tribes in 862.

- 2) *The 1990s – the middle of the 1970s* (except the years 1927-1940¹): negative international migration balance, overall migration decline exceeded 10 million persons in the years 1890–1975;
- 3) *The middle of the 1970s – present*: international migration balance positive again, overall migration increase exceeded 9.5 million persons in the years 1975–2010.

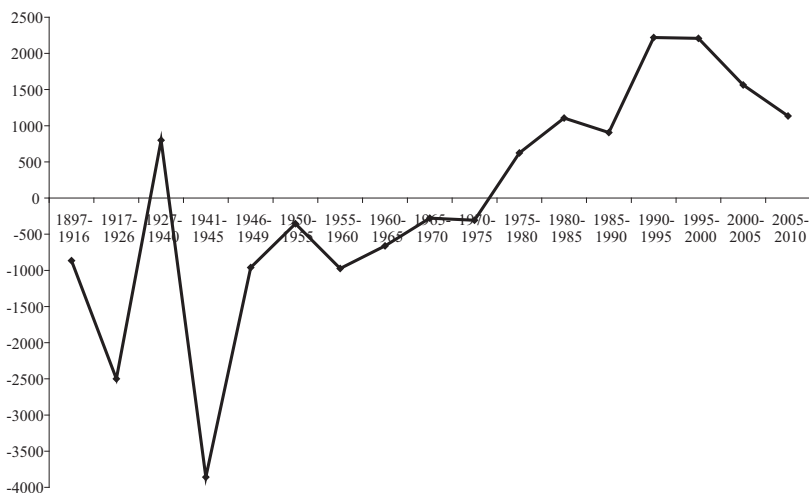


Figure 1. Change in migration inflow in Russia, 1897–2010

Source: constructed by us using the data of Andreev, Darsky, Kharkova, 1999; Iontsev, 1999; United Nations, 2010.

As shown in figure 1, transformation of social, economic and political life conditions favoured dramatic intensification of international migration in Russia in the 2nd half of the 1980s – the early 1990s. Along with that, due to the collapse of the USSR most post-Soviet republics pursued the policy of deporting non-native population (explicitly or implicitly). Under these circumstances Russia that preserved relatively free boundaries with post-Soviet republics, transformed into a powerful immigration centre where millions of ex-USSR citizens rushed.

By the middle of 2010 Russia occupied the 2nd place in terms of the foreign population size after the USA (12.3 million persons) and secured the 3rd place after

¹ Experts say, net immigration in Russia during the period 1927–1940 can be explained by two factors: firstly, inflow of work power from other Soviet republics in the context of industrialization; secondly, concentration of residents deported from and repressed in other republics (see Andreev, Darsky, Kharkova, 1998, p. 78–85).

the USA and Germany in terms of the overall migrants inflow rate during 1992–2010.

Compared with early 1990's only the number of «classic» international migrants in Russia, including refugees, increased by nearly 750 thousand persons. We should notice that these statistics do not include illegal migrants (the number of which amounts from 3.5 up to 10 million persons according to the different estimates), international tourists (the number of which exceeded 23.7 million persons in 2008 based on the date of the World Tourism Organization) along with commuters, long-term, seasonal migrants and occasional migrants (including economic tourists).

An important indicator of growing involvement of Russia in global migration flows in the 1990s' is the increasing rate of the international migration growth increased as well as increasing share of migrants in the total population. For instance, rate of international migration growth increased in Russia persistently over the period of 1975–2000 and reached 2.99% per year in the last decade of the 20th century. It was connected, particularly, with the dissolution of the socialist system and the involvement of ex-USSR peoples into world migration flows. The share of “classic” international migrants in the overall Russian population increased from 7.8% in 1990 up to 8.7% in 2010, whereas the changes in the world in general were not so considerable (3.1% in 2010 compared to 2.9% in 1990).

Therefore, at the present day Russia is simultaneously the state of *destination*, *origin* and *transit* for millions of international migrants.

Increase of Russian regions involvement in international migration

The age of quick carriages throughout the world affected practically every part of our planet, international migrants can be found far and wide. At present all federal districts and all regions of Russia are involved in international migration flows. Actually, even the least economically developed regions, the most northern and the most remoted Russian regions represent the regions of destination for international migrants in the 21st century.

Whereas in 1993 79 of 89 Russian regions were the regions of destination for international migrants, in 1994 their amount increased up to 87 from 89 regions (with the only exception of Chechnya and Ingushetia), in 1997 – up to 88 from 89 regions (with the exception of Chechnya) and since 2004 all regions of Russia are points the regions of destination for international migrants.

In its turn, while in 1993 79 from 89 Russian regions were regions of origin of international migrants, in 2004 – their amount rose to 88 of 89 regions (with the exception of Aginsko-Buryatsky autonomous district) and in 2010 – 82 of 83 regions (with the exception of Nenetsky autonomous district).

Thus almost all Russian regions are involved in international migration flows both as regions of destination and regions of origin of international migrants.

Table 1

**Distribution of migrants to Russia among federal districts,
2010, persons**

Federal districts	Number of received migrants	From the CIS-countries and the Baltic states	From other countries
Central	65 658	61 926	3732
Northwestern	17 682	16 659	1023
Southern	13 663	12 105	1558
North Caucasian	6177	5594	583
Privolzhsky	34 015	31 805	2210
Urals	20 902	19 987	915
Siberian	27 744	26 250	1494
Far Eastern	5815	4740	1075

Constructed according to the data of: Population size and migration in the Russian Federation 2010. Rosstat, 2011.

As shown in table 1, the most attractive territory of destination for immigrants in Russia is the Central federal district, followed by Privolzhsky and Siberian federal districts. At the same time, the most attractive territories for immigrants from the non-CIS countries were Central, Privolzhsky and Southern federal districts.

According to 2010 figures, main destination-regions of international migrants (which received more than 5 thousand migrants) are Moscow province (15834 residents), Moscow (15051 residents), Tyumen province (11583 residents), Krasnodar territory (6383 residents), Samara province (6216 residents) and Krasnoyarsk territory (5984 residents).

In its turn, as shown in table 2, according to the 2010 data, the main «suppliers» of emigrants in Russia are Central (24%) and Syberian federal districts (20%), followed by Privolzhsky federal district (13,5%). The main regions of origin of international migrants are Moscow (3303 residents), Omsk province (1944 residents), Tyumen province (1707 residents), Moscow province (1187 residents), Altai territory, (1131 residents), Chelyabinsk province (1113 residents), Khabarovsk territory (1098 residents) and Kemerovo province (1063 residents).

Table 2

Distribution of migrants from Russia among federal districts, 2010, persons

Federal districts	Number of migrants	To the CIS-countries and the Baltic states	To other countries
Central	8153	5219	2934
Northwestern	3717	2041	1676
Southern	2648	1721	927
North Caucasian	1107	722	385
Privolzhsky	4549	3150	1399
Urals	3923	2959	964
Siberian	6661	4499	2162
Far Eastern	2820	1852	968

Constructed according to the data of: Population size and migration in the Russian Federation 2010. Rosstat, 2011.

Therefore, over the period of 1993–2010 the geographical changes of international migration flows consisted in the involvement of the increasing number of Russian regions in international migration processes.

Quality changes of the migration flows structure

Deep changes in world economy in the 2nd half of the 20th century (caused by the development of postindustrial sector and corresponding transformation of the world labour market needs) as well as political and economic reforms made for *the quality changes of migration flows structure in Russia*. The key changes we can single out are the following:

1) Changes of duration of the international migrations

Statistics we dispose of are not enough to analyze to the full extent migration flows duration (first of all, because separate categories of temporary migrants do not need entry permits or because their entry is illegal), and considerable part of the appropriate information is irregular. As a result, quite a lot temporal flows remain unregistered.

Indirect source of information about the duration of migration is information about the distribution of foreign citizens according to the objectives of their trips. These data are provided by the Border Service of Russia (see table 3).

Table 3

Arrivals of foreign citizens: objectives of trips, 2009–2010, persons

year	Number of immigrants, distribution according to objectives of trips, persons						
	Work-related	Tourism	Private	Permanent residence	Transit	Service personnel	Overall
2009	3880401	2100601	13432334	6831	282368	1636115	21338650
2010	4432077	2133869	13695966	9000	271028	1739277	22281217

Source: Population size and migration in the Russian Federation 2010. Rosstat, 2011. P. 83.

As shown in table 3, the major part of interstate migrations falls on different types of temporary migrations: seasonal, commutation and especially occasional migrations, including trips with tourist visa (of which 2/3 falls on economic migration).

With regard to the above mentioned labour migration has been the one most widespread in the last two decades. That can be explained, on the one hand, by the blanket distribution and increasing accessibility of transportation vehicles. They simplify movement and «reduce» distance between countries and continents. In such conditions migrants prefer temporal work abroad to emigration due to lower material and immaterial costs (for further details please refer to: Aleshkovski, 2005, p. 26–27; UN, 2006, p. 42-45). On the other hand, globalization of international labour market requires higher flexibility of migration behavior. It is labour migration that can guarantee that flexibility.

2) Changes of qualification structure of international migration flows

There is stable demand in Russia for foreign workers of two qualification «poles»: low qualified workers and highly qualified workers of modern professions.

At the same time state migration policy encourages qualified workers inflow, especially in those fields and sectors of national economy where there is deficit of local workers. In its turn, low qualified and unqualified migrants find more and more impediments closing the access to the destination countries. Along with that, since unqualified workers are still pulled out of their native countries and employers in destination countries still use labour of foreign workers (even illegally), this group remains involved in international migration processes. Authorities of destination countries have to elaborate programmes of temporal engagement of unqualified migrants taking into consideration the fact that its own citizens do not wish to be engaged in unskilled labour (for further details refer ILO, 2006, p. 127-151).

Thus, changes of qualification structure of legal migration flows consist in, above all, gradual increase of highly qualified migrants with postsecondary education. For instance, the share of people with senior secondary and higher education increased over the period of 2005–2010.

3) Changes of age and gender structure of international migrations flows

Throughout the history most migrants were men. Women participated in international migration mainly as members of male migrants families. However, in the early 1990s researches showed that more and more women migrated independently searching for well-paid (in comparison with the country of their origin) job.

Traditionally the considerable part of Russian migration flows is composed by female population (45% to 55% of incomers in 2000–2010). Besides, female share in unemployable age exceeds 70% whereas most migrants of childhood and employable age are men.

In many respects, *feminization of migrations flows* is connected with the structural changes in the world economy. Those changes accompany globalization processes. The development of service economy made for the increase of service sector in the employment pattern of developed countries and formed stable niches of labour markets in destination countries (textile industry, leisure and entertainment industry, public services sector, home service, sex services et al) and forever increasing need for female migrants, including unqualified ones. Along with that, most niches can be attributed to the «risk sphere» that is connected with sex employment or so called close-to-sex employment (employment that is often connected with sex services). These spheres of actually marginal employment represent main migration opportunities for female migrants nowadays (Ivahnyuk, 2005, p. 138; IOM, 2006).

Over the last 15 years we can also observe the tendency of the *increasing share of employable age migrants*. In 1997 they totaled 63.5% and in 2010 – already 79.6%. In our opinion, this tendency reflects the fact that *economic reasons prevail among the reasons for change of domicile*.

Thus, other important trend of modern development of the international migration in Russia is *quality transformation of migration flows structure*. That can be proved by the development of mainly temporal migrations types, increasing involvement of qualified workers in international migration, gradual feminization of migration flows and increasing share of employable age migrants.

Determinative significance of economic migration

Already in Ravenstein's works (see Ravenstein, 1885, 1889) it was shown that international migration flows are formed under different reasons, among them the economic ones are the most important. In its turn, the development of economic (and above all, labor) migration is most lasting and stable tendency in the development of international migration which was stimulated a lot after the formation of global labour market. This market manifests itself in foreign labour power export and import that reached unprecedented scale in the last quarter of 20th century – the early 21st century.

Though it is difficult to ascertain general scale of international labour migration flows (since not all countries maintain that kind of control and considerable part of migrations remain illegal), international labour migration definitely increases. By estimates of ILO, at the beginning of the 21st century there were over 86 million legal labour migrants compared to 3.2 million persons in 1960.

Due to the information provided by the Federal Migration Service of the Russian Ministry for Internal Affairs, the inflow of legal labour migrants in Russia was permanently increasing: in 2000 – 213.3 thousand persons, in 2001 – 283.7 thousand persons, in 2003– 377.9 thousand persons, in 2005– 702.5 thousand persons, in 2007– 1717.1 thousand persons, in 2008– 2425.9 thousand persons.

Table 4

Foreign workers by types of economic activity, 2008

Type of economic activity	thousand persons	% of the overall number of persons engaged in the given type of economic activity
Overall	2425,9	3,44
Agriculture, hunting and forestry	159,8	2,93
Fishery	2,6	2,74
Mining industry	54,3	4,15
Manufacturing	240,3	2,03
Building and construction industry	1018,7	19,63
Wholesale and retail trade, repair of vehicles, household goods and personal demand items	411,8	3,83
Transport and communications	93,8	1,42
Financial activity	8,3	0,64
Real estate operations, lease holding and delivery of services	94,2	2,12
Education	4	0,06
Public health and social service	5,1	0,08
Other community facilities, social and personal service	103,6	1,92

Calculated according to the data of: Labour and employment in Russia 2009. M.: Rosstat, 2010.

Despite the fact that labour migrants make up no more than 3.5% of all employees in Russia, the significance of labour migration is much higher for some regions and certain economic sectors. According to Russian Federal State Statistics Service (Rosstat), in 2008 labour migrants totalled nearly 19% of all employees in construction sector and more than 5% of all employees in 12 regions of the Russian Federation (see table 4, 5).

Table 5

The subjects of Russia with the largest proportion of foreign workers in the overall number of employed population, 2008.

Subject of the Russian Federation	working migrants number	
	persons	% of the overall number of employed population
Chukotka autonomous district	5093	16,98
Sakhalin oblast	36941	13,34
Yamalia-Nenetsia autonomous district*	42497	13,28
Nenetsia autonomous district	7927	13,10

Subject of the Russian Federation	working migrants number	
	persons	% of the overall number of employed population
Moscow city	623160	10,28
The Jewish autonomous oblast	7404	9,03
Khantia–Mansia autonomous district*	69591	8,31
Amur oblast	31319	7,49
Zabaykalsk region	33681	7,18
Moscow oblast	230183	6,29
Irkutsk oblast	72267	5,93
Kaliningrad oblast	24510	5,00

* Autonomous districts are annexed to Tyumen oblast.

Calculated using the data of: Labour and employment in Russia 2009. M.: Rosstat, 2010.

We should notice that in global flows of labour migration Russia is both a destination country and an origin country. As Rosstat provides, over the period of 1994–2008 Russia received more than 8 million legal labour migrants whereas more than 1.3 million of Russians left their country to work in other countries (see table 6). Besides, in the 1990s Russia was the origin of millions of push-pull migrants (they are actually international economic migrants).

Table 6

Number of Russian citizens who left the Russian territory (persons)

1995	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
11176	45760	45759	49265	47637	56290	60926	65747	69866	73130

Source: Labour and employment in Russia 2001, 2003, 2009. M.: Rosstat, 2002, 2004, 2010.

Migration of the labour force influences state finances of the countries participating in the global labour market. And while for countries-importers of labour force that influence consists mainly in receiving tax payments and spending means for social protection of labour migrants, for countries-exporters it is more diverse (for further details please refer: Stalker, 2000). Money transfers are the most considerable benefit of international migration for countries-importers. By estimates of the World Bank experts, in 2007 the volume of money transfers of labour migrants in Russia averaged 4.7 billion dollars, which makes up 0.4% of the GDP of the country. Thus, Russia occupied the 21st place in the volume of money transfers in the middle 2000s. Consequently, in modern Russia labour migration as well as global movement of human capital has become an important factor of economic development.

Structural insuperability of illegal immigration

Such a characteristic tendency of international migration development as *structural insuperability of illegal immigration* is inseparably connected with legal labour migration.

According to Russian law enforcement practice, illegal immigrants are people that broke the rules of entry in the Russian territory or rules of temporary residence in its territory. This category is also amplified by those who work illegally. It is necessary to notice that the development of illegal migration is accompanied with the appearance of new categories and groups of migrants that break Russian laws (migration laws, labour laws et al); besides, they break the laws both of the country of entry and the country of origin or transit¹.

Experts note that there is no reliable information about the number of illegal migrants in Russia since due to many reasons it is impossible to ascertain exactly the scale of illegal immigration. Existing expert accounts and approximate estimates of the illegal migration scale differ so much that they are incomparable. By different estimates, at the present time there are from 3.5 to 10 million persons who illegally reside in Russia. As the Federal Migration Service of the Russian Ministry for Internal Affairs provides, there were about 150 thousand of illegal labour migrants in the Russian territory in October of 2011².

As we can see, the number of illegal labour migrants in Russia forms a considerable part of the number of legal ones. It is worth mentioning that the number of illegal immigrants has reduced considerably in the last years in terms of stricter Russian immigration laws and enactment of special laws against illegal immigration³.

Along with that, «demographic pressure» and economic situation in countries-origins of illegal migrants make for the *structure insuperability of illegal immigration under the modern system of global economic relations*.

The latter, however, doesn't mean that the scale of this type of labour migration in Russia can not be reduced. It is possible by means of the interaction between state, society, ethnic formations and human rights organizations as well as by means of more effective administration of legal labour migrants' flows. The most important thing is to realize that illegal migration is no form of terrorism or other criminal

¹ Different forms of illegal migration and its structure are analysed thoroughly in the article of I. Aleshkovski and V. Iontsev "Illegal immigration in the socio-political discourse" in the 18th issue of this series.

² Short-hand records of the press conference "Does Russian need migrants?" which took place on the 4th of October, 2011. <http://strategy2020.rian.ru/stenograms/20111007/366171816.html>.

³ In July, 2011, Russia signed the Federal Law on Ratification of the Cooperation Agreement on Countering Illegal Labour Migration from Third Countries.

processes, which should be struggled against by using all repressive opportunities of the state.

Increasing significance of international population migration for Russian demographic development

Throughout the history change of the population size of separate regions of the world was provided mainly by the natural increase of population. Peculiarities of mortality and birth rate evolution, increasing gap in demographic potential of developed and developing countries as well as world economy globalization led to the considerable increase of the role of the international migration in world demographic development.

In modern Russia, which suffers demographic crisis, international population migration has acquired special significance and has become an important factor of its demographic development.

Demographic advantages of immigration to Russia consist in the fact that under demographic crisis international migration has become the sole source of the Russian population size replenishment. Migration increase over the years 1992–2010 exceeded 6.5 million persons and «smoothed over» natural loss of the Russian population (which totaled 12.5 million persons over the mentioned period) by nearly 50%. At the same time, throughout this time only in the «peak» 1994 year the scale of migration increase was enough not only for natural loss compensation, but also for securing population increase in Russia.

Table 7

Change in resident population size in Russia, 1992–2010, thousand persons

year	Population size, beginning of the year	Gross increase	Natural loss	Migration gain
1992–1996	148514,7	-486,1	-3423,8	2937,7
1997–2001	148028,6	-2379,3	-4232,8	1853,5
2002–2006	145649,3	-3428,3	-4131,5	703,2
2007	142221,0	-212,2	-470,4	258,2
2008	142008,8	-104,8	-362,0	257,2
2009	141904,0	10,5	-248,9	259,4
2010*	142962,4	-48,3	-239,6	158,1

* with account of early results of the 2010 all-Russian population census.

Source: Demographic Yearbook of the Russian Federation 2009. M., 2009. P. 25; Population size and migration in the Russian Federation. M., 2010. www.gks.ru

The contribution of net migration in Russian population size change was steadily decreasing till 2003 (55% in 1992–1997, 16% in 1998–2004 and 35% in 1992–2004). Increase of the net migration in 2004–2008 and natural loss decrease slowed down the population decline in Russia. In 2008 the natural loss was up to 71% replaced by net migration (in 2007 — up to 54.9%, in 2006 — up to 22.6%).

Thanks to the fertility increase and mortality decline in August, 2009 Russia fixed the natural increase of the population by 1050 persons for the first time since 1992. On the whole at the year-end the migratory increase compensated completely the natural loss of the population for the first time since 1994.

Table 8

**Change in resident population size in Russia, 2002–2010,
thousand persons**

	Gross population loss, 2002-2010	Natural loss	including		Migration gain	including	
			born	dead		arrived to Russia	left Russia
Overall population	-2261,5	-4734,3	12706,3	17440,6	+2472,8	2939,2	466,4

Source: early results of the 2010 all-Russian population census

Held in October, 2010 all-Russian census showed that compared to 2002 the Russian population decreased by 2.26 million persons, or 1.6%. And annual average population decline compared to the former intercensus period (1989–2002) increased by two times and totaled 0.2% against 0.1%. The latter fact reflects the decrease of the natural decrease compensation with net immigration. The latest data of Rosstat confirm that trend: migration increase of Russian population declined by 38.2 thousand persons, or by 42.7% over the 2011 first half year¹.

These statistics show clearly that Russia is becoming more and more dependent from international migrants' inflow in order to compensate population natural loss as well as in order to replenish certain niches of national labour market and, correspondingly, decrease the rate of demographic burden (which inevitably rises due to the native-born population ageing).

Along with that, it is important to note that international migration in Russia not only provides for population natural decrease compensation, but also favours the change of population structure: the migrants are younger. Besides, we should take into account the demographic policy of encouraging large families (families with many children). The age structure of immigrants is younger (compared to the Russian population structure). In 2009 nearly 78% of immigrants were in employable age, whereas in Russia on the whole this indicator amounts to 63%. In

¹ http://www.gks.ru/bgd/free/b11_00/IssWWW.exe/Stg/dk07/8-0.htm.

the 2000s the decreasing share of the migrants that did not reach employable age reflects the narrowing opportunities of receiving education for the youth from the CIS countries. In 2009 only 3999 persons arrived in Russia for receiving education, among them 3869 migrants from the CIS countries and 139 migrants from the non-CIS countries.

Can the immigrants' inflow solve the problems of Russian demographic development in the 21st century?

As practically all forecasts (both Russian and non-Russian) show, there will be population natural decrease in Russia in the 21st century. By the UN forecast, in 2010–2050 the annual natural loss of population is going to total on average about 510 thousand persons (UN, 2010). In its turn, by the Rosstat estimates, in 2010–2030 the annual natural loss of population is going to amount to about 485 thousand persons.

At the same time, Russia (as well as countries of Western Europe) is going to face the increasing aging of population. As a result, the expenses for social insurance can become too burdensome for the state economy and some territories can become depopulated almost completely.

As numerous post-war generations enter the unemployable age, the loss of employable population will be rising: in 2011 employable population size is going to decline approximately by 875 thousand persons, in 2012, according to the forecast, – by more than 1000 thousand persons, in 2013–2019 – by another 6616 thousand persons (see table 9).

Table 9

**Forecast of change in population of Russia,
age groups in 2012–2030, middle forecast variant**

year	Below employable age		Employable age		Above employable age	
	Thousand persons	% of the overall population size	Thousand persons	% of the overall population size	Thousand persons	% of the overall population size
2012	23542,7	16,6	86649,8	61,0	31870,5	22,4
2013	23924,5	16,8	85649,1	60,3	32530,6	22,9
2014	24338,3	17,1	84651,0	59,6	33150,0	23,3
2015	24699,7	17,4	83612,2	58,8	33849,0	23,8
2020	25935,1	18,3	79033,2	55,7	36939,7	26,0
2025	25148,2	17,8	77148,0	54,8	38619,9	27,4
2030	22845,4	16,4	76770,5	55,1	39755,9	28,5

Source: the data of Rosstat (demographic forecast of Russian population till 2030).

As shown in table 9, the maximum loss is going to fall on the years 2011-2019 when the annual average decline of the population of this age group achieves 850 thousand persons (decreasing by 10–11 million persons on the whole by 2030).

As a result, age structure of Russian population deteriorated considerably. By experts' estimates, the share of employable age population is going to decrease from 61.7% in 2011 up to 52-55% in the years 2020-2030. Alongside with that the share of retirement age population will grow from 22% up to 26-28%. According to forecasts, macroeconomic factors will further the growth in production output and, consequently, the growth of labour demand. In such conditions decline of employable age population (the reason of labour force deficit) can substantially slow down economic development. That can heavily affect certain economic sectors and regions. In the short term labour force will become one of the most deficient economic resources in Russia.

We should consider the labor-intensive type of Russian economy and limited opportunities of increase in labour force productivity. Foreign labour force intake and higher internal mobility of Russian population can allow getting over labour force deficit. In such conditions immigrants' inflow can seem to be the cure-all solution for the improvement of the demographic situation and for providing Russian population growth in the 21st century. But is it possible to solve all existing demographic problems of Russia only with the help of international migration?

Russia needs to maintain employable age population at a stable level. UN and Russian experts' researches show that for this purpose Russia even now should receive on average about 700-800 thousand migrants (net migration) and gradually increase this amount up to 0.9-1.1 million migrants (see table 10).

Table 10

Net migration that is indispensable for maintaining stable population size of Russia in 2011-2050

	Median amount	With 60% confidence interval	With 95% confidence interval
2011–2015.	874	547–1222	187–1668
2016–2020	998	626–1393	205–1888
2021–2025	1164	801–1542	406–2045
2026–2030	1256	918–1636	572–2218
2031–2035	1267	874–1695	482–2329
2036–2040	1256	794–1743	272–2458
2041–2045	1253	745–1772	130–2566
2046–2050	1252	752–1796	71–2678

Source: Vishnevski A.G., Andreev E.M., Treivish A.I. Development prospects of Russia: role of demographic factor. M., 2003. P. 22.

Employable age population averages $\frac{3}{4}$ of the migrants' flow. In order to compensate employable age losses Russia needs to draw over 20 million immigrants in the following decades. Evidently it is not possible. Due to UN estimates, in 2010-2050 net immigration will total about 97 thousand persons annually.

Consequently, we should not exaggerate the role of international migration for Russian demographic development. It will be a mistake to affirm that international migration alone will get over the demographic crisis. This myth confuses authorities and public opinion. Immigration can only smooth down negative effects of the demographic crisis (which is, of course, also important), to some extent solve certain regional demographic problems (for example, in the Far East and in Siberia), but not greater than that. The example of developed countries shows that immigration can rather effectively solve demographic problems in the time of beginning phase of depopulation exclusively.

Only complex approach to demographic processes management can provide overcoming of the demographic crisis (which includes the extreme phase of depopulation) and subsequent progressive advance. Such approach includes: *increase in total fertility rate* (or, at least, its stabilization at the rate of 1.7-1.9 children per woman); *decline in mortality* (there are huge opportunities for reducing exogenous mortality rate); *increase in internal mobility within the country and immigrants' inflow*; the most important thing is **to form the idea of human life as of the greatest value of the state.**

Dual character of migration policy

Dual character of migration policy is in large measure the result of all above-mentioned consistent patterns. We lay emphasis on the fact that the policy towards international migrants is in general tough and strictly regulated. It represents *a system of special measures, acts of law and international agreements (bilateral and multilateral) that govern migration processes, pursue economic, demographic, geopolitical and other objectives.*

In the modern period we can single out three levels of migration policy: global, regional and national (the level of independent states). We observe dual character of immigration policy at all these levels: *global* (as a result of conflicting interests of international organizations and independent states), *regional / interstate* (migration-regime liberalization within integrating regional unions counter to tough policy towards non-union migrants) and *national* (conflicting demographic and economic interests, on the one hand, and political and social safety considerations, on the other hand).

As for Russian migration policy, on the one hand, over the period of 1991-2010 certain legal framework of international migration management was formed. On the other hand, Russia still does not consider migration a positive phenomenon. The top authorities of the state proclaim (particularly, in messages of the President

to the Federal Assembly of the Russian Federation) the thesis of the necessity for reasonable immigration policy as well as compatriots and qualified workers intake. At the same time executive authorities practice strict approach and treat migration (both legal and illegal) as a threat to national security. Duality of attitude to migration (especially of Russian speakers from CIS-countries and the Baltic states) as well as non-understanding of basic patterns of international migration make for the absence of the Federal Conception of Migration Policy. Unfortunately, there are no strategic thoughts in this field.

The current situation contravenes interests of economic and demographic development of Russia. Moreover, Russia is losing the opportunity of economic cooperation with the post-Soviet states, including cooperation in the effective use of labour force potential. That potential is explained by differences in demographic development, firm economic ties, historical community et al. Therefore, there is increasing necessity for migration policy that meets the current migration situation.

In our opinion, modern Russia needs to give special attention to modern policy-making in the field of migration. The base of the policy should be the conception of *migration* being a *common good* as against some disaster (struggled against by the repressive means of the state).

Thus, it is necessary to pursue the policy (at a federal and regional level) that takes into account interests of economical and demographical development of the country. In its turn, for that purpose authorities have to realize that only reasonable, strategically considered migration policy that disallows the «triumph of national atavism over the logic of economic development» (Demeny, 2002, p. 73) can provide legitimate international migration and rational use of migrants' qualification.

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Migration processes globalization in Dagestan

Summary

Since early 1990s Dagestan, previously dominated by intra-Russian migration flows, is getting more and more actively engaged into international migration processes. With the final collapse of the USSR these trends have intensified. How do they influence the labour market and economic development of Dagestan, traditionally seen as a region with labour surplus? What are the prospects for international migrants, taking into account the dynamics of branch-specific labour demand structure and immigration policy in Russia?

The article analyzes the present-day situation in the sphere of international migration in one of the republics of Southern Federal District of Russia — Dagestan — and its consequences in terms of one of Dagestan's mountainous regions in the context of globalization.

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INFORMATION ABOUT THE SERIES

The book series “International Migration of Population: Russia and the Contemporary World” was founded in 1998 in view of the fact that there was not a single scientific periodical in Russia dealing with international migration of population. Due to this reason the Department of Population at the Faculty of Economics of the Lomonosov Moscow State University made a decision to establish a book series aiming to raise both theoretical and applied aspects of contemporary trends of international migration of population as well as its determinants and consequences.

The Editor-in-Chief is Professor Vladimir Iontsev, the Head of the Department of Population at the Faculty of Economics. The Executive Secretary of the series is Irina Ivakhnyuk, Senior Researcher at the Department of Population.

The volumes of the series are published biannually. They can be either edited volumes or monographs. The series is in fact an active discussion on various dimensions of international migration in the world and in Russia in particular.

The **first volume** (1998) mainly consists of the papers of Russian scholars presented at the IUSSP General Population Conference at Beijing, China in October 1997. (Detailed information about the Conference is also presented.) These are the articles by Vladimir Iontsev and Andrey Kamensky *Russia and the International Migration of Population* dealing with the entrance of Russia into the international community by means of migration and the allied problems — both for Russia and the world; and the article by Andrey Ostrovsky *Labor Migration from China to Russia's Far East: Possibilities of Immigration Today and in Future* concerning the turn of labor migration into permanent immigration in the certain region.

The other articles of the first volume are devoted to a very topical for Russia aspect of international migration — ‘brain drain’: Igor Ushkalov — *Intellectual Emigration from Russia: the Factors, Scale, Consequences, Ways of Regulation*, Irina Malakha — *“Brain Drain” in the Central and Eastern Europe*. Besides, the issue included the digest of the well-known book by Julian L. Simon — *Economic Consequences of Immigration* (N.Y.: Blackwell, 1989). Reviews of noticeable publications of Russian and foreign specialists on international migration are an integral part of every issue of the series. Another important section of every volume is “Young Scholars’ Viewpoints” where students and post-graduate students from the MSU and other universities are granted an opportunity to publish the results of their research in international migration.

The **second volume** (1999) includes articles on a broad variety of themes related to international migration in Russia and in the world: Vladimir Iontsev, Aminat Magomedova (Russia) — *Migration between Russia and other Former Soviet states (Historical Review)*; Irina Ivakhnyuk (Russia) — *The Experience of State Regulation*

of *Labor Force Emigration (Case of Turkey)*; Andrey Kamensky (Russia) — *Labor Force Export and the Impact of Migrant Workers' Remittances on Balance of Payment of a Sending Country*; Igor Ushkalov (Russia) — *Emigration and Immigration: the Russian Phenomenon*. Apart from the Russian scientists' articles the volume also includes contribution of Prof. Janez Malačič, (the University of Ljubljana, Slovenia) — «*Labor Market and International Migration Situation in Central European Transitional Economies*». Starting from the second volume it has become a good tradition of the series to invite foreign colleagues to contribute because their papers can be hardly available in Russian.

The **third volume** (1999) presents the monograph of Vladimir Iontsev «*International Migration of Population: Theory and History of Studying*» dealing with the classification of main scientific approaches for the studying of migration. The analysis of principal concepts in the field of international migration that exist presently both in Russia and the world demographic science are presented. There is also a detailed analysis of international migration affecting Russia since the eighteenth century up to the present day, as well as a projection of possible future migration trends. The work includes a glossary of terms used in Russian-language demographic studies on migration. It is worth mentioning that this monograph contains a numerous bibliography of publications on international migration of population (1200 titles).

The **forth volume** (2000) presents a number of articles depicting both global trends in international migration of population and specific migration flows to and from Russia. The article by Sema Erder (The Marmara University, Turkey) — *New Trends in International Migration and the Case of Turkey* presents the author's view on migration picture of contemporary Europe and the changing place of Turkey within this picture. The appearance of new migration space in the Eastern Europe has encouraged new migration flows in the region. That is the subject of two other articles — by Irina Ivakhnyuk — *International Labor Migration between Russia and Turkey* and by Evgeny Krasinets and Elena Tiuriukanova — *From-Russia-to-Italy Migration as a Model of Ethnically Neutral Economic Migration*. Ethnic aspect of international migration is presented by the article of Israeli demographer Mark Tolts (the Hebrew University of Jerusalem) — *Migration of Russian Jews in the 1990's*. Among the book reviews presented in the forth volume one is worth to be stressed. That is the digest of the last publication of Igor Ushkalov — «*Brain Drain*»: *Scale, Reasons, Consequences* (Moscow, 1999) which has gained special emphasis because of the untimely decease of the author in November 1999. Igor Ushkalov was undoubtedly among the best experts on international intellectual migration.

The **fifth volume** (2000) has one common theme that penetrates all the articles — the impact of international migration on demographic development. The situation in three former Soviet Union states — Russia, Ukraine and Armenia — is presented in the articles of scholars from the corresponding countries: Vladimir Iontsev (Russia) — *International Migration of Population and Demographic*

Development in Russia; Alexander Khomra (Ukraine) — *International Migration and Demographic Development of Ukraine*; Ruben Yeghanyan (Armenia) — *Demographic Realities and Perspectives of Armenia on the Eve of the 21st century*. The article by Mikhail Denissenko (Russia) — *Replacement Migration* analyzes the UN Report on Replacement Migration in which the author had taken part. The article tries to answer the question if the replacement migration could be a solution to declining and ageing populations. Besides, the paper by Michel Poulain (Belgium) — *The Comparison of the Sources of Measurement of International Migration in the Central European Countries* — is a valuable contribution for promoting some common methodology in international migration studies.

The **sixth volume** (2001) is fully devoted to forced migration taking this chance to celebrate the 50th anniversary of the activities of the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR). The Regional Office of UNHCR in Moscow has supported this publication. Naturally, all the articles of the sixth volume deal with forced migration: Vladimir Mukomel (Russia) — *Forced Migration in the Context of Migration Processes and Migration Policy in the CIS: Stages of Development*; Marek Okolski (Poland) — *Migration Pressures on Europe*; Sergei Ryazantsev (Russia) — «*Forced Migration in Europe: Current Tendencies and Problems of Regulation*»; Philippe Wanner (Switzerland) — *Asylum-Seekers in Switzerland: Principal Socio-Demographic Aspects*; Marina Kunitsa (Russia) — *Forced Migration of Population in Regional Development: Specific Problems in the Bryansk Region, Russia*; Svetlana Gannushkina (Russia) — *Russia's Migration Legislation and Policy*; Yakhya Nisanov (Russia) — *Totalitarian Traditions and Business in Russia: Law's Clashes Force to Migrate*.

The **seventh volume** (2002) is breaking up the chronology of the series due to the fact that it is timed to coincide with the jubilee of the Center for Population Studies at the Faculty of Economics of the Lomonosov Moscow State University which includes the Department of Population as well. This volume is different from the others as it is presented by the annotated bibliography of publications on migration at the Center. It is titled *Migration of Population: 35 years of Research at the Center for Population Studies of the Lomonosov Moscow State University (1967–2002)*. (The author is Irina Ivakhnyuk). This bibliography represents the scale and traditions of migration studies which have formed the theoretical background for developing the modern approach to investigation of the contemporary stage of Russia's migration history.

The **eighth volume** (2001) deals with the problems of international migration statistics and registration, which have national peculiarities in every country, and this fact seriously impedes the comparative analysis of the world migration flows. The article by Olga Tchoudinovskikh — *Present State and Perspectives of Current Migration Registration in Russia* analyzes the shortages of the Russian system of migrants' primary registration that perform as an obstacle for reliable migration estimates and studies. The article by Mikhail Denissenko — *Emigration from Russia*

According to Foreign States' Statistical Data represents foreign states' immigration statistics as an alternative and more exact source of estimation of emigration flows from Russia. A short contribution of George Tapinos – *International Migration of Population as the Factor of Economic Development* contains valuable comments, very topical for contemporary migration situation in Russia and other former Soviet states. The article by Alexander Slouka *International Migration of Population and Demographic Development of the Western Europe* continues the theme which is meaningful for the editors – about the role of international migration in demographic development – started in the third and the fifth volumes.

The theme of the **ninth volume** (2002) is highly topical for Russia and the neighboring countries as well as for many other regions of the world – illegal immigration. The contributors to the volume are researchers and practical workers from Russia and other former Soviet Union states: Galina Vitkovskaya – *Irregular Migration in Russia: Situation and Policy of Counteraction*; Eugeny Krasinets – *Irregular Migration and Latent Employment in the Border Territories of the Russian Federation*; Elena Sadovskaya – *Prevention of Irregular Migration in Kazakhstan*; Lyudmila Shakhotko – *Illegal Migration: Factors of Growth and Methods of Solution*; Tatyana Kutsenko – *Illegal Migration and Irregular Employment of Foreign Citizens and Apatrids in the Russian Federation*. Geopolitical position of the former USSR states and transparent borders between them have turned this vast territory into the corridor for transit migrants from Asia heading to Europe. All the authors stress on indissoluble relation between illegal immigration and irregular employment and on the importance of government control over illegal hiring of foreign labor force in the context of struggle against irregular international migration.

The **tenth, jubilee volume** (2002) is a collection of articles by distinguished experts in international migration from many countries. The papers deal both with theoretical issues of migration studies and migration overviews for certain countries and regions. The article of Douglas Massey (USA) – *A Synthetic Theory of International Migration* is in fact an attempt to summarize existing migration concepts into a universal, general theory. Dirk van de Kaa (the Netherlands) in the article *On International Migration and the second Demographic Transition* emphasizes the role of migration in the analysis of demographic development and makes a serious theoretical step towards better understanding of the classical demographic transition theory. Different, but equally interesting views on contemporary skilled migration are presented in the papers of Reginald Appleyard (Australia) – *Skilled Migration in the Globalized World* and Irina Malakha (Russia) – *On 'brain drain' in Russia during the second half of the 1990's*. A new theoretical approach to understanding of the latest trends in international migration flows is presented by Mary Kritz (USA) in her paper *International Migration to Multiple Destinations* where she argues that not only developing countries but also developed ones are to be considered as both labor force importers and exporters. The contribution of Marek Okolski (Poland) – *The Incoming Civilizations, the Outgoing Civilizations on the Turn of the 20th Century*.

Reflection from the Perspective of Demography is especially engaging by depicting the role of demographic processes, and migration in particular, in evolution of human civilizations, e.g. in the forthcoming replacement of the present European civilization (if current demographic trends in Europe last) by Asian civilization. The replacement is already taking place as a result of Chinese immigration. This theme is developed and detailed in the paper of *Vilia Gelbras* (Russia) — *Chinese Migration and Chinese Ethnic Communities in Russia*. Shifts in international migration trends in the Eastern Europe and former Soviet space are the focus of a number of articles: *Janez Malacic* (Slovenia) — *International Migration Trends in Central and Eastern Europe during the 1990's and and the Beginning of the 21st Century*; *Mark Tolts* (Israel) — *Statistical Analysis of Aliyah and Jewish Emigration from Russia*; *Andrey Kamenskiy* (Russia) — *Contemporary Russia in International Labor Migration*; *Vladimir Iontsev, Irina Ivakhnyuk* (Russia) — *Russia in the World Migration Flows: Trends of the Last Decade (1992–2001)*.

The **eleventh volume** (2003) is entitled “Migration and National Security”. It reflects an active discussion on security dimensions of international migration in the Russian society, in both academic circles and government, and in media as well. The article of *Leonid Rybakovskiy* — *Demographic Security: Geopolitical Aspects and Migration* is analyzing the role of international migration and reasonable migration management in counteracting demographic crisis in Russia that is by itself a threat to national security and sovereignty of the country. The same issue but from the perspective of foreign researchers is examined in the contribution of *Graeme P. Herd and Rosaria Puglisi* (UK) — *National Security and Migration Policy in Putin's Russia: a Foreign Perspective*. The analysis of the role of migration in counteracting depopulation trends is topical both for Russia (article of *Dalkhat Ediev* — *International Migration as a Way to Overcome Depopulation Trends in Russia*) and Ukraine (article of *Alexander Khomra* — *Migration of Population in Ukraine in 1989–2001: Input to Population Dynamics and Ethnic Structure*). Paper of *Irina Ivakhnyuk and Ramazan Daurov* — *Irregular Migration and Security in Russia: Threats, Challenges, Risks* is focused on “multilayer” nature of the problem; the authors mention political, economic, criminal, and social aspects. Economic and ethnocultural aspects of security are detailed in the paper of *Svetlana Soboleva and Olga Tchudaeva* — *Foreign Migrants in the Russian Labour Market* based on the results of the survey of migration in the eastern regions of Russia.

The **twelfth volume** (2004) is dedicated to the 10th anniversary of the UN International Conference on Population and Development (Cairo, 1994) and preliminary results of the 20-year Programme of Actions admitted at this Conference, in the field of international migration. This volume was timed to the Russian National Population Forum “Present and Future of Population in Russia” held in Moscow on 3–4 November 2004. The paper of *Vladimir Iontsev and Andrey Kamenskiy* (Russia) — *International Migration of Population: Lessons of the Cairo Conference* is based not only on the analysis of the ICDP Programme of Actions

but also on personal experiences of the authors who were the participants of the ICDP. *David Coleman* (UK) in his paper *Europe at the Cross-roads: Must Europe's Population and Workforce Depend on New Immigration?* questions the possibility to achieve certain objectives framed by the ICPD in the field of migration, and besides, he touches upon long-run effects of numerous migration to Europe. The article of *Irina Pribytkova* (Ukraine) — *Modern Migration Studies: in Search for New Theories and Concepts* is an attempt to summarize theoretical approaches and methodological principles in migration studies, with special emphasis on inter-disciplinary research. The paper of *Sergey Ryazantsev* (Russia) — *Forced Migration in Russia: Ten Years Since Cairo* deals with the most topical for Russia international migration issue in the 1990s. Articles by *Liudmila Ponkratova* (Russia) — *International Migration of Population in the Far East of Russia: Transformation of Flows and Prevailing Trends* and *Svetlana Gribova* (Russia) — *Migration as the Element of the Integration Mechanism of Russia's Far East Region into the Chinese Economy* analyze important for Russia issue of Chinese labour migration. The paper of *Elena Tiuriukanova* (Russia) — *Labour Migrations in the CIS and New Practices of Labour Exploitation* based on sociological surveys results, deals with a painful issue of migrants' human rights protection that is specially emphasized in the ICPD Programme of Actions.

The **thirteenth volume** (2005) "International Migration from the Perspective of Young Scholars" is fully made up of contributions by Master students, Ph.D. students and young research workers from Russia and other CIS states specializing in international migration studies.

The **fourteenth volume** (2005) represents the papers presented at two workshops organized by the Council of Europe in collaboration with the Department of Population of the Lomonosov Moscow State University: "Economic Migration in Russia – Legal Protection of Migrant Workers" (Moscow, December 2003) and "Prospects of Labour Migration in Russia and Its Regions: Migrants' Rights in the Context of Economic and Demographic Development" (Saint Petersburg, July 2004). Over 20 papers analyze most topical issues of labour migration in Russia from the perspective of migration officials and experts, and from political, legal, economic, social, regional and ethnical points of view. Contributions by experts from European countries experienced in international labour migration management discuss the best possible ways for Russia to cope with increasing labour inflow, in particular by signing the European Convention on Legal Status of Migrant Workers (1977).

The **fifteenth volume** (2005) is a collection of papers submitted to the Session on international migration trends at the XXV IUSSP Conference, 18-23 July 2005, Tours, France. The papers reflect most typical contemporary international migration trends, including globalization of migration flows, growing role of international migration in demographic development of receiving countries, qualitative shifts in the global migration flows, the increasing role of labour migration, expansion of irregular migration, feminization of migration flows, and dual role of migration policies.

The **sixteenth volume** (2006) is the Russian version of the fifteenth volume.

The **seventeenth volume** (2006) presents the monograph of Aminat Magomedova «*Economic and Demographic Aspects of External Migration in Russia*». The impact of international migration on economic and demographic development in Russia is regarded both from the historical perspective and from the viewpoint of modern migration concepts.

The **eighteenth volume** (2006) includes papers by Russian and overseas researchers dealing with theoretical and applied issues of interrelations between migration processes, on the one hand, and economic and political challenges, on the other hand.

The **nineteenth volume** (2007) is an annotated bibliography of publications on migration of professors and researchers of the Center for Population Studies of the Lomonosov Moscow State University in 1967–2007. The bibliography gives the idea of the scale and traditions of migration studies that have grounded the contemporary approach to conceptualizing migration in the new stage of migration history of Russia. The author is Irina Ivakhnyuk.

The **twentieth, jubilee volume** (2007) is timed to the international conference ‘Migration and Development’ (the Fifth Valentevskiye Chteniya) that was organized in Moscow on 13–15 September 2007 by the Center for Population Studies of the Faculty of Economics of the Lomonosov Moscow State University. The title of the 20th volume coincide with that of the conference — ‘Migration and Development’. It is dedicated to the 10th anniversary of the scientific series and includes papers of session chairs, some key speakers, and distinguished migration researchers. The paper by *Jean-Claude Chesnais* (France) — *La Migration, le Lever de Development* proves that migration that migration not only affects different facets of social development but, moreover, can be an instrument to make positive shifts in this development. The same idea runs through the paper of *Ronald Skeldon* (United Kingdom) — *Social and economic dimensions of migration: discussions of migration and development*. The academic debate on international migration trends is also reflected in the article of *Douglas S. Massey* (United States of America) *Toward a Comprehensive Model of International Migration* where the author persistently grounds his idea for comprehensive synthetic migration theory. *Paul Demeny* (United States of America) in his paper entitled *Globalization and international migration: conflicting prospects* comes to the conclusion that appears paradoxical at the first sight: maybe it is reasonable to turn down the attempts to manage migration since the previous experience proves their failure. The same ‘internal contradictoriness’ of contemporary migration the readers will find in the paper of *David Coleman* (United Kingdom) — *Immigration and Ethnic Change in Low-fertility Countries — a third demographic transition in progress?* where he warns about replacement of European civilization by another one, most likely Asian civilization in case the current demographic trends stay stable. As to Coleman, in order to avoid this scenario, it is necessary to impede or reject immigration. The role of

international migration in the current and future development of the post-Soviet area is analyzed in the papers by *Irina Ivakhnyuk* (Russia) – *Eurasian Migration System: theoretical and political approaches*; *Elena Sadovskaya* (Kazakhstan) – *International Labor Migration, Remittances and Development in Central Asia: towards regionalization or globalization?* and *Irina Pribytkova* (Ukraine) – *Migration and Demographic Development of Ukraine*. The volume also includes theoretical papers of Russian scholars: *Leonid Rybakovsky* (Russia) – *Mechanisms of Migration Flows Formation* and by *Vladimir Iontsev and Ivan Aleshkovski* (Russia) – *International Migration and Globalization of World Economy*. Other papers in this book are not less interesting. They present authors' concepts on the role of international migration in the demographic and economic development of the world and its regions, on the role of migration in integration processes at the regional level, on prospects of immigration policy, etc.

The twenty-first volume (2008) is presented by an analytical report on the UNDP Project on 'Migrants and HIV/AIDS in Russia: Problems and Solutions (express-analysis in the field of international labour migration and HIV/AIDS in the Russian Federation)' that was conducted by a group of researchers of the Department of Population of the Faculty of Economics of the Lomonosov Moscow State University *Vladimir Iontsev, Irina Ivakhnyuk, and Ivan Aleshkovski*. This is in fact the first attempt to analyze interrelationships between migration of population and health and mortality, including mortality caused by HIV/AIDS.

The twenty-second volume (2009) entitled 'The Russian Migration Policy and Its Impact on Human Development: the Historical Perspective' is the original English text of the research paper made by *Irina Ivakhnyuk* for the Global Report on Human Development 2009 and its translation into Russian. The paper deals with the impact that the Russian migration policy focused on the country's economic and political interests, has on the human development of the whole of the post-Soviet area.

The twenty-third volume (2010) 'Determinants of the Contemporary International Migration and Improvements of the Russian Migration Policy' includes papers by Russian experts in international migration, namely *Vladimir Iontsev, Vladimir Mukomel, Irina Ivakhnyuk, Andrey Kamensky, Ivan Aleshkovsky, Olga Tchoudinovskikh, Eugeny Krasinets* and others, who express their opinion on the ways to improve the Russian migration policy.

* * *

The scientific series 'International Migration of Population: Russia and Contemporary World' is open for both distinguished experts and young researchers engaged in international migration studies. To get detailed information on contribution terms or to send your papers including electronic version, please contact the Editorial Board.

For more detailed information about the scientific series 'International Migration of Population: Russia and the Contemporary World' please contact the Editorial Board:

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INFORMATION LETTER

*The Lomonosov Moscow State University
Faculty of Economics
Faculty of Global Studies
Center for Population Studies
are organizing*

**the International Conference
(The Seventh Valenteevskiye Chteniya)
“Demographic Development: Challenges of Globalization”**

(Moscow, 15–16 November 2012)

The Head of the Organizing Committee:

Rector of the Lomonosov Moscow State University Academician Victor Sadovnichiy

The Deputy-Heads of the Organizing Committee:

Dean of the Faculty of Economics Professor Vasilii Kolesov

Dean of the Faculty of Global Studies Professor Ilya Ilyin

Head of the Department of Population Professor Vladimir Iontsev

The Conference is to discuss the following themes:

- 1. *Demographic science and education in the era of globalization.***
- 2. *Reproduction of population in the contemporary world.***
- 3. *Migration of population in the globalizing world.***

Deadlines:

- **application with abstracts / full papers – before 15 April 2012**
- **selection of abstracts / full papers for the conference program – 25 May 2012**
- **application for participation without presentation/report – until 10 September 2012**

Submitted abstracts / full papers will be published by the start of the conference.

More detailed information will be provided in the Information letter #2. It can also be found at the site of the Department of Population www.demostudy.ru, www.narodonaselenie.msu.ru

(English version — www.population.msu.ru) or requested in the Organizing Committee.

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