

## The Impact of Globalization on Migration Processes

Ramunė Čiarnienė, Vilmantė Kumpikaitė

*Kaunas University of Technology*

### Abstract

The paper concentrates on a description of the essentials of globalization processes and their impact on migration. Economic globalization encourages free trade agreements between countries, multinational corporations, and the free flow of goods across the world. All these rapid increases in trans-national flow of capital, trade and technology have marked its effects on international migration as well. Because economic globalization exacerbates inequalities between nations, migration for many becomes not a choice, but an economic necessity.

**Key words:** globalization, migration, immigration, Lithuania.

### Introduction

**Relevance of the research.** Globalization is used to define a combination of factors: a single market place with growing free trade among nations; the increasing flow and sharing of information, connections, or links of people around the world; the opportunity for organizations and people to shop around the world and not to be constrained by national boundaries.

The connections between immigration and globalization are powerful and present. In the last 50 years, immigration at a global scale has intensified as more countries (and hence cities) are affected by migratory movements. ‘While movements of people across borders have shaped states and societies since time immemorial, what is distinctive in recent years is their global scope, their centrality to domestic and international politics and their enormous economic and social consequences’ (Castles and Miller, 2003).

People have always left their homes in search for better economic opportunities, both within and outside of their own homeland. But economic globalization has put a new spin on global migration causing global up rootedness and human displacement of an unprecedented scale.

**Research object:** migration processes in the context of globalization.

**Research aim:** to find out the impact of globalization on migration processes.

**Research tasks:** to define the essence of globalization; to disclose impact of globalization on migration processes; to analyze migration processes in Lithuania.

Research methods: analysis of scientific literature; logical analysis; analysis of statistical data and conclusion formulation.

The paper is divided into three parts. The first part examines the essence of globalization. Impact of globalization on migration processes is introduced in the second part. Analysis of migration processes in Lithuania is presented in the third part.

### The essence of globalization

Globalization is synonymous to the phenomenon of acceleration. For the past years rapid changes have affected political, economic and social developments. Acceleration is seen in vast technological changes, media revolution, global economic integration and massive changes in production systems and labor markets. Globalization places special emphasis on borders between countries, specifically on opening them up. Economic globalization encourages free trade agreements between countries, multinational corporations, and A free flow of goods across the world. All these rapid increases in trans-national flow of capital, trade and technology have marked its effects on international migration as well. Global economic restructuring has led not only to disruption in less developed or developing economies; it has also been a factor in unemployment, wage decline or job insecurity in dominant market economies (Hefti, 1997).

Globalization is a political-economic name for the progressive trial of world-wide division of labor. Since trade barriers between the states are increasingly reduced, and the factor of capital has become mobile and applicable world wide, furthermore, the new communication technologies are able to be used boundlessly, it is increasingly produced in such countries, which offer the highest cost benefits. Marking

for globalization is that these cost benefits are not looking for each final product only (e.g. photo cameras from Singapore), but for (almost) each component, of which the final product consists (an automobile e.g. from individual screws over individual body parts and the engine up to entire building groups, etc.). Thus the process of globalization has increased crucially competition pressure between individual enterprises and has substantial effects on stability and security of jobs (Klaus, Dietz, 2006).

A relatively new phenomenon that emerged in the last part of the 20th century, globalization has caused and was caused by a converging of economic and social forces, of interests and commitments, of values and tastes, of challenges and opportunities. Four main forces quickly brought us to this global age: technology, travel, trade, and television. These four Ts have laid the ground for a more collective experience for people everywhere. More and more of us share common tastes in foods (hamburgers, pizza, tacos), fashion (denim jeans), and fun (Disney, rock music, television). Nearly 2 billion passengers fly the world's airways each year and over 1 billion of us speak the global language – “broken English.” People watch the same movies, read the same magazines, and dance the same dances from Boston to Bangkok to Buenos Aires (Marquardt, Berger, 2003).

### **Impact of globalization on migration**

Migration is not a new thing. People have always left their homes in search for better economic opportunities, both within and outside of their own homeland. But economic globalization has put a new spin on global migration causing global uprootedness and human displacement of an unprecedented scale. Because economic globalization exacerbates inequality among nations, migration for many becomes not a choice but an economic necessity.

Immigration, especially of people of working age, increases potential workforce and can partly compensate low participation of native population. More hands on deck ultimately mean more economic growth and prosperity (Nonneman, 2007). This makes possible for humans to earn more money abroad than in the own country. That leads to increase of living standard of people who work abroad or their families in the home countries. Of course, many people who immigrate do it for the reason that they can not find a job on their own labor market but also many people immigrate because wages in other countries are higher. Thus their outgoing leaves jobs on the own labor market which must be occupied.

Each immigrant entering the country as well as being a job seeker also provides work to others be-

cause he or she is a consumer and user of all kinds of services and supplies and creates demand and hence work. Migratory networks develop intensifying links between the areas of origin and destination. Sassen (1999) concurs noting that people who travel and move help to shape the material and spiritual culture of places: therefore migration should be seen as an equally central component of globalization as trade and finance.

The relationship between globalization and immigration makes a strong reason for studying immigration and world cities. Immigration and its impact on the changing urban landscape are an important part of the process of globalization, although they are not included as criteria for inclusion in the global urban hierarchy. One problem is that much of international migration data are at the country level; there is no standardized institutional data on immigration to cities around the world (Short, Price and Friedman, 2005).

Migration was identified as an important factor in the original formulation of the world city hypothesis of Friedmann (1986), who observed that “world cities are points of destination for large numbers of both domestic and/or international migrants”, there are numerous studies on immigrants in particular cities; not much empirical work has been done to look at immigration and formation of world city status. Much of research on migration, globalization and the global urban hierarchy has analyzed inter-city migration or transnational business elites, or focused on migration in one or two specific cities as case studies (Godfrey, 1996; Ley, 2001; Deurloo and Musterd, 2001; Fan, 2002).

Today both Europe and North America are home or host areas for about one fifth of the world's migrant population each. Along with the US and Canada, Western Europe has become one of the two most important destinations on the world map of international migration. And given foreseeable demographic and economic imbalances it is not only likely but also necessary that Europe remains on that map and continues to manage economically motivated migration for its own benefit (Münz, Fellow, 2004).

Due to globalization rates of migration have accelerated and the diversity of origin points has increased. Much of this immigration is driven by economic factors, most notably wage differences among countries. Differing national policies are also extremely important explaining the flow and composition of immigrant groups to cities around the world. Cultural consequences of large numbers of people from diverse countries settling in particular points on the globe (almost always cities) are real.

Concentration of skilled international labor wit-

hin transnational corporations (TNCs) is another area of urban migration research. Beaverstock (1994) has noted that skilled international labor migration is a vital ingredient to, and outcome of, being a world city, and both Friedmann (1986) and Castells (1996) studied flows of skilled migrants between world cities. These are important contributions to an understanding of the link among globalization, migration and world cities, yet they focus on a very narrow range of migrants. With the globalization of migration, most countries do not host one category of migrant (i.e. elite labor or refugees), but receive a diverse range (Castles and Miller, 2003).

Employment in both highly specialized labor and low-skilled service jobs is characteristic for global cities. There has been much research on the impact of skilled (or elite labor); less on unskilled migration. Both forms not only affect the host city and country, they also affect the sending city and country. The World Bank conservatively estimates that \$80 billion in work remittances were transferred from immigrants to their countries of origin in 2002 (World Bank Group, 2003). Other sources suggest the figure may have totaled to \$100–\$200 billion in 2003 (Sander, 2003). Remittances are just one example of how immigration is establishing new socio-economic networks that link world cities to each other and to other peripheral locales around the world. Remittances are an increasingly important topic of interest, but their impact at the urban scale has not been well researched.

Contemporary views on migration depart from the earlier premise of the push-pull theory on migration. According to this theory, people moved either because of social and economic forces in the place of destination impelled them to do so, or because they were attracted to places of destination by one or more social and economic factors there (Cohen, 1996). Observers of migration flows have long seen the vast changing nature of migration. What used to be purely economic reasons for migrating no longer hold in many cases. Globalization of communication technology has affected extensively the original impetus of individuals to migrate. Linkages between receiving and sending countries are readily established. Networks connect migrants and non-migrants, where news and information are shared. This sustains the flow of migration. Studying networks, particularly those linked with families and households, sheds of understanding in the development of, and encouragement in additional migration.

Migrants bring to the receiving countries many customs, practices and behavior patterns from the home country. Smaller communities of the original culture are recreated in host countries, such as “little Italy” or Chinatown, in New York and Los Angeles.

Multi-ethnicity is seen in large urban communities. However, a multicultural society may be threatening to native-born citizens of receiving countries. This can elicit resentment among the citizenry which can trigger social conflicts (Hefti, 1997). Migration policies in many Western countries are not integrative. The effect of these policies is marginalization of migrant workers. Marginalization takes the form of low incomes, and unskilled jobs. Factors such as unequal opportunities, prejudice and discrimination may be involved in prolonged periods of marginalization. Inequalities between rich and poor countries increase, borders are becoming more and more closed to people. Because of these tight border controls and a growing global fear of those seeking refuge, migration is a risky business.

Migrants also face racism and marginalization, despite the fact that many of the citizens of countries where they arrive to are also immigrants or the children of immigrants. Migrants are often seen as free-loaders or suspected of being criminals. Migrants are looking for basic human rights: safety, home, and a chance to provide for themselves and their families; all rights guaranteed to them under international human rights laws. There are ethical and moral reasons for countries to open their borders. But there are also economic reasons to encourage immigration. Immigrants tend to contribute more in taxes than they receive in social services. Immigrant labor is also needed to sustain the workforce in rich countries with aging population and to protect industries that rely on immigrant labor (Hayter, 2002). Ironically, the United States, despite their tight border controls, depend heavily on illegal farm workers to do work such as fruit and vegetable picking.

International migration of highly-qualified (after end of the World War II) is known in the science as “brain drain”. By “brain drain” one understands loss of human capital and/or outflow of intelligence and understanding (Butorac, 2005).

By the drift it can come into e.g. certain sectors to bottlenecks and to a decrease of production capacities. Particularly the drift of highly-qualified ones is also on decrease. Humans with a high measure of human capital are one of the most important factors for economic development.

Besides they are to call loss of potential tax receipts and loss of the funds, invested in training. But a reduced number of highly-qualified ones rises, wages of these workers simultaneously the wages of unqualified sink and lead thereby partly to a prosperity duty. Apart from these economic effects, the drift can also lead to political and social disadvantages. The dangers of corruption, bad Governance and general instability can increase because of the absence of funds.

## Migration in Lithuania

Citizens in highly developed countries are keenly aware of the impact of immigrants from less developed countries on their economy. Poor countries and poor people not only have less capital than rich ones but also have less knowledge. The above mentioned factors such as still going transformation processes, low wages stimulate citizens in these countries migrate to West European countries and the USA and

look for better paid jobs and often for better life. According to the Labor Force Survey of 2004, 10% of the British working-age population was born in another country (Dustmann, Fabbri, 2005). As we can see from Table 1, negative net migration was in non-EU (before 2004 enlargement) countries, such as former Czechoslovakia, Poland, Romania, Bulgaria, Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania. The most popular countries to immigrate were Luxembourg, Spain, Cyprus, Austria, Ireland, Greece and UK.

Table 1

### Net migration, per 1000 population

| Country              | 1980 | 1990  | 1995  | 2000  | 2004 | 2005 | 2006 |
|----------------------|------|-------|-------|-------|------|------|------|
| EU 27                | 1.1  | 1.4   | 1.4   | 1.0   | 3.8  | 3.6  | .    |
| EU 25                | 1.3  | 1.9   | 1.5   | 1.6   | 4.1  | 3.8  | .    |
| Belgium              | -0.2 | 2.0   | 0.2   | 1.3   | 3.4  | 4.9  | .    |
| Bulgaria             | 0.0  | -10.9 | 0.0   | -27.4 | 0.0  | 0.0  | 0.0  |
| Czech Republic       | -4.0 | -5.7  | 1.0   | 0.6   | 1.8  | 3.5  | 3.4  |
| Denmark              | 0.1  | 1.7   | 5.5   | 1.9   | 0.9  | 1.2  | 1.9  |
| Estonia              | 4.1  | -3.6  | -10.8 | 0.2   | 0.1  | 0.1  | .    |
| Finland              | -0.5 | 1.7   | 0.8   | 0.5   | 1.3  | 1.7  | 2.0  |
| France               | 0.8  | 0.5   | -0.3  | 2.2   | 1.7  | -5.1 | 1.5  |
| Ireland              | -0.2 | -2.2  | 1.6   | 8.4   | 11.7 | 15.9 | .    |
| Italy                | 0.1  | 0.4   | 0.5   | 0.9   | 9.6  | 5.5  | .    |
| Cyprus               | -1.3 | 15.0  | 9.2   | 5.7   | 21.3 | 19.0 | 11.0 |
| Lithuania            | 0.6  | -2.4  | -6.5  | -5.8  | -2.8 | -2.6 | -1.4 |
| Latvia               | 1.0  | -4.9  | -5.5  | -2.3  | -0.5 | -0.2 | -1.1 |
| Luxembourg           | 3.7  | 10.3  | 10.6  | 7.9   | 3.4  | 6.0  | .    |
| Hungary              | 0.0  | 1.8   | 1.7   | 1.6   | 1.8  | 1.7  | 1.9  |
| Malta                | 1.2  | 2.4   | 0.2   | 25.3  | 4.8  | 2.4  | 2.5  |
| Germany <sup>1</sup> | 3.9  | 8.3   | 4.9   | 2.0   | 1.0  | 1.0  | 0.3  |
| Netherlands          | 3.6  | 3.3   | 1.0   | 3.6   | -0.6 | -1.4 | -1.6 |
| Poland               | -0.7 | -0.3  | -0.5  | -10.7 | -0.2 | -0.3 | -0.9 |
| Portugal             | 4.3  | -3.9  | 2.2   | 4.6   | 4.5  | 3.6  | 2.5  |
| Austria              | 1.2  | 7.6   | 0.3   | 2.2   | 7.6  | 6.8  | 3.6  |
| Romania              | -0.8 | -3.7  | -1.2  | -0.5  | -0.5 | -0.3 | -0.3 |
| Greece               | 5.8  | 6.3   | 7.3   | 2.7   | 3.7  | 3.6  | 3.6  |
| Slovakia             | -2.3 | -0.4  | 0.5   | -4.1  | 0.5  | 0.6  | 0.7  |
| Slovenia             | 2.9  | -0.1  | 0.4   | 1.4   | 0.9  | 3.2  | 3.1  |
| United Kingdom       | -0.6 | 0.4   | 1.1   | 2.4   | 3.8  | 3.2  | .    |
| Spain                | 3.0  | -0.5  | 1.8   | 9.7   | 14.3 | 14.8 | 13.9 |
| Sweden               | 1.2  | 4.1   | 1.3   | 2.7   | 2.8  | 3.0  | 5.6  |

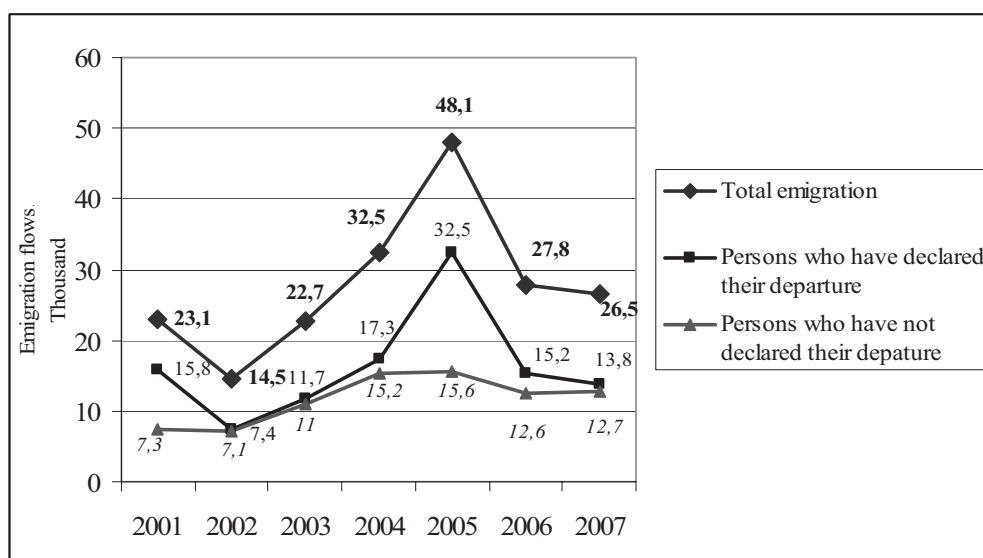
<sup>1</sup> Including ex-GDR since 1991

Source: Eurostat, 20/06/2007, accessed through [http://www.czso.cz/eng/redakce.nsf/i/international\\_comparison](http://www.czso.cz/eng/redakce.nsf/i/international_comparison)

Speaking about emigration situation in Lithuania since 1990, taking into account declared and undeclared emigration, about 447 thousand of emigrants emigrated; 87 thousand of people immigrated. In years 1990–2006 negative migration balance (more emigrated than immigrated) made up 360 thousand citizens.

We should mention that during the first year of membership in the European Union (year 2004) the number of emigrants from Lithuania has grown by 1.4

times from 22.7 thousand to 32.5 thousand (see Figure 1). The largest number of persons, 48.1 thousand, emigrated in 2005. It was even twice more than in year 2003. During the years 2006 and 2007 the number of emigrants decreased. In 2007 26.5 thousand persons left Lithuania to stay in foreign countries permanently or for a period longer than 6 months, which is by 1.3 thousand (4.7%) less than a year ago. Such a situation depended on better economy and decreased unemployment rate in Lithuania.



**Figure 1.** Emigration flows in Lithuania in 2001–2007

Source: Demographic Yearbook 2007, [www.stat.gov.lt](http://www.stat.gov.lt),

If we look at the most popular countries for the destination to migrate in 2006, more than half (about 70%) of emigrants went to the countries of the European Union: United Kingdom (26% of all emigrants), Ireland (20%), Germany (9%), and Spain (6%). Speaking about non EU countries, Lithuanian citizens also emigrated to the United States of America (14% of all emigrants), the Russian Federation (7%), and Belarus (6%).

EU countries remained the most attractive destination for 2007 too. In these years, as well as in 2006, about two-thirds of migrants left for EU countries: United Kingdom (33% of emigrants), Ireland (16%), Germany (8%), Spain (4%), Denmark (3%) and other. People were also emigrating to the USA (11%), the Russian Federation (7%), and Belarus (5%).

Statistical data on international migration in Lithuania is provided in Table 2. Referring to data of the living place declaration (in 2007), in 2006 7.7 thousand people immigrated to Lithuania, this is by 14% more than in 2005. Most by people came to Lithuania from the United Kingdom, Ireland, the Russian Federation and Belarus. In 2006 the main part, 71%

of immigrants were citizens of Lithuanian Republic returning to the motherland for living; in 2003 they made up 28% of all immigrants. In 2007 8.6 thousand persons immigrated to Lithuania, what is by 864 persons more than in 2006. In 2007 there were on average 2.6 immigrants per 1000 of population. In 2007 most persons arrived from the United Kingdom (1.8 thousand), Belarus (1.0 thousand), the Russian Federation and Ireland (0.8 thousand each). In 2007 most persons (6.1 thousand or 71.3%) who arrived to Lithuania were the citizens of the Republic of Lithuania also, in 2006. Almost 70% of returning citizens of the Republic of Lithuania were younger than 35.

Returning back emigrated citizens started to be more considered in Lithuania, this is the reason that part of more educated emigrants return back and are recognized and highly valued by Lithuanian organizations. They may be less aware that jobs have been moving from high – producing economies to countries whose educational systems produce prospective workers faster than their economies can absorb them.

Table 2

**International migration in Lithuania<sup>1</sup>**

|      | Immigration | Emigration | Net migration | Per 1000 population |            |               |
|------|-------------|------------|---------------|---------------------|------------|---------------|
|      |             |            |               | immigration         | emigration | net migration |
| 2001 | 4694        | 7253       | -2559         | 1.4                 | 2.1        | -0.7          |
| 2002 | 5110        | 7086       | -1976         | 1.4                 | 2.0        | -0.6          |
| 2003 | 4728        | 11032      | -6304         | 1.4                 | 3.2        | -1.8          |
| 2004 | 5553        | 15165      | -9612         | 1.6                 | 4.4        | -2.8          |
| 2005 | 6789        | 15571      | -8782         | 2.0                 | 4.6        | -2.6          |
| 2006 | 7745        | 12602      | -4857         | 2.3                 | 3.7        | -1.4          |
| 2007 | 8609        | 13853      | -5244         | 2.6                 | 4.1        | -1.5          |

<sup>1</sup>By data of the declaration of residence.

Source: Statistics Lithuania [www.stat.gov.lt](http://www.stat.gov.lt), document updated 19/08/2008

The share of educated emigrants has been increasing (see Table 3). In 2007 almost each fourth emigrant aged 15 and older had finished a higher school or college (in 2006 each fifth). Most (68%) of emigrants of this age group had general upper secondary, special secondary or general lower secondary education (in 2006 58%). The share of educated emigrants has been increasing. In 2007 almost each fourth emigrant aged 16 and older had finished a higher school or college (in 2006 each fifth). Most (68%) of emigrants

of this age group had general upper secondary, special secondary or general lower secondary education (in 2006 58%). In 2007 each second emigrant aged 15 and older had not been working before departure. Each eighth emigrant of this age group was a professional (teacher, lecturer, doctor, etc.), while each tenth – a craft and related trade worker, service worker, or shop and market sales worker (salesperson, cashier, etc.) (Demographic Yearbook, 2007).

Table 3

**Emigrants who have not declared their departure by former occupation <sup>1,2</sup> aged 15 and older**

|  | 2001–2002   | 2003        | 2004        | 2005        | 2006        | 2007        |
|--|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| <b>Total, thousand</b>   | <b>19.5</b> | <b>10.9</b> | <b>16.0</b> | <b>28.1</b> | <b>13.0</b> | <b>12.0</b> |
| <b>Percentage of total emigrants aged 15 years and older who have not declared their departure</b> |             |             |             |             |             |             |
| Highly skilled non manual  | 17.9        | 12.0        | 20.2        | 11.4        | 14.6        | 17.5        |
| Low skilled non manual   | 5.1         | 8.3         | 12.2        | 10.7        | 9.2         | 10.8        |
| Skilled manual   | 16.8        | 29.4        | 18.4        | 18.2        | 24.6        | 18.3        |
| Elementary occupations   | 5.1         | 8.3         | 1.2         | 3.6         | 12.3        | 4.2         |
| Unknown  | 55.1        | 42.0        | 48.0        | 56.1        | 39.3        | 49.2        |

<sup>1</sup> The breakdown of persons by occupation is based on the Lithuanian classification by occupation (groups 1 to 3 for highly skilled non manual, 4 to 5 for low skilled non manual, 6 to 8 for skilled manual and 9 for elementary occupations).

<sup>2</sup> Data of the Survey on Undeclared Emigration.

Source: Statistics Lithuania, [www.stat.gov.lt](http://www.stat.gov.lt), document updated 28/06/2008

The main reason for emigration from Lithuania is work. In 2007 almost 70% of emigrants had a purpose to work in another country, while in 2006 the share of such emigrants made up 63%. A year ago about 8% of emigrants left for family reasons, i.e. when persons leave to join their family members who had emigrated or in case of a marriage with a foreigner (in 2006 14%). The share of persons leaving Lithuania to study abroad has been increasing: in 2007 it made up 13% (in 2006 7%).

**Conclusions**

1. A relatively new phenomenon that emerged in the second half of the 20th century, globalization, has caused and was caused by converging of economic and social forces, of interests and commitments, of values and tastes, of challenges and opportunities. Much of this immigration is driven by economic factors, most notably wage differences among countries. Differing national policies are also extremely important in explaining the flow and composition of immigrant groups.
2. Immigration, especially of people of working age, increases potential workforce and can partly compensate low participation of the native population. Each immigrant entering the country as well as being a job seeker also provides work to others because he or she is a consumer and user of all

kinds of services and supplies and creates demand and hence work. Otherwise, loss of human capital and outflow of intelligence and understanding can come thus into certain sectors to bottleneck and a decrease of production capacities in host countries.

3. In years 1990–2007 negative migration balance in Lithuania was more than 360 thousand citizens. The main reason for emigration is job. Most part of those who declared their departure according to former occupation were highly skilled non manual and skilled manual emigrants. Changing economic situation influences migrants' return to Lithuania. In 2007 more than 70% of immigrants were the citizens of Lithuania returning to the motherland for living.

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R. Čiarnienė, V. Kumpikaitė

## Globalizacijos įtaka migracijos procesams

### Santrauka

Globalizacija kaip reiškinys gali būti siejama su XX a. antrąja puse, kai ėmė augti ir stiprėti tarptautinės organizacijos, ribojančios valstybių suverenitetą, plėstis transnacionalinės korporacijos, didėti ekonominė priklausomybė tarp valstybių, tarptautinių nevyriausybių veikėjų įtaka tarptautinei sistemai, standartų ir normų supanašėjimas daugelyje gyvenimo sferų.

Globalizacija – sudėtingas reiškinys, vykstantis socialinėje plotmėje, apimantis pačias įvairiausias visuomenės, valstybės, kitų socialinių darinių veiklos sritis, jų aplinką, pasireiškiantis tarpusavio ryšių intensyvėjimu, judėjimu ir kitomis charakteristikomis viso pasaulio mastu. Tai procesas, apimantis įvairias pasaulio ūkio, politikos ir visuomenės sferas ir didinantis jų tarpusavio integraciją, stiprinantis tarpusavio priklausomybę bei kuriantis bendro veikimo šablonus.

Ekonomikoje globalizacija nusako pokyčius pasaulio ir regionų ekonomikoje, kylančius dėl laisvo finansinio, žmogiškojo ir kitokio kapitalo judėjimo, intensyvios tarptautinės prekybos, kultūrinių ir kitokių mainų. Globalizacija siejama ir su kultūra, t. y. su gyvenimo būdo, požiūrių, vartojimo ir pan. supanašėjimu tarp pasaulio gyventojų. Kartais globalizacijos kritikai ją sieja su vakarietišku ver-

tybių, tokių kaip demokratija, laisvoji rinka ir pan., bei apskritai gyvenimo būdo plėtra.

Globalizacija daro ženklų įtaką ir tarptautinės migracijos procesams.

**Tyrimo tikslas** – atskleisti globalizacijos įtaką migracijos procesams.

**Tyrimo uždaviniai:** apibūdinti globalizacijos esmę; atskleisti globalizacijos įtaką migracijos procesams; pateikti migracijos procesų Lietuvoje analizę.

**Tyrimo metodai** – mokslinės literatūros analizė, loginė analizė, statistinių duomenų analizė, išvadų formulavimas.

Straipsnis susideda iš trijų dalių. Pirmoje dalyje autorės nagrinėja globalizacijos procesus teoriniu požiūriu.

Antroji dalis skirta globalizacijos įtakos migracijos procesams analizei. Autorės apžvelgia migracijos procesų pokyčius globalizacijos kontekste, teigiamus ir neigiamus migracijos procesų aspektus.

Trečiojoje straipsnio dalyje analizuojami statistiniai duomenys apie migracijos procesus Lietuvoje, aptariamos pagrindinės migracijos priežastys, migracijos dinamika ir struktūra.

**Prasminiai žodžiai:** globalizacija, migracija, emigracija, Lietuva.