

# CHARACTERISTICS OF TEMPORARY TRANSNATIONAL MIGRATION

Collected Working Papers from the EURA-NET project

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## 12. FLOWS AND PATTERNS OF TEMPORARY MIGRATION: COUNTRY REPORT FROM UKRAINE

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### 12.1 Introduction

Ukraine is characterized by almost all known types and forms of external migration. Over the past half century four historical migration eras, or as they are called four waves of Ukrainian mass exodus abroad are distinguished, each of which is featured by dominating type of migration. Thus, the “first wave” that began from about the 60’s of the 19th century and ended with the beginning of World War I is characteristic for the displacement of more than 2 million representatives of the agricultural population abroad, of which 800 thousand stayed in the Americas (the US, Canada, Brazil, Argentina) and more than half a million moved to the Far East of Russia. A distinctive feature of the second wave of Ukrainian external migration became a mass exodus of the Western population (during the times of the Ukrainian Socialist Soviet republic as a part of the USSR external migration was stopped) to work in Western Europe, particularly in France and Germany. In contrast to the emigration to America, more than 40% of Ukrainian guest workers returned home from Europe. According to the latest research the emigration from Western Ukraine in the interwar period came to almost 600 million people, of which about 200 thousand went to the US (more than 100 thousand to the US and Canada and about the same number to Argentina, Brazil, Uruguay and Paraguay). More than 25 thousand went to Palestine. The third wave of massive external migration of Ukrainians is called political.

After the Second World War in Central and Western Europe 2–3 million Ukrainians moved to mainly Germany, Austria, Italy. These were mostly people taken for forced labour, evacuated prisoners from Nazi concentration camps, prisoners of war, escapees from Ukraine and political emigrants of 1920’s. Most of them either voluntarily or under pressure returned back home. Among the 220 thousand Ukrainians who still remained, proving that in the USSR they would face political, national and religious persecution during the years of 1947–1957 went to other Western European countries: the Americas and Australia. As the result, the first three waves of Ukrainian immigration formed one of the largest diasporas in the world (over 12 million).

However, the most massive and the most common was the latest, the fourth wave of Ukrainian external migrations that began almost immediately after the collapse of the USSR and the declaration of the independence of Ukraine in 1991, which continues to this day. From 4 to 5 million of its citizens left Ukraine for two decades, mainly in search of work. The fourth wave of Ukrainian immigration simultaneously embraced more than 35 countries on four continents and acquired features characteristic of the modern multinational and global migration. Unlike previous periods, it is not conditioned by push and pull factors between countries of origin and destination, and preferably does not mean “a whole family moving from one country to another” or “separation” of the family from the country for some time. The fourth wave is “unauthorized” and, therefore, mostly illegal and relies on advanced networks that combine the country of origin immediately with many receiving countries and form a sequence of conditions and the choices among them. This migration is primarily a personal rather than a family, and within a short historical time, as well as at the level of one person it combines its several types moving from one to another. To a very small extent does it mean an integration into the host society, ethnic assimilation or formation of diaspora as it was before. A migrant lives mainly in his cross-border communicative space “in correlation” with the family, stakeholders at home, colleagues, employers and partners in host countries.

The era of recent migrations affected Ukraine in a specific way. Shortly time after the fall of the

“Iron Curtain” Ukraine became a country of immigration and transit of migrants from the East, mostly from the New Independent States to the EU. Contrary to the fourth wave of Ukrainian external migration, these recent ones are practically not studied. However, closer acquaintance with them on the basis of available sources reveals the typological similarity of this kind of the mobility to external migration of Ukrainians. We define both of them as “temporary” in the coordinates of the differences between the “temporary nature” and “consistency”, which was characteristic for the migrations of previous eras, and which are considered by the national legislation through the prism of countries of origin and host countries.

## **12.2 Types of Temporary Transnational Migration and Mobility**

### **12.2.1 Migration in terms of statistics**

#### *12.2.1.1 Methodological concerns*

The main task in studying migration flows and tendencies is to obtain reliable statistical data which would allow estimating quantitative and qualitative dimension of migration. The quantitative dimension covers (1) the scale of migration processes, i.e., the quantity of people involved; (2) temporality of migration; and (3) frequency of migration. Qualitative dimension of migration includes: (1) reasons for immigration/emigration; (2) reasons for chosen time frame of migration (permanent, long-term, short-term, one-time or circulating); and (3) the migrant’s social portrait (social, ethnic, national origin, level of education, profession, family status, etc.). The above-mentioned list is important for describing major migration tendencies and flows; nevertheless, it is not always easy to obtain such data. The sources of statistical data can be divided into two groups in accordance with the ways of data collection: (1) data received from official sources; and (2) results of sampling research.

State conducted registration data are received via current registration procedures performed by governmental institutions. Major services which collect relevant information and the types of data they collect include: census (information on incoming and outgoing migrants based on their relatives’ reports); reports on the quantity of the foreigners working in Ukraine (officially employed); reports on the quantity of the foreigners on the territory of Ukraine (officially registered); register of refugees; border crossing statistics; foreign students registration; state register of tax payers (foreigners registered as tax payers); registration of change of permanent residence address; sampling research on the matters of labour migration (2008, 2012); statistical report on agricultural development; registration of migrants with academic titles; consulate registers; statistics of payment balance (Poznyak, 2013). These sources can be sorted out into four larger groups: (1) Sources of the State Statistics Service of Ukraine (population census; current record of changes of place of residence; and records on persons with an academic degree); (2) Sources of various Ministries (the State Migration Service of Ukraine, the State Border Service of Ukraine, the State Employment Service of the Ministry of Social Policy of Ukraine, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Ukraine, and the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine); (3) Sources of the National Bank of Ukraine; and (4) Specific sample surveys (Bara, 2014: 37–38).

The latter does not belong to the volume of such qualification: sampling research differ from state statistics data by a number of characteristics described further. Both kinds of sources have their advantages and drawbacks. It should also be mentioned that the data from the National Bank of Ukraine is not included into the research of migration processes, as they relate to money transfers and remittances from Ukrainian migrants abroad. This is an important indicator for estimating the scale and consequences of migration for the donor country, but in case of concentration on temporality its significance is of a minor importance. For the present research, only two groups of statistical data should be taken into consideration for the reasons described below.

The second group of sources includes both the results of sampling research conducted by state statistics services and results of research conducted by individual researchers or scientific institutions. It is quite possible to unite them in one group despite differences in data collection and processing, as their key feature is the problem of representativeness. As state statistics presupposes full coverage approach (registering *all* individuals who migrate), its results are largely representative (in case the methodological limitations of state registration of migrants are taken into account). At the same time, research results often demonstrate *case-study* logic, and therefore have shortcomings of three types: (1) Spatial (only some of the regions are encompassed by the survey); (2) Temporal (sampling research are carried out with a time interval, and so their results are discrete, e.g., module sampling research of the households on the issues of labour migration were carried out in Ukraine in 2008 and 2012, hence, there is no information on the period in between; and (3) Representational (the individuals who took part in the surveys is selected group representing population in general).

The mentioned disadvantages may overlap in one sampling research, and therefore results of such research risk being interpreted wrongly. The advantage of such research is the possibility of studying those aspects of migration which are not covered by state statistics institutions or are registered with considerable methodological flaws. So, though lacking representativeness, sampling research adds up to qualitative description of migration processes and tendencies. Nevertheless, using both types of research data, we approximate exhaustive overview of migration processes in Ukraine, both immigration and emigration.

#### *12.2.1.2 Results of state registration of migrants and trans-border movements*

First of all, it is worth mentioning that the census data are the most representative for evaluating external migration, and also a permanent migration to Ukraine. Unfortunately, this source of information is not available for the year of 2014: the last census in Ukraine took place in 2001. Despite the fact that the next one was planned to take place in 2011 (in accordance with UN recommendations of the 10-year period between the censuses), it was postponed until 2016. Migrations after 2001 are not represented. Methodologically, the validity of the data of the 2001 census can not be perfect, as the questionnaire included only the following queries: (1) Type of residence (permanent residence, temporary residence or temporary absence); (2) Place of work (within the residence area or any other area); (3) Citizenship; and (4) Position: "Have you resided in this location continuously since birth?" (Bara, 2014: 37).

The absence of data from 2011 census is not critical, as it would not show a full picture of migration *from* Ukraine. In general reports of state statistics services migrant can be found in three rubrics: (1) Population of Ukraine (in terms of migration (physical movement) of population); (2) Tourism (citizens of Ukraine who went abroad and foreigners coming to Ukraine); and (3) Education and science (scientists and other employees of academic institutions who left Ukraine for permanent residence abroad).

The difference between these rubrics is not formal, but methodological: in the first case, state services only record the individuals who changed their registration address, i.e., permanent migrants.

The data on migration of the population are calculated on the basis of counterfoils of withdrawal of registration of permanent residence address, introduced by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Ukraine for ensuring full information in population registration databases and also for developing statistics on incoming migrants for all types of movements of residents. The counterfoils are documents of questionnaire type which are filled out at passport offices for all citizens who left one locality and moved to another for permanent or temporary residence for the period *not shorter than 6 months*. (See: [http://www.ukrstat.gov.ua/operativ/operativ2007/ds/nas\\_rik/nas\\_u/nas\\_met.html](http://www.ukrstat.gov.ua/operativ/operativ2007/ds/nas_rik/nas_u/nas_met.html)).

In case of the second paragraph, it comes to the data of State Border Guards Service which fixes in-

stances of crossing the border by each person (see: [http://www.ukrstat.gov.ua/operativ/operativ2007/tyr/tyr\\_u/tyr\\_met.html](http://www.ukrstat.gov.ua/operativ/operativ2007/tyr/tyr_u/tyr_met.html)), i.e., if one person crosses the border thrice, there will be three instances of crossing the border in the report (as three crossings of the border). Under such conditions, circular migrants distort the data, i.e., circular migrants who cross the border several times a month (with high frequency) will show a large number of instances of border crossing. The same number will be achieved if a large quantity of permanent migrants crosses the border only once. Still, such methodological drawback can be overcome if achieved data are compared with the data on permanent migrants. There is another problem appears here: not all people change their registration address which is, in fact, slightly altered by Soviet Institute of Residence Permit. Consequently, we might pay attention to the opinion of Soviet demographers on the Residence Permit (Boyarski, 1967: 105–111) who mentioned inefficacy of following-up migration flows using the changes of residence permit: people refuse spending their time and effort on the document which does not offer any future benefits. Since in the Soviet Union the residence permit influenced chances of employment and finding new place of residence, such remark by Soviet demographers is a substantial one. The institute of residence address registration has no function in the independent Ukraine, except forming voters' lists for the governmental and presidential elections, thus, it will have even less validity for migration research than it could have in the Soviet Union.

The State Statistics Service distinguishes between the terms *tourist* and *excursion participant*, therefore, its data should be considered with caution. 'Tourists' are persons who travel in places beyond their permanent residence *not longer than one year* for the purpose of recreation and entertainment, sports, receiving medical treatment and for health improvement, visiting relatives and friends, for *business purposes*, etc.

Excursion participants are people who acquire services of travelling in Ukraine, which does not exceed *24 hours*, accompanied by a professional tour guide and following routes offered in advance for acquaintance with historical and cultural sites, natural sites, museums, famous places, etc. (see: [http://www.ukrstat.gov.ua/operativ/operativ2007/tyr/tyr\\_u/tyr\\_met.html](http://www.ukrstat.gov.ua/operativ/operativ2007/tyr/tyr_u/tyr_met.html)).

From the definition above it becomes clear that people who visit the country even with a business purpose but stay for less than a year are described as tourists. The category of tourists in official statistics unites different groups of mobilities – from life-style migration to labour migration. This drawback is compensated by the fact that more detailed fixation of the reason for entering the country allows defining several categories of migrants. These categories sound somewhat vague and are defined insufficiently, and will be discussed further.

In case of the scholars, the situation is different. Firstly, permanent emigration is registered, but also are study and research trips, though the latter are officially registered by the employees as business trips. Secondly, migration is registered only for those scholars who were employed by scientific, educational or research institutions of Ukraine, that is, if a scientist resigns and then migrates, state statistics classify him or her as person who resigned from their position. Speaking of *temporality* in state statistical reports on migration, we can outline two modes: (1) permanent; and (2) temporary, which is classified as tourism by state statistics (up to 12 months).

Circular migration is permanent trans-border movements in the border regions. It is not taken into account by such classification at all, and neither are such characteristics of temporary migration as: (1) How many times on average a migrant crosses the border (only the number of instances of crossing the border is registered); and (2) How much time a temporary migrant spends abroad (not registered). The only exception is migration of researchers and academics, when governmental statistics is more sensitive (see further). To summarize, we can say that temporality dimension of migration seems irrelevant for governmental statistics institutions; moreover, even the types and reasons for migration do not attract attention of governmental institutions. For this reason, only assumptions on migration types in Ukraine can be made.

### 12.1.1.3 Results of sampling and personal research

Sampling and personal researches belong to the category of expert research. This, however, does not make them less credible. In general, they are coherent to the data from other sources, and therefore should also be included into the analysis. Sampling research is focused on studying migration from Ukraine. Currently, only *one* research dealt with migrants in Ukraine: International Organization for Migration (IOM) has conducted a study on migration in Ukraine in 2011 (Migration, 2013: 9). 400 migrants from all regions of Ukraine, including irregular migrants, were interviewed.

Most of the surveys concentrate on the migration from Ukraine. According to methodology of research they can be divided into two groups: (1) Surveys in which individuals are sampling unit; and (2) Surveys in which households are sampling unit. The distinction between them is quite relative, but important for estimation of the scale of migration. The study of the first one pays special attention to motivations for migration and ideas about migration temporality, i.e., to the sense and meaning of migration to respondents. The second one allows receiving information regarding absent members of the households. The latter is important, as the first researched group does not include current migrants.

## 12.3 Migration tendencies and flows

### 12.3.1 Migration to Ukraine

As Table 12.1 shows, until 2005 the number of people arriving in Ukraine for permanent residence was smaller than those leaving the country. We can say that it is relevant for people who *legally* arrived in Ukraine or left the country for permanent residence. Oleksiy Poznyak (a member of the National Advisory Board) mentions that the problem is that a part of migrants coming to Ukraine do not register because of the complex procedure of registration (it was simplified in 2012). Therefore, the mentioned balance of migration is a very provisional index.

Another interesting feature is that reasons for migration/moving into Ukraine change: after 2011, less and less people have visited Ukraine as tourists (by 2,5 times less in 2013 than in 2011). Also, the number of people coming to Ukraine for business trip or diplomatic purposes became smaller. Instead, the quantity of people coming for cultural exchange, sports or religious purposes has considerably increased. Of course, this can be explained by the changes in registration procedure easing the explanation of the reasons for crossing the border, but then the “private purpose” reason would dominate. According to the member of the National Advisory Board Olena Malynovska, the registration of the purpose of visit is made on the basis of documents he or she has, and if a migrant does not have such documents, the reason of “private purpose” would be enough. Therefore, either there is a change in adjudging the purpose of travel on the part of border guards, or there is an increase in the number of people using falsified evidence for their travel purpose<sup>1</sup>.

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<sup>1</sup> Changes in the quantity of tourism visits cannot be explained by the classification carried out by the border guards: the ratio of foreigners who came to Ukraine for tourism and the number of foreign tourists who used the services of travel companies is stable since 2006, therefore, we can claim there is a decrease of the quantity of tourists coming to Ukraine.

**Table 12.1** The scale of migration processes in Ukraine, 2002-2013 (Source: [http://www.ukrstat.gov.ua/operativ/operativ2014/ds/mr/mr\\_u/mr0114\\_u.html](http://www.ukrstat.gov.ua/operativ/operativ2014/ds/mr/mr_u/mr0114_u.html))

	Domestic migration		External migration			
			Arrived		Left	
	Thousands of persons	Per 1 thousand of population	Thousands of persons	Per 1 thousand of population	Thousands of persons	Per 1 thousand of population
2002	717,5	14,9	42,5	0,9	76,3	1,6
2003	722,5	15,1	39,5	0,8	63,7	1,3
2004	750,8	15,8	38,6	0,8	46,2	1,0
2005	723,6	15,4	39,6	0,8	35,0	0,7
2006	721,7	15,4	44,2	1,0	30,0	0,7
2007	711,9	15,3	46,5	1,0	29,7	0,7
2008	673,5	14,6	37,3	0,8	22,4	0,5
2009	609,9	13,3	32,9	0,7	19,5	0,4
2010	652,6	14,2	30,8	0,7	14,7	0,3
2011	637,7	14,0	31,7	0,7	14,6	0,3
2012	649,9	14,3	76,4	1,7	14,5	0,3
2013	621,8	13,7	54,1	1,2	22,2	0,5

Note: only the number of those who changed registration address is given

**Table 12.2** Foreigners arriving in Ukraine (according to the purpose of visit), in 2006–2013 (thousands of persons) (Source: [http://www.ukrstat.gov.ua/operativ/operativ2007/tyr/tyr\\_u/arh\\_vig.html](http://www.ukrstat.gov.ua/operativ/operativ2007/tyr/tyr_u/arh_vig.html))

	Total number of arrivals	Purpose of visit						
		Business, diplomacy	Tourism	Private travel	Education	Employment	immigration (permanent residence)	Cultural exchange and sports, religion, etc.
2006	18 935,8	1 011,2	1 210,2	16 552,2	45,3	4,6	15,8	96,6
2007	23 122,2	909,0	1 445,0	20 563,0	49,5	7,8	24,0	123,9
2008	25 449,1	1 048,4	1 693,3	22 291,0	65,2	12,0	27,8	311,3
2009	20 798,3	741,9	1 350,2	18 348,1	103,5	31,8	8,6	214,1
2010	21 203,3	694,6	1 083,0	19 089,1	67,5	14,8	48,3	206,1
2011	21 415,3	645,0	1 226,0	19 180,2	59,2	16,1	64,8	224,1
2012	23 012,8	350,2	940,1	16 795,2	23,8	9,1	40,4	4 854,0
2013	24 671,2	167,4	488,5	18 167,7	0,3	0,3	5,1	5 841,9

**Table 12.3** Foreigners arriving in Ukraine for tourism in 2000–2012 (thousands of persons) (Source: [http://www.ukrstat.gov.ua/operativ/operativ2007/tyr/tyr\\_u/potoki2006\\_u.htm](http://www.ukrstat.gov.ua/operativ/operativ2007/tyr/tyr_u/potoki2006_u.htm))

	Foreigners who visited Ukraine (thousands of persons)	Foreigners who visited Ukraine for tourism	Foreign tourists who used services of tourism companies in Ukraine
2000	6 430,9	–	377,9
2001	9 174,2	–	416,2
2002	10 516,7	–	417,7
2003	12 513,9	–	590,6
2004	15 629,2	–	436,3
2005	17 630,8	–	326,4
2006	18 935,8	1 210,2	299,1
2007	23 122,2	1 445,0	372,5
2008	25 449,1	1 693,3	372,8
2009	20 798,3	1 350,2	282,3
2010	21 203,3	1 083,0	335,8
2011	21 415,3	1 226,0	234,3
2012	23 012,8	940,1	270,0

The scale of permanent migration can be seen in table 12.4. Scale of circular migration can be obtained by comparing the data of the State Statistics Service and the State Border Guard Service<sup>2</sup>.

<sup>2</sup> Due to the large volume of data, we will offer such analysis for statistical data for the year of 2012. Basing on the data of the State Statistics Service (Tymoshenko, 2013: 441) we can estimate the number of Ukrainian citizens who returned for permanent residence to Ukraine, and the quantity of citizens of other states who moved to Ukraine. Unfortunately, only the data for the European countries, the USA and Canada are provided.

**Table 12.4** Foreign migrants according to citizenship and countries of arrival/departure in 2012 (Source: (Tymoshenko, 2013: 441))

	Persons in total		Citizens of Ukraine	
	Quantity of travellers arriving	Quantity of travellers departing	Quantity of travellers arriving	Quantity of travellers departing
<b>Total</b>	<b>76361</b>	<b>14517</b>	<b>11188</b>	<b>10561</b>
By country				
<b>Countries of Europe</b>	<b>36833</b>	<b>9766</b>	<b>7454</b>	<b>8307</b>
Austria	83	143	15	127
Belarus	1814	548	390	440
Estonia	66	23	15	14
Spain	248	379	173	374
Italy	392	208	141	168
Latvia	216	40	42	18
Lithuania	168	53	25	35
Moldova	3970	315	1702	251
Germany	659	1616	264	1536
Poland	1378	241	65	146
Russia	16001	4920	4310	4199
Hungary	93	276	34	269
Czech Republic	128	431	60	413
<b>Countries of America</b>	<b>2232</b>	<b>890</b>	<b>570</b>	<b>676</b>
Canada	206	92	59	71
USA	1666	754	491	599
<b>Countries of Asia</b>	<b>39309</b>	<b>3568</b>	<b>3118</b>	<b>1555</b>
<b>Countries of Asia</b>	<b>39309</b>	<b>3568</b>	<b>3118</b>	<b>1555</b>
Azerbaijan	3441	113	169	15
Armenia	1149	19	168	6
Georgia	1728	64	171	9
Israel	1311	1326	737	1279
Kazakhstan	813	232	228	185
Kirgizstan	204	4	31	2
Tajikistan	475	5	19	1
Turkey	2290	328	54	12
Turkmenistan	8003	175	67	5
Uzbekistan	2741	95	1165	15
<b>Countries of Africa</b>	<b>7949</b>	<b>268</b>	<b>43</b>	<b>9</b>
<b>Countries of Australia and Oceania</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>14</b>

The number of the short-term migrants can be calculated by extracting the number of permanent and long-term migrants out of their general quantity<sup>3</sup>. However, it should borne in mind that here we deal with the quantity of instances of crossing the border, not with people. The number of instances of crossing the border can be divided into two groups: (1) “One-time” crossing (purpose: tourism, business trip, diplomatic purpose); and Manifold crossing (purpose: private, cultural exchange, sports, religion). A cluster analysis of the data collected by the State Border Guard Service was performed to distinguish the groups of countries characterized by the certain groups of migrants<sup>4</sup>. Such clusters were received:

- By quantity of both types of migration (see Table K.1):
  - a. Russia;
  - b. Belarus, Moldova;
  - c. Other countries.
- By quantity of repetitive crossings the state border (see Table K.2):
  - d. Russia;
  - e. Belarus, Moldova;
  - f. Other countries.
- By quantity of “one-time” crossings the state border (see Table K.3):
  - g. Russia;
  - h. Belarus;
  - i. Poland;
  - j. Other countries.

There is a different picture in the case of single crossings: migrants from Moldova belong to “other countries” category, instead, Poland appears in the list. As regards to the latter, we assume it pertains to tourism. There can also be other reasons: business contacts which do not need cross-border travel often (therefore, the name “one-time” migration cannot be justified in this case). The received structure is quite stable: the same situation is also observed in 2013.

State statistics data also indicate the age and sex of the migrants to Ukraine, as well as where they intend to go (urban or rural areas), though such data is only available for persons officially registered in Ukraine.

**Table 12.5** Demographic characteristics of migrants to Ukraine, 2010-2012 (Source: Tymoshenko, 2011: 421-423; 2012: 423-425; 2013: 426-428)

		2010	2011	2012
<b>Average age of the migrants</b>	Men	38,04	38,7	28,79
	Women	40,23	40,81	34,5
<b>Percentage of migrants moving to cities</b>	Men (%)	53,23	53,67	67,02
	Women (%)	46,77	46,33	32,98
	In total (%)	75,21	75,39	88,98
<b>Percentage of migrants moving to villages</b>	Men (%)	51,09	52,38	54,49
	Women (%)	48,91	47,62	45,51
	In total (%)	24,79	24,61	11,02
	Men (%)	52,7	53,35	65,64
	Women (%)	47,3	46,65	34,36

<sup>3</sup> Still, we can estimate the number of instances of crossing the border by citizens of other states on the basis of the data in Table 1.2.4 and 1.2.2. First, we should calculate the quantity of permanent residents. The quantity of permanent and long-term migrants was estimated by the State Border Guard Service according to the formula: k (permanent and long-term migrants) = k (students) + k (employment) + k (immigration). Statistically, the result does not differ much from the State Statistics Service data (the discrepancy comes to 13 782 persons): according to the State Statistics Service, there are 38 648 permanent and long-term migrants, and according to the State Border Guard Service they are 52 430. Thus, the results are valid and reliable. So, let us use the data of the State Border Guard Service (see: [http://www.ukrstat.gov.ua/operativ/operativ2013/tyr/tyr\\_u/vig2012\\_u.htm](http://www.ukrstat.gov.ua/operativ/operativ2013/tyr/tyr_u/vig2012_u.htm)).

<sup>4</sup> Hierarchical cluster analysis is used. Measure of the distance: squared Euclidean distance, measure of the distance: between-groups linkage.

It becomes evident that migrants usually head to the cities, while the gender ratio is equal. In regards of the age, there are more young men aged up to 30<sup>5</sup>, therefore, this is a labour migration to Ukraine. The data of 2012 differ, as the preparation for Euro-2012 football championship took place, and therefore the number of male labour migrants who came to work at construction projects increased. With the help of cluster analysis, the following regions can be distinguished to outline regional differences.<sup>6</sup>

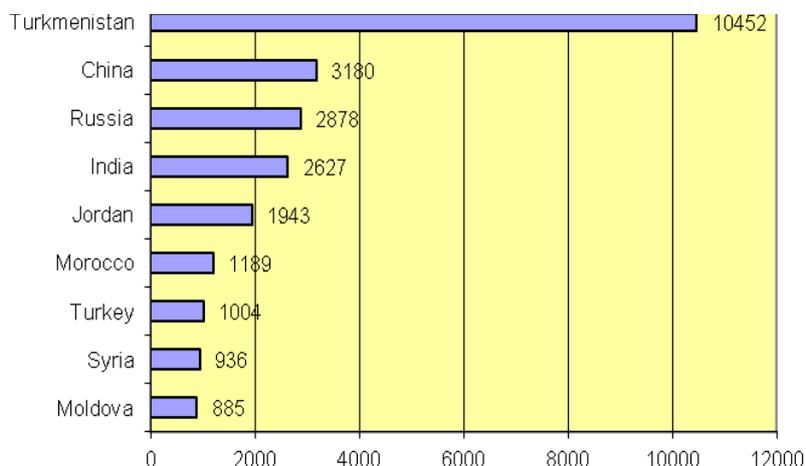
**Table 12.6** Groups of regions by number of foreign migrants officially registered as permanent residents, 2002-2013<sup>7</sup>

Clusters	2002	2009	2013
1.	Donetsk region	Donetsk region	Kharkiv region, city of Kyiv
2.	Crimea	Kharkiv region	Dnipropetrovsk, Donetsk, Luhansk region
3.	Odesa region, city of Kyiv	Odesa region, Crimea, city of Kyiv	Crimea, Odesa region
4.	Dnipropetrovsk, Luhansk, Kharkiv, Zaporizhya regions	Vinnytsya, Luhansk, Dnipropetrovsk, Zaporizhya region	Other regions
5.	Other regions	Other regions	

Note: Clusters are organized by the decrease of quantity of foreign migrants.

The results show regional similarities of migration patterns: these are border and/or industrial regions. This feature is quite stable: economic fluctuations do not influence it much. We should also take into account the fact that many foreign students also migrate to Ukraine, which can influence regional differences, as students mostly migrate to Kharkiv and Odesa (as the member of the National Advisory Board O. Malynovska mentions).

In particular, according to the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine, in 2012/2013 49,400 foreign students arrived in Ukraine, most of them from Turkmenistan (see Figure 12.1).



**Figure 12.1** Foreign students according to citizenship, 2012/2013 academic year (thousands of persons) (Source: Malynovska, 2014)

Such data influence considerably the information of the countries of origin of the migrants. According to the State Statistics Service data, such structure is as follows (see. Figure 12.1):

- Turkmenistan;
- Russia;
- Azerbaijan;
- Other countries.

<sup>5</sup> Despite the fact that the average age for migrants of both sexes is very similar, the age heaping is more sloping, i.e., age groups are more evenly represented, than in men's groups, for whom the largest is the age group under 30.

<sup>6</sup> Hierarchical cluster analysis, measure of the distance – squared Euclidean distance, similarity measures – between-groups linkage.

<sup>7</sup> Year 2009 was selected for the analysis to demonstrate regional features of migration in the period of economic recession. (Cf.

Table. 1.2.2: in 2009, the number of foreigners who came to Ukraine searching for employment opportunities increases).

As we see, the first position coincides with the information from the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine; therefore, we can say that students form a large part of the registered foreign migrants in Ukraine, so the data show rather the state of student migration, not all features.

International Organization for Migration (IOM) also conducted a research on migration in Ukraine in 2011 (Migration, 2013: 9). According to it, 51 per cent of migrants in Ukraine have a university education, 81 per cent reside permanently in Ukraine, 10 per cent are students or temporary labour migrants, 9 per cent have an unregulated status or seek for refuge, 80 per cent can speak Ukrainian or Russian fluently, 66 per cent of migrants' children go to Ukrainian schools, 91 per cent have good friends among the locals.

### 12.3.2 Migration from Ukraine

Migration from Ukraine receives more attention from researchers, but is almost not registered by state statistics. As in case of migration to Ukraine, data of the change of registration and data from the State Border Guard Service appear to be the major sources of information, though the latter offers less differentiated picture. The reasons for leaving the territory of Ukraine are divided into three categories (while the incoming immigration was included seven categories):

- business trip;
- organized tourism;
- private journey.

Naturally, as the categories are so limited, the main reason stated in all reports is “private journey” (see Table 12.7).

**Table 12.7** Departures of citizens of Ukraine to other countries, 2002-2013 (thousands of persons) Source: [http://www.ukrstat.gov.ua/operativ/operativ2012/tyr/tyr\\_u/arh\\_vigw.html](http://www.ukrstat.gov.ua/operativ/operativ2012/tyr/tyr_u/arh_vigw.html)

	Number of crossings of the state border by the citizens of Ukraine	Purpose of travel		
		Business trip	Tourism (organized by travel companies)	Private travel
2006	16 875,3	800,5	1 453,7	14 621,1
2007	17 334,7	771,0	1 898,2	14 665,5
2008	15 498,6	924,0	1 792,3	12 782,3
2009	15 333,9	837,1	1 422,9	13 073,9
2010	17 180,0	866,0	1 275,4	15 038,6
2011	19 773,1	897,1	1 590,2	17 285,8
2012	21 432,8	362,6	641,8	20 428,4
2013	23 761,3	275,2	354,8	23 131,3

Also, the State Border Guard Service reports the destination country, but as O. Malynovska mentioned, the control here is far from sufficient: it is not the destination country which is reported, but the one which is stated in travel documents (if migration is transit, the country of transit will be stated as destination country). In this case, we can disregard this drawback: most of the trips are circular migration, and it rarely is transit. Having analysed the data of 2013, we received the following groups of countries<sup>8</sup>:

- Poland (business trips);
- Russia (private journeys);
- Belarus (business trips);
- Turkey, Egypt (mostly tourism);
- Other countries.

<sup>8</sup> Hierarchical cluster analysis, measure of the distance – squared Euclidean distance, similarity measure – between-groups linkage, standardization of each index (the reason of travel) is performed according to the formula:  $z_i = \frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{s_x}$  in order to avoid distortion caused by multiple border crossing instances.

In all countries, private journeys form the majority, but there are some special features: more people go to Belarus and Poland for business rather than to other countries, private journeys usually take place Russia, tourists head to Turkey and Egypt. The largest number is private journeys. Neighbouring countries as destination countries for circular migration dominate. In addition to the data of the State Border Guard Service, the State Statistics Service data on the migrants who changed their registration address can also be used.

**Table 12.8** Demographic characteristics of migrants from Ukraine, 2010–2012 (Source: (Tymoshenko, 2011: 421-423; 2012: 423-425; 2013: 426–428)

		2010	2011	2012
Average age of the migrants	Men	34,56	34,29	35,46
	Women	39,43	40,54	41,03
Percentage of migrants moving to cities	Men (%)	42,3	46,29	50,42
	Women (%)	57,7	53,71	49,58
	In total (%)	81,34	83,59	85,07
Percentage of migrants moving to villages	Men (%)	44,72	46,7	49,69
	Women (%)	55,28	53,3	50,31
	In total (%)	18,66	16,41	14,24
	Men (%)	42,75	46,35	49,97
	Women (%)	57,25	53,65	50,03

As seen in table 12.8, city residents migrate more often than village residents. The number of males is smaller than females, and men migrants are younger than women. In both cases, we deal with the migration of working-age people; therefore, we can assume that they are labour migrants.

Another part of statistical data is migration of researchers and academics. The State Statistics Service records both permanent and temporary migrations; however, the first is quite insignificant (see Figure 12.1). The results are shown in Table 12.9.

**Table 12.9** Number of researchers and academics who left Ukraine, 2006-2011 ( Source: Kalachova, 2008: 74; 2010: 46; 2011: 60; 2012: 58)

	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Researchers	27	9	12	12	21	18
Doctors of science	1	0	1	0	3	3
Doctors of science (candidates)	8	4	4	3	4	2
technicians	6	1	1	1	0	2
Other staff	0	3	0	0	0	0
Other	0	1	0	1	0	0

**Table 12.10** Classification of scientists of the National Academy of Science of Ukraine who travelled abroad by purpose of visit, 2006-2012 (Source: Kalachova, 2008: 179; 2010: 157; 2011: 166; 2012: 158; 2013: 148)

	Number of scientists who went abroad	Purpose		
		internship, studies, qualification courses	teaching	Scientific research
2006	8922	2793	419	5710
2007	10983	3914	570	6499
2008	11288	3797	891	6600
2009	10442	3990	538	5914
2010	9898	3933	574	5391
2011	10264	3787	489	5988
2012	2702	519	94	2089

Note: Refers to the employees of the National Academy of Science of Ukraine.

**Table 12.11** Classification of scientists who travelled abroad by duration of visit, 2006–2012 (Source: Kalachova, 2008: 185; 2010: 162; 2011: 172; 2012: 162; 2013: 149)

	Up to 3 months	3 months – 1 year	1–2 year	More than 2 years
2006	7982	692	127	121
2007	9855	879	160	89
2008	10216	858	127	87
2009	9467	767	111	97
2010	8906	819	96	77
2011	9354	786	49	75
2012	2462	187	19	34

Note: Refers to the employees of the National Academy of Science of Ukraine.

The State Statistics Service also records the age of the candidates and doctors of science who migrated abroad and also their destination countries. The traditional ones are Germany, Russia and the USA. Most migrants are men. These results are supported by the data of the World Bank, according to which 3.5 per cent of all scientists (*tertiary-educated*) emigrated from Ukraine, an also 0.9 per cent of all medical doctors of Ukraine (1,350 persons) (Migration, 2011: 249).

### 12.3.3 Results of sampling research

Unfortunately, sampling research is first and foremost concentrated on studying labour migrants with Ukrainian citizenship (Migration Policy, 2008), (Migration, 2005a), (Migration, 2005b), (Kotusenko, 2007), (Markov, 2009), (Migration, 2009), (Emigration, 2010), (Report, 2013), (Migration, 2013), (Coupé and Vakhitova, 2013). Other kinds of migration including transit migration are not researched. Systematic research of Ukrainian labour migration has been carried out since 2005. In particular, the following characteristics of labour migrations were researched in 2005. First of all, geographical dimension of migration was given (see Table 12.12).

**Table 12.12** Number of Ukrainian labour migrants, 2005 (thousands of persons) (Source: Kotusenko, 2007: 9; Migration, 2005a: 10–11)

Country	Number of labour migrants with official registration	Number of illegal labour migrants (expert evaluation)
Russia	94	1 000
Poland	3,5	250–300
Italy	200	200
Czech Republic	54,8	120–150
Spain	2,8	50–100
Portugal	70	150
USA	1,6	20–40
Israel	0,3	20
Greece	1,3	3
Turkey	0,08	5–35

The major reasons for migration were the necessity to earn for living (51.3%), earn money for studies (for the migrant or for his/her children) (22, 3%), purchase of housing (20%) (Migration, 2005b: 30). The survey demonstrated that official statistics is ineffective in terms of registration of labour migrants: it is completely unable to record the reasons and purpose of foreign travel. Most migrants (52, 3%) cross the border with tourist visa, i.e., they do not declare their intentions to work. Therefore, governmental statistics institutions record false reasons for migration abroad. Most respondents admitted to providing false information when they go abroad (Migration, 2005b: 35–36). Most migrants are men (70%) who come from towns or villages, all of them are of working age (Migration, 2005a: 11).

In 2008 and 2012, two surveys of households regarding labour migration were carried out (with participation of the State Statistics Service and M. Ptukha Institute of Demography and Social Research), and their results add up to the official statistical data by allowing to estimate a real size of migration (while the state statistics have a range of limitations), and by giving a more differentiated view on temporariness of migration. According to the research, migrants are divided into several groups: (1) Migrants who returned to Ukraine; (2) Short-term labour migrants (living outside Ukraine no more than a year: planning to be in a foreign country not longer than a year); and (3) Employed migrants (living outside Ukraine no more than a year: planning to be in a foreign country not longer than a year) (Report, 2013: 13).

Two criteria are combined in this classification: real and planned period of living abroad. The survey also did not include circular migrants. Nonetheless, its results allow finding out social and demographic characteristics of a Ukrainian labour migrant. Also, the Monitoring of Social Changes provides interviews conducted annually by the Institute of Sociology of the National Academy of

Sciences of Ukraine. Those surveyed were asked a question “Do you or your family member have a temporary labour experience abroad?”, thus allowing to fix the number of work migrants from Ukraine.

**Table 12.13** Estimated number of labour migrants, 2002-2010 (Source: Coupé and Vakhitova, 2013: 28)

	2002	2004	2005	2006	2008	2010
Estimated number of labour migrants, millions*	1,8	2,0	2,1–2,6	2,7–3,3	2,4–3,2	2,3

\*The number of people with some migration experience. The calculation took place using data on the total number of households and the population aged 15–64.

The results coincided with the research carried out in 2008 by the State Statistics Service and M. Ptukha Institute of Demography and Social Research, while applying different methodologies: individuals were taken as sampling unit by the Monitoring Research of the Institute of Sociology, and households were studied by the Institute of Demography (see comments on methodological differences above).

**Table 12.14** Ukrainian labour migrants by duration of stay abroad since the last departure, 2005-2008 (age and place of residence) (Source: Migration, 2009: 85)

	Total	Women	Men	Urban settlements	Rural areas
Total quantity of labour migrants, thousands of persons	1476,1	484,8	991,3	803,2	672,9
By duration of stay, %					
Less than 1 month	5,8	6,5	5,4	6,1	5,5
From 1 to 3 months	38,3	32,1	41,3	37,1	39,3
From 3 to 6 months	18,7	11,6	22,0	15,4	21,5
From 6 to 12 months	22,6	27,9	20,2	25,8	20,0
Over 12 months	14,6	21,9	11,1	15,6	13,7

**Table 12.15** Quantity of Ukrainian labour migrants by category, age and place of residence before going abroad, 2010-2012 (Source: Report, 2013: 29)

	Total	Women	Men	Urban settlements	Rural areas
Total quantity of labour migrants, thousands of persons	1181,6	405,9	775,7	540,1	641,5
By category					
labour migrants, who returned to Ukraine	37,4	32,8	39,8	37,3	37,4
Short-term labour migrants	48,5	43,1	51,3	44,6	51,8
Employed emigrants	14,1	24,1	8,9	18,1	10,8
Segment of labour migrants in total population aged 15-70, %	3,4	2,2	4,8	2,2	6,3

**Table 12.16** Labour migrants by age, sex and place of residence before going abroad, 2005–2008 (Source: Migration, 2009: 29)

	Total	Women	Men	Urban settlements	Rural areas
Total quantity of labour migrants, thousands of persons	1476,1	484,8	991,3	803,2	672,9
By age, %					
15-24 years of age	15,3	12,0	16,8	13,9	16,8
25-29 years of age	14,2	12,3	15,1	13,0	15,6
30-34 years of age	15,7	16,6	15,2	16,2	15,1
35-39 years of age	14,6	14,2	14,9	15,3	13,9
40-49 years of age	29,3	30,2	28,9	29,8	28,7
50-59 years of age	10,9	14,7	9,1	11,8	9,9

**Table 12.17** Labour migrants by age, sex and place of residence before going abroad, 2010–2012 (Source: Report, 2013: 32)

	Total	Women	Men	Urban settlements	Rural areas
By age groups, %					
15-24 years of age	11,0	12,0	10,3	9,2	12,6
25-29 years of age	15,8	8,7	19,5	15,5	15,9
30-34 years of age	18,3	17,4	18,8	20,3	16,6
35-39 years of age	13,4	13,1	13,6	13,7	13,1
40-49 years of age	25,3	24,2	25,9	23,3	27,0
50-59 years of age	14,8	20,9	11,6	15,2	14,5
60-70 years of age	1,4	3,7	0,3	2,8	0,3

**Table 12.18** Labour migrants by country of residence, sex and place before going abroad, 2005–2008 (Source: Migration, 2009: 33)

	Total	Women	Men	Urban settlements	Rural areas
Total quantity of labour migrants, thousands of persons	1476,1	484,8	991,3	803,2	672,9
By countries of stay, %					
Russian Federation	48,1	30,0	57,0	49,0	47,0
Italy	13,4	25,1	7,7	13,3	13,7
Czech Republic	11,9	10,5	12,5	8,4	16,0
Poland	8,0	10,6	6,7	6,6	9,6
Hungary	3,2	2,7	3,4	2,8	3,6
Spain	2,7	3,8	2,2	3,5	1,8
Portugal	2,6	3,3	2,3	2,6	2,6
Other countries	10,1	14,0	8,2	13,8	5,7

**Table 12.19** Labour migrants by country of residence, sex and place of before going abroad, 2010–2012 (Source: Report, 2013: 37)

	Total	Women	Men	Urban settlements	Rural areas
Total quantity of labour migrants, thousands of persons	1181,6	405,9	775,7	540,1	641,5
By countries of stay, %					
Russian Federation	43,2	20,4	55,2	45,2	41,6
Poland	14,3	19,5	11,5	13,3	15,1
Italy	13,2	30,2	4,3	13,5	12,9
Czech Republic	12,9	9,4	14,8	7,0	17,9
Spain	4,5	5,6	3,8	6,7	2,5
Germany	2,4	2,5	2,3	4,4	0,6
Hungary	1,9	3,0	1,4	1,0	2,7
Portugal	1,8	2,0	1,8	2,5	1,2
Belarus	1,8	2,5	1,5	1,2	2,3
Other countries	4,0	4,9	3,4	5,2	3,2

Main regions providing source of labour migration are western regions of Ukraine. There is an interesting tendency: immigration aims at eastern regions, and emigration comes from western regions. These results differ from state statistics data: according to the surveys, older age categories are represented more than younger ones (though the state statistics data show the contrary), and data on the geography of migration differ completely too.

**Table 12.20** Migration-intensive regions (Source: Coupé and Vakhitova, 2013: 42)

Region	Number of migrants, in 1000s	Population, 2008, in 1000s	Per cent of migrants
Cherkaska	66.25	1 311.43	5.05
Chernihivska	22.53	1 130.52	1.99
Chernivetska	117.52	903.47	13.01
Crimea	41.36	1 968.21	2.10
Dnipropetrovska	22.07	3 388.41	0.65
Donetska	76.76	4 523.30	1.70
Ivano- Frankivska	95.01	1 381.44	6.88
Kharkivska	57.80	2 787.59	2.07
Khersonska	25.43	1 104.02	2.30
Khmelnitska	62.79	1 346.64	4.66
Kirovohradska	8.03	1 035.13	0.78
Kyiv	16.94	2 743.40	0.62
Kyivska	9.54	1 733.57	0.55
Luhanska	82.64	2 346.15	3.52
Lvivska	160.79	2 555.02	6.29
Mykolaiivska	33.42	1 200.09	2.78
Odeska	30.67	2 392.28	1.28
Poltavska	16.13	1 520.01	1.06
Rivnenska	37.09	1 151.11	3.22
Sumska	25.09	1 192.10	2.10
Ternopil'ska	71.15	1 096.29	6.49
Vinnitska	46.05	1 666.81	2.76
Volynska	64.24	1 035.82	6.20
Zakarpatska	238.84	1 242.01	19.23
Zaporizka	34.96	1 827.72	1.91
Zhytomyrska	10.31	1 301.17	0.79
Total	1 473.44	45 883.68	3.21

According to other surveys, in 2004–2009 the geography of Ukrainian labour migration remains stable (Markov, 2009) (see Table 12.21), but the numbers have increased considerably.

**Table 12.21** Number of Ukrainian labour migrants, 2004–2008 (thousands of persons) (Source: Markov, 2009)

Country	Number of labour migrants with official registration	Number of illegal labour migrants (expert evaluation)
Russia	169	2 000
Poland	16,5	450
Italy	195,4	600
Czech Republic	64	200
Spain	69,9	200
Portugal	37,9	75
Greece	20	60–80
Great Britain	10	70
Ireland	3,5	10

There is a range of other surveys that estimate the scale of labour migration, among them is the research conducted by O. Poznyak which includes an attempt to estimate the number of circular migrants in Ukraine: the author believes that their number is 279,500 people (in 2008) (Poznyak, 2012: 2). Taking into account the fact that in 2008 the number of long-term labour migrants was 1,476,100 persons, the segment of circular migrants looks quite small. The author presents the specific features of geographical destinations of circular migrants in the following chart (Figure 12.2).

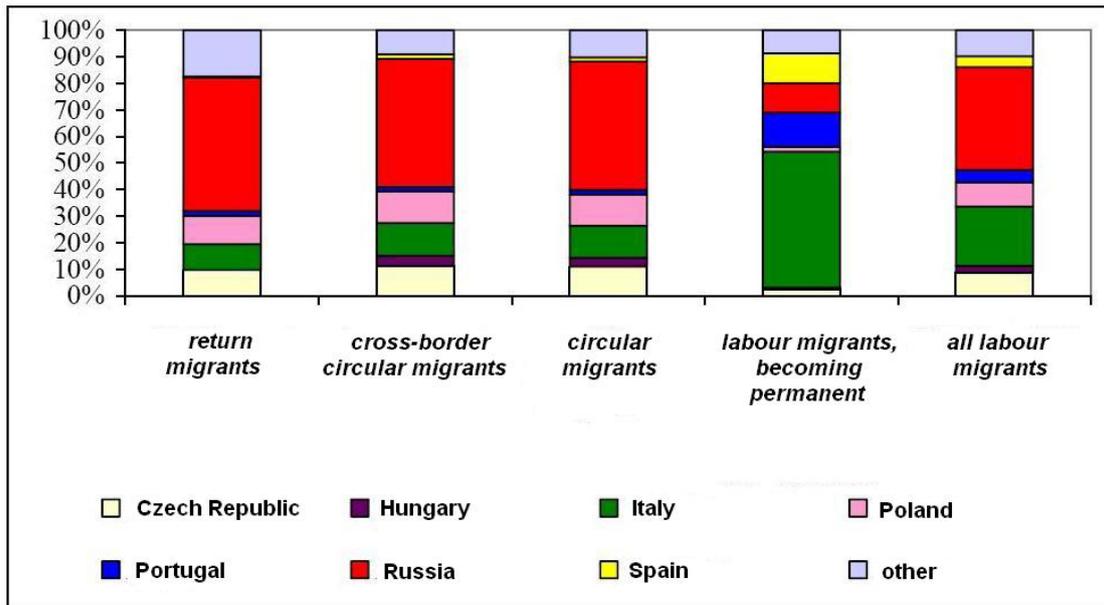
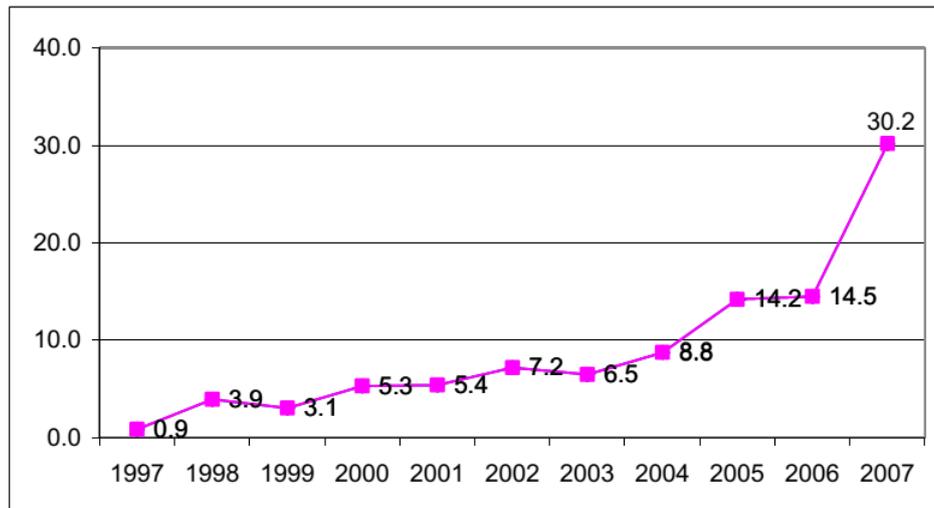


Figure 12.2 Specific features of geographical destinations of circular migrants (Source: Poznyak, 2012: 3)

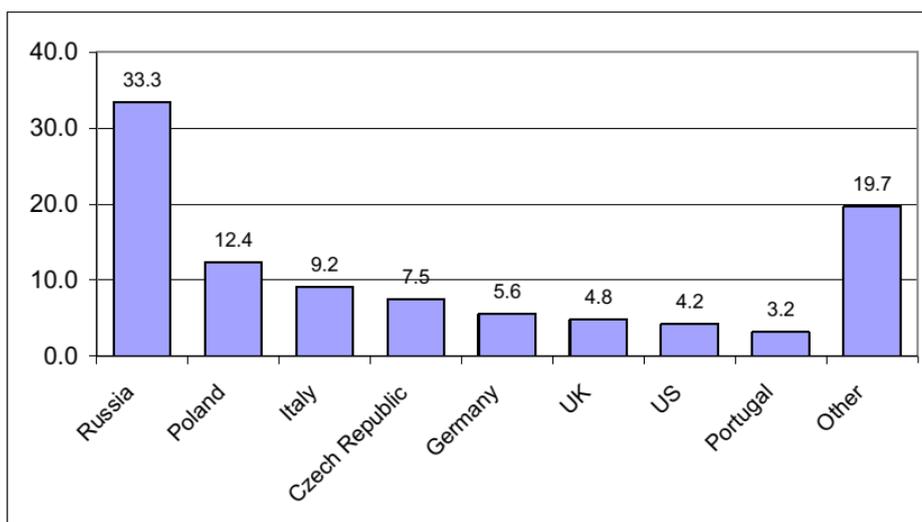
The research on circular migration was carried out in 2008 (1,014 migrants were interviewed) (Migration policy, 2008: 31–43), though only short-term migrants who returned to Ukraine were included in the sampling, mostly those who migrated in 2005–2007. Respectively, the average period of stay abroad was 2 years, but half of the respondents stayed abroad not longer than one year (Migration policy, 2008: 33).



*N* = 1,014 returning migrants

Figure 12.3 Returning migrants in the sample per year (%) (Source: Migration policy, 2008: 33)

The research shows that circular migration takes place mostly to Russia which corresponds to the above mentioned research results by O. Poznyak.



*N= 1,014 returning migrants*

**Figure 12.4** Main first destination countries (%) (Source: Migration policy, 2008: 34)

The research has also shown that only 30.2 per cent (less than one third of the migrants who took part in the survey) plan to migrate again (Migration policy, 2008: 42). These results show that the research encompassed a specific group of circular migrants and did not include pendulum migrants who cross the border for retail trade.

#### 12.3.4 Transit migration in Ukraine

Transit migration can be considered in two dimensions<sup>①</sup>) Ddirect: Ukraine is a transit country for migrants; and (2) Indirect: Ukraine is a recipient country for migrants from some countries, and a donor of migrants for other countries. There is no clear definition, however, concerning the enough number of migrants for a country to be considered the transit one. Accordingly, members of the NAB O. Malynovska and O. Poznyak claimed that Ukraine is not a transit country because of a very low number of transit migrants.

Still, the geographical position of Ukraine brings on an opinion to the contrary. The argumentation given by NAB members was an insignificant number of illegal migrants to Ukraine detained by the State Border Guard Service, or by officers of the Ministry of Internal Affairs at the territory of Ukraine (see Figure 2, Figure 4), which has not been larger than 20,000 persons annually since 2005. These conclusions can be supported by the fact that the number of illegal migrants who managed to get to the territory of the European Union is not larger than 1,000 persons annually (see Figure 6). Therefore, Malynovska comes to the conclusion that the movement of foreigners via the territory of Ukraine is insignificant.

These data can be refuted by results of another research. According to IOM, in 2012 there were 230,891 officially registered migrants in Ukraine (Migration, 2013: 9), while major countries of origin were Russia, Moldova, Uzbekistan, Belarus, Georgia, Armenia, Azerbaijan (Migration, 2013: 9); Malynovska comes up with the same data (see Figure 3, Figure 5) as well as the findings of the State Statistics Service. Another important index for migration is human trafficking. 120,000 of Ukrainian citizens became victims of human trafficking in the previous several years

Ukraine is not only a country of origin for trafficking, it also becomes destination country for people who suffer from domestic and international trafficking more and more often (Migration, 2013: 12). Similarly, according to the research conducted by the World Bank, Ukraine is a part of “Ukraine-Russia” and “Russia-Ukraine” migration corridor (Migration, 2011: 1, 3, 18). Nevertheless, the migration flows from Ukraine do not go mostly between these two countries. In particular,

Ukrainians also migrate to:

- Russia;
- Poland;
- USA;
- Kazakhstan;
- Israel;
- Germany;
- Moldova;
- Italy;
- Belarus;
- Spain (Migration, 2011: 249).

Residents of the following countries migrate to Ukraine (Migration, 2011: 249):

- Russia;
- Belarus;
- Kazakhstan;
- Uzbekistan;
- Moldova;
- Azerbaijan ;
- Georgia;
- Armenia;
- Tajikistan;
- Kirgizstan.

These results show that there is indirect migration via Ukraine: in case of immigration donor countries are countries located to the East from Ukraine, and in case of immigration the destination countries are the countries of the West (though, the countries of Commonwealth of the Independent States (CIS) are also included). According to governmental statistics, the same correlation is seen (see Table 12.22): A part of the emigrants from Ukraine are not Ukrainian citizens (from 8.44 per cent to 27.25 per cent), and this gives evidence of the existence of transit migrations. It is worth mentioning that the source of the problem is in methodology of registration of migration governmental statistics does not offer indications if non-Ukrainian citizens who migrate return to their home countries or go to other countries.

**Table 12.22** Number of citizens of Ukraine and other countries who left for Europe, 2010 –2012 (persons) (Source: Tymoshenko, 2011: 434; 2012: 436; 2013: 441)

	<b>Those who left the country</b>	
	total	Citizens of Ukraine
2010	14 677	13 439
2011	14 588	12 272
2012	14 517	10 561

According to the World Bank data, migration flows to and from Ukraine are large. In particular, 6,563,100 persons (14.4 per cent of population) emigrated, and 5,257,500 persons (11.6 per cent of population) immigrated. So, migration flows are quite intensive, and therefore, the opinion of the members of NAB is only one of possible versions of description and analysis of migration processes in Ukraine.

Even Ukrainian State Statistic Service registers some 22.3 millions of instances of crossing the border (into Ukraine) and 18.4 millions of instances of crossing the border (outside Ukraine) during the period o 2006–2012. The data confirm that Ukraine is a country of intensive external migration flows, especially the immigration and the transit migration.

In this regard, we should consider the demographic changes in Ukrainian society. According to IOM, from 1991 till 2012, the total population decreased by more than 7 million because of low birth rate and intense emigration. In 2012, the birth rate was 1.29 children per woman, and it is forecast that by 2050 the total population will decrease by 10 million more, and over 50 per cent of the population will be older than 45. Can this tendency become a pro argument in terms of immigration increase, and transit migration on its territory as a natural movement of population from East to West in the conditions of continuing demographic decline in the West? This supposition proved, a change in proportion between immigration and transit migration to the increase of immigration should be expected in the near future.

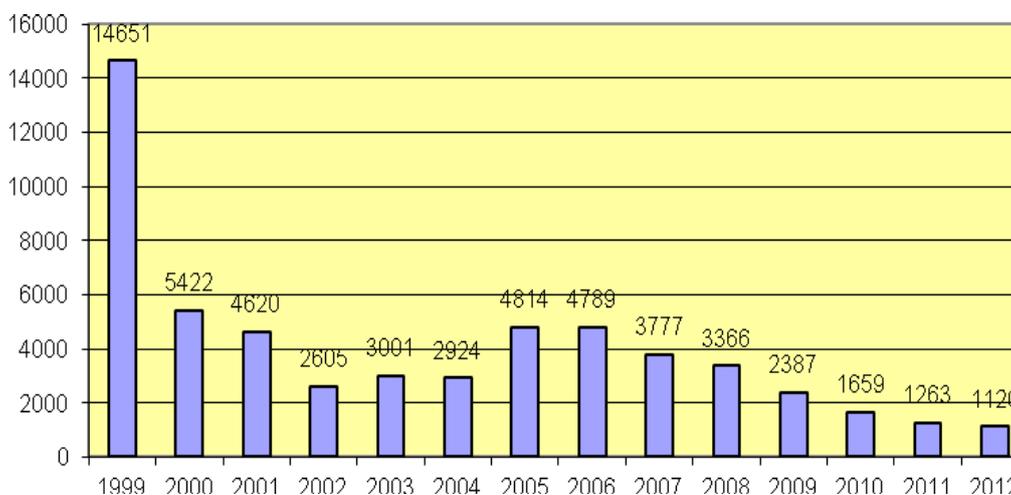


Figure 12.4 Illegal migrants caught at the border in 1999–2012 (persons) (Source: Malynovska, 2014)

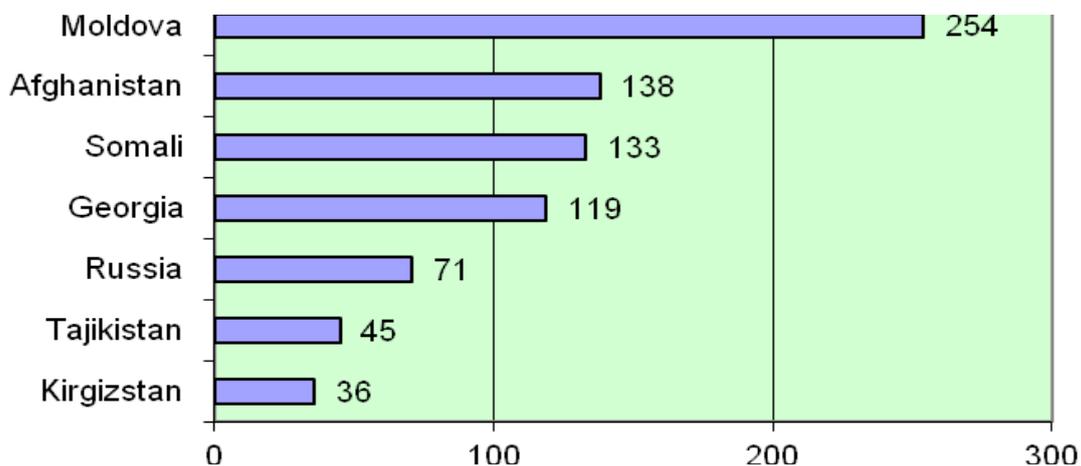


Figure 12.5 Citizenship of illegal migrants caught at the border in 2012 (persons) (Source: Malynovska, 2014)

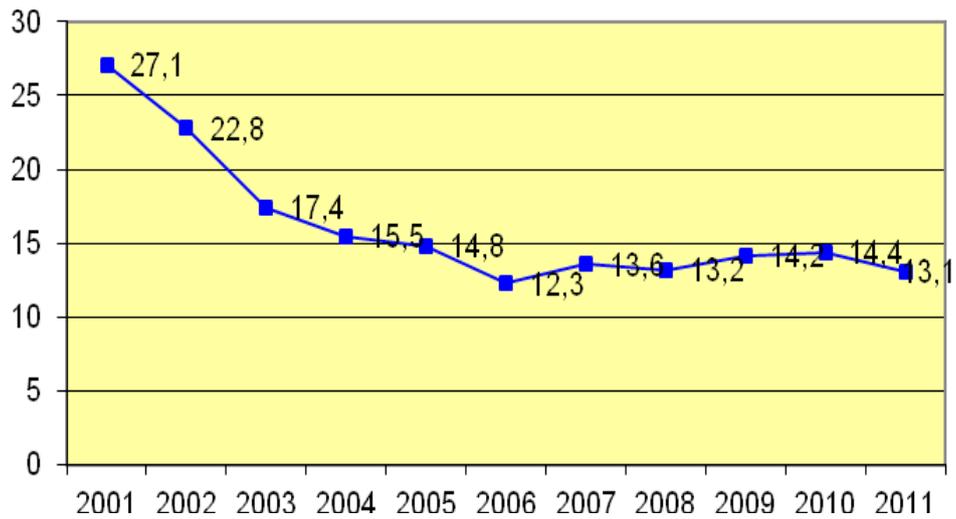


Figure 12.6 Illegal migrants found at the territory of Ukraine in 2001-2011 (thousands of persons) (Source: Malynovska, 2014)

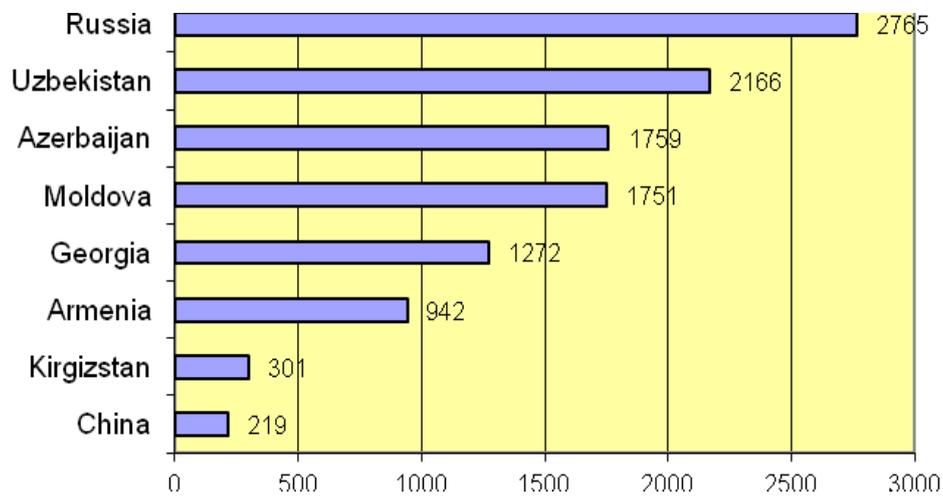


Figure 12.7 Illegal migrants found at the territory of Ukraine in 2012, by citizenship (persons) (Source: Malynovska, 2014)

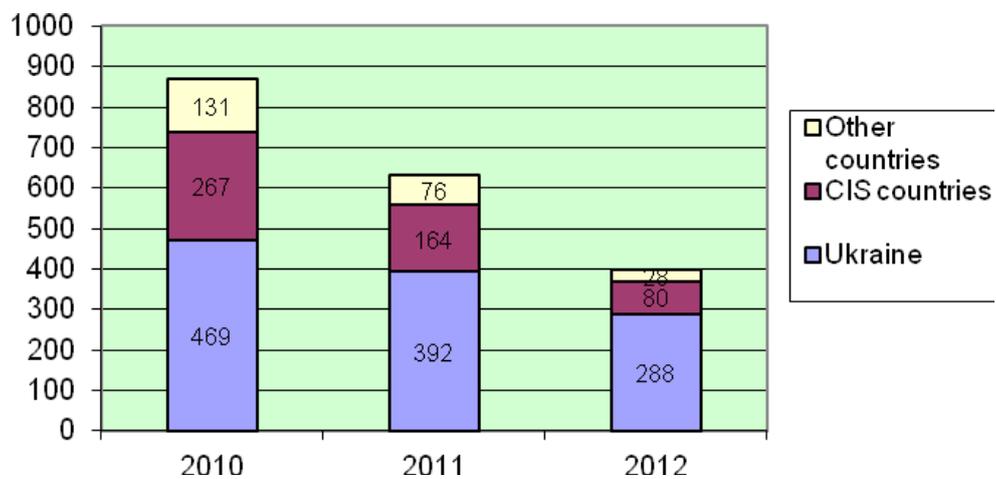


Figure 12.8 Illegal migrants sent to Ukraine according to the EU Agreement of Readmission in 2011-2012 (persons) (Source: Malynovska, 2014)

### 12.3.5 Patterns of temporary migration

State registrars' data appear to be very imprecise tool of estimation of migration. First, categories of permanent, long-term and short-term migrants are being confused; permanent ones are combined with the long-term migrants if they are registered as residing in Ukraine; unregistered long-term and permanent migrants are considered temporary migrants. Second, there is no strict registration of migration flows: where migrants arrive from, where they are heading: state services register separately those who arrive in Ukraine and those who leave. Third, there is no registration of migration types: formulations of reasons for arrival and departure are vague and often not properly fixed (which is proved by an increase in the number of a reason reading: "cultural, sports exchange or religious purpose"). Therefore, individual study becomes one of major sources of research in migration processes. On the basis of synthesis of information from both groups of resources the following conclusions have been drawn.

#### 12.3.5.1 Migration flows to Ukraine

The following classification of migration temporality can be made on the basis of state statistics: (1) long-term and permanent migrants (duration of stay longer than 6 months); (2) short-term migrants (duration of stay less than 6 months); and (3) short-term circular migrants. Unfortunately, there is no available research on short term circular migration.

A migration corridor "Russia–Ukraine" can be named (confirmed by the data of governmental statistics and the World Bank). This corridor means movement of people from CIS countries and also Central Asia and the Far East. Migrations usually take place in the South and East of Ukraine (industrial regions and border regions). According to the State Statistics Service, the information on migrants is "contaminated" with a large number of students who distort the data, but the data from other sources show the pattern is quite stable.

Predominantly, they are people of working age. Over  $\frac{3}{4}$  of migrants arrive in cities. According to the temporality of migration, the classification of migrants can look as follows:

- migration for business and diplomatic purposes;
- tourism;
- migration for private purposes;
- study migration;
- migration with purposes of employment;
- immigration;
- migration for cultural, sports or religious purpose.

Still, the data received in sampling studies show that officially declared reasons for in-coming and outgoing migrations are often not true, and migrants often give false information about themselves. Therefore, the data of the governmental statistics must be used with caution, and further research is needed.

#### 12.3.5.2 Migration from Ukraine

State statistics registers only the citizens of Ukraine who travel abroad, while foreigners can get registered only if they have permanent residence in Ukraine and now are leaving, yet, the destination of their travel is not fixed. According to the State Statistics Service, the classification of the migrants can be as follows: (1) business trip; (") "organized tourism"; and (3) travel for private purposes. The major problem with finding out the reasons of migration has been already mentioned: the migrants

often provide false information about themselves. Still, the data of sampling research allows receiving more reliable information.

Three corridors can be seen: (1) “Ukraine–Russia” (according to the data of state statistics, the World Bank, and individual research); (2) “Ukraine–Poland” (not mentioned by the World Bank, based only on the data of state statistics, and individual research); and (3) “Ukraine –EU” (outlined in individual research only).

According to the temporality of migration, the following groups of migrants can be named:

- long-term and permanent migrants (duration of stay longer than 6 months);
- short-term migrants (duration of stay less than 6 months);
- short-term circular migrants;
- for the scientists, temporality is more differentiated:
  - permanent residence;
  - more than 2 years;
  - 1–2 years;
  - 3 months – 1 year;
  - up to 3 months.

The predominant migration for the researchers and academics is the stay of up to 3 months (according to the State Statistics Service), though according to the World Bank, 3.5 per cent of all researchers and academics of Ukraine have migrated abroad, i.e., this type of migration is large-scale, but not well registered and properly analysed. According to individual research, temporality of migrants is more differentiated, but in this case quantitative indices which would allow its proper estimation are missing. Social characteristics of the migrants from Ukraine are: (1) Working-age people; (2) Over 80 per cent of migrants come from the cities, – according to governmental statistics, and conversely, according to individual research their number comes to 50–60 per cent; and (3) A large percentage of scientists and academics (3.5 per cent of all researchers and academics) and medical doctors (0.9 per cent of all doctors) migrate.

### **12.3.5.3 Transit migration**

Direct transit migration via Ukraine is not mentioned by any source; still, the existence of “Russia–Ukraine” corridor would imply that migrants can move on to the EU, and not remain in Ukraine. Also, indirect migration is quite large: Ukrainians migrate to the EU; and migrants from CIS countries, Central Asia and the Far East come to Ukraine. According to the World Bank, both processes are equally large-scale (they encompass over 10 per cent of the population of Ukraine). An interesting feature is seen: residents of Western regions migrate to the EU, and migrants to Ukraine usually stay in the Eastern and Southern regions.

## **12.3.6 Main categories of temporary migrants**

### *12.3.6.1 Intellectual migrants*

We suggest using this term instead of “Educational migration”, as the latter does not fully define this group of social mobilities in Ukrainian circumstances. The first research in intellectual migration<sup>9</sup> from Ukraine as an independent social phenomenon appeared after 2005 (Kopystyanska et al., 2005; Nikolaenko, 2007; Petrova, 2007), despite the fact that skilled migration from Ukraine starts after

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<sup>9</sup> Intellectual migration is understood as physical spatial movement of persons who work in the sphere of science, education, art, religion, etc. and other socially important spheres: journalists, scientists, lecturers, lawyers, writers, artists, etc.

1991, and it reached its peak in the early 2000's (Petrova, 2008). Reliable estimations of the scale of Ukrainian skilled external migration are not found: governmental statistics is irrelevant in terms of real size of skilled migration. First of all, the State Statistics Committee considers intellectual migration only as migration of scientists, and only those who have a doctoral or post-doctoral degree. Secondly, only those scientists who reported leaving Ukraine permanently are included into such data. For instance, in 1991 39 scientists with post-doctoral degree officially emigrated, and in 1996 they were 83. From 2006 till 2011, 99 researchers left Ukraine (Kalachova, 2008; 2010, 2011; 2012), but these numbers do not reflect the scale of skilled migration from Ukraine even approximately.

Young people, students in particular, are not included into the State Statistics Committee data. National statistics of the host countries would allow evaluating the size of migration flows and their geography, but here we also meet serious challenges: the EU statistics centres do not collect detailed data on migration flows from extra-Schengen countries. "Invisibility" of all types of intellectual migration causes "short-sightedness of Ukrainian researchers" for Ukrainian state statistics: in all researches performed in the previous nine years, Ukrainian scholars consider intellectual migration as the migration of researchers (Kharlamova, Naumenko, 2010; Petrova, 2007: 127) or analyse it on macro-level with an accent on international flows of intellectual migration, in which Ukrainian skilled migrants occupy a place of national outsiders who "destroy genetic resources of the country" (Nikolaenko, 2007). The reasons for intellectual migration from Ukraine are quite obvious: in 2008–2010, only 0.3 per cent to 0.43 per cent of GDP were allotted from state budget to science, while the law "On Scientific and Technical Research" was adopted in the mid-1990's, according to which the funds allotted to scientific institutions cannot be lower than 1,7 per cent of GDP. In 2014, the amount of 0.27 per cent of the GDP was allotted for science, which is the smallest sum allotted for this purpose in the years of independence of Ukraine (The Law of Ukraine "On the State Budget")

Ukrainian researchers analyse the phenomenon of intellectual migration, using mostly methods of "container theory": effectiveness of migration tactics of Ukrainian professionals is estimated from the perspective of macro-economic state processes, not from the perspective of qualified migrants. The movement of people abroad is perceived as loss of workforce and human capital, and also as a gap to be filled out by the immigrants from the third world countries (Olshevska, 2007; Nikolaenko, 2007). Therefore, national policy of Ukraine must be aimed at keeping its skilled workforce inside the country (Soroka et al., 2012). Thus, in the previous twenty years, a large-scale quantitative research of intellectual migration from Ukraine that would study motivation, choice of countries, tactics and strategies, trans-national experiences of highly skilled migrants – paradigms of political and cultural interaction, creation of social networks and social capital – currently remain out of the scope of interest of Ukrainian scholars.

Migration tactics of Ukrainian students are studied in the framework of "container theory". Several paradigms are accented: pro-Ukrainian migration paradigm (aimed at return to Ukraine), pro-Ukrainian intermediary migration paradigm (permanent residence in Ukraine with a chance of work contract in the West), pro-Western intermediary paradigm (permanent residence abroad with a possibility of short business trips to Ukraine), and emigration model (permanent residence and work abroad). Ukrainian researchers also distinguish a temporary (short-term trips for internship and conferences abroad) and permanent (moving for permanent residence abroad) intellectual migration (Petrova, 2007).

Almost unanimously Ukrainian researchers name such reasons of intellectual migration as the lack of reforms in education and science, insufficient state funding for education and science, poor working conditions, artificially created internal obstacles for obtaining foreign grants and scholarships, insufficient financial and housing conditions, lack of moral or psychological freedom, and low wages (Abreu, 2009; Levina, 2007), and among the consequences: scientific development slowing down and decreasing scientific potential of the country (Korkh, 2008). Some experts name positive

outcomes of this type of migration, first of all, the decrease in unemployment in Ukraine (Smalijchuk, 2007, Levina et al., Dron' 2008), but in fact, there is no research showing any correlation between migration and unemployment levels.

#### 12.3.6.2 Students

According to the research of the Society Research Centre conducted from 2008 till 2013, the number of Ukrainian students abroad increased 1.5 times: from 21,500 to 32,600 persons. Most of them study in Poland due to the large number of state-financed programmes for foreign students in this country. Also, there is a law in Poland which grants foreign students a year of legal stay in the country after their graduation to look for a job in relevant sphere. This allows this group of mobilities to transform into other ones, e.g., qualified specialists or lifestyle migrants.

Among other countries, except Poland, where Ukrainian students study are Germany, Russia, Czech Republic, Italy, Spain, France, Canada, and Austria. According to the Association with the EU Agreement (June 27, 2014), the process of receiving a Schengen visa will be facilitated for students, postgraduate students, and NGO members. The major reasons for choosing foreign universities for Ukrainian students usually are better dorms, scholarships, students' mobility in accordance to Bologna process, better financing for research projects, wider choice of available internships.

#### 12.3.6.3 Researchers and academics

Most often, academics and researchers leave Ukraine for participation in research projects. The second most popular reason is internships and participation in study courses. The third – and the least popular reason is teaching. A study or teaching visit abroad most often lasts less than three months. The longer is the travel abroad the less becomes the number of Ukrainian researchers and academics taking part in it. Most popular countries for migration are Germany, Russia, and the USA. In 1991–2011, the dynamic decrease in the number of scientists and researchers in Ukraine becomes more and more visible, which also explains the decrease in migration for this group.

The motivation for migration for academics and researchers is improving their qualifications for further professional activities, and also commercialization of Ukrainian education, the lack of financial resources for innovative infrastructure in scientific institutions of Ukraine, and intensification of requirements before lecturers and researchers while the salaries remain insufficient.

#### 12.3.6.4 Skilled migrants

This group is not numerous, but has a potential to grow. First of all, highly qualified migrants mobilise in two ways: “macro”: via organizations/companies which are mostly international and have contracts abroad; and “micro”: via freelance/self-employment. Nowadays, Ukrainian qualified migration mostly encompasses technical sciences and IT specialists, engineers, etc. They are usually employed at large plants, IT-companies or building and construction companies. It is difficult to name the countries where Ukrainian qualified migration is most active, but most likely these are European countries and the USA.

#### 12.3.6.5 Labour migrants

The results of the studies of contemporary external migration of the Ukrainian citizens allowed us to set out a number of features that *distinguish modern Ukrainian labour migration from its previous waves* in the nineteenth-twentieth centuries and let trace it as a part of global migration.

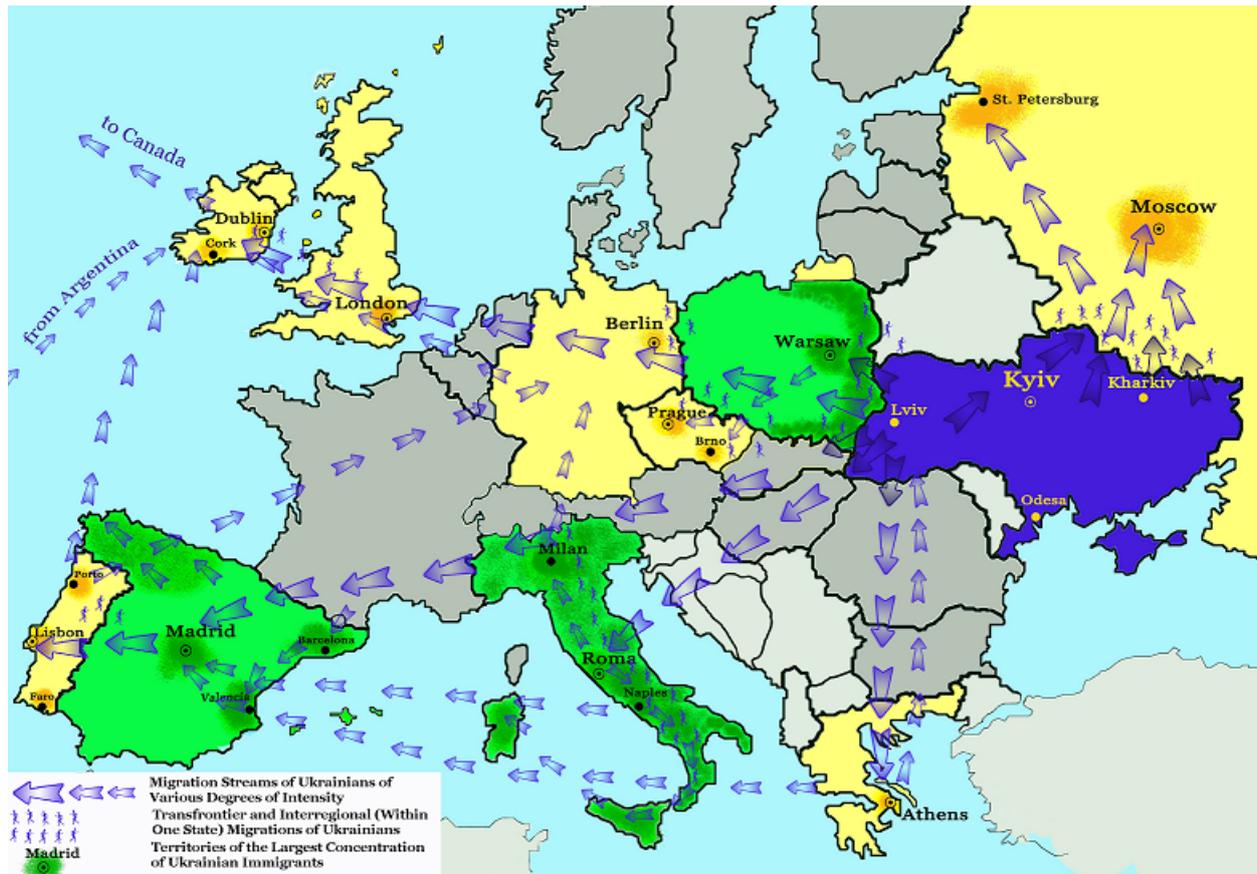
First, unlike previous stages, the current Ukrainian trips have become a most widespread and also covered several continents and dozens of countries. Ukrainian experts unanimously point to the lack of reliable statistical information on the number of citizens of Ukraine who during the first two dec-

ades of its existence as an independent state went to work abroad and are still there now. This gap is attempted to be filled in through researches and surveys. Depending on the difference in the methodology of expert estimates the final data on the number of Ukrainian immigrants appears to range from 1.5 to 5 million (Malynovska, 2011: 4-5; Pozniak, 2012; Markov, 2009: 7–8, 59).

Over the last twenty years the labour immigration from Ukraine covered all the countries of present day European Union, as well as Asia, the American continent and Australia. (Libanova: 2009; Markov, 2009: 69). Experts are unanimous that current migration flows from Ukraine are almost equally divided between the two main areas – the EU and Russia (Malynovska, 2011: 5). The results of the recently published migration survey of households in Ukraine in 2012 demonstrate the decrease in the segment of migrants to Russian Federation and increase in the segment of migrants to EU countries (Libanova, 2013)

Besides the traditional for the post-soviet period of Ukrainian immigration movement to the countries of Central-Eastern Europe (above all, to Poland, Czech Republic, and Hungary), the most intensive immigration streams headed South European countries (Portugal, Spain, Italy), as well as Ireland. Other Western European countries (above all, Germany, France and the United Kingdom) are among the migration priorities for Ukrainians; however, due to the strict immigration restrictions in these countries, the possibility for Ukrainians to move there remains scarce. Some of the Ukrainian guest workers, however, arrive in these countries from other countries of the EU (Archive ETNAS, 2008: 545a). The number of Ukrainian migrants in the Western European countries has been steadily increasing, in particular, owing to the youth who receive education there, and then try to gain a foothold and make a career.

Like in the previous periods of economical migration, there is a distinct domination of West Ukrainian labour workers heading westwards; however, the percentage of the representatives from the Central, Eastern and Southern regions of Ukraine is growing steadily. The two-third of migrants to Russia comes from Central and South-Eastern regions. It's necessary to say that our expert data on the resident countries (Markov, 2009) concerning the representatives of Western regions, on the one hand, and their compatriots from the Centre, South and East of Ukraine, on the other, in general coincide with the data of the National random study of the population of Ukrainian labour migration conducted by the State Statistics Committee, the data from Ukrainian Centre for Social Reform headed by E. Libanova, showing up that Ukrainians from the West of Ukraine amount to 57,4% of guest workers (Libanova, 2009). According to 2012 survey, 70% of all labour migrants come from Western Ukraine (Libanova, 2013: 38).



**Figure 12.9** Map-Diagram “Labour Immigration of Ukrainians in Europe” (Source: Markov, 2009: 68–69)

The authors of the random survey of the population of Ukraine on migration carried out by the State Statistics Committee, the Ukrainian Centre for Social Reform under the leadership of E. Libanova unite all regions of Ukraine in terms of the participation in the migration in seven migration-focused geographical areas.

The first place belongs to the most western district of the Trans-Carpathians with the highest level of popular participation in the migration to the following countries: Czech Republic (c. 2/3 of all Ukrainian labour migrants in Czech Republic originate from the Trans-Carpathian region), Hungary and Slovakia. This is explained by factors of geographical proximity, ethnical features of the region (here resides the bulk of the Hungarians and Slovaks), historical ties (Ukrainian Trans-Carpathian region in different times was part of Hungary and Czechoslovakia). By the level of targeting Russia, however, the area is characterized as the largest among the other two regions located entirely within the Western Ukraine (Libanova, 2013: 39).

Next comes the Bukovyna region (bordering Romania), which natives work in the countries of “Old Europe” (50% in Italy). High level of orientation on Italy is explained by the fact that in the Chernivtsi region a part of romance language speaking population is the highest (Romanians and Moldovans), many ethnic Ukrainian friends are in Romania and Moldova, the inhabitants of which began to actively migrate to Italy before the Ukrainians.

The third position also belongs to located in western Ukraine, Galicia-Volyn region with significantly higher level of orientation on Poland (in comparison with other areas) and even higher one targeting Portugal, Spain, Italy, at relatively low focus on NIS (New Independent States – “CHД”) countries. The district provides a quarter of the volume of Ukrainian migrant workers: about 3/4 of all migrants to Poland (according 2012 Survey only 2/3 of labour migrants to Poland originate from Galicia (Libanova, 2013: 40), a half to Portugal and Spain and a third to Italy. And 99% of all labour

migrants to Belarus originate from Volyn region (Libanova, 2013: 40).

The fourth position goes to West-Central region (Vinnitsya, Rivne, Khmelnytsk and Cherkasy regions). There is about a half of all migrants working in Russia and NIS countries. In this and the more eastern districts any significant differences between the levels of participation in labour migration, between urban and rural residents are not observed. As mentioned in the survey, a higher intensity of migration of rural population in Ukraine on the whole is provided by the above-mentioned four western districts.

The fifth position goes to East-Central region, to which the authors of the survey include Dnipropetrovsk, Donetsk, Zhytomyr, Zaporizhzhya, Kyiv, Kirovograd, Poltava, Sumy, Kharkiv, Chernigiv regions and the city of Kyiv. While the previously mentioned regions occupied higher or all-country level of participation of the population of working age in labour migrations, here it is noticeable lower than on the whole in Ukraine. The region is characterized by RF oriented migration (1.5 higher than in Ukraine on average).

In the sixth place the authors of the survey put the southern region (Crimea, Mykolaiv, Kherson and Odessa regions). On the whole district the level of participation in labour migration is somewhat higher than in East-Central area. However, it is noticeably lower than in the other five areas. Compared to the previous area the orientation toward Russia is not so sharply expressed, while the higher is the level of the orientation towards the EU. The highest level in Ukraine is fixed here: the migration is focused on the countries of the South, which the authors of the survey include south of the former Yugoslavia, Malta, Israel, Turkey, Cyprus, developing countries, where according to the demographic-health survey of the population of Ukraine in 2007, there exists the highest risk of becoming victims of trafficking. And the last place belongs to the most eastern Lugansk region, which is characteristic for definite RF-oriented labour migration (Libanova, 2013: 66–67). The level of labour intensity is average in Ukraine and higher than in the previously mentioned two regions.

Second, migration has covered major age, educational and professional groups and spheres of socially active population. From other side, all the varieties of origin, age group, social status, level of education and sphere of occupation are devoid of sense by the status of immigrant with consequently menial or frequently changed jobs (Markov, 2009: 62–63). Nevertheless, the social dynamics of Ukrainian labour migration define people with higher and secondary special education. This is confirmed by the results of our sociological and expert surveys, official statistics of the countries in which we conducted a study. The growth of deficit for specialists of relevant qualifications in the EU causes successful replacement by Ukrainians the vacancies in areas of skilled labour, both university and vocational education and hence appearance of employers' 'demand for Ukrainians'. These facts, added by exits of thousands of highly qualified Ukrainian specialists to other states for employment by contracts, indicate that modern Ukrainian emigration is formed by socially active people not abused at home.

Third, for a long time the majority of Ukrainians have worked and resided in recipient countries illegally. According to the the data of sampling observance of households in Ukraine, the number of Ukrainian immigrants who received the labour contract in written form had only one-third of employed workers among all who were employed, the rest worked by verbal agreement (Libanova, 2009:37). The repeated modular selective survey of population of Ukraine on migration showed that the overwhelming majority of Ukrainians legalized their stay and employment in host countries, and only one in five migrant worker remains irregular (Libanova, 2013).

Fourth, one more important feature is the indicator of independent women's participation in external Ukrainian migration. If in general researchers see the gender structure of Ukrainian labour migration in the ratio 2/3 to 1/3 in favour of men (Pozniak, 2012: 3), at its European trend there is some benefit of women. For example, the numerical superiority of women over men in Italy and Poland, EU largest recipients of Ukrainian immigrants, estimated at a ratio of, respectively, 82/18 and 67/33,

as well as in Greece – 70/30. It should be added that the modern Ukrainian migration was initiated mass exodus of women to work in Greece and Italy (Markov, 2009: 60–61). In-depth interviews and focus group discussions conducted by us in the host countries provide grounds to assume that the transfer to globalization creates both a new room for social self-assertion of a woman and social mode of life, in which family factor is differently organized than before. A family remains the basis of life activity for a woman, however, from the social point of view a shift takes place; from “a family as the world for a woman” to the family as a motivation for woman’s self-assertion beyond that limit, presupposing at the same time, the dimension of “family correlation”. Hence, female immigration as a characteristic feature of Ukrainian labour migration to the EU countries signifies the circular type of the latter. It chiefly combines both affection towards homeland and the family in the mother country and the readiness for changing circumstances and environment connected with the advent of new goals. This also includes ability to integrate quickly in the society of the country of residence.

Fifth, Ukrainian migration towards the European Union over the past two decades indicates the content of the social dynamics of the migration process, namely, the gradual transition from the “shuttle” trips to neighbouring countries – to long-term trips to Greece, Italy, Spain and Portugal and then, to a level that is characterized as transnational movements of migrants.

Sixth, the initial orientation, especially on short trips, seasonal work in foreign countries, which eventually changes into the timing uncertainty of return. The vast majority of Ukrainians, who went to work abroad in the 1990’s – 2000-ies, focused on relatively short-term stay in the host country. They planned to quickly earn the money needed to repay debt, purchase accommodation, pay tuition fees for children, or to eliminate any other causes that led to the migration, and then to return back home in a year or two. However, guest-workers usually remain for a long time, explaining the need to solve the material needs of their families in Ukraine (Archive ETNAS, 2008: 575 a). Over time, many of them arrange their lives in the host country, reuniting with their families there. The amount of short-term irregular migrants decreased under the influence of financial crisis.

Seventh, Ukrainians in move. Ukrainian migrants move all over the host country for example, from the south of Italy to the centre and further to the north), and from one state to the other (from the Czech Republic or Portugal to Spain, Ireland, from there – to Canada and Argentina), where there are generally better working conditions and higher pay (Archive ETNAS, 2008: 575a). The highest concentration of Ukrainians is to be fixed in metropolitan areas – Madrid, Rome, Milan, Lisbon, Athens, and Moscow. Following the accession of Central and Eastern European countries into the Schengen area the need was felt for skilled workers in technical areas of these states, as well as an increase took place in opportunities for legal employment there, and a vast outflow of Ukrainian migrants from Poland to the Czech Republic in connection with the best working conditions in this country was observed. At the time of the global financial crisis our expert data recorded Ukrainian migrants moving to London, which was caused by a significant investment in building infrastructure for the Summer Olympic Games in 2012 (Markov, 2009: 71).

Eighth, deployment of the financial crisis was not a turning factor for Ukrainian migrants to return to their homeland. The example of contemporary Ukrainian labour migration shows, that the global economic crisis of recent years, which has covered primarily developed countries, tend not to mean the reverse movement of migrants through “trodden corridors” from the resident to the country of origin. The return back of some of Ukrainian migrants can be considered as one of the links in the chain of their migratory movements. Moreover, Ukrainian migration experience during the crisis can serve as a basis for the assertion, that intense migratory movements will remain a constant feature of social relations, regardless of the current state of the world economy (Markov, 2011).

Ninth, availability of developed social networks. Modern Ukrainian migrants organize widely distributed social networks, through which they transport people from Ukraine to host countries and in the reverse direction, regurgitate earned money to Ukraine, rapidly convey information about the

situation on the labour market, opportunities to obtain housing, legal characteristics of the country or region, in particular, associated with the elaboration of documents for legalization, family reunification, other legal conditions of stay. Every week guest workers go ‘to buses’ – a determined place of meeting, exchange of information and informal market where minibuses with people from Ukraine bringing transfers, letters, fresh media arrive at (theses are in Rome, Naples, Bologna, Barcelona, Madrid and other cities of significant accumulation of Ukrainians).

According to the repeated modular selective survey of population (households) of Ukraine on migration, more than three-quarters of Ukrainians seek for job through friends, relatives, acquaintances and a significant minority – directly through an employer, private agencies and private individuals providing employment. Over 60% of remittances to their homeland Ukrainian workers make personally, through friends, relatives, courier, drivers, and only about 40% – through banks, by post or other organizations (Libanova, 2013). The correlation of above mentioned parameters remained virtually the same as in 2008, when the first all-national selective household survey on labour migration was conducted (Libanova, 2009: 37)

Experts note that thanks to the good organized networks Ukrainians are flexible concerning quickly changing conditions on the labour market, in particular, in a time of financial crisis. A sort of self-regulation of modern Ukrainian migration through the social networks is being observed. Ukrainians shape contemporary migration systems uniting Ukraine simultaneously with a number of the host countries and based on the developed social networks. Development of the migrant networks produces the common space in which there is intense trade, information exchange, and cross-border movement of workers. The systemic crisis in Ukraine, compared with the EU, the rise of unemployment and a further fall in wages in foreign currency stimulate increasing migration attitudes of Ukraine’s population, especially among the younger generation<sup>10</sup>.

In recent years, the number of migrants from Ukraine grew primarily due to family reunification, i.e. mostly because of young people leaving to study and work in the host countries. Among them, Germany is the most popular destination for education of students from Ukraine. According to the latest household survey, Germany occupies disproportionately higher position in comparison with other countries in regards of the number of Ukrainian labour immigrants with higher education (90% vs. 19% in Hungary and Spain, which share the second and third position in regards of these matters) (Libanova, 2013).

The developed (particularly, in the years of economic recession) Ukrainian immigration system has become a breeding ground for the further integration of the current “labour migration” and the “migration of skilled professionals” by expanding the space of horizontal mobility. In regard of the concept of “horizontal circular migration, the group of work migrants can be divided into such categories which are inter-connected and define one another:

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10 According to the poll conducted by the Russian online recruitment company HeadHunter, which promotes developing business in the CIS and Baltic states, more than 5,017 of the site users (48 per cent of young professionals with higher or incomplete higher education – the average age of the respondents – 30 years) in November 2012 reported serious intentions to leave Ukraine to work, 43 per cent admitted that they sometimes consider the possibility of finding work abroad, and only 4 per cent do not plan to leave Ukraine. The most popular for the planned migration were: Europe (63 per cent), USA / Canada (42 per cent), Australia (20 per cent). Moreover, compelling reasons for choosing the country is high level of education in the West and availability of scholarships. Respondents identified the main reasons why young people leave: the lack of a good future for themselves and their families in Ukraine (72 per cent), low pay (44 per cent), lack of conditions for professional self-realization (41 per cent), unstable political situation (34 per cent) the possibility of working abroad normally even at menial jobs (33 per cent) and the possibility to easier start own business (14 per cent). Most respondents believe that it is better to emigrate at a young age (hh.ua 2012).

### ***Seasonal migrants***

We consider this group of migrants to be temporary migrants which circulate between Ukraine and another country (often, but not always, cross border), and can change the directions and duration of migration very fast. Seasonal migration has a repetitive character, but often can combine several types of migration. For example, a migrant goes to seasonal work to Poland, and later migrates for long-term work to Spain where he gets a university degree. Emigration process combines several migration types, integrates them into new quality. This also corresponds to suggested concepts of circular horizontal migration and demonstrates a need of new classification of temporary mobility. This can be important in determining proportion in the groups of mobilities for our further in-depth interviews.

### ***Cross border migration*** (“pendulum”; “retail trade”)

Related to cross border migration, the way of migration is important as well as a partial linkage to physical time (characterized by consistency: several times per day, per week, or per month). Cross border migration also has a formal base: a certain number of people living in cross border regions hold citizenship of EU countries and therefore freely move between Ukraine and neighbouring countries. Some EU countries have special conditions for border crossing: e.g, Poland has issued an order for 30-km border zone the dwellers of which can freely move between Ukraine and Poland.

Cross border work migration is most often represented by retail trade of Ukrainian goods which are cheaper in Ukraine than in EU. As it was mentioned above, the representatives of this group often become seasonal migrants in the countries of cross border migration, and later they return to retail trade or switch for a different type of social mobility. This pattern is clearly represented by horizontal space of the change of social mobility groups.

### ***Permanent migrants***

There are two categories of permanent migrants with whom migration it is an inherent part of their life: (1) “Circular migrants” (migrants who go to work to Russia, Czech Republic, Poland for several months and return home, and then leave again): residence in Ukraine with short-term travel abroad; and (2) “Long-term” migrants: residence in one or several destination countries for a long time (from 1 to 15–17 years with short-term or without visits to Ukraine (some of them plan to return back to Ukraine in a few years or “to die in Ukraine”).

#### ***12.3.6.6 Humanitarian migrants***

### ***Refugees***

Since 1991 (the year Ukraine became independent), refugees have been forming a separate group of migrants in the country. Their first influxes into the country (end of the 1980’s – first half of the 1990’s) were a result of military conflicts in Nagorno-Karabakh, Fergana Valley in Uzbekistan, Transnistria, Abkhazia, and Chechnya. There were tens of thousands of people (among them, for example, were 10 thousand Meskhetian Turks, 60 thousands of migrants from Transnistria), whose legal status was determined on the basis of special resolutions of the government (Malynovska, 2010). Among 18 thousand refugees who appealed to local authorities for help in 1993, the majority were ethnic Ukrainians, and a considerable part of them were Russians. Armenians comprised approximately a quarter of all migrants. Those were mostly Ukrainian migrants and members of mixed families. The number of migrants from Asia and Africa was comparatively small (Malynovska, 2010).

The procedure of granting a refugee status was introduced in Ukraine in February 1996 by the law of Ukraine ‘On the Refugees’ (1993; new version of the Law was adopted in 2001). Over 10 thousand asylum seekers have appealed to migration service agencies by 2001. 5, 500 migrants (including children) received a refugee status. Out of 2155 applications submitted in 2008, only 125 received a pos-

itive response; while in 2001 there were a total of 916 applications, and 455 foreigners were granted the refugee status. The reasons for the decrease in the percentage of favourably met applicants are, as one of the most outstanding Ukrainian professionals in the sphere of migration O. Malynovska puts it, “stricter criteria of granting the refugee status, introduced by the new legislation, insufficient power and repetitive reorganizations of the migration service bodies, which sometimes altogether stopped considering applications. Another reason lies in compositional changes of the refugees as a group; among economic migrants prevail (rather than victims of persecution). As a result, the number of refugees, which was the largest in 1999 (more than 3 thousand persons including children), decreased to 2,201 persons in 2008“ (Malynovska, 2010).

According to the UN Refugee Agency, in 2013, 1,310 persons applied for refugee status (1,093 adults) (UN Refugee, 2012), which can be considered an average quantity for the previous 4 years. As of January 1, 2013, there have been approx. 2,500 of persons with a legally recognized refugee status in Ukraine (UN Refugee, 2012)

The decrease is partially explained by such facts: some migrants returned to their native countries (for example, after the improvement of the situation in Yugoslavia, moved further to other countries agreeing to accept them or received Ukrainian citizenship (about 1,000 persons) (UN Refugee, 2012) Among the refugees, there are migrants from over 40 countries of Asia, Africa and Europe (UN Refugee, 2012). In the recent years, most persons seeking refuge in Ukraine come from (usually transiting from Russia) from Afghanistan, Somali, Syria and Kirgizstan, Iran, Russian Federation, and Congo.

Nationals of former USSR countries have potentially higher chances of successful integration into Ukrainian society due to language and cultural similarities, but at the same time they have the lowest chances for receiving a refugee status (Ivashchenko-Stadnik, 2013). Refugees, asylum seekers and immigrants remain one of the most marginalised social groups in Ukraine. Their rights to work, freedom and security, fair trial and education are often violated even because of the fact that the process of granting a refugee status remains not transparent and overly politicised. According to COMPAS project report (migration research at the borderlands of Europe), Ukraine can be considered a safe country for refugees from some countries, in particular, the CIS countries (Armenia, Georgia and Moldova), but it is not always so for the refugees from Uzbekistan and Chechnya, and, in general, from African and Asian refugees and migrants, in particular, for Nigeria, Liberia, and Somali nationals (Düvell, 2009).

A high level of education is characteristic for the refugees. According to the data provided by experts of the Institute of Social Studies at the National Academy of Science of Ukraine, 52, 1% of migrants have a university degree; 46.8% of women and 32.8% of men received a vocational training (Düvell, 2009). Despite this, refugees very often seem unable to find an appropriate job (the employment of the majority of them is connected with retail trade at markets). Since the state does not provide assistance to refugees in obtaining accommodation, they have to rent it, and they often have to share accommodation with other people in order to make the rent more affordable. Another painful problem is education of the refugees' children, although the right to education in Ukraine is guaranteed by the law (Düvell, 2009). To support the family, some of the children have to start working at the age of 10 – 12. For those who arrived in Ukraine in adolescence, the obstacles they face in terms of education include difficulties in adaptation, in particular, language problems. There are no special programs to help the children of the refugees to prepare for the demands of Ukrainian educational system (Malynovska, 2010). Sometimes, refugees are facing problems of implementation of the basic human rights; in particular, there is a discriminatory practice of humiliation of dignity of refugees because of their nationality at the law enforcement agencies.

Almost half of all refugees who stay in Ukraine are concentrated in the capital or neighbouring area (the city of Kyiv and Kyiv region), and more than one fourth – in Odesa region. Large numbers of refugees reside in Lviv, Kharkiv and Trans-Carpathian regions. There are two centres for temporary

residence of the refugees, one of which is located in Odesa, and another in Trans-Carpathia region (the office is located in Uzhhorod, and residential centres are located in Mukachevo and Perechyn). In 2014, new temporary residence centre for the refugees will be opened in Yagotyn, Kyiv region.

The order of the Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine issued on August 22, 2012 № 605-p approved the “Action plan for integration of refugees and persons who need special protection in Ukrainian society until 2020” (see: <http://zakon4.rada.gov.ua/laws/show/605-2012-%D1%80>). The Action plan includes measures on offering a programme in Ukrainian language studies, forming tolerance towards the refugees and persons who need special protection, giving residence for the refugees, supporting national and cultural identity of the refugees, and also opening centres for their social integration.

- The State Employment Service of Ukraine conducts informational and educational projects, including job fairs for the refugees. In the beginning of 2013, 4 refugees were registered by the State Employment Service of Ukraine, two of whom received the status of an unemployed person and social payment for the unemployed. Others were given consultations.
- Ukrainian language courses were available in Kyiv, Kharkiv and Odesa in 2012 due to financial support of the regional Office of the UN High Commissioner for Refugees; 72 refugees received certificates of completion. Two Sunday schools for refugees from Afghanistan and their children work in Kharkiv for teaching the refugees their native language and culture.
- Due to the efforts of the NGOs and media, the issues regarding formation of tolerant attitude from the locals to the refugees are fully covered.
- As a rule, refugees and transit migrants have to stay in Ukraine accidentally. Mostly, they tend to head for Western European states.

There are no visible signs of situation with migrants in Ukraine becoming more acute: ethnic ghettos or districts are not being formed, religious confrontations or social protests and strikes are very uncommon (UN Refugee, 2010), and it can be inferred from that there is a predominant group of foreigners from CIS countries who are known (‘culturally marked’) for Ukrainians, a number of foreigners from South-East and Central Asia and Africa in Ukraine being far from large, and also this indicated a transit character of migration.

### ***Ukrainian refugees in other countries***

According to the Office of the UN High Commissioner for the Refugees, 26,400 citizens of Ukraine received the status of a refugee or humanitarian protection while being in other countries. The belonging to a national minority is, as a rule, a reason for receiving such status. Mostly, the refugees live in Germany where there is a special programme with a help of which the Jews from post-Soviet countries can receive a refugee status.

Nevertheless, in the recent years there is an increase in the number of cases of receiving a refugee status by Ukrainian citizens for political motivation. In 2012, 1,500–1,900 Ukrainians annually ask for granting them a refugee status in foreign countries (table 1). Most of them have a status of economic migrants. In particular, in 2012, the largest number of applications was registered in the USA (274), France (210), Canada (178), Czech Republic (174), Sweden (133), Germany (124) and Poland (72). In the times of independence, only several cases of external migration for political reasons were registered in Ukraine.

**Table 12.23** Number of petitions submitted by Ukrainian citizens for refugee status in foreign countries and the number of positive decisions taken on these petitions, 2007–2012 (Source: Data from the Office of the UN High Commissioner for Refugees)

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Number of submitted applications	1875	1691	1724	1599	1603	1749
Number approved for refugee status or humanitarian protection	322	273	285	275	398	323

On July 7, 2014 the European Asylum Support Office published statistical data for 2013. The EU encountered a considerable growth of applications for refugee status. In 2013, 435 760 applications from asylum seekers in EU countries were received. 34 per cent received positive response. Major recipient countries are Germany, France, Sweden, Great Britain, and Italy. The report does not mention Ukraine except for several cases, connected with migration to Czech Republic (a large number of asylum seekers from Ukraine is traditionally registered there). Our state is not present in the top-20 list of countries with high migration risk in the European context. The report does not show the data of 2014, when problems with safety emerged in our state because of aggression from Russia. Ukrainian migrants are mentioned only as a potential threat connected to the crisis in the east of the country<sup>11</sup>.

### 12.3.6.7 Irregular migrants

#### ***Human Trafficking***

In terms of human trafficking, Ukraine can be regarded as a country of origin, transit and destination in the system of trafficking men, women, and children (IOM, 2014), who are used for sexual and work exploitation all over the world. (TIP, 2012). Quantitative data on human trafficking are very approximate, and are based on the IOM research, the US Department of State reports, and also expert analysis and scientific research reports in Ukraine. Several reasons can serve as an explanation, and first of all, the fact that Ukrainian official statistics provides no offer for even a vague idea about the scope of the problem: e.g., in 2013, the Ministry of Internal Affairs of Ukraine investigated 131 cases of human trafficking (MIA, 2013), while according to IOM-Ukraine 929 victims appealed for help in the very same year (IOM, 2014). The contrast is large, despite the fact that most victims in Ukraine do not seek professional help. Secondly, even those who ask for help do not always receive a legal status of a victim of human trafficking for the reason that they are two categories of persons who can be identified as victims of trafficking. The first one is persons who were recognized as victims of a crime by law enforcement bodies, and the second is persons who were found by NGOs. It is possible that the police considers a person to be a victim (article 49 of the Criminal Procedure Code of Ukraine), but NGOs cannot do that. A person receives a special legal status only after a criminal investigation case is opened (if it is). For instance, only 54 persons received a status of a victim of trafficking in Ukraine by the end of 2013 (MIA, 2013). Due to the difference in criteria and goals, and also the methodology of calculations, official statistical evaluation of the number of victims of human trafficking in Ukraine and from Ukraine does not reflect real proportions of the problem.

According to IOM, over 120 000 of Ukrainians suffered from human trafficking from 1991 till 2014 (IOM, 2013). There is a lack of data about foreigners who became victims of human trafficking. Among new tendencies we can name the positive dynamics of labour exploitation – the increase in number of victims in various categories: girls (aged 15–24), men (from 23 per cent in 2009 to 51 per cent in 2013), children and foreigners. In 2013, Russian Federation was the major country of trafficking of Ukrainians (76 per cent). Among others are Poland (7.5 per cent) and to smaller extent – Turkey, Czech Republic, Italy, Greece, Moldova, Iraq, South Korea and China (IOM, 2014; Levchenko,

<sup>11</sup> (June 23, 2014. Newsletter of the EU Representative in Ukraine: EU news see: [http://eeas.europa.eu/delegations/ukraine/documents/newsletter/nl\\_230614\\_\(2\).pdf](http://eeas.europa.eu/delegations/ukraine/documents/newsletter/nl_230614_(2).pdf)).

2013).

The majority of the victims suffer from exploitation in building, agriculture, industry, timber industry, services and housework, and also in providing medical care for ill persons (IOM, 2013). By gender, 48 per cent of victims were women and 52 per cent – men for the period of 2007–2014. 99 per cent of victims of sexual exploitation who asked for help from IOM and a law enforcement institution are women (IOM, 2013). By region, work exploitation is most common among victims from Western Ukraine (IOM, 2014): most often, they are residents of rural areas who suffer because of high level of unemployment in villages and low level of critical attitude to information village dwellers show in their communication with criminal agents (Levchenko, 2011)

Experts also point to the growing dynamics of domestic trafficking and exploitation of foreigners in Ukraine, predominantly work exploitation (IOM, 2013). The countries the victims come from usually are Vietnam, Uzbekistan, Afghanistan, Russian Federation and Congo (IOM, 2013). In the US Department of State Global report on counteracting human trafficking in 2010 Ukraine belongs to Tier 2 Watch List – a list of countries “the governments of which do not fully adhere to TVPA minimal standards, but put some effort into it” (TIP, 2011).

Ukraine holds the 86<sup>th</sup> position in the Global Slavery Index of 2013, an index which provides a ranking of 162 countries, based on a combined measurement of three factors: estimated prevalence of modern slavery by population, level of child marriage, and level of human trafficking in and out of a country.

Despite the growth of problem, Ukraine does not have an effective policy of counteracting human trafficking. The State social programme for counteracting human trafficking will end in 2015. The UN Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, The Council of Europe Convention on Action against Trafficking, Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons Especially Women and Children, Convention to Suppress the Slave Trade and Slavery are ratified by the state of Ukraine, however, current legislation corresponds to international legislation in a very limited way, in particular, to the Conventions of the Council of Europe. There are serious challenges in identification of victims of human trafficking, and the conditions of compensation payments to the victims are still not formulated.

The law on protection of Ukrainian citizens abroad does not exist, and the witness protection programme, in fact, does not work in Ukraine. Also, it is very hard to find evidence of the crime of human trafficking (Levchenko, 2013). Problems are also caused by low level of competence of the employees of the law enforcement institutions, a tendency on relaying responsibility for human trafficking on the victims, lack of coordination in the work of the law enforcement institutions, difficulties of court proceedings in such cases, lack of information about the state activity in counteracting human trafficking and competence in human trafficking issues, and stigmatization of the victims (IOM, 2013). Ukraine does not have programmes, specialized structures or shelters for reintegration of the victims of human trafficking; NGOs are the only organizations which offer qualified help to the victims of human trafficking.

### ***Immigration and transit migration***

Brief overviews of the processes of immigration to Ukraine and of transit migration across its territory will be combined in one chapter. First of all, because the level of research of these phenomena does not allow separate analysis: in contrast to the external migrations, immigration and transit migration are, in fact, not studied. We have literally quite a few major works on the subject of current immigration, which, though, reflect only certain aspects of the process (Brajchevska et al, 2004; Malynovska, 2003).

Secondly, the existing data show that immigrants most often consider their stay in Ukraine as a possibility of further immigration to EU countries, or, vice versa, the primary intentions of further

moving to the EU change to permanent residence in Ukraine. Therefore, we deal with intertwining of immigration and transit migration. The latter example also indicates “the relativity of permanence” and allows using the principle of temporariness for all groups of immigrants in Ukraine, except the nations and ethnic groups which were deported by Stalinist regime and continue returning to Ukraine after the declaration of its independence in 1991.

Four groups of sources each focused on specific issues and priorities were selected for presentation of transnational migration channels via the territory of Ukraine: 1) existing statistical research data which include the data of Ukrainian statistics and research results; 2) international research and reports by European experts which concentrate on Ukraine’s ‘inclusion’ into international traffic, control over these processes and forecasting possible outcomes, primarily, for the EU countries; 3) the data published by Ukrainian experts and researchers in which both the groups of migration movements and their geographic location at the territory of Ukraine are pointed out, as well as migration axis inside the country, and possible development scenarios offered for Ukrainian society with a larger segment of foreigners; 4) reports of the mission of the UN High Commissioner for Refugees in Ukraine and annual reports of human rights organizations which allow seeing problematic points and dynamics of the process taking into account both internal (Ukrainian) and external (international) norms and reality. Statistical data were considered in a separate paragraph, while the other three sources will be analysed altogether.

Experts and reviewers suggest considering Ukraine a country of transit and a destination country for the immigrants. According to the UN data, presented by the staff of the National Institute of Strategic Researches for the President of Ukraine, “we should take into consideration the fact the number of migrants Ukraine now takes the fourth place in the world after the USA, Russia, and Germany with total quantity of 6, 7 million (3, 6 % out of the total flow of migrants in the world). Since 2005, the migration rate in Ukraine has grown to become positive – for the first time after 1993” (Malynovska, 2010). This conclusion corresponds to the analysis of state statistics data; researchers and academics also agree with it

However, the above-mentioned data support the opinion of the experts: the number of migrants remaining in Ukraine is insufficient. To reach the West, Ukraine is made use of as a transit country by the overwhelming majority of migrants. (Butkewych, 2010) The representatives of NIS countries are prevailing among the migrants (Moldova, Uzbekistan, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Tajikistan, North-Caucasus region of Russia, Kirgizstan, Kazakhstan), including Georgians, people from Southern-Eastern Asia and Middle East, Africa. In recent times, the illegal migrants have been arriving even from the region of Caribbean (Malynovska, 2010). According to non-official data, up to 500 thousand illegal migrants pass the territory of Ukraine annually (Malynovska, 2010)

“Traditional” channels of illegal migration, controlled by international organized crime, go across the territory of Ukraine – mostly from African and Asian countries to Western Europe.



Figure 12.10 Map-Diagram “Immigration and Transit Migration in Ukraine”

In view of this, Ukraine plays a role of a “gateway” between Europe and Asia. The attractiveness of Ukraine for illegal transit can be explained by a whole range of factors: it’s practically unsecured northern and western borders; traditionally high level of corruption in law enforcement, border guards service, and state officials in general; insufficient legal regulation of migration; absence of centralised structure of migration management with powers scattered among numerous authorities; and low qualification of a large number of officials dealing with migration in the first years of Ukraine’s independence, etc. (UGS, 2009). The network of political and governmental corruption is not only the cover for illegal migration, but also the main axis of its re-creation and system consolidation.

Most frequently, illegal migrants use the territory of Ukraine as one of steps towards the entry into the countries of Western Europe. The so-called “economical” migrants (citizens of the countries of Southern-Eastern Asia and Middle East) arrive in Central Asia and Trans-Caucasus continue to use the territory of Ukraine to move further to economically developed countries in search of employment or personal business (Tyndyk, 2004). Transit migrants arrive in Ukraine illegally avoiding entrance points or using fake documents.

According to the data given by already mentioned staff of the National Institute of Strategic Researches, the major part of illegal migrants arrive in Ukraine through Ukrainian–Russian border (the number of detained by the officials comes to 80 per cent out of all detained migrants), and Ukrainian–Belarus border (11 per cent of the detained). Among the main directions of the movement of migrants who cross Ukrainian border, we should name Bryansk–Chernihiv and Sumy direction from the border with Russian Federation, and Gomel’–Chernihiv from the border with Belarus. Illegal migrants leave Ukraine through Ukrainian-Slovakian (almost 60 per cent of the detained), Ukrainian–Polish (20 per cent of the detained) (Tyndyk, 2004), and Ukrainian–Hungarian borders (Prybytkova, 2007).

Ukrainian experts name the most widely used ways of illegal migrants’ penetration in Ukraine: they arrive in the country on short-term visas (as tourists planning to visit non-existing relatives or travelling for private reasons), then, they stay in Ukraine illegally or move further to the West; migrat-

ing students arrive in the NIS countries through private or state firms, which make the needed documentation for them using official papers of educational institutions of Russia and Ukraine (Pylynsky, 2009). Former students and workers from some countries (mainly, Nigeria, Sri-Lanka, Angola, Vietnam, Iraq, Afghanistan) stay illegally on the territory of Ukraine, unwilling to return to their native countries; “shuttle” or “pendulum” migrants (citizens of Baltic countries) use near border territories of Ukraine for purchasing non-ferrous metals, food, narcotic substances. Mostly, they arrive through border crossings and avoid border control when leaving the country.

The experts point to three of the most widely spread mechanisms of illegal migration: transit by air or railway, when the citizens of Southern-Eastern Asia and Middle East countries (China, Vietnam, Korea, India, Sri-Lanka, Afghanistan) enter Russian Federation by airways (Moscow, Saint-Petersburg) or sometimes via Belarus; then they move to Ukraine by railway (Kyiv, Lviv, Mukacheve, Uzhhorod, Odessa), afterwards, they reach target country through Poland, Slovakia, Hungary. The citizens of Iraq, Iran, Turkey, Yemen, Jordan, Lebanon, Syria, Somali, Angola, Zaire, etc. use all means of transport for transit migration: by air, railway, and on foot pedestrian border crossings. Groups of migrants travel by air or railway to Ukraine or to Russian Federation, from where they head for Ukraine, accompanied by conductors, and then – further, to the European Union. The air, railway and pedestrian transit also has its specificities: a large number of citizens of Lebanon arrive in Ukraine by air, and then they travel by railway or on foot towards western border and cross it in order to get to the countries of Western Europe.

The number of people in a group depends on the difficulty of the route and the chosen means of transport. Groups of 10 or more are formed to travel by international airlines and ships. Somewhat smaller groups (3–5 persons) travel by vehicles (from Iraq to Jordan, from Pakistan to Azerbaijan, from Russia to Ukraine). The number of people in the groups changes with the change of a means of transport. A single group may split into smaller ones and vice versa; several small groups may unite into a large one” (Kostyuk, 2010).

Experts point out that current illegal migration has acquired an organized character in Ukraine. There is a set of “firms” providing services for migrants to cross the borders of Ukraine. Ways of illegal residence on the territory of Ukraine and crossing the State border are subject to change and improvement depending on the preventive measures taken by Ukraine, in particular, under the pressure of the EU (Kostyuk, 2010).

Illegal immigration flows to Ukraine are a part of Central European route – one of five major Euro-Asian illegal migration transit routes to the EU countries. Four other routes encompass Vietnam, Pakistan-India, Sri-Lanka-Bangladesh, Afghanistan, China, Kurdistan, Uzbekistan-Tajikistan, and Chechnya ones (Saliar 2008). The Central European route which goes across Russia, Ukraine, Poland, and Slovakia to Western Europe is used by migrants from Middle and Far East, South-East Asia and CIS countries. According to the estimations by European experts, currently this route is not one of the most dangerous in Europe. In 2004–2008, Ukraine has been a leader in counteracting illegal migration among the countries of Sederkoping process<sup>12</sup>.

Ukrainian law enforcement agencies detain tens of thousands of illegal migrants annually. This number is comprised by those illegal migrants who transited Ukraine, and were detained on the territory of the EU and returned to Ukraine according to the Agreement of Readmission between Ukraine and the EU (the Agreement came into effect in 2010) and because of the lack of funds for keeping them in Ukraine and returning them to their countries of origin (according to relevant agreements with

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<sup>12</sup> Sederkoping process was initiated in 2001, during the presidency of Sweden in the EU in order to encourage closer cooperation for asylum seekers and migrants in the countries located at the Eastern border of the EU. Since 2004, the Sederkoping process is especially concentrated upon exchange of knowledge in migration, providing asylum and protection, and also managing the borders between Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, and Sweden on one side, and Belarus, Moldova and Ukraine on the other.

the EU and other migrants' countries of citizenship which regard readmission of illegal migrants), the law enforcement agencies deport about 20–25% of illegal migrants detained out of Ukraine. The majority of them stay in Ukraine. In 2005–2011, the number of those detained for violating the rules of legal stay in Ukraine has been approximately the same (approx. 12,000–14,000 persons), while the number of those detained at the border for violating migration laws has been decreasing since 2006. In the recent years, a tendency of different countries of origin becoming more widespread has been noticed: most illegal migrants come from the new independent states (CIS states) while previously, the majority of such migrants came from Asian countries. (Migration in Ukraine, 2013).

The next type of data suggested by researcher Lesya Kostyuk includes gender and age characteristics of illegal migrants. 67 per cent of the detained on the territory of Ukraine in 2007 were men, 72 per cent were people of working age almost a quarter of them (24 per cent) were children and an insignificant number of people (4 per cent) were of retirement age (Kostyuk. 2010).

The low skilled persons often without any work experience are generally believed to prevail among illegal migrants. However, a tendency towards the growth in the numbers of migrants – high-level professionals, in particular, the representatives of popular trades, has been noticed recently (Kostyuk. 2010). In general, internal axis of migration flows in Ukraine leads from Odesa in the north-east across central regions (Kyiv, Dnipropetrovsk) to the south-west to Odesa.

Kharkiv region is included into the intensive migration axis mostly as educational and labour immigration centre, attracting newcomers from Vietnam, Georgia, Azerbaijan, China, Israel, Tajikistan, Uzbekistan, and Turkmenistan (Pylynsky. 2007). The largest number of foreigners permanently resides in Donetsk region, and also in Odesa and Kharkiv region, and in Crimea where the Black Sea Fleet of the Russian Federation is based. The largest number of legal immigrants reside in Kyiv (the capital city), and the cities of Donetsk, Kharkiv and Odesa.

Odesa region occupies a special place in migration, as high migration mobility of population registered there, mostly as a result of its geographical position — as a border and a coastline region. The large sea ports of Odesa, Illichivsk, Reni, Yuzhny, Izmail create high transportation and transit potential of the region which is also used by migrants, including the illegal ones. An important factor which makes Odesa region attractive for illegal migrants is the dominance of trade and service spheres in its economy, and transnational migrants prefer these spheres for their first economic activity in Ukraine. One of the reasons for this preference is a low control over these economic sectors where corruption and “shadow” operation are common; these spheres are also scarcely monitored in official economic statistics.

Illegal migrants mostly find their niche at the black market sector of Ukrainian economy (Maly-novska, 2010), or they live on casual earnings (Kostyuk, 2010). According to the IOM data, the number of migrants involved reaches 75 per cent (Maly-novska, 2010). Easily available jobs are usually found in large industrial cities with low job competition: wholesale markets trade, building industry, other jobs commonly described as “the three Ds” – Dirty, Dangerous & Dumb. In this respect, Ukraine follows the universal trend (Butkevych, 2010). Legal employment continues being problematic for migrants, as chances for legal employment depend not only on a migrant's wish, but also on a good will of an employer: whether they are willing to provide reasons to relevant governmental officials why they would rather employ a foreigner, assist in registration and receiving a permit. Usually this procedure is avoided, and migrants stay deprived of their rights to be observed by both employers and governmental officials. In most cases, the problem is solved with a bribe offered to members of the relevant governmental agencies (Butkevych, 2010). At the same time, the absence of work permit becomes the legal basis for detaining those working migrants who applied for a refugee status. This happens due to the conflict of the legislation regarding the refugees (which gives them the right for temporary employment without a special permit) and the law of Ukraine “On the Legal Status of Foreigners and Persons Destitute of Nationality” (reading that all foreigners and persons destitute of

nationality are to obtain a work permit) (Butkevych, 2010).

Ukraine becomes a target country for a certain groups of migrants - immigrants from CIS countries, mainly, Middle Asia, Tajikistan, Uzbekistan and Kirgizstan, and this tendency grows. They legally enter Ukraine and are lawfully allowed to stay in the country for 90 days without registration (Butkevych, 2010). The main countries of origin of the legal migrants are Russia, Moldova, Uzbekistan, Belarus, Georgia, Armenia, Azerbaijan (IOM, 2013). Mostly they find jobs in retail trade, building and agriculture.

#### *1.2.3.6.8 Lifestyle migration*

##### ***Volunteers***

Volunteering movement started in the 1990's in Ukraine, first of all, due to civic organizations. First, the movement took place from Ukraine to Europe, as Ukraine was closed to foreign volunteers. The exchange of volunteers began in the late 1990's – early 2000's, keeping the same directions which broadened due to mutual exchanges: "Ukraine–Europe–Ukraine". The goals of volunteering programmes are cultural interaction and practical work: restoration and social work, ecology projects, and so on.

Volunteering can be short-term and long-term. Short-term volunteering can last from two to five weeks, and these projects mostly involve volunteers from many countries, up to 20 persons or more. Any person older than 18 can become a volunteer (rarely the minimum age is 16), and there is no maximum age. Short-term projects are oriented for inter-cultural communication. Union Forum NGO experts (working on short-term volunteer projects) mention that over 100 volunteers go to Europe with their organization. The same numbers and activity characterize "Alternative V" and "Swit-Ukraine" (World-Ukraine). 90% of volunteers are women, and 10 % – men. Mostly, short-term volunteer projects are regarded by young people as a chance for travelling and communication.

A considerable decrease of international volunteering of Ukrainians is currently seen (more than twice comparing to the early 2000's). This is explained by increasing demands to the conditions and obligations offered by project organizers, better chances for tourism and inter-cultural communication. We can see the same tendency with the number of international volunteers in Ukrainian volunteering projects. Up to 100 volunteers from all over the world come to Ukraine for two to three weeks. The year of 2014 had different statistics when all projects were delayed except one (in Lviv region): the farthest from "hot" regions and closest to the EU. Still, only 4 participants arrived. Therefore, short-term volunteering projects are currently under question.

Long-term volunteering in Ukraine functions due to the European Voluntary Service (EVS), which lasts from 6 to 12 months depending on the project. Volunteers come to and from the EU, Iceland, Lichtenstein, Norway, and Turkey. Long-term volunteering has age limits: a volunteer should be 18 to 30 years of age, in some projects 16–17. The programme also has limitations in numbers: 12 volunteers from one organization for 6–9 months programmes, and 15 volunteers for 12 months programmes. Therefore, annually approx. 300 Ukrainians take part in volunteer projects lasting for a year, mostly in Poland, Germany, and France. Usually, one volunteer goes for one project, so the long-term projects are oriented on communication with local community as an additional task.

Up to 250 volunteers from Europe take part in long-term projects in Ukraine annually. They usually implement the projects in the regions where host NGOs are located: Lviv, Kyiv, Kharkiv, and Trans-Carpathian region. Many volunteers from Ukraine continue their mobility in different directions: some of them stay in the country where they volunteered, others move to other European countries looking for study programmes, internships or work, and so they get a status of intellectual or work migrants.

### ***Tourists***

As it was mentioned above, the category “tourism” is one of major reasons for official migration of Ukrainians. Still, real and so-called tourism must be distinguished. Most Ukrainians go abroad as tourists, but many of them use the category as a formulation that disguises their intentions. Real tourists usually go to Balkan countries, Greece, Turkey, Egypt, etc. The so-called tourists stay in the countries they came to after their tourist visas expire and become irregular work migrants. It is difficult to find a proportion of those so-called tourists, as relevant statistical data are unavailable.

### ***Business migrants (business travel)***

This group is completely not represented in research materials, still, the National Advisory Board considered it to be important for further study, first of all, due to signing the Association Agreement which presupposes common markets for the EU and Ukraine. Though Ukrainians will have an opportunity to develop small, medium-sized and large business in the EU, it is going to be large businesses which will concentrate their resources in Ukraine.

External work migrants who returned to Ukraine and started their own business (which often is based both in Ukraine and former country of stay) also belong to this group.

### ***“Brides”***

Among migrants leaving Ukraine for family reasons, there is a number of women aiming at marriage or cohabitation with citizens of the EU countries and other countries with higher level of economy both for economic reasons (hoping to reach a higher social position) and for emotional motivation. As marriage is perceived as higher social status for women as well as a source of income, and due to high social pressure on women regarding family life and parenthood as an obligation for women, many female migrants aspire to find a husband abroad often having experienced unsuccessful relationships in Ukraine. There are reported cases of marriage of 40–50 year old women to older men in hope of receiving a place to live and better chances of receiving citizenship. Unfortunately, no statistical data are available as migrants travelling for private reasons do not tend to indicate the actual purpose of migration.

Numerous agencies for the so-called “mail order brides” prosper due to organizing internet-based communication. Some cases of voluntary engagement into sex business among young women, mostly students, are reported in the media and in some in-depth interviews. Such migrants travel abroad for several days (usually weekends) for earning additional income to pay for their studies or purchase more expensive clothing. Destination countries usually include the ones which do not require a visa (e.g., Turkey). Potential clients are usually found in social networks while a migrant is in Ukraine.

An emerging type of short-term migration to Ukraine are short-term visits with a goal of finding sexual partners (observed mostly in large cities of Ukraine). Such migrants are men of different age who either use the services of marriage and dating agencies or visit night clubs (which they find in social networks). They may spend their vacation or stay for a weekend in Ukraine.

In some countries (e.g., the USA, Canada) there is a special visa type – “fiancé visa” for three months. This visa often becomes migration factor, as after it expires a migrant becomes irregular. Unfortunately, there is no research data regarding marriage migration of men.

#### ***12.3.6.8 Return migrants***

This group is often represented by migrants who returned to the country of origin because of losing their job in the host country, or personal decision to return due to family or other matters. Some of them start their own business in the home country. Still, they keep their contacts with the migrants’ social networks in the previous and potential host countries. Often their relatives are current work

migrants or intellectual migrants (usually students whose education fees were earned abroad by the return migrants). Therefore, this group keeps its potential for further migrations.

#### 12.3.6.9 *Potential migrants*

Basing on latest research conducted by GfK Ukraine, the largest potential migrants group is people aged 18–40 (27%). They are mostly potential work migrants, less often – potential intellectual migrants: highly qualified specialists and students. Most potential migrants claim they are ready to leave for some time: 1–2 years. The most likely destination countries are Russia, Germany, Italy, the USA, and the UK. Comparing the shares of responses regarding the most probable destination country with the share of countries where return migrants have worked, we can forecast an increase of migration flow to Germany, the UK, Spain, the USA, Canada and proportionate decrease of migration to Russia, Poland, and Czech Republic<sup>13</sup>.

In addition to this, the poll conducted by the Russian online recruitment company HeadHunter, which promotes developing business in the CIS and Baltic states, more than 5,017 of the site users (48% of young professionals with higher or incomplete higher education – the average age of the respondents is 30 years) in November 2012 reported serious intentions to leave Ukraine for work, 43 per cent admitted that they sometimes consider the possibility of finding work abroad, and only 4% do not plan to leave Ukraine. The most popular countries for the planned migration were: Europe (63%), the USA / Canada (42%), Australia (20%). Moreover, compelling reasons for choosing the country is high level of education in the West and availability of scholarships. Respondents identified the main reasons why young people leave: the lack of a good future for themselves and their families in Ukraine (72%), low pay (44%), lack of conditions for professional self-realization (41%), unstable political situation (34%) the possibility of working abroad normally even at menial jobs (33%) and the possibility to easier start own business (14%). Most respondents believe that it is better to emigrate at a young age (hh.ua, 2012). Therefore, the systemic crisis in Ukraine, compared with the EU, the rise of unemployment and a further fall in wages in foreign currency stimulate increasing migration attitudes of Ukraine's population, especially among younger generation.

Residents of border regions are more ready to migrate which can be explained by their inclusion into migration networks, closer cultural and economic ties with neighbouring countries, legal conditions (e.g., simplified border crossing for residents of 30-km zone on the EU border), and so on. The experts say that only 8–10% of those who claimed their readiness to migrate actually do this. It is more efficient to find potential migrants by comparing interconnections among the groups of social mobilities.

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<sup>13</sup> <http://life.pravda.com.ua/technology/2008/10/28/9584/>.

## 4. External Migration Flows Related to Ukraine

Finally, we tried to combine the scattered and fragmented state statistical indicators and expert assessments about the external migration flows, related to Ukraine in the common table that is below:

**Table 12.24** Groups of social mobility

Permanent migration	Temporary migration <sup>(1)</sup>		
	Groups and subgroups of mobility	Quantity	
	Intellectual migrants	Students	54 350 <sup>(2)</sup>
		Researches and academics	10 264 <sup>(3)</sup>
		Skilled migrants	N/A
	Return migrants		279 500 <sup>(4)</sup>
	Labour migrants	Seasonal migrants	
		Cross border migration	
		Long migrants	1 181 600 <sup>(5)</sup>
	Humanitarian migrants	Refugees	1310; c.2500 <sup>(6)</sup>
	Irregular migrants	Human Trafficking	929; 131; 54 <sup>(7)</sup>
	Immigration and transit migration		632 <sup>(8)</sup>
	Lifestyle migration Tourists Business migrants “Brides”	Volunteers	N/A
			18 935 800 <sup>(9)</sup>
			N/A
			N/A
Potential migrants		N/A	
TOTAL		c. 20 464 000	

Note: (1) State services divide all migrants into two groups: tourists and migrants. In case of the first rubric, it comes to the data of State Border Guards Service which fixes instances of crossing the border by each person. In second case, state services only record those individuals who changed their registration address, i.e., both permanent and temporary migrants, because the only criterion for person to be counted as migrant is fact that this person moved to another locality for permanent or temporary residence not shorter than 6 months. We consider such people as temporary migrants, because often they don't stop their movement between different countries. (2) Migrants to Ukraine. Median number of foreign students, which enters Ukraine per year (data 2006-2012). (3) Migrants to Ukraine. Median number of scientists from National Academy of Sciences of Ukraine, who travelled abroad according to 2006-2012 data. (4) Migrants from Ukraine – according to O.Poznyak. (Poznyak, 2013). (5) Migrants from Ukraine – according to survey of households, conducted in 2012 ( Libanova, 2013). (6) Migrants to Ukraine. According to the UN Refugee Agency, in 2013, 1,310 persons applied for refugee status (1,093 adults), which can be considered an average quantity for the previous 4 years. In 2013 c. 2500 people in Ukraine had refugee status. (7) Migrants from Ukraine. According to IOM, 929 people were victims of human trafficking, but only 131 cases were investigated, and only 54 people got the status of victims of trafficking. (8) Median number according to 2006–2012 data. (9) Migrants to Ukraine. Median number of foreign tourists, who entered Ukraine, per year (according to 2000-2012 data).

## 12.4 Conclusions

During the first decades after the fall of the totalitarian regime of the former Soviet Union and declaration of independence, Ukraine found itself “at the intersection” of the two external migration flows: mass exodus of Ukrainians mainly to the EU and the Russian Federation, and immigration and transit migration through its territory (mainly to the EU). Due to the archaic and limited statistical indicators and migration law, which do not actually categorize current temporary migration, we have no reliable statistics on both migration flows.

While in the case of external migration of Ukrainians, the lack of reliable state statistics is partly compensated by fairly intensive sampling studies conducted in the last decade, statistical data and studies in the host countries – the immigration and transit migration in Ukraine is practically not studied. We provide the information by putting together mean and not always reliable state statistics, indi-

vidual research, analytical reports, reports of Ukrainian and international NGOs, Media publication.

Ukrainian experts claim that the vast majority of Ukrainian external migrants make up the *labour migrants*. Depending on the difference in the methodology of research the final data on the number of those whom we conventionally call *labour migrants* appear to range from 1.2 to 5 million. Over the last twenty years the labour immigration from Ukraine covered all the countries of present day European Union, as well as Asia, the American continent and Australia. Experts are unanimous that current migration flows from Ukraine are almost equally divided between the two main areas – the EU and Russia, however, in recent years, the European destination becomes more popular. Most labour migrants originate from Western Ukraine. Labour migration has covered all ages, educational and professional groups and spheres of socially active population. From other side, all the varieties of origin, age group, social status, level of education and sphere of occupation are devoid of sense by the status of immigrant with consequently menial or frequently changed jobs. Nevertheless, the social dynamics of Ukrainian labour migration define people with higher and secondary special education. The growth of deficit for specialists of relevant qualifications in the EU causes successful replacement of the vacancies in areas of skilled labour by Ukrainians with university and vocational education. The overwhelming majority of Ukrainians legalized their stay and employment in host countries, and only one in five labour migrants remains irregular. One more important feature is the indicator of independent women's participation in external Ukrainian migration. The modern Ukrainian migration initiated mass exodus of women to work in Greece and Italy. The gender structure of Ukrainian labour migration is 2/3 in favour of men. Ukrainian labour migration towards the European Union over the past two decades indicates a gradual transition from the “shuttle” trips to neighbouring countries to long-lasting trips to Greece, Italy, Spain and Portugal (thus, approaching a level that is characterized as transnational movements of migrants). The initial orientation, especially during short trips, seasonal work in foreign countries eventually changed into the timing uncertainty of return.

Ukrainian labour migrants often move all over the host country and from one state to the other (from the Czech Republic or Portugal to Spain, Ireland, from there – to Canada and Argentina), where there are generally better working conditions and higher pay. Recent financial crisis was not a key factor for Ukrainian migrants to return to their homeland. For some of Ukrainian migrants the return can be considered as one of the links in the chain of their migratory movements. Ukrainians shape contemporary migration systems uniting Ukraine simultaneously with a number of the host countries (which is based on the developed social networks). The development of the migrant networks produces common space in which there exists intense trade, information exchange, and cross-border movement of workers.

In regard of the concept of “horizontal circular migration” (see D 1.1), the labour migrants group can be divided into the categories which are inter-connected and define one another: seasonal migrants, cross border migrants and permanent migrants practice migration permanently, it is an inherent part of their life: circular migrants and long-term migrants, residence in one or several destination countries for a long or short term or without visits to Ukraine.

Another of the examined mobility groups we name intellectual migration. It includes students studying in European universities. The number of Ukrainian students in different EU countries is growing, many of them look for work in the country of study or other EU countries, thus showing a tendency to join a group of skilled migrants. On the other hand, labour migrants and their children replenish the group of students. There is one more group belonging to intellectual migration – Ukrainian skilled migrants (technical staff and IT specialists, engineers, etc.) They are usually employed at large plants, IT-companies or building and construction companies mostly in the European countries and the USA. Academics and researchers are one more group of intellectual migration. Mostly they leave Ukraine for participation in research projects, study courses and teaching. The motivation for migration for academics and researchers is to improve their qualifications for further profession-

al activities, the lack of financial resources for innovative infrastructure in scientific institutions of Ukraine, and increasing requirements while the salaries remain insufficient.

The group of *humanitarian migrants* constitutes refugees and victims of human trafficking. According to the Office of the UN High Commissioner for the Refugees, 26,400 citizens of Ukraine received the status of a refugee or humanitarian protection while being in other countries. The belonging to a national minority is, as a rule, a reason for receiving such status. In the recent years before the Revolution of Dignity there has been an increase in the number of cases of receiving a refugee status by Ukrainian citizens for political motivation. In 2012 the largest number of applications was registered in the USA, Canada and the EU countries. Most of them have a status of economic migrants. We also assume that the number of refugees from the Ukraine in 2014 will increase due to the Russian military aggression.

In terms of human trafficking, Ukraine can be regarded as a country of origin, transit and destination in the system of trafficking men, women, and children, who are used for sexual and work exploitation all over the world. According to IOM, over 120 000 of Ukrainians suffered from human trafficking from 1991 till 2014. The main countries of trafficking of Ukrainians are Russian Federation, Poland and to a lesser extent – Turkey, Czech Republic, Italy, Greece, Moldova, Iraq, South Korea and China. We can say about the increase in the number of victims of labour exploitation.

The group of *lifestyle migrants* is represented by volunteers, tourists, business migrants and “brides”. Many volunteers from Ukraine continue their mobility in different directions after the end of their programs: some of them stay in the country where they volunteered, others move to other European countries looking for educational courses, internships or work, – they receive a status of intellectual or labour migrants. Except real tourists, the category of “tourism” is one of major reasons for official migration of Ukrainians. The so-called tourists stay in the countries they came to after their tourist visas expire and become irregular labour migrants. *Business migrants* are representatives of big businesses in Ukraine, who start their business in different countries.

Ukrainian labour migrants in the host countries and those returning are building a business that often combines the host country and Ukraine. Contingent group of so-called “brides” we refer those who go mainly to the EU with a marriage purpose. A separate category here are persons (the EU citizens and Ukrainians) involved in the sex business, who using Internet communications travel for short term in both directions as service providers or as customers.

And the last mobility group is *return migrants*. This group is often represented by migrants who returned to the country of origin because of losing their job in the host country, or personal decision to return due to family or other matters. Some of them start their own business in the home country. Still, they keep their contacts with the migrants’ social networks in the previous and potential host countries. Often their relatives are current work migrants or intellectual migrants (usually students whose education fees were earned abroad by the return migrants). Therefore, this group keeps its potential for further migrations.

Experts and reviewers suggest considering Ukraine a country of transit and destination for the immigrants. As immigration and transit migration in Ukraine is almost unexplored, we combined them as a separate segment. Closer acquaintance with these phenomena allows us to draw their typological parallel with Ukrainian external migration and distinguish similar groups: migrant workers, mental workers (students, researchers, skilled professionals), humanitarian and illegal migrants (refugees and victims of human trafficking), lifestyle migrants. The representatives of CIS countries are prevailing among legal and illegal migrants (Russia, Belarus, Moldova, Uzbekistan, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Tajikistan, North-Caucasus region of Russia, Kirgizstan, Kazakhstan), including Georgia. There are also people from Southern-Eastern Asia and Middle East, Africa among them. In recent times, the illegal migrants have been arriving even from the region of Caribbean. “Traditional” channels of illegal migration, controlled by international organized crime, go across the territory of Ukraine – mostly

from African and Asian countries to Western Europe.

To reach the West, Ukraine is made use of as a transit country by the overwhelming majority of migrants. The existing data show that immigrants most often regard their stay in Ukraine as a possibility of further immigration to EU countries, or, vice versa, the primary intentions of further moving to the EU change to permanent residence in Ukraine. Therefore, we deal with intertwining of immigration and transit migration.

Current illegal migration has acquired an organized character in Ukraine. Illegal immigration flows to Ukraine are a part of Central European route – one of five major Euro-Asian illegal migration transit routes to the EU countries. The Central European route which goes across Russia, Ukraine, Poland, and Slovakia to Western Europe is used by migrants from Middle and Far East, South-East Asia and CIS countries. The low skilled persons often without any work experience are generally believed to prevail among illegal migrants. However, a tendency towards the growth in the numbers of migrants – high-level professionals, in particular, the representatives of popular trades, has been noticed recently.

In conclusion, we can define three trends that combine mass external migrations of Ukrainians with immigration and transit migration in Ukraine: (1) distinguished by us types of migration and migrant groups are combined moving from one group to another already at the stage of starting and during the migration, forming its new quality; (2) on the other hand, the development of migration systems that combine the country of origin and host countries, and form a mobility space that exists in parallel with the recipient societies, donor communities, respective states, make basis for further integration of different mobility groups; (3) both flows of trans migrants related to Ukraine, re formed on the basis of “horizontal circular migration”. This concept includes not only the periodic movement of migrants from one country (or region) to the other in search of better living and working conditions in which the country of origin or stay becomes one of the “links” of movements, but also presupposes that contemporary migration is one of those threads that define social circulation in horizontal communication space. Therefore, the development of external migrations is connected with the changes of the types of social mobility.

This, in turn, presents us with a need for differentiation of “temporalities” and their social typologization based on migrants and non-migrants polls in order to explore the transformative characteristics of temporary mobility of people. Its implementation within the project should include time-spatial differences in the approaches to the typology of migration, differences in the definition and understanding of the concepts of “border”, respectively, in the European and Asian dimensions.

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