MIGRATIONS IN THE GLOBALIZATION ERA(1)

Abstract

One of the major recent changes in contemporary international affairs is the increase in the scope and intensity of social and economic relations, or the development of what has commonly been termed globalization. There is little doubt that various elements of globalization have served to facilitate the volume and diversity of international migration flows. The motivation for this paper is that international migration has received relatively little attention in the present debate on globalization. People have always left their homes in search of better economic opportunities, both within and outside of their own homeland. But economic globalization has put a new spin on global migration, causing global uprootedness and human displacement on an unprecedented scale. Because economic globalization exacerbates the inequalities between nations, migration for many becomes not a choice, but an economic necessity. The purpose of the present study is to analyse the characteristics of migratory movement in the era of globalization and to support the thesis about an unavoidable increase of migration in the next years.

The paper is structured as follows. The first section reviews the process of globalization and the second presents the main theories of migration. The third section gives an overview of the influence of the human capital on the economic development. The next section highlights the effects of migration flows. Discussions concerning migration of people from one country to another usually concentrate around the influence of migration on highly developed countries. This part of the paper highlights issues associated with evaluation of the influence of emigration on developing countries. The next sections highlight important findings and offers concluding remarks.

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Globalization and global problems

The concept that has emerged for the purpose of describing and explaining the world in recent years is globalization. Despite the very many attempts to define globalization, it remains a phenomenon that is hard to measure, lacks clear-cut boundaries and so eludes scientific definition. Globalization is a multidimensional and multilayered process(2). Globalization process can be discerned in every aspect, dimension or geopolitical component of international life, yet it is still immensely difficult to judge what the direct influence of globalization on particular issues is and when what is happening has nothing to do with them.

Globalization is not a new phenomenon. It dates back to the 19th century and the great industrial revolution. It is a process which has lasted and developed with changing intensity since the end of the 19th century, although it gained special meaning in the final decades of the 20th century(3). In the past dozen or so years globalization has developed a new resonance and meanings as a result of the concurrence in time of a number of processes, notably the increased scale mobility and integration of financial markets or, to put it another way, unrestricted movement of billions of dollars in search of profitable investment. A related development is deregulation of economics and domestic markets which has had the effect of opening them up to external competition. This applies not only to production but also to all kinds of services. Globalization would not have been possible without the technological revolution in communications, broadly defined, especially the revolution in information technology. Globalization is not a solely economic trend. In practice it denotes a growth of various kinds of links, interrelationships and non-symmetrical influences in all area of the lives of societies – from mass culture to finances, from migration to security. The net effect of global interdependence is a situation that has been summed up by Strobe Talbott, Deputy Secretary of State in the Clinton administration in the formula “What happens there matters here” (Talbott, 1997)(4).

(2) For a thorough description of the problem related to defining and understanding the process of globalization see: Dicken, P., 1998, pp. 3-6.

(3) To find out more on the problem related to defining the beginning of the process of globalization see: Baylis, J., Smith, S., 2001, pp. 17-19.

(4) Most succinctly, globalization has also been described as the combination of technological advances, internationalization (global scale of action by economic actors) and liberalization of economies (deregulation) – the definition employed in World Trade Organization circles– or “shrinking time, shrinking space, disappearing borders”, which, according to the United Nations Development Programme (Human Development Report 1999, pp. 29-31) are the three ways through which globalization impacts on international life: on relations between states and on relations between people. The report adds that these phenomena do not affect all people and that in the global village which will be their end result “not everyone will be a citizen".
The factors that influenced globalization's development can be divided into three basic groups. First are favourable political conditions (the state of international relations and actions of states which lead to liquidation of legal and administrative restrictions in international transfers), the second includes: technical development and technological progress that improve transport capabilities, facilitate communication and permit the conduct of business activity on a larger scale and across greater distances; the third group comprises the increased needs and tendency of some actors to "break out" into activity outside the borders of their countries of origin.(5)

It should be mentioned that there are the enthusiastic trumpeters of globalization and its implacable critics, on the other. Uniting them is a shared belief that globalization is not an option or choice of the international community, but an inexorable reality, an irreversible development trend in the international order. The enthusiasts perceive in globalization only benefits: acceleration of world-wide advances in civilization, growth of prosperity, removal of unnecessary barriers between nations, mutual learning and inspiration. The critics of globalization point primarily to its undesirable consequences: marginalization of certain regions and countries, the ever greater volatility of capital movements within the global financial system and its destabilizing impact on weaker economies, increasingly hard to detect corruption and large-scale money laundering operations, and the spread of transnational organized crime syndicates on the back of globalization.

**Review of the main Theoretical Approaches of Migration**

The migratory phenomenon and procedures refer to particular economic, social and political conditions. The migration due to the existence of national borders is discerned as interior (that is within the borders) and as exterior or international. Its consequences on an individual and a social level do not present any differences according to its type, but only in relation to their tension and extent. The description, the analysis, the interpretation and the foresight of the migratory phenomena are elaborated either from, mainly, an economic point of view or from, mainly, a sociological point of view (Mousourou, 1991). The theoretical bases for the comprehension of the powers that provoke the migration, still, remain weak. The outbreak of the migration that took place during the decade of 90's, took citizens, public workers and people who deal with demography by surprise since the approach to the phenomenon was based on models and assumptions of the 19th century. Nowadays, there is not a unique cohesive theory about the international migration; there are only detached parts of theories that have developed

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(5) M. Marquardt refers to the process of internationalization of entrepreneurial activity as a special kind of "journey - national, international, multinational (multiregional) and global. See: Marquardt, 1999.
extensively in isolation one from another, and, sometimes, in relation to other scientific branches (Massey et al, 1993; Hyz, Pappas, 2005, 2006a, 2006b).

The neoclassical economics focus on the differences of the admissions and the labour conditions among the countries as well as on the costs of the migration, in order to interpret the reasons for which the international migration started. Generally, they consider this movement as an individual decision aiming at the maximization of the income (Massey et al, 1993). It is about an approach, which is based on the assumption of the economical rationalism about the human individual behaviour. According to the micro-theory of the neoclassical economics, the person, who individually acts in a rational way, decides to migrate as the calculation of cost-benefit leads him to wait for a positive net profit, usually money, due to the movement (Faist 2000).

In the micro-theory of the neoclassical economics the simplest and more powerful model is the approach of Gravity (Faist, 2000). It focuses on the relation between distance and tendency to movement. Massey (1993) reports that the international migration, as well as the interior one, is caused by geographical differences, those have to do with demand and supply of labour. Countries with a large labour reserve compared to the capital, have a low balance of salaries, while countries with restricted labour tank compared to the capital are characterized by high salaries in the market. This urges workpeople to move from the countries with low rewards to the countries with high rewards (Labrianidίs & Liberaki, 2001).

The new economics of migration do not take only the labour markets into consideration, but also the circumstances in a variety of markets. According to this theory the decisions of migration are made in social units such as the family, the households or even in entire communities. The decision is made as a whole, within the strategy of family survival, not only for the maximization of the expected income, but also in order to minimise the dangers to the family income, or to overcome the capital’s needs of the family’s productive activities (Massey et al, 1993; Massey, 1999; Faίst, 2000). Their involvement in the foreign markets, also, allows the households to accumulate money for large consuming buys or productive investments, or for retirements’ savings (Massey, 1999). Moreover, the households send work people abroad not only to improve their income on absolute conditions, but also to increase their income compared to other households, and, for that reason, to restrict the comparative deprivation compared to some others groups (Massey, 1993).

The Marxist and neo-marxist theories interpret the migration as a phenomenon connected direct with wider social and economic changes and profess that it must be studied on the basis of these changes. According to Marx, effect as well as presupposition of the capitalist way of production is the development of surplus population that correspond to the development of labour surplus. The movement of this population, that Marx names industrial reserved army, facilitates and intensifies the capitalistic accumulation from which it arises. Lenin thinks that differentiations of the economic and the political correlation of powers and economic development of unequal parts
that create the coincidence subpopulation-overpopulation, which is related to
the migration, are provoked at the stage of monopolistic capitalism. The
economic development of unequal parts is expressed with the distinction of a
developed centre from an undeveloped periphery, which depends on the
centre. This dependence is reproduced forever, as the working force of district
constitutes a huge tank, from which the centre draws according to its needs
(Mousourou, 1991).

The dual labour market theory regards the migration as a natural
consequence of the economic globalization and the extension of markets beyond
the national borders, which is restrained by the actual demands of the industrial
societies’ market (Massey et al, 1993). Within the globalization of economy, the
entrance of markets and intensive capital of produced technologies in areas of a
district splits up the inferior social and economic regulations and brings about a
replacement of the usual survival sources, creating a population of work people,
who move and seek actively new ways of rising the incomes, managing the danger
and the obtainable capital. Piore (1979) reports that the international migration
is due to a permanent request for a foreign labour and it’s innate in the economic
structure of developed nations. The migration is not due to factors that urge from
the countries of sending (low salaries or high unemployment), but to factors that
attract the countries of reception (constant and inevitable need for foreign
labour); it is mainly formed on the basis of request and begins with recruiting
from employers of developed societies or from governments that act on behalf of
them (Massey et al, 1993). On the level of labour market of the receptive country
the Marxist approach has led to pointing out the fragmentation of this market in
central and districted. In the central one, indigenous people (men) are employed
at well-paid posts of the state section and the big enterprises. In the districted
one, (women and foreigners) are employed at badly paid posts of small business,
where the labour conditions are bad, the prospects of development are trivial,
and which indigenous people deny to taking on. Considering that they are
deprived of expertise and technical education, the labour movement is not
included in the targets of their migration, they centralize at the lowest posts and
they are deprived of the possibility of improving their posts, this situation
classifies the migrants in a plainly lower socio-economic position than that of the
indigenous workers, whereas the fact that they are unemployed more often and
for more time compared to the locals, furthermore entails the danger of their

In the global systems theory, the basic remark is that the migration rarely
comes from the very poor places of the world; something that is suggested by
the neoclassical theory. The international migration constitutes a natural result
of the market’s formation of the capitalistic type in the developing world,
follows the political and economic transformation of a broadened world market
and it’s minimally related to the height of rewards or to the differences in
occupation among the states. The international wave of labour follows the
corresponding one of goods and capital but to the opposite direction. The
resultant migratory waves often direct to countries in which the bonds were
made during the “colonial” phase of their expansion. Another dimension, as well, of the international migration is recommended by the refugees’ movement, who result from failing the political and military activation of the capitalist countries’ governments in protecting their investments abroad and in supporting foreign adjoining governments at the expansion of the global market (Massey et al., 1993).

While the early phases of economic development in poor countries propel the migration, the post-industrial transformations in rich nations produce a segmentation of the labour markets. Jobs in the primary labour market entail a stable occupation and high rewards for the indigenous work people, but jobs in the secondary markets provide low rewards, a small stability and a few chances for progress; so the indigenous people avoid them and a structural request for migrants as work people is born (Massey, 1999).

Many theorists of global systems consider that, when they are set in motion, the migrants’ movement from the poor and traditional societies to the rich and modern ones—and the remittances’ and visits’ sending to another direction—will turn the country of sending further to the market accelerating, consequently, the migration. According to the Cumulative Causation Theory, that was developed by Myrdal in 1957 and was formed further by Massey in the '90s, the migration is self-conserved in such a way that tends to provoke further migration. This assumption follows the suggestion that the private citizen’s or the household’s decisions are influenced by the socio-economic frame under which they are taken and that the migratory actions influence each time, up to a point, the frame under which next decisions are taken. The effusion of migratory behaviour in the societies of sending revokes helping structural changes, change distributions of income and land and modifies local civilizations in ways that propel additional international migration. In time, the expansion of the net tends to become self-renewable as every action of migration provokes social and economic changes that propel further international movement (Massey, 1999).

If the neoclassical theory attempts to explain the causes of migration, the structural approaches attempt mainly to explain the maintenance and insistence of the phenomenon putting emphasis more on the social causes than on the economic motives of the migrants. On the micro-level the structural theory of migration focuses on two central meanings: the one of the migratory nets and the other of the chain migration. The migratory nets are groups of personal bonds that connect moving, ex moving and non-moving with countries of destination and coming through social bonds. This dynamic theory accepts the theorem that the international migration begins as a procedure of an individual or collective decision, on a household’s level, but extends to the fact that migratory actions, in a specific point and time, systematically change the content, through which decisions of future migration are taken, increasing, significantly, the possibility of additional migration afterwards (Faist, 2000). The migratory nets lead to a chain migratory; a social mechanism where a number of people leave a well-defined region of coming for another well defined place. They rely on people with the same coming and intermediates for information, illegal help and many other sources. When the migratory
procedures begin, more and more people move. The centralization of migrants in specific regions of destination creates a phenomenon of "family and friends" type that later leads the waves of migrants to the same places and helps out their arrival and installation (Massey, 1999). The migrants need information about the chances of occupation, the necessary documents, the stay, etc. These are secured either by school or the media (directly depended on the level of development in the country of coming) or by the social nets and the "industry" of migration which, as King notes (2000), has become a universal business in recent years, with its own economic logic and characteristics of market, in which services are sold and bought by people who relevantly are financially capable.

The Transfer of Human Capital

Among the factors, which contribute to economic growth, the quality of human input ranks high (Romer, 1986). The relative deficiency of human resource, count as a retarding factor for development of the underdeveloped regions (Hansen, 1972). The human capital theory has been used differently for the interpretation of different related issues. For example, Schultz (1959, 1961, 1963) and Dension (1964) used the human capital framework to analyse the sources of productivity and growth. On the other hand, Becker (1964, 1967, 1975) and Mincer (1958) focused on the implications of human capital theories to earnings distribution in general. These theories focus on human capital formation, by the way of education and training, which determines inequality in earnings. The theory considers demand for education as an investment demand because like any other investment expenditure, the expenditure on education earns a return though there is a lag effect. It establishes a direct relationship between education and earnings. As people get educated, they accumulate skills; as a consequence, their marginal productivity increases and is reflected in the increased levels of earnings. Thus, there is an established link with the marginal productivity theory.

In a job competition model and in an identical employment situation, the productivity of highly educated person tends to be more in comparison to the less educated person, because of their inelastic supply. As supply of the highly educated increases, the earnings get reduced but never fall to a minimum level. It is argued, that if the higher educated persons got to get higher wages then the productivity must be positively correlated to their education and, that can only happen if the labour market is competitive one. But, research studies in the succeeding years proved the postulate without the assumption of perfect competition. Shah and Srikantiah (1984), also confirm the wage competition model, which implies that a diminished inequality of schooling is associated with diminished inequality of income (Tilak, 1994). Examining the contribution of education as consumption, Becker (1975), proposed that the association between the inequality in education and income is attributed to the effect of income on education, and hence of no greater causal significance than the ownership of wealth (Tilak, 2000). Likewise, Ahluwalia (1974) examined the
contribution of education as an investment and helps in building better human capital. This implies, an increase in the quality of labour input leading to higher labour productivity and higher earnings.

Until recently immigration politics of a great number of OECD countries favour the transfer of most qualified personnel from less economically developed countries. This phenomenon is called brain drain, and contributed to inhibition of economic development in that countries (Sriskanndarajah, 2005, Stark, 2005). Economically more developed countries gained many benefits from this movement. For example United States of America built their financial and economical power, in a large extend, owing to the deluge of well-qualified immigrants from various parts of the globe (6). In less developed countries there is a phenomenon of workforce migration. Part of well qualified workers emigrate in search of a better paid job, less qualified workers emigrate in search of any kind of work. In this point we have to mention that it does not always mean a loss for the country from which the human capital migrates. The majority of human capital is the effect of individual decisions of particular individuals. However, the choice of forms and conditions of gaining knowledge that aims at achieving some specific qualifications and abilities is not always an optimum choice, from the point of view of the whole society or labour demand of the economy of the given country. It is commonly known that because of fast technical development some abilities gained in the process of education cannot be “sold” on local or domestic job market.

**Effects of Migration Flows**

Discussions concerning migration of people from one country to another usually concentrate around the influence of migration on highly developed countries. In this part of the paper we will try to evaluate the influence of migration on developing countries. In case of majority of developing countries there is difficult to explicitly evaluate the positive and negative consequences of migration including the most vital aspect of it which is the loss of best qualified employees (brain drain). We will try to answer such questions as: What factors force people to international emigration? What influence can emigration wield on less developed countries? Is it possible to control the transfer of human potential, especially the level of migration of best qualified workers from less developed countries? Is it possible to invent a policy that would eliminate negative consequences of emigration on economy of a given country? If conducting such policy is not possible, it means that in the nearest future current tendencies concerning migration of population from poorest to richest countries will continue and maintain on the same level.

(6) According to data of OECD in 2004, almost 8.2 million well-qualified employees came and permanently settled in United States, and in Canada 2.1 mln, in Australia 1.7 mln, in Great Britain 1.6 mln, in Germany 1.5 mln, and in France 900 thousand. (The Economist, 2005; Carrington, 1998).
Nowadays the demand on the job market of highly developed countries is the biggest just for workers from the bottom of the social ladder and for employees from the top of the social ladder (Borjas, 2005)\(^7\). As a result, economically developed countries still tend to absorb immigrants from various countries, what is supported also by the intensified globalization of job market. This phenomenon highly influences immigration politics of majority of countries (Colvin, 2005).

Which are the main underlies the ultimate decision to migrate? It is possible to distinguish structural and personal motives, where the structural motive is the systematic imbalance in economic potential and demographic pressure in a country and the personal decision to migrate is determine by social and personal factors. The structural motive is of great importance for the scale of the actual movement. The decision to migrate is affected by “push” and “pull” factors (Gruel, Scott, 1977, Gosh, Scott, 1977). The major “push-factors” are:

1. Relatively low wages
2. Relatively high unemployment
3. Uncertain labour market prospects
4. Lack of capital
5. Political system
6. Adventure, gaining international experience

Main “pull-factors” are:

1. Higher standard of living
2. Higher wages
3. Better jobs
4. Better labour market prospects
5. Quality of life
6. Demand for young, well-educated people.

Findlay and Garrick note, regarding the differences in underlying causes between the well-educated and less well-educated labour force, that skilled people are usually guided by labour market prospects and differences in salary as regards their ultimate choice of destination whilst the less well-educated are affected by family ties and friendship (Findlay, Garrick, 1989).

Some authors—in default of adequate numeral data— are trying intuitively to enumerate some good effects and bad effects of migration. These effects differ

\(^7\) CEDEFOP, the Thessaloniki-based European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training, has produced a study forecasting skills needs in Europe until the year 2015. The report, entitled *Future skill needs in Europe: medium term forecast*, unsurprisingly predicts a further shift in labour markets, away from the primary (agricultural) and manufacturing sector, and into services. Europe’s labour force in 2015 needs to be much more highly qualified than today. The demand for higher qualifications, which is driven by the constant rise of the service sector and technological change, will affect all segments of the labour market: even unskilled manual labourers will need a higher level of qualifications in 2015 than today.
between short-term and long-term migration (Gosh, Scott, 1977). It is characteristics that on the short term there are more positive effects of migration such as:

1. Temporary decrease in unemployment,
2. Payments made by the emigrants to the country of origin,
3. Gain experience or knowledge and
4. Exchange of social-cultural values.

With long-term migration the negative effects are more to the fore. It seems necessary to examine such effects like:

1. Loss of investment in human capital,
2. Decrease in endogenous development capacity,
3. “Ageing population” with as result a less dynamic, more conservative population, breakdown of social structure and quality of life,
4. Missed profits for a country as result of migration. It can be called as opportunity cost.

It is worth mentioning that although migration may be to the benefit of the individual migrant and his/her family – the national or international transfer of knowledge and skills means the transfer of investment in training and education (Hyz, Gikas, Zafiropoulou, 2005). Consequently, the country of departure not only has to contend with the loss of its investment in human capital but also with the possible returns on that investment. Moreover, since these people are mostly young and keep to adapt to new developments the country might thus become less dynamic and modern.

Although the idea prevails that long-term migration creates disadvantages for the country of origin, it is difficult to establish how great these disadvantages are. An overview of remittances of emigrants reveals that the contribution by migrants to the GDP may differ widely (EREÇO, 1998). The question arises, however, whether such “remittances” compensate for the loss of investments in education and the opportunity cost, where the opportunity costs means the ability to benefit from the skills of the emigrants, thus reducing income and income taxes, and economic activity probably not being developed as a result of their departure.

According to the data of United Nations Organization, in 2005 around 190 mln people were living not in the country where they were born (for example in 1970 there were only 82,5 mln living abroad) (IOM, 2005; Coppel, Dumont, Visco, 2001). The majority of emigrants, namely two-third of them, who left their home country stayed in highly developed countries (Coppel, Dumont, Visco, 2001). The transfer of immigrants, mainly to rich countries, will bring a negative effect on countries which are in the state of development, and which have the high rates of migration. For example, around three fourth of all well-qualified employees emigrate permanently from such countries as: Guiana, Haiti, Jamaica, Trinidad and Tobago as well as Fiji to OECD counties. It is a great loss to economy of the first and an equal injection of human potential to rich OECD countries.
However, migration may have some positive aspects too. The most important is money transfers. There is not much reliable data concerning the money transfers. According to official data which only cover bank transfers (formal transfers), each year around 180 milliards of dollars come to developing countries and the amount of money transferred increases every year. If we add to this amount informal money transfers, that are not included in the official calculations, it may be revealed that the annual amount of the cash flow is even two or three times bigger (Faini, 2003). Here, one can draw a conclusion that money transfers constitute the main stream of the inflow of capital to developing countries, which is greater than the inflow of direct foreign investments or economic aid for these countries. For some smaller developing countries such as Lesoto, Tonga or Liban the transfers generate one fourth of GDP of those countries and constitute the main source of influx of foreign currency, much greater than incomes from export of goods and services. Therefore, it is difficult to imagine that governments of those countries would like to introduce politics aiming at limitation of emigration that is to limit the outflow of best qualified and enterprising people.

Emigration may contribute to the fact that periodically the rate of unemployment in the country which sends emigrants will be lower, at the same time to increase motivation of people to seek for new qualifications. Moreover, the outflow of workers causes the greater amount of foreign capital sent via money transfers to families at home, what consequently results in their bigger demand for domestic goods or services what has a positive influence on the whole economy of this country. It is vital to discuss the positive consequences of emigration do they advantage over the negative aspects? It is hard to provide an unequivocal answer. Taking into account those countries that depend on foreign capital send by emigrants to their families, one should favour positive consequences of emigration. However, here still exist a danger that economy of such kind, based on foreign capital send by ex-emigrants or on emigrants coming back to their mother country and starting small companies would not be efficient. Sometimes the outflow of well-qualified personnel of one specific field of science for example doctors immediately brings a negative consequence, which is in this case the lower quality of health care (Clark, Steward, Clark, 2006). It is hard to fill the gaps fast with equally trained staff, because it is impossible to educate in such short period of time another personnel and at the same time find a way to encourage a large group of specialists to work and stay in their mother country. Furthermore, it is obvious that the outflow of well qualified employees, particularly university graduates, lowers the rate of efficiency of investments in public education. In this case foreign country employers make use of the high educated people and the developing country still bears the costs of their education.

From the point of view of the global job market, migrations favour forming of human capital not only in countries which take emigrants in, but also in countries from which those people emigrated in search of better working conditions and to which those people probably are going to come back after a
few dozen years with skills and savings. It is commonly known that investments in education and willingness to raise qualification and learn have for a rationally thinking person a deep sense only when abilities are appreciated and well-remunerated. If there are no such possibilities on local or domestic job market, only two solutions remain: emigration to another country in search of such work that would give an opportunity to use learned skills and at the same time that would provide acceptable remuneration, or to wait for a foreign investor who would provide working places for local specialists, but who would not necessarily provide satisfactory remuneration. At best, the remuneration will be not much higher than the average earnings in a given trade, accepted by local workers who are not prone to emigration.

Unavoidable Increase of Migration

The world total of international migrants grew from about 100 million in 1960 to 191 million in 2006. Most of the increase has taken place in the period of rapid globalization since 1980. The number of migrants in developed countries more than doubled in the last two decades of the twentieth century: in 1980 it stood at 48 million; by 2000 it had reached 110 million. In the same period, the number of migrants in developing countries has grown more slowly – from 52 million to 65 million (United Nations, 2004).

From the above presented data, it results that each year the number of emigrants is getting bigger. This increase confirmed the fact that one of the main features of world economy in the era of globalization is the increasing workforce prone to migration. Other tendencies include: the increase of the rate of migration, the changes in structure and directions and the increase of participation of women in those movements. In parallel with the above mentioned tendencies growing number of countries are involved in the problem of migration. Some claim that if capital migrates around the world, people should follow it. The mobility of people should be also a remedy for unemployment. However, workforce is still not as much mobile as capital or the transfer of goods and services. The progress of globalization favours the gradual abolishment of limitations which concern the flow of people between particular countries. Nowadays the most mobile are people who have highest qualifications. However, in many countries, because of society ageing and low birth rate there is even bigger demand exactly for physical workers, from the bottom of the social ladder and of course continuous high demand for best qualified specialists from the top of social ladder. The scale and structure of the demand for workers depend on various factors, not only on demographic and economic conditions of particular country but on better or worse developed system of education. Economic conditions of highly developed country still attract immigrants especially from worst developed countries who decide to leave their mother countries for a particular period of time or permanently. They constitute the part of trans-international immigrants. Some countries still fight too fast inflow of immigrants in comparison with their absorptive
possibilities. It is difficult to predict future changes in immigration politics of countries of the European Union, or of all rich countries united in OECD. However, from the point of view of a country from which educated specialists migrate in search of work, this country’s government should not work on limitations concerning emigration but should invent some solutions how to make living and working conditions better, develop better legal regulations for foreign investors so that they were encourage to make investments and create working places taking advantage of available human capital. The latter would cause a gradual increase in the level of the effectiveness of work and the amount of remunerations paid, and at the same time it would reduce the outflow of best qualified personnel. To sum up, these deliberations may lead to a conclusion that the problem of losses that result from brain drain and benefits that result from inflow of well qualified specialists from one country to another can be solved not by restrictive immigration politics, but rather by liberalization of this policy. It seems that it would be best for all countries to lead such policy that would favour the periodic transfer of employees between countries and regions, rather than imposing some limitations to restrict migration.

Conclusions

An essential characteristic of globalization is large-scale flows of goods and services, financial assets, technology and people across international borders. As new areas of the world are pushed to forge links with the global economy, they often undergo massive social and economic changes. These changes frequently lead to migration, which in turn can cause major transitions in both sending and receiving countries. Globalization also creates the cultural and technical conditions for mobility. Global media beam idealized images of northern lifestyles into the poorest countries. Electronic communications allow easy access to information on migration routes and work opportunities. Long-distance travel has become cheaper and more accessible. Once migratory flows are established, they generate ‘migration networks’ in which the first to arrive help members of their families or communities who wish to follow. Migrants move today predominantly from developing to developed countries, but the need for migrant labour is also present in some developing countries. It is difficult to predict the future trends in international migration. Under the assumptions that no radical or widespread shifts will be in migration policies and the economic forces prompting migration will remain relatively unchanged the migration flows will continue to have in the future big impact on the world economy. Till now the international community has failed to build institutions to ensure orderly migration, maximize the developmental benefits that could flow from it and protect the human rights of migrants. The priority is to create a new common migratory policy increasing the benefits and reducing the costs of international migration. The world community need to give greater consideration to the benefits that a more liberal admission policy might produce.
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