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International youth migration: features, tendencies, regulation prospects

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Abstract. The article examines the global and regional issues of international youth migration. The obtained results are most interesting for those regions where the population is shrinking and aging with a rising need to involve youth for educational services and local labor markets, or vice versa, for those losing youth due to their emigration. It is emphasized

that youth create an economically active social group, which volume and quality significantly affect the country's development. During the global migration trends identification, the authors identified the international youth migration flows' differences and features. The paper notes that the global trends in the international youth migration development include: increase in volume and percentage of youth in the overall number of migrants and the local population; growth of youth migrants in more developed regions and high-income countries; the dominance of migratory centers for youth in Oceania, North America, and Europe; formation of powerful centers of migration of intellectual young labor resources in the UAE, Canada, the USA, Australia, and New Zealand. The available formational policy in youth migration regulation, on the example of India, China, Taiwan, Japan, USA, and Western Europe, is studied. The impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on international migration flows is considered, including changes in international migration in 2020. Based on the UN data analysis on age groups of migrants within geographical regions, it was determined that the prerequisite for such a structure of migration centers is a high level of migratory attractiveness. Such migration-center structure is also explained by the significant level of cross-regional migration, as in the localized regions, their factors of «attraction-repulsion» are formed. It is stressed out that increasing military and political instability has led to the uphill of forced youth migrants. The paper proposes the flow optimization directions of international youth migration by formulating the link between migration policy and elements of other integration policies on migrant youth (employment policy, social, educational, information and security policies).

Keywords: migration, international migration, youth migration, youth, global issues, centers of gravity, students, COVID-19

Міжнародна молодіжна міграція: особливості, тенденції, перспективи регулювання

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Анотація. У статті досліджено глобальну та регіональну проблематику розвитку міжнародної молодіжної міграції. Отримані результати найбільш цікаві для тих регіонів, у яких відбувається скорочення та старіння населення, виникає необхідність залучення молоді у сферу надання освітніх послуг та на місцеві ринки праці, або навпаки, які втрачають молодь за рахунок їхньої еміграції. Наголошено, що молодь є тією економічно-активною соціальною групою, обсяг та якість якої суттєво впливає на розвиток країни. На фоні ідентифікації глобальних міграційних трендів, авторами визначено відмінності та особливості потоків саме міжнародної молодіжної міграції. Зазначено, що глобальними тенденціями розвитку міжнародної молодіжної міграції є: зростання обсягу та ваги молоді у загальній чисельності мігрантів та місцевому населенні; зростання обсягу молодіжних мігрантів у більш розвинених регіонах і країнах з високим рівнем доходу; домінування міграційних центрів тяжіння молоді у Океанії, Північній Америці та Європі; формування потужних центрів міграційного тяжіння інтелектуальних молодих трудових ресурсів у ОАЕ, Канаді, США, Австралії та Новій Зеландії. Досліджено наявні форми національної політики країн у сфері регулювання молодіжної міграції, на прикладі Індії, КНР, Тайваню, Японії, США і країн Західної Європи. Проведено локальне дослідження мотивів, умов та намірів молоді в Україні, на прикладі університетської студентської спільноти. Враховано вплив пандемії COVID-19 на міжнародні міграційні потоки та розглянуто зміни які відбулися у сфері міжнародної міграції в 2020 році. На основі аналізу даних ООН щодо вікових груп мігрантів в межах

географічних регіонів визначено, що передумовами такої структури міграційних осередків є високий рівень міграційної привабливості. Така структура міграційного осередку пояснюється також значним рівнем внутрішньорегіональної міграції, оскільки у локалізованих регіонах формуються власні фактори «притягування-виштовхування». Зазначено, що посилення військово-політичної нестабільності спричинило зростання кількості вимушених молодіжних мігрантів. Запропоновано напрями оптимізації потоків міжнародної молодіжної міграції шляхом формулювання зв'язку між міграційною політикою та елементами інших інтеграційної політик щодо мігруючої молоді (політики зайнятості, соціально, освітньої, інформаційної та безпекової політик).

Ключові слова: міграція, міжнародна міграція, молодіжна міграція, молодь, глобальні проблеми, центри тяжіння, студенти, COVID-19

Introduction

In the second half of the XX century, the irreversible globalization force covered all spheres of public life and, accordingly, granted interdependence to countries and people interdependence. Humankind faced rapid changes in global political and economic systems, causing a significant intensification of global migration flows and forming a fundamentally new migration at the international level. The migration issues importance is underlined by the interest of many on international and non-governmental level. Those included the European website on Integration, International Labour Organization, International Association for Intercultural Education, European Council on Refugees and Exiles, Platform for International Cooperation on Undocumented Migrants (PICUM), Platform for Intercultural Europe, Refugee International, Human right watch, Separated Children in Europe Programme, Society for Intercultural Education, Training and Research, ect. and others. In their activities, they pander issues, including migration and integration of youth and respect for their rights.

Increased focus on migration started with the human capital theory when G. Becker (Becker, 1962) emphasized the significant role of migrants in creating social wealth and differences in motivation for migration of different ages. Human resources and noted that «individuals who have not yet invested in themselves will have an incentive to migrate, and that partly explained the reason of youth migration over older generations.» That determines one of the appropriate areas of the study systematization and specification of the advantages and disadvantages of the country's involvement in international migration to form trends in relevant processes regulation.

Several features determine modern international migration. According to the UN, in 2020, 71% of all migrants originated from developing countries, and over the past 30 years, the number has more than doubled (United Nations Departments of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, 2020). Current migrations are not followed by colonization or conquest and (Manning, 2017), current migrations across ethnic, cultural, and even religious boundaries

(Kerwin, 2020). On the other hand, the immigrant workers might ensure a stable economic development of the country (Osaulenko et al., 2020).

In recent years, migration has become a global challenge to the prospects for further human development. According to World Migration Report 2020 (IOM), “The current global estimate is that there were around 272 million international migrants in the world in 2019, which equates to 3.5 percent of the global population” (International Organization for Migration, 2020).

Historically, many migrants are youth, so youth migration has attracted the particular attention of the world scientific community for a long time (Döringetall, 2021).

Literature review

International organizations, government agencies, and scientists study migration processes quite thoroughly. Statistics from the United Nations and the International Organization for Migration depict the global demographic process of increasing population migration since the end of the twentieth century (Fig. 1).

Helliwell (2004) studied the impact of political and economic factors on demographic change and increasing migration flows until 2050; he found that changes in trends and volume of migration flows depend on domestic policies and harm the global demographic situation. Heinsohn (2019) notes that population migration, especially its youth segment, is a global phenomenon and a catalyst for social development. Kobzar et al. (2015) studied the migration evolution wherein there is an increase in the global middle class and changes in the population demographic profile due to increasing migration. Tyers and Bain (2015) developed a demographic submodel as a part of the global economy standard model that illustrates the dependence of migration flows on the level of real wages and the motivation of migrants. Bil (2017), based on the dynamics of migration flows analysis, created the concept of migration institutionalization in modern society and identified societies where the population majority is migrants. Shymanska, Kurylo, Karmaza, and Timchenko (2017) investigated

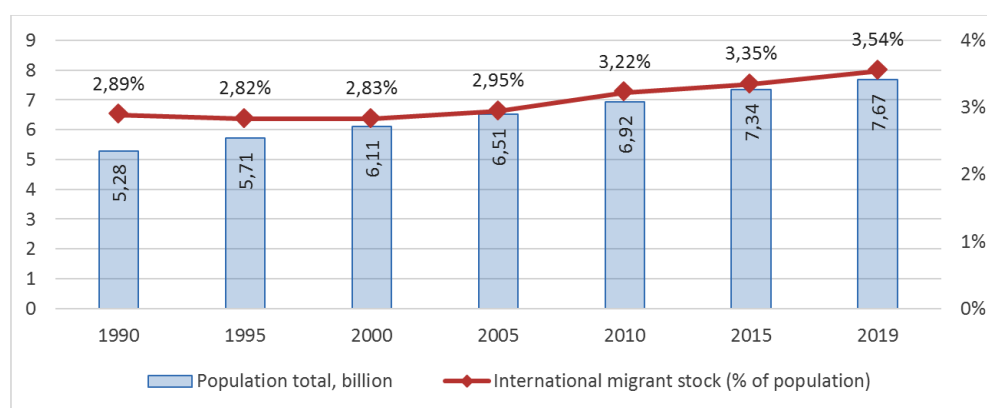


Fig. 1. The dynamics of the world's population and the international migrants share (according to the WorldBank (2019a, 2019b), International Organization for Migration (2020)).

Note: the international migrants' share in the world's population in 2019 is calculated independently according to International Organization for Migration (2020).

the migration motives determinants as a prerequisite for the migration flows formation and identified the transformation of modern migration flows under the influence of economic, social, and demographic, political security, linguistic, cultural, environmental and natural factors. Sardak et al. (2018) took a comprehensive approach to study the migration movement of human resources and noted global migration trends. Malynovs'ka (2018) explored global and national aspects of migration policy. R. Stakanov (2020) considered the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on international labor migration. Menozzi and Mishra (2020) comprehensively identified changes in international migration flows and determined ten significant trends in 2020. However, migration flows studies by age groups are limited, and statistics differ. That causes difficulties in determining trends in international youth migration and the consequences for the economy and society.

Among the studies of youth migration, the latest studies on the environmental aspects of family migration can be distinguished, which's part is the youth migration (Lu, 2020). Attention should also be focused on the study of Despaigne & Manzano-Munguía (2019) that raised the youth reverse migration issue, considering Mexico's case. In particular, their work considers the mechanisms of linguistic, cultural, social adaptation of youth in the destination country. Impressive research by Döring et al. (2021) studied 569 528 18-year-old Swedes who already work. Researchers have found that education quality affects all-cause mortality in such age group. That is the essential conclusion, as for a large number of conscious migration begins at this age.

Pitiulych et al. (2020) ran sociological monitoring of youth migration in the Transcarpathian region of Ukraine. Their research gives an idea of the migration

motives of Ukrainian student youth. A similar study on Moldova and Georgia's example was conducted by Bastianon (2018), who found that the individual capabilities, youth aspirations, and the households' capabilities significantly involve youth decision-making on migration. On the example of Bulgarian youth Kovacheva and Hristozova (2019) studied a narrower phenomenon – the female youth migration. After studying the migration impact on identity formation, they concluded that youth maintains their national identity at the highest level. Although, highly qualified individuals had a more excellent social and political orientation.

Accordingly, we note the study relevance of the youth migration features that establish the decomposition direction of national migration policies for this migrants' category.

Material and research methods

Nowadays, the migration processes require an in-depth study based primarily on statistical research to establish the causes and negative consequences in the future. That is especially relevant for the study of youth migration. Since youth is the population age cohort with an internal structure and mechanisms to support cultural patterns. Youth are more inclined and have a high potential for innovation in all spheres of society. Being the most economically active part of society, youth have high employment potential and workability. It has high demographic productivity from a demographic point of view (70-80% of births occur at a young age). However, youth also have a high adaptability degree, ability to learn and develop new knowledge.

The study used systematic, and logical, and historical methods, deduction, and induction to study international migration's nature and trends,

particularly youth migration. The theoretical generalization and abstraction allowed establishing the social and economic consequences of youth migration. Methods of theoretical generalization, abstraction, formalization, and modeling are used to model the youth migration regulation by decomposing its components. The empirical basis for assessing the migratory mood of youth was the results of a poll.

The data from international organizations (UN, World Bank, Eurostat, IOM), non-governmental organizations, and analytical agencies, including materials from the Gallup Center for Migration Studies (world survey), papers of national and international scientists, the results of their surveys became the source for information materials.

Results and analysis

In recent years, international migration is one of the world's major problems (Kerwin, 2020). Thus, according to the World Economic Forum, migration (in particular, forced migration) is mapped at Global Risks 2020 (WorldEconomicForum. (2020, 15 January)) in inseparable unity with the problems of social instability, unemployment, and the global governance crisis. Worldwide, the number of people crossing international borders across the globe has been increasing: from 176 million at the turn of the twentieth and eleventh centuries to 272 million in 2019 (International Organization for Migration, 2020).

The modern migration main features significantly differ from those in past centuries. First of all, there was a change in the direction of the main flows. People move from less developed economies to more developed ones. Initially, the migration was mainly directed towards less developed territories. Another feature is that the current migration is inherent in colonization or conquest. What distinguishes them from the large population flows of previous epochs? The next difference is that currently, there is no synchronicity of technological development and demographic processes that stimulate migration. Previously, technologically advanced countries had the fastest population growth. Today, technologically slow regions experience rapid population growth. Finally, current international immigration is a massive intercultural movement. Early immigration tended to redistribute the population within a single cultural region (Puryhina, 2007).

The worldwide databases concerning origins and destinations originally developed at Sussex University and now widely expanded and maintained by the United Nations Population Division and the World Bank provided the basis for more accurate

global international population flow measurement.

From accumulated multi-year data, it is known that international migration is not equitable in the world but is formed under the influence of economic, geographical, demographic, and other factors that lead to different migration patterns, including migration “corridors” created for many years. As a rule, the most significant corridors run from developing countries to countries with more developed economies, such as the United States, France, the Russian Federation, the United Arab Emirates, and Saudi Arabia. This model will remain unchanged for many years ahead, especially when coming decades in some developing countries foresee population growth that will create migratory pressure on future generations (International Organization for Migration, 2020).

The main reasons for international migration growth include asymmetry of the regions' social and economic development; population awareness; intensification of international economic relations; political, economic, and social crises; military conflicts; and natural disasters. Local migration is caused by the same reasons as international migration, adding some driving factors, and sometimes prevailing the family, educational, and management factors by state, corporate, and family influence. The number of people involved in local migration is several times higher than in international migration, so we can assume that the current annual total number of migrants is about 1 billion people (Puryhina, & Sardak, 2009).

The main factor that changes the place of residence is an economic motive. According to estimates, almost two-thirds of international migrants are migrant workers, mainly youth. Labor migration has contributed to significant population changes, especially in the Gulf Cooperation Councils, except for Oman and Saudi Arabia (International Organization for Migration, 2020). Thus, the IOM Report on Migration in 2020 states points that the estimated number of migrants is 272 million people; estimated share of migrants from the total population is 3.5%; a region with the highest share of international migrants is Oceania; the country with the highest share of international migrants is the United Arab Emirates; the number of stateless people is 3.9 million individuals (International Organization for Migration, 2020).

The international labor migrants are more frequently attracted by a higher (sometimes continuously) wage level in the employment country compared to their home country. Also substantial is the increased demand for certain specialties, which, in turn, provides adequate earnings for the migrant. Other

parts of migration flows include people looking for a better life do not want to pursue a beggar's existence or are dissatisfied with inequality in society (such as the majority), people who feel a specific danger of natural disasters, deterioration of the ecological environment and climate change, and those who avoid various military and political conflicts, amongst several internally displaced people is over 24 million (United Nations, 2015).

Among the world regions, Europe among all regions in the world holds the leading place as a destination for migrants (82 million people), followed by North America (59 million) and Western Asia (49 million). In 2019, almost a half of all immigrants on the planet arrived in ten recipient countries: 51 million - in the United States (19% of their total) 13 million – in Germany and Saudi Arabia, 12 million – in Russia, 10 million – in Great Britain, 9 million – in the UAE, 8 million – in France, Canada, and Australia, 6 million – in Italy (WorldBank, 2019a). One-third of all international emigrants also come from only ten countries. In 2019, emigrants left such donor countries as India – 18 million, Mexico – 12 million, China – 11 million, the Russian Federation – 10 million, Syria – 8 million (WorldBank, 2019a).

The migration flows indicators show that the United States has been the top destination country for international migrants since 1970. Since that time, the number of aliens living in the country has grown more than by four times – from less than 12 million people in 1970 to almost 51 million people in 2019. Over the same years in Germany, the second country in terms of arrivals of migrants, there was also an increase: from 8.9 million people in 2000 to 13.1 million people in 2019 (WorldBank, 2011; WorldBank, 2019a).

However, if people could migrate to the most desirable places, according to the Center for Migration Studies “Gallup,” the most popular destination countries would be North America, Europe, and Australia, Singapore, New Zealand (Gallup, n.d.). Obstacles are Prohibitive borders has become obstacles. A typical illustration is the “pre-ban” measures taken by Canada to deal with the geopolitical “threat” posed by asylum seekers from Mexico. The Mexican visa and safe countries and origin formed a virtual border, which allows to filter and prevent immigrants from Mexico effectively. Similarly, the EU border control regime during the European refugee crisis in 2015 became a mechanism for rejection and vulnerability of migrants.

Regarding migration areas, it should be noted that in contrast to the late nineteenth – early twentieth century had the main migration flows directed from Europe to North America and Eastern Siberia,

and secondary flows from North to South, in the XXI century, the significant flows begin to reorient changed orientation from South to North, from East to West, as well as to new centers of gravity – Canada, Australia and New Zealand (Puryhina, & Sardak, 2009, Heinsohn, 2019). Besides an essential migration manifestation of the world's population is the relocation of rural population to cities and urbanization that of the current 50% of urban residents will reach 60% in 2030, and the number of megacities (with over 10 million inhabitants) will grow from 20 to 37 in 2025, (Future State 2030, 2014). Given that people aged 15-24 now account for up to 40% of the unemployed population and 90% of the world's young population living in developing countries, it can be predicted that these trends will remain (Future State 2030, 2014).

Therefore, in recent years, there have been significant changes in the global migration regulation, manifested mainly in the United Nations Network setting on migration and the development of two global agreements on refugees and migration. Although, not legally binding, both global treaties embody an almost universal consensus on issues that require sustained international cooperation and commitment (International Organization for Migration, 2020).

Menozzi and Mishra (2020) identified ten major migration trends in 2020. Among them, an increase in the number of international migrants to 281 million people and the coronavirus pandemic COVID-19 has reduced the number of international migrants and remittance flows. However, according to their observations, forced resettlement across international borders continues to grow, and most refugees in the world are accommodated in low- and middle-income countries. Almost two-thirds of all international migrants live in high-income countries (mostly in small numbers), and international migration often remains within the central regions. Regarding gender and age migration trends, they also note that women make up 48% of all international migrants, with international migrants usually working age. In general, most countries' policies aim at promoting orderly, safe, legal and responsible migration. As one we can see, in 2020, some migration trends persisted, but there are significant changes compared to previous years.

The COVID-19 pandemic caused significant changes in migration flows (ILO, 2020). Thus, in OECD countries, 2020 became a historical minimum in international migrants, and cash flows of migrants to low- and middle-income countries fell by 19.7% to \$ 445 billion (Stakanov, 2020). According to World Bank forecasts, there will be a decrease in

remittance flows of migrants in Europe and Central Asia by 27.5%, sub-Saharan Africa by 23.1%, South Asia by 22.1%, the Middle East and North Africa by 19.6%, Latin America and the Caribbean by 19.3%, East Asia and the Pacific by 13% (World Bank, 2020). Unprecedented reversal migration, e.g., in India, repatriated over 1.3 million, in Egypt 1 million, in the Philippines over 230 thousand, and in Cambodia about 120 thousand migrant workers repatriated (Stakanov, 2020).

We state that the trends identification issue in the migration development in general, and especially the study of youth migration flows in particular, is still a permanent problem. The problem of studying youth migration flows is due primarily to their scale and that they carry a political burden on social and political institutions. Therefore, that is not only a theoretical and methodological, but also a political issue in all its components.

In particular, there is youth problem identification. So Thus, the UN provides the following people classification by age: 0-14 years (children), 15-24 years (early working age), 25-54 years (primary working age), 55-64 years (mature working age), 65 years and older (elderly) (Youth, n.d.) However, it should be noted that Article 1 of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child refers to the term “children” to persons under 18. At the same time, in the EU, youth is considered people aged from 15 to 29 years. In Ukraine, according to current legislation, youth include people aged 14 to 35 years, but in 2020 in Ukraine adopted a bill the law draft “On the basic principles of youth policy,” which proposes to reduce

the age of youth under 29 years as in the EU. Thus, national legislation will be harmonized with the EU countries’ legislation.

In 2019, there was 1.2 billion youth aged from 15 to 24, which is 16% of the world’s population, and by 2030, it is projected that their number increases by 7% and reach almost 1.3 billion (Youth, n.d.). Meanwhile, a significant part of youth is migrants. Thus, the Table 1 shows the number of international migrants aged 15 to 24 years to the total population (both genders) in 1990-2019.

The table depicts the following global trends in international youth migration development: the weight and volume of international youth migration are growing and remain significant in more developed regions and high-income countries; the largest centers of international youth migration are Oceania, North America, and Europe.

The critical issue of changing the population age structure becomes relevant. According to the US CIA website, the population age structure affects the country’s critical social and economic problems. The age structure is also applicable for potential political problems prediction. For instance, the rapid growth of young adults who cannot find work may lead to unrest (Central Intelligence Agency, 2020).

Youth strive to become a positive force for development if they are provided with the knowledge and opportunities necessary for their prosperity. In particular, youth should receive the education and skills needed to contribute to developing a productive economy; and they need access to the labor market, which could take them into the labor force.

Table 1. Number of international migrants aged from 15 to 24 years to the total population (both genders) in 1990-2019, %

Region	1990	2000	2010	2019
WORLD	4.5	4.3	4.6	5.1
Development groups according to the UN classification				
More developed regions	13.4	16.1	18.7	21.3
Less developed regions	2.6	2.2	2.5	3.0
Income groups according to the World Bank classification				
High-income countries	12.7	16.5	21.5	24.1
Middle-income countries	2.7	2.0	1.9	2.4
Low-income countries	5.8	3.8	3.2	3.0
Countries with uncertain income levels	26.9	40.0	37.1	36.6
Geographical regions				
Africa	5.5	3.8	3.1	3.4
Asia	2.2	1.9	2.4	2.8
Europe	12.8	13.7	16.4	20.4
Latin America and the Caribbean	2.2	1.7	2.1	3.0
North America	18.9	25.7	24.9	24.1
Oceania	21.5	22.3	29.0	39.2

Source: elaborated by the authors according to International Organization for Migration (2020)

Therefore, youth are increasingly demanding more just, equal, and progressive opportunities in their societies. Döring, Lundberg, Dalman, Hemmingsson, Rasmussen, Wallin & Lager (2021) conclude that «expanding the education system may be a natural response to falling demand for low-skilled labor, but not the one that addresses major societal challenges. As long as education systems do not adequately respond to such a challenge that only expectedly leads to an increase in inequality.” The need to resolve youth’s multifaceted problems (such as access to education, health, employment, and gender equality) is becoming more acute than ever.

The mature problem solution in the migration policy (especially for youth) requires scientific understanding. It should be noted that it is advisable to distinguish this social group from the standpoint of age and the standpoint that it is an exceptional social and demographic group. It is class differentiated, has specific social and psychological properties that depend on social and political, cultural conditions, and socialization peculiarities.

Demographic factors of population division into groups outline the international migration effects: changes in age, gender, and quantitative structure. The most mobile group of the population is youth, which, in turn, is the most significant potential group in terms

of creating new families. Therefore, such population stratification groups’ migration directly affects the birth rate in the origin country and population age structure.

Fig. 2 illustrates the age structure of migration centers in the countries of individual particular regions according to the developed UN database results on age groups of migrants within each destination region.

The age distribution of migration flows to individual regions allowed drawing the following conclusions. A significant number of people aged 0-24 are immigrants in Africa and Latin America, and the Caribbean, and Asia. We can make assumptions that the prerequisites for such immigration centers structure, first, are high birth rates in these countries as a whole. Secondly, this situation leads to the second assumption – a significant intraregional migration level explains this migration-center structure. In this regard, it is advisable to study such migration trends, including the existing “attraction” and “ejection” factors in the region. Third, military and political instability, along with the number of military conflicts, have increased amid ongoing ethnic conflicts in Africa and crime problems in Latin America, and the state of post-conflict migration of unaccompanied children.

The demographic prerequisites for youth migration are pretty interesting in this regard. Bloom

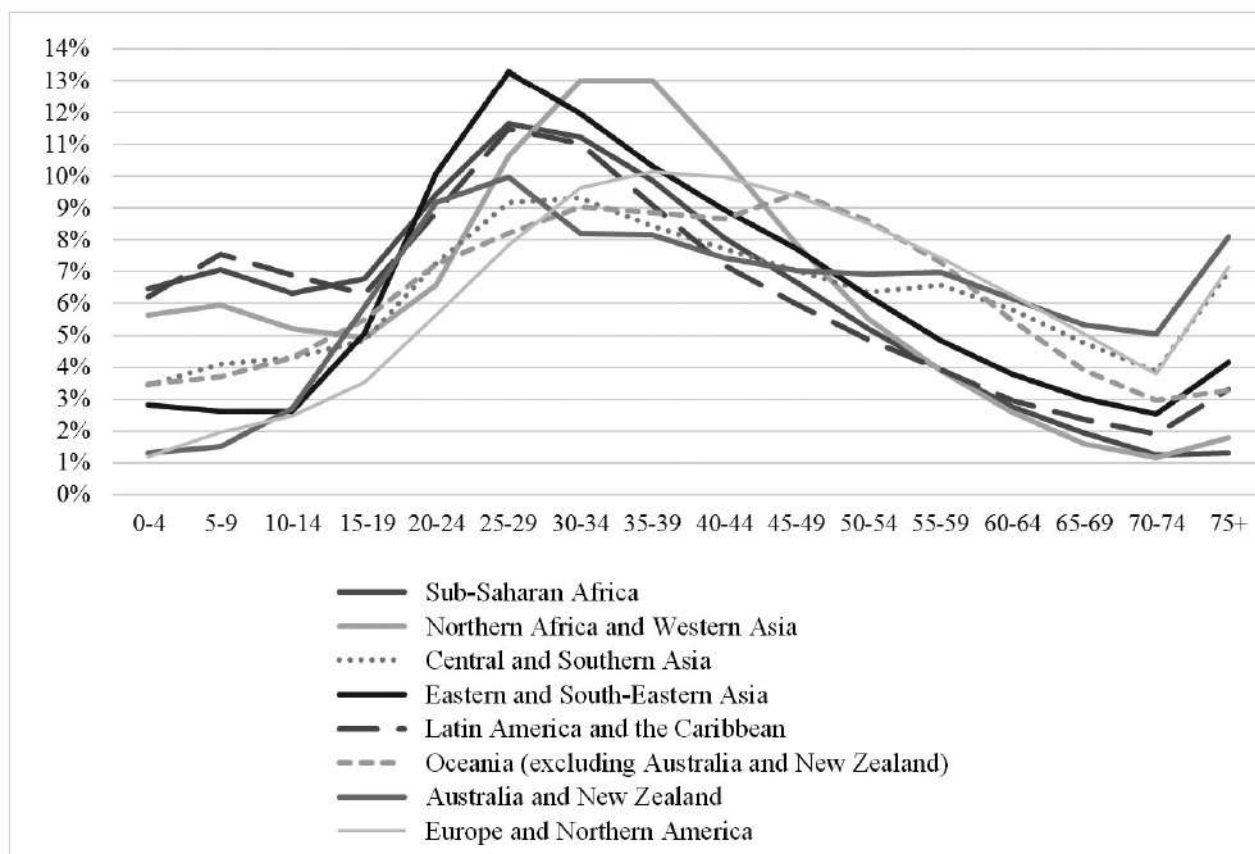


Fig. 2. Age distribution of migrants in destination countries in 2020, % of the number of migrants in the region (systematized and elaborated according to the UN) (UNDP, 2015; International Organization for Migration, 2020)

& Canning (2004, p. 20) sets such an example in the study: “Ireland has historically had a high level of young adults’ migration (about 1% of the population per a year) due to the inability of its economy to absorb the large influx of young workers created by high birth rates.”

It should be noted that the most active in the migratory sense is such a clearly defined group as student youth, which has significance for all spheres of life society specific social and psychological features.

However, for the origin country, the student migration problem, in our opinion, lies in youth non-return after the training course, which is now observed in Ukraine. However, the negative impact is covered by the positive effect of international youth migration, which covers gaining new knowledge and experience (improving knowledge of a foreign language, increasing the chances of success in the professional environment after returning to the origin country, obtaining financial resources to a certain extent). It is worth considering those cases where migrants remain in permanent residence in the destination country. Then, human capital as migrants of the origin country affects the country’s social development, but this improves the welfare of the world’s population.

Migration processes are heterogeneous with their specifics and change over time, which necessitates differentiation of different youth migration types. Thus, for reasons we can distinguish educational (educational migration), intellectual outflow (migration of young highly skilled professionals and graduates), and labor migration (due to the disproportion of development regions: labor market, living standards, etc.). Simultaneously, if educational migration is sufficiently managed, then other types are subject to management quite poorly. Furthermore, the uncontrolled growth of migration flows, in turn, leads to an increase in local hostility of migrants, to local conflicts, an increase in migrant phobia, which initiates ethnic nationalism in the most popular regions.

The burden on migrants will be felt significantly in the labor market, which also occurs due to the educational and professional structure of migrants and the sectoral economic structure of the destination country. Herein, several comments should be added:

- 1) structural unemployment in the country of origin under conditions of low wages provokes the human resources migration of different educational and professional groups; however, the same situation in the destination country determines potential niches in the labor market for migrants employment;

- 2) educational and professional structure mismatching the jobs obtained by migrants to their jobs leads to “brainwashing” – human resources

are used inefficiently in the destination country and lose the quality features formed during training, and therefore can not be used re-emigration effectively while re-immigration of a person.

Therefore, we believe that in the long run, one needs to harmonize migration and education policy. That should give positive results, as the educational programs adapt to the national economic conditions, its sectoral and territorial structure help balance the labor’s supply and demand, reduce structural unemployment. Therefore, it is advisable to strengthen academic and scientific mobility to increase the population education level (primarily young professionals), gaining international experience. The regulation also requires education in the country by aliens due to the expediency of activating and immigrating youth and their integration into the educational space and the labor market, which potentially means the country’s labor and demographic resources.

In this respect, we believe that the regulation of the benefits and threats of youth migration should be based on the differentiation of such resources because they have a different impact on the country’s demographic and labor potential in different migrants’ categories. Therefore, the regulation also requires provisions to ensure equal access to economic benefits, promotion of youth employment, and social programs adaptation for different people categories.

It means that the primary purpose of migration policy for youth is to balance the interests of citizens of the destination country and migrants. The global migration centers in countries resort to various coordination strategies: preventing the low-skilled migration and restricting immigration in general, setting quotas for the most qualified categories, mandatory job invitations, etc.

Typically, global migration flows of skilled workers are regulated at the employer initiative: before a skilled migrant is allowed to enter the country, he/she must receive an invitation.

The youth immigration policy that arose due to the disproportionate regions’ development was most effective in countries like Japan, China, and Germany. Those countries’ regulation mechanisms can be divided into at least two types: socio-economic, and administrative and legal. Socio-economic mechanisms could include investment in transport, agglomeration development, territorial wage coefficients applicable at the regional level.

Thus, at the end of the XX century, Japan faced mass migration to large cities, which affected, above all, the population aged 18-30. The Japanese government, concerned about this problem, has long taken many measures to address it – significant investment

has been made in the transport infrastructure development, which has undoubtedly become an effective social and economic mechanism of regional migration policy, as it increases mobility and living standards of living. Considering the Japanese experience in solving the problem of reversal migration flows, it should be noted the other effective mechanisms of soft (“smart”) population consolidation – the construction development as a way to solve the population housing problem. In this case, we can talk about the policy of regional “growth points” as a mechanism for creating new jobs and attracting youth.

Germany, after unification, faced severe differences in the economic development of the regions and as a result of the outflow from East Germany to the West. One of the mechanisms for reducing one-way youth migration flows was unique coefficients that increase wages in East Germany, the construction of new enterprises, and infrastructure development. These measures reduced the young migrants’ flow and later allowed it to be redirected.

Administrative and legal mechanisms for regulating migration flows can be divided into the registration system and legal restrictions on the population flow; migration sanctioning. Those mechanisms can be applied only at the state level. Thus, in the early 1950s, the Chinese government faced large-scale migration of rural population, mostly youth, in cities apropos the agrarian reform and industrialization in cities. The government has taken drastic measures to address this problem. As a result, by the end of the 1950s, the country developed the “hukou” rigid registration system that hindered the mass influx of youth to cities.

Thus, the primary mechanism for managing migration flows, resulting from the proportions of social and economic development of the country, in the case of Japan, is an investment; in China, it is accounting and control and administrative law enforcement; in the case of Germany, it is territorial income regulation.

All these mechanisms’ application positively affected the migration flows redirection in a strategically necessary direction for the country, yet the strict prohibitive measures application to restrict the youth movement freedom in modern democratic society is impossible. Thus, we note the formation of powerful migration attraction centers of intellectual labor resources in the UAE, Canada, USA, Australia, and New Zealand, where youth are provided with priority and tools to motivate immigration.

There is also the intellectual outflow regulation policy, which in most cases affects youth. The nature of such policies varies. In this sense, a successful example of a partnership on regulated, skilled migration (agreed policies between countries of origin and desti-

nation) in Australia and Germany with the Philippines, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Tunisia (Hooper, 2018). Assessing the most successful experience in developing policies to combat the “brain drain” of East Asian countries, we can identify common mechanisms feature of these countries: social and economical, and institutional. Social and economic mechanisms include: increasing funding for science and innovative technologies and education reform; creating a critical mass of repatriates through the construction of technology parks and free economic zones. In turn, the institutional mechanisms may include the “circulation of brains” policy, i.e., the international diaspora reserve. These mechanisms are applicable at different levels (Puryhina, 2007).

Taiwan became the first country to implement a mechanism to increase funding for science and innovative technologies and reform education in youth immigration policy. Unlike other states, which usually invest in higher education, the Taiwanese government since 1961, 80% of all funds has allocated for education, directed to the support and development of primary and secondary schools and vocational programs. They further initiated the country’s industrial boom, increasing the prestige of the working profession, wage growth, which minimized the incentive to migrate this population category. Besides, as part of the higher education reform, the Chinese government has allocated significant funds to the country’s leading universities to improve the education quality, which primary purpose was to enter the ranking of the world’s best universities, 20% of these funds have been spent on attracting “new talent,” mostly from abroad.

The institutional mechanism for migration return policy can be cited on Taiwan’s example with the setting up the Hsinchu science and technology park whose purpose was to repeat Silicon Valley’s experience in America, i.e., to concentrate the talent and experience of scientists and professionals in a single place. Since 1980 the allocation of funds for the park’s construction has begun, creating the necessary working and leisure conditions; by 2000, the park employed 102 thousand people, with a turnover of 28 billion US dollars.

Another effective institutional mechanism for curbing “brain drain” is the “brain circulation” policy. Taiwan, China, and India have made significant progress in such mechanism application. The National Youth Commission (NYC) was established in Taiwan in the early 1970s to conduct a series of programs to recruit young Taiwanese scholars abroad. As a result, by 1987, 20% of all senior executives in Taiwan’s giant companies were repatriated.

The modern approach to migration regulation on the European continent is the Blue Card Scheme (“blue card”), adopted by a directive of the European Union Council in May 2009. That is an exceptional opportunity to simplify the entry and residence of qualified professionals from third countries in the European Union and the unimpeded movement of professionals across the EU. The Blue Card enables the employees and their families to enjoy social rights and benefits on an equal footing with local citizens, primarily working conditions and standards. That is the first attempt to regulate skilled migration at the interstate, regional levels (Cerna, 2013).

Besides, in almost all EU countries, the widespread introduction of legislation governing employment and wages of migrant students, when international students can work while studying 20 hours a week. In France, since 2006, students have had the right to engage in employment, and their hours can reach 60% of the country’s annual working time.

Analyzing the leading countries’ successful experience in attracting migrant students, we identify administrative and legal mechanisms: improving the visa regime, facilitating naturalization procedures in the country after graduation, the legislative act’s introduction governing students’ employment and curriculum internationalization.

To social and economic mechanisms can include financial and non-financial ones. Their implementation at the regional level can be most effective. Financial mechanisms: reducing the cost of education for international students; introduction of subsidy programs for talented students. Non-financial mechanisms – the policy of aggressive marketing; teaching courses in English. It is also necessary to note the program-targeted mechanisms, targeted loan programs for training.

Instead, the administrative and legal mechanism – the visa regime improvement for international students and facilitation of naturalization procedures in the country after graduation can be implemented only at the national level, when in this regard, almost all world leaders engaged in attracting educational migrants have modified the visa legislation for international students.

It should be noted that the curriculum internationalization mechanism becomes an integral element of education. Knowledge acquired by students in higher education institutions of one country may be applicable in others. Therefore, all leading world powers are interested in curriculum internationalization.

Today, the EU implements anti-discrimination programs and the EQUAL campaign, which

aligns integration policy in various areas with anti-discrimination policy and involves the ethnic minorities in developing and implementing these measures, the “Prohibition of discrimination and equal opportunities for all” strategy. The most progressive in the UK and the United States’ planned legislation, where representatives of racial groups provide preferences for employment, university admission, and obtaining federal contracts.

It should also be borne in mind that modern problems of youth migration require measures and another direction. It is about protecting donor countries from destructive processes in the economy and social sphere, reducing human development, from the banal extinction of nations in the global sense. That is why, as never before, the governments that suffer from the outflow of young labor resources need the latest scientific research and mechanisms and tools of regulation of a new type.

Thus, in December 2020, Alla Girman conducted a sample express study of youth mobility among students of the University of Customs and Finance in Dnipro (Ukraine). The students’ available set was 5119, and the sample – 135 people with a confidence probability of 95% with a sampling error of 5%. As a tool for the survey was developed a questionnaire consisting of six blocks: migration history, the benefits of choosing a place to study, academic mobility, e-mobility, migration intentions after training, and data about a student.

The data showed that the share of non-local students was 58.4%, locals – 41.6%. 72.3% of students live inside the region, and 27.7% came from other regions. The main reason for migration is obtaining higher education. It should be mentioned that several respondents noted other reasons for moving – the lower standard of living in the places they used to live. Thus, 27.5% of respondents noted the poor development of entertainment infrastructure and 38.6% – the lack of social facilities. Such responses were mainly received from respondents who moved from rural areas and small towns.

Among the respondents, only 67.1% partially agree that Dnipro city has a high living standard, which influenced the choice of place for study. At the same time, respondents do not agree with the statement that in Dnipro city, it is easy to get a job after studying (89.1%).

The answers to whether you want to get an education in more than one university, i.e., some time to study in another educational institution, are divided into equal parts: want to study – 49.4%, do not want to study – 50.6%.

Student test data show that the level of education

is high, the share of students settled in the specialty after graduation also corresponds to the average in the region. However, youth migration intentions during training (under the academic mobility program) and after training were relatively high. The vast majority of respondents are set to change the residence place – 71.3%. Amongst, more than a half of them intend to work abroad. However, the youth pointed to three main reasons that prevent them from going abroad to study. The first one is the high financial costs for education and lack of funds (46.8%), the second is poor knowledge of a foreign language (37.3%), the third is the emotional and psychological complexity of separation from family (10.1%), and only 5.8% – other reasons.

Ukrainian students who speak English and want to go abroad for education first chose the United States and Great Britain (23.5%), followed by Germany (17.8%), then roughly the same indicated Poland (12.4%) and the Czechia (11.0%).

The reasons for choosing these countries vary greatly. The students who want to study in the United States choose this country mainly because of the prestige of higher education, employment opportunities, and greater competitiveness in the labor market after studying in the United States.

The students choosing European countries explain their choice for higher quality education, higher living standards, similar conditions in the EU, and a short distance from home. Students are focused on a short-term stay of no more than a month of student exchange or internship, master's and graduate studies, for a period of 2 to 5 years to further employment and citizenship of that country.

The main reasons that prompted respondents to indicate that after graduation, they leave the country: low income in Dnipro city and Ukraine as a whole, lack of opportunity to purchase housing, the uncertainty of political and economic status situation. There is a

significant connection with the following features: «I have experience of going abroad for educational and professional purposes (internships, student exchange programs, summer schools, conferences)» $R = 0.768$, «I speak a foreign language well» $R = 0.699$, «I am a prize-winner or participant of conferences, olympiads, competitions, grants» $R = 0.634$. The obtained results confirm the significance of the social and economic factors for international migration.

The survey results touch on a serious problem, which should become the basis for revising the approach to building youth migration policy. As youth's awareness of new prospects and education increases, the youth segment's emigration activity may increase even more, which will have negative consequences for donor countries from the strategic perspective.

Accordingly, the increase of human capital in the region in the strategic perspective should consider the youth segment's migration component. That is made possible by creating conditions for local youth to leave and enter the regional labor market. However, this is facilitated by the formation of conditions to attract local and international flows of youth immigrants to local educational institutions and their further assimilation.

According to the authors, the main direction of optimizing the international youth migration flow should be a global coordination dialogue with civil society participation. Along with international organizations, governments should involve trade unions, human rights groups, diasporas, and migrant associations in addressing youth migration, as such partnerships have every opportunity to address migration issues.

The international youth migration regulation is run by appropriate policies (they constitute a mechanism for regulating international migration) (Fig. 3).

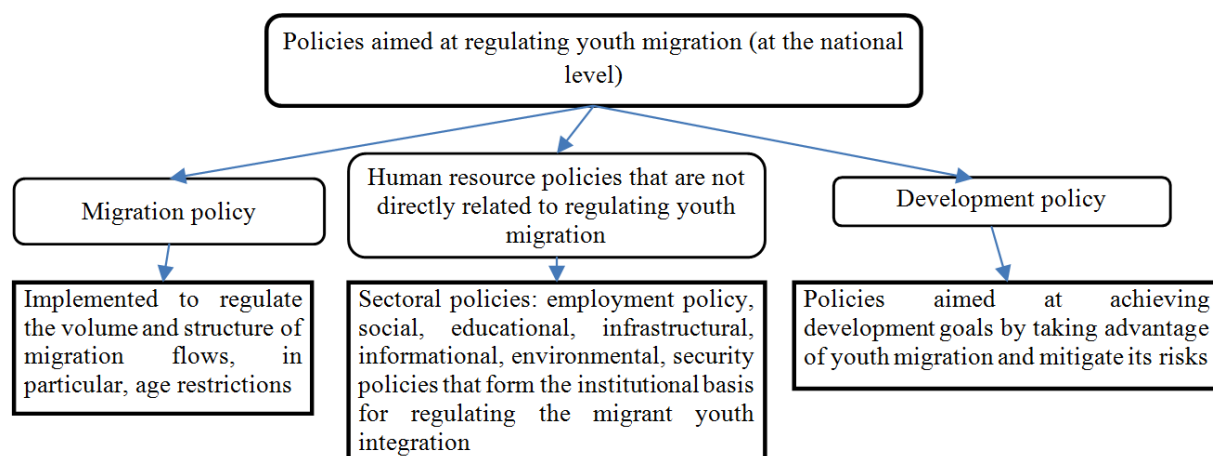


Fig. 3. Regulation policies of youth migration flow

While migration policy is primarily aimed at regulating and controlling border crossings, other policies address specific issues of migrant youth integration. Such policies should include: 1) employment policy; 2) social policy; 3) educational policy; 4) information policy; 5) security policy. Table 2 presents more details of the influence of the above policies on the migration flows regulation.

volume of scientific achievements, and improving communications. The negative consequences of youth migration are the destruction and pollution of the natural environment, exacerbation of available and new transport, environmental and social problems, the spread of disease, and rising crime. Nevertheless, despite different aspects of the migration impact on the social development of the world in general and

Table 2. Sectoral policies impact identification on the youth migration regulation

Policy	The policy impact features on the youth migration regulation
Employment policy	Employment policy should consider the potential migratory pressure of youth on the labor market and the impact of labor market conditions for youth employment in the structure of «attraction-push» factors in the migration motives formation.
Social policy	The country's social protection system and youth access are essential factors in the country's migration attractiveness. The social policy determines the opportunities of migrant youth and the availability of social benefits in various forms of social protection.
Educational policy	The quality of the higher education system and the level of its accessibility for young migrants determine 1) the quality of human resources entering the country's labor market; 2) the competitiveness of migrants in the labor market, and the opportunity of obtaining sufficient remuneration for work; 3) the ability to integrate into the social, cultural, and intellectual life.
Informational policy	Information policy is to create, maintain, and improve the migration flows formation and regulation to eliminate institutional, security, social, economic, environmental, and ethnic risks of intensification of migration processes.
Security policy	It consists of preventing humanitarian problems in areas of armed conflict and post-conflict areas, monitoring youth at risk and needing protection, promoting the migrant youth integration in the host society and ensuring their protection as citizens of their origin country, creating an institutional environment and social and economic conditions return of juvenile refugees and asylum seekers.

We believe that in this context, it is worthy to one should pay attention to the employment policy, educational and social policies implementation for migrant youth in this context. For instance, less developed countries should improve youth education and training, which can potentially become migrants and enter regional and international labor markets. Youth need to develop a system of professional skills and competencies that meet the modern labor market requirements. More developed countries, which are predominantly destination countries, should identify ways to improve their integration, mainly through education and retraining, as educating youth in an authentic host environment facilitates their integration into such a society and coordinates professional competencies and qualifications migrant labor force.

Conclusions

The study of trends in international youth migration allows concluding about the relevance of this process and the growth of its impact on social development. For the world as a whole, the positive consequence of the youth migration development is the possible expansion of realizing human potential, enriching public life, increasing the

countries in particular, the global demographic process demonstrates an increase in international and local youth migration by the middle of the XXI century that unfolds and at the current pace increasingly affect social development. The further research prospect is to develop coordination and regulatory measures to balance youth migration processes for countries, regional associations, and international organizations in continuing quarantine restrictions related to the COVID-19 pandemic.

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