



Income and Distribution Effects of Migration and Remittances: An Analysis Based on CGE Models for Selected CIS Countries

by

Aziz Atamanov (CASE-Kyrgyzstan)

Matthias Luecke (The Kiel Institute for the World Economy)

Toman Omar Mahmoud (The Kiel Institute for the World Economy)

Roman Mogilevsky (CASE-Kyrgyzstan)

Kseniya Tereshchenko (CERGE-EI)

Natalia A. Tourdyeva (CEFIR)

Ainura Uzagalieva (CEEApIA at the University of the Azores, CERGE-EI)

Vitaliy Vavryshchuk (CASE-Ukraine)

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1 Introduction, Overview, and Policy Implications

In many member countries of the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS), international labor migration and remittances received by relatives at home now play a large role in financing private consumption and in shaping the labor supply and education decisions of households. Remittances received range from 8 percent of gross domestic product (GDP) in Ukraine to more than 30 percent in Moldova according to the latest internationally comparable estimates (see Section 2 for details).

At the same time, migration and remittances matter not only at the level of individual households. The large size of remittances suggests that they have probably affected output and income distribution not only directly at the level of remittance-receiving households, but also through general-equilibrium or indirect channels. For example, in many CIS countries, a large share of government revenues derives from taxes on imports (especially VAT), which grew rapidly as a result of growing remittance inflows. With higher revenues, governments were able to maintain and expand social transfers so that transfer-receiving households may have benefited indirectly from migration and remittances although they received no remittances of their own. Furthermore, the growth of remittances since approximately the year 2000 has coincided in most CIS countries with the recovery of GDP from its transition-induced precipitous fall during the 1990s. This coincidence of remittances and GDP growth raises the question of how labor migration and remittances may have contributed to the economic recovery in most CIS countries since 2000.

This paper presents case studies for several CIS countries that seek to assess the indirect effects of labor migration and remittances on income distribution and structural change systematically. The case studies are based on single country computable general equilibrium (CGE) models. While the direct impact of migration and remittances at the household level has been studied through household-level analyses in many countries, much less work has been done on indirect (or general equilibrium) effects. The case studies cover several net emigration countries – Moldova, Ukraine, Georgia, and Kyrgyzstan – as well as Russia, which has recently experienced both emigration and immigration.

Section 2 describes the overall macroeconomic context in which the sharp increase in labor migration and remittances since approximately the year 2000 occurred. In terms of the main categories of macroeconomic demand, household final consumption has grown more strongly than GDP since 2000 in the five sample countries. By contrast, the evolution of government consumption was rather diverse. Fixed capital formation only began to grow with a lag of several years after the pickup in GDP in most countries, although the transition-induced fall had reduced fixed investment to a very low level in most countries that would not have been sufficient to prevent a gradual depletion of the existing capital stock. This overall picture is consistent with a view of GDP growth as initially driven from the demand side, with households' disposable incomes growing because of remittances, a subsequent real appreciation and expansion of non-tradable sectors, and a late response from investment.

Section 3 presents the case studies on net emigration countries. In Moldova (Section 3.1), the best estimates available suggest that remittances reached one third of GDP in 2006 while the number of migrants abroad amounted to about one quarter of the working population (including migrants). These estimates count only those migrants who are still part of a household in Moldova (i.e. contribute to household income and share in expenditures); remittances may include transfers from individuals who have left Moldova permanently. Labor migration from Moldova is remarkable in that poorer households are more likely to send a migrant abroad than richer ones, contrary to the situation in many other countries

where barriers to emigration are more difficult to overcome for poor, credit-constrained households. In the case of Moldova, the poor and low-skilled have the option of taking up employment in Russia, where travel is visa-free and cheap, although working conditions and wages are often poor. By contrast, the EU (especially Italy and Portugal) would be preferred as a host country by many migrants because of better pay and conditions, but high up-front costs for illegal travel make this a difficult proposition for many poor households.

Our simulation results suggest all household groups in Moldova would lose substantially in the absence of migration and remittances. In relative terms, the losses would be largest for small farmers because (i) migration, including for seasonal work, is very widespread in the countryside, and (ii) higher disposable incomes in the population at large are strengthening demand for local food products. As expected, private consumption would be one third lower, with a smaller reduction in GDP of approximately one tenth. The only sector that would gain significantly is light industry, mostly through much higher exports; this simulation result is in line with a conventional Dutch disease effect.

For the case of Ukraine (Section 3.2), our simulations also reveal quite notable effects of migration and remittances. For example, the country's hypothetical economy would have lost up to 7% of its potential without migration and remittance-induced effects. All types of households benefit from remittances substantially: their overall consumption would have been lower by 14 to 21 percent in the hypothetical "migration and remittance free" economy. Rich urban households are set to win the most, while households with income coming mostly in form of government transfers gain the least from remittances and their economy-wide effects. On production side, light and food industry are the key beneficiaries of remittance-driven demand effects. On the other hand, local machinery, construction and public administration sectors appear to be quite remittance-neutral.

In the case of Georgia (Section 3.3), emigration and inward remittance flows have a strong macroeconomic growth effect at the aggregated level; however, not all sectors and residents are affected symmetrically. The positive effect of remittances is pronounced in manufacturing output, large-scale agricultural production, construction, and service sectors concentrated mostly in the urban areas of the country. The impact on the production of household farmers (or small agriculture) is two-fold, depending on the geographical location and identity of households. In distant regions with high transaction costs, for example, farm production increases substantially, while in regions with lower transaction cost it decreases, once farmers have access to remittance incomes. As a result, the impact of remittances is rather limited in terms of poverty reduction and income inequality, especially, in rural areas. Namely, the magnitude of the impact on the consumption pattern is smallest for the group of poor and middle-income rural households and largest for urban households with higher incomes. Consequently, the wealthier members of the society gain from remittances more than poorer household categories. Better access to labor markets, on the contrary, would improve the welfare states of many, especially, of the rural poor at the outset.

These simulation results for Georgia suggest that government and donor policies should prioritize a pro-poor approach in improving institutions within the country, especially by improving access to labor and credit markets. With the focus on the inclusion of the rural poor in the financial sector, for example, policies could be designed for meeting the production needs of farmers in distant regions. This would include opportunities to link remittance flows with family-based microfinance mechanisms focused on promoting saving, insurance and investment within a give region, as well as decreasing transaction costs across regions.

In Kyrgyzstan (Section 3.4) remittances also play a very important role in the economy; by official estimates for 2007, remittances exceeded one quarter of the country's GDP. The number of labor migrants is estimated at 15-20% of total labor force in the country; their main

destination countries are Russia and Kazakhstan. Kyrgyz labor migrants represent all segments of the society, but majority of them originate from labor abundant and land scarce rural areas and small towns in the southern part of the country. While wealthier households receive more remittances than poor ones because of better education and access to information, the role of remittances is larger for poor households. Private consumption and government revenues (through taxation of remittance-driven imports) depend substantially on remittances. In the absence of migration, all types of households would be worse off, with considerable losses for GDP, private and government consumption.

The situation in Russia (Section 4) mirrors in some way the emigration countries as Russia is the predominant destination for labor migrants within the CIS. Inward labor migration has come to play a significant role in the Russian economy. The data situation is less than satisfactory as Russian official statistics usually quote migration flows, while the World Bank estimates the stock of immigrants, rendering comparisons difficult. Thus official sources put the number of immigrants arriving to Russia in 2006 at less than 200,000 individuals, mostly from CIS countries. By contrast, the total immigrant population is estimated by the WB at 12 million individuals in 2005. Remittances make up only a small part of Russian outward capital flows, with estimates ranging from US\$ 6 billion (Central Bank of Russia) to US\$ 12 billion (World Bank) US\$.

Our CGE-model-based simulations are designed to assess the direct and indirect effects of migration on the sectoral structure of the Russian economy. An increase in labor migration increases the supply of labor for all industries, pushes wages down, and raises rent (capital income). The fall in the wage rate drives domestic prices down and stimulates exports. The price ratio of tradables to nontradables increases, along with the real and nominal exchange rates, all implying a real depreciation of the Russian currency. Both the direct and the indirect effects work in the same direction, with the indirect effects dominating.

While these country case studies do not analyze specific policy measures, they demonstrate large potential benefits from labor migration and remittances for migrants' home countries. These potential benefits, as well as the attending risks, depend in important ways on government policies related to migration in both, home and host countries. Against the backdrop of the migration-related policies currently pursued in the CIS region and in the EU, four major policy implications emerge.

First, some CIS country governments faced with large migrant outflows have been reluctant, for political reasons, to even acknowledge that emigration is taking place on a large scale. Consequently, they have failed to provide support services to migrants where such services would enhance the benefits from migration, limit the risks, and strengthen migrants' attachment to their home country. Such services include job placement into legal work abroad through official employment agencies, high-quality consular services for migrants abroad, advocacy with partner governments for limited-term work opportunities for their residents, etc. The absence of such support has made migration more costly to households, without offering attractive alternatives, and alienated migrants from their home country. By contrast, a forward-looking policy strategy for home countries would be to support migrants where they are most at risk, such as when seeking employment and dealing with host country authorities. This would render it more likely that migrants would favorably consider employment or investment opportunities at home in the future.

Second, for economic recovery to take hold in the smaller, natural-resource-poor CIS countries, fixed investment needs to be sustained and increased further. Remittances could help to pay for such investment. However, the business and investment climate in many of these countries is so poor that, currently, remittances are only rarely used for productive investment. Government efforts to channel remittances into investment, which are debated in

many CIS countries, will succeed only when all investors – migrants and non-migrants, politically well-connected or not – can expect to receive an adequate return on productive investments that is not diminished by parasitic public institutions.

Third, to promote social coherence in emigration countries, prudent government policies are called for to ensure that the income gains due to migration are shared, to some degree at least, by all households. Taxes on remittances are usually considered counterproductive as income from legal employment is already taxed in the host country and, in any case, remittances might simply be driven underground. However, since many CIS country governments rely on taxes on imports (especially VAT, but also import duties) for much of their revenue, government revenue typically increases along with remittance-driven imports (which are bought over-proportionately by migrant households). The extra government revenue can be used to maintain public infrastructure, provide social services and education (including to the children of migrants left at home or with relatives), and provide targeted income support.

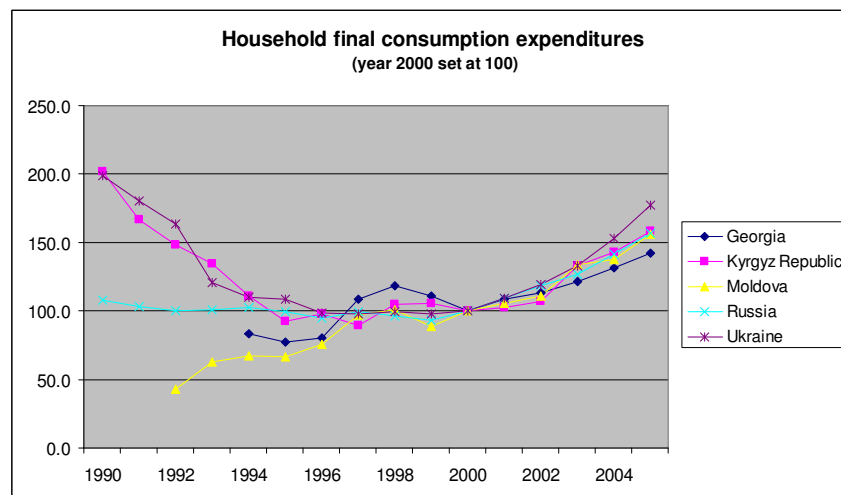
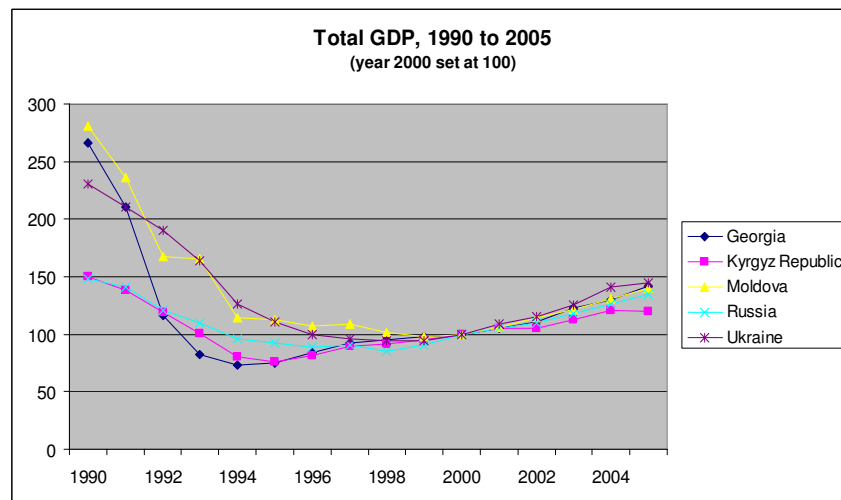
Fourth, destination countries will increasingly find themselves competing not only for high-skilled migrants, but also for those willing to perform jobs that are otherwise difficult to fill (such as seasonal work in agriculture, construction, and social services). Russia, the most important host country for migrants from the CIS region, is currently offering legal employment on a fairly broad basis, but migrants' living conditions are frequently poor and harassment by authorities is endemic. Extending legal residence and employment to a larger share of migrants already in Russia, and strengthening the rule of law and ensuring fair treatment for migrants by authorities, would help to attract the growing numbers of immigrants that Russia will want to rely on as its economic growth continues.

In EU countries, legal employment opportunities for CIS country migrants are still severely limited but growing. Legalization programs in countries such as Italy and Portugal also create pockets of legal migrants that will probably become the hubs of migrant networks that will attract more family-based and other immigration from CIS countries in the future. It would be in the interest of both migrants and EU host countries to replace these haphazard legalizations with a forward-looking strategy for admitting migrants with good job prospects in the EU. Since the EU functions as a single labor market, such programs should be coordinated at the EU rather than the national level. For the benefit of both, CIS countries and the EU, the deepening of bilateral relations under European Neighborhood Policy should include enhanced opportunities for legal labor migration.

2 The Macroeconomic Context

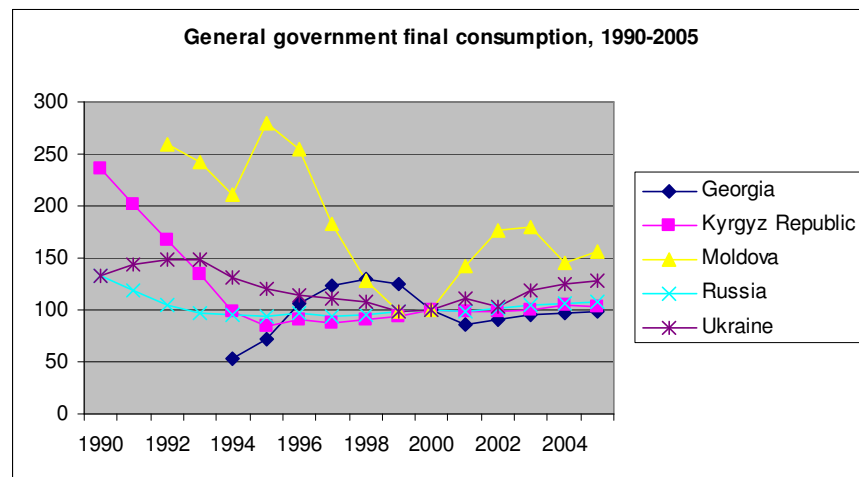
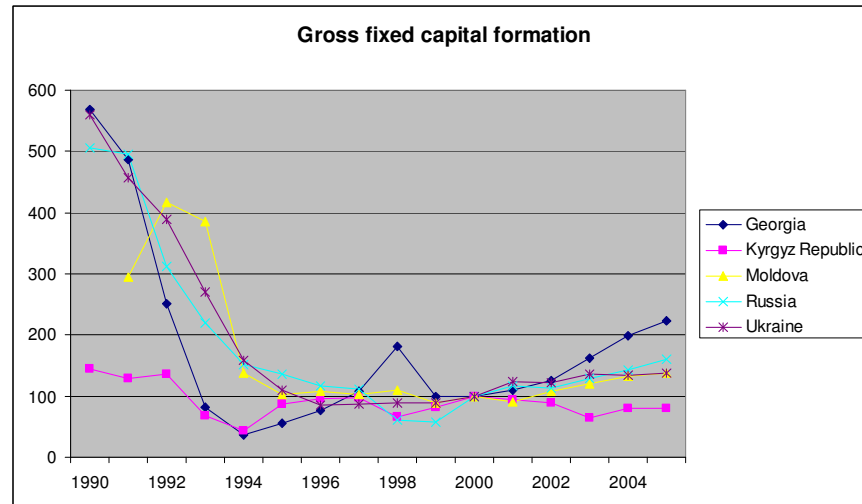
The stylized facts of macroeconomic development in the CIS countries during the last two decades are straightforward. After the disintegration of the former Soviet Union in 1991, GDP fell sharply in all CIS countries (Figure 2.1). This precipitous fall was followed by prolonged stagnation at a low level during the second half of the 1990s, with some further losses as a result of the Russian financial crisis in 1998. A sustained recovery began around 2000 in most countries and still continues as of mid-2008. While total output is still below its pre-independence level in most CIS countries, household final consumption expenditures have recovered much better and in some countries will probably exceed their 1990 levels by the end of the 2010 (Figure 2.2). By contrast, fixed investment has recovered much less (Figure 2.3), and the picture for government final consumption is mixed across countries (Figure 2.4).

The driving forces behind this development are somewhat less clear. Indeed, they have been the subject of contentious debates that evolved considerably as events unfolded. The post-independence output collapse is probably explained largely by the rapid collapse of institutions that regulated trade during the Soviet period, while initially the necessary institutional infrastructure for market-based economic relations (functioning currencies, hard



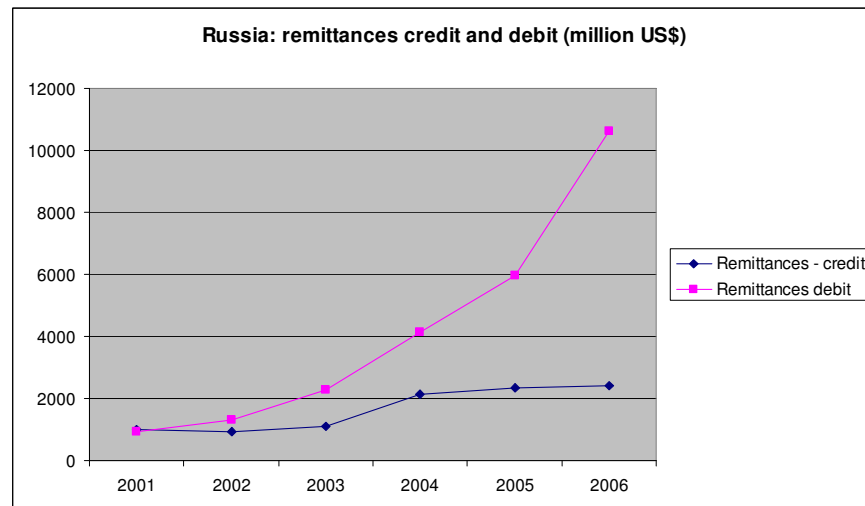
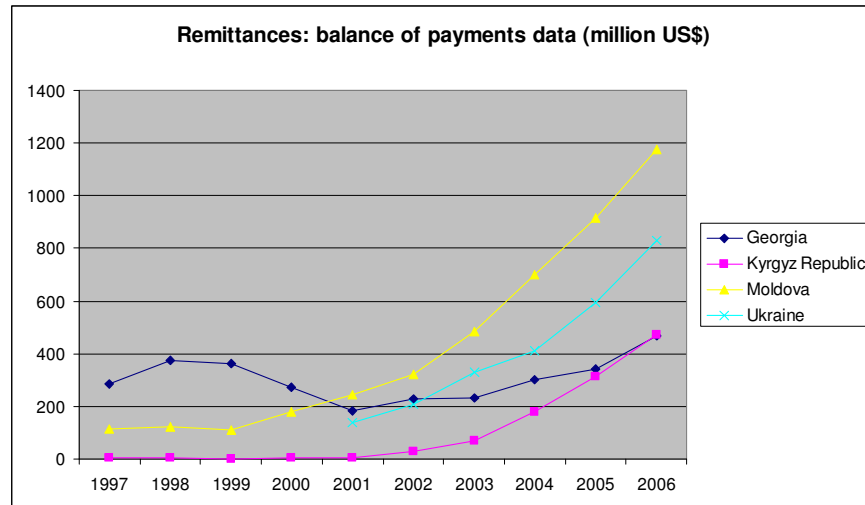
budget constraints, enforceable contracts) did not exist. An additional role was played by the sharp reductions in government procurement, which particularly affected the military industrial complex.

The gradual emergence of market-enabling institutions helps to explain why trade among the CIS countries, along with output, stabilized during the mid-1990s. However, observers



continued to note many persistent shortcomings regarding corporate governance, the business climate, and the investment environment. Therefore, the sustained recovery since 2000 is more difficult to explain. Indeed, investment appears to have lagged, rather than led, the output recovery. One factor that has clearly played a role in the recovery is the resurgence of Russian import demand for CIS products on the heels of rising world market prices for energy materials since the late 1990s. Given the Dutch-disease type effects of both, rising oil and gas revenues in Russia and remittances received in the net emigration countries, rising demand for non-tradable goods and services must have been another important driving force supporting the recovery.

The evolution of remittances received in our net emigration countries provides preliminary support for this hypothesis (Figure 2.5). These data are from balance of payments statistics and their quality varies widely across countries, especially with respect to whether they include estimates of transfers through informal channels in addition to the banking system and



money transfer operators. For every country, however, there is a substantial increase from about the year 2000. The picture for Georgia is more nuanced in that there were substantial remittances as early as the mid-1990s; however, Georgia's GDP also began to recover at that time.

Balance of payments data for Russia (the host country to most labor migrants from CIS countries) represent the mirror image of these developments. Remittances paid rose to close to US\$ 12 billion in 2006 from around US\$ 1 billion in 2001 (Figure 2.6).

Estimates of migrant populations world-wide have recently become available, along with flows of remittances in 2006. Although these estimates are subject to many uncertainties, they represent the best estimates available across a wide range of countries, drawing on a wide variety of national data sources. Remittances are estimated at close to one third of GDP in Kyrgyzstan and Moldova, and at about one fifth in Georgia. Although much larger in absolute terms, remittances in Ukraine amount to less than one tenth of GDP. In Russia, remittances received from emigrants are small by comparison at less than 2 percent of GDP.

Table 2.1. Selected CIS Countries: Migrants and Remittances, 2006			
	Remittances		Migrants
	US\$ million	percent of GDP	thousand
Georgia	1,525	20.2	1036
Kyrgyzstan	846	31.4	597
Moldova	1,027	31.4	663
Ukraine	8,471	8.0	5878
Russia: immigrants	n.a.	n.a.	11977
Russia: emigrants	13,794	1.4	12099

Source: IFAD remittances database:
(<http://www.ifad.org/events/remittances/maps/brochure.pdf>);
http://www.migrationdrc.org/research/typesofmigration/global_migrant_origin_database.html

The large number of emigrants estimated for Russia and Ukraine reflects in part large groups of ethnic Russian and Ukrainian long-term residents in other countries of the Former Soviet Union, rather than recent emigrants to richer countries. Many of these have probably resided there since before the disintegration of the Soviet Union in 1991; their motivations for staying or leaving in their host countries are therefore bound to be rather different from recent labor migrants.

3 Country Studies: Net Emigration Countries

The following sub-sections present country studies on the effects of migration and remittances in selected CIS countries that experienced net emigration of workers: Moldova, Ukraine, Georgia, and Kyrgyzstan. Each country study involves the application of a standard single-country computable general equilibrium (CGE) model to a social accounting matrix that was developed by the ENEPO project. The underlying CGE model is the well-documented IFPRI (International Food Policy Research Institute) standard model (Lofgren et al. 2002) which has been widely applied to developing countries. Its straightforward basic structure with standard neoclassical assumptions, its user-friendly and well-documented code (in GAMS software), and its easy adaptability to national circumstances (different levels of aggregation for households, the agricultural sector, etc.) render it well-suited for the present analysis.

We also explored the feasibility of using a recursive-dynamic version of the IFPRI standard CGE model to complement our comparative-static simulations. A more explicitly dynamic structure would reflect the investment process more accurately and thereby provide additional insights into the growth effects of remittances. However, the additional assumptions required to implement a recursive-dynamic model turned out to be far-reaching. Overall, we would have introduced a high level of arbitrariness into the analysis such that the more detailed description of the investment process in the recursive-dynamic model would ultimately have been meaningless.

In constructing the social accounting matrices, we combine input output tables, other national accounts information, household budget surveys, labor force statistics, and fiscal statistics, among other data sources. A key difficulty is that official data tend to understate migration and remittances in some countries because a large proportion of remittances are transferred as foreign exchange cash and much migrant employment is informal. For the databases to reflect realistic orders of magnitude, various data sources are drawn upon and appropriate adjustments made. The level of aggregation (number of commodities, sectors, factors of production, and household types) differs slightly across the country studies.

Each of the following country studies starts with a discussion of the data situation and goes on to report simulation results that seek to answer the question of what each economy would look like without migration and remittances. These effects are disaggregated by household typed and followed through the economy.

3.1 *Moldova*¹

Migration and remittances play a key role in the Moldovan economy, with approximately one quarter of the working-age population working abroad for at least part of the year, and remittances equivalent to one third of GDP in 2006. These estimates count only those migrants who are still part of a household in Moldova (i.e. contribute to household income and share in expenditures); remittances may include transfers from individuals who have left Moldova permanently.

Labor migration from Moldova is remarkable in that poorer households are more likely to send a migrant abroad than richer ones, contrary to the situation in many other countries where barriers to emigration are more difficult to overcome for poor, credit-constrained households. In the case of Moldova, the poor and low-skilled have the option of taking up

¹ Authors of this section: Matthias Luecke and Toman Omar Mahmoud.

employment in Russia, where travel is visa-free and cheap, although working conditions and wages are often poor. By contrast, the EU (especially Italy and Portugal) would be preferred as a host country by many migrants because of better pay and conditions, but high up-front costs for illegal travel make this a difficult proposition for many poor households.

Our social accounting matrix is based on the year 2004; available data include the national accounts through 2004, including an input-output table, annual household budget surveys through 2004, quarterly labor force surveys through 2005, and a special household survey on migration and remittances conducted in 2004 and 2006. As is the case in many developing countries, coverage of household income by the household budget survey is far from complete, particularly for remittances. Therefore, the national accounts data, which are internally consistent, have been used as the starting point in compiling the social accounting matrix. Subsequently, the household sector and labor income have been disaggregated using percentage shares for different household and labor types derived from the household budget survey. The agricultural sector is subdivided into small-scale (household) agriculture and agricultural enterprises.

Our simulations seek to describe what the Moldovan economy would have looked like in 2004 without labor migration and remittances. The first simulation hypothetically eliminates the recent strong growth in total factor productivity (TFP). That TFP growth is apparent from the fact that GDP grew by about one third from 2000 through 2004, while fixed investment remained modest and the labor force declined. In part, TFP growth may have been a natural result of the recovery from the transition-induced crisis, for example due to the emergence of market-supporting institutions as systemic transformation takes hold. To this extent, TFP growth might have occurred even in the absence of migration. However, we consider it plausible that most of the apparent TFP growth results from higher utilization rates for existing production capacity that arose as a consequence of remittances-induced demand growth.

The second and third simulations separately describe the impact of a sharp reduction in remittances and a larger domestic labor supply (if there is no labor migration). The fourth simulation combines lower remittances and larger labor supply, and the fifth simulation adds lower TFP.

Our simulation results suggest that all household groups in Moldova would lose substantially in the absence of migration and remittances. In relative terms, the losses would be largest for small farmers because (i) migration, including for seasonal work, is very widespread in the countryside, and (ii) higher disposable incomes in the population at large are strengthening demand for local food products. As expected, private consumption would be about one third lower, with a smaller reduction in GDP of approximately one tenth. The Moldovan currency would depreciate in real terms. The only sector whose output would grow significantly is light industry, with much higher exports. This simulation result is in line with a conventional Dutch disease effect as a result of the inflow of foreign currency through remittances.

Interestingly, textile and clothing exports from Moldova to the European Union expanded very substantially in 2007 and 2008, although migration and remittances as well as the trend for a real appreciation of the Moldovan currency have continued uninterrupted since 2004. These recent developments suggest that barriers to trade, rather than high and rising production costs because of a Dutch-disease-style real appreciation, were an important impediment to the expansion of the Moldovan textile and clothing sector (which is still the only viable non-food export industry). Romania's accession to the European Union caused Moldova to become a direct EU neighbor, separated by only one border from the European single market; it appears that the resulting reduction in informal trade barriers was sufficient to set off the recent wave of foreign direct investment in the textile and clothing industry.

Table 3.1.1. Moldova: Simulation Results (base values and percentage changes in real terms)						
	Base run	TFP reduced by 20 pc (except in small-scale agriculture)	Remittances reduced by 70 percent	Labor supply increased by 20 pc (except high-skilled and non-agric. self- employed: 10 pc)	Remittances reduced and labor supply increased	TFP and remittances reduced, labor supply increased
Macro variables						
Domestic absorption	412	-13.8	-13.2	9.0	-4.1	-21.6
Private consumption	276	-20.6	-19.7	13.4	-6.1	-32.1
Fixed investment	67	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Government consumption	52	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Exports	155	-26.1	38.0	18.4	58.0	22.4
Imports	-246	-16.4	2.0	11.6	14.6	-7.8
GDP at market prices	320	-17.8	-0.2	11.6	11.6	-10.9
Real exchange rate	95	-4.1	4.8	-0.4	2.6	2.7
GDP at factor cost						
A_AGR_L	19	-42.0	-20.7	5.3	-14.7	-42.0
A_AGR_S	38	0.0	0.0	20.0	20.0	-4.0
A_FOOD	22	-24.2	-7.6	11.2	1.3	-21.8
A_LIGHT	6	-46.5	226.4	51.6	299.0	199.9
A_WOOD	4	-18.9	-2.1	7.9	4.6	-13.5
A_CHEM	7	-19.4	-2.2	9.7	6.7	-14.0
A_MASH	4	-19.7	0.1	7.9	5.8	-10.1
A_ELEC	7	-19.8	-6.9	11.8	4.4	-17.6
A_CONSTR	11	-4.0	-0.9	2.4	1.5	-3.3
A_TRADE	32	-19.3	2.2	12.1	14.2	-9.3
A_REST	3	-22.2	-6.4	12.5	5.1	-19.1
A_TRANS	19	-20.9	-2.3	11.4	8.5	-14.8
A_COMM	17	-21.8	-9.4	10.6	1.6	-22.9
A_FIN	33	-19.0	-6.7	10.8	4.3	-17.9
A_PUBLIC	14	-5.3	-4.4	3.4	-1.0	-7.5
A_PUB_SERV	35	-12.2	-9.6	7.9	-1.7	-16.6
TOTAL	271	-17.3	-0.1	11.7	11.9	-10.5
Household consumption (equivalent variation)						
HH_SMALL_FARM	75	-16.7	-41.7	11.6	-31.9	-49.9
HH_OTH_RUR	69	-24.1	-9.4	15.9	7.7	-25.0
HH_OTH_URB	51	-23.9	-10.7	13.8	4.1	-26.2
HH_RICH_URB	28	-22.1	-9.9	14.9	6.2	-23.7
HH_PUBLIC_SECTOR	17	-23.8	-17.7	14.9	-2.2	-32.3
HH_TRANSFER	35	-14.7	-14.9	10.0	-4.6	-23.3

3.2 *Ukraine*²

Migration data

According to several alternative studies, the overall stock of Ukrainian labor migrants working abroad during the late 1990s and early 2000s ranged from 0.8 to 2 million persons. The latest ILO survey reveals about 780 000 Ukrainians labor migrants in other countries (about 3.5 - 4% of total labor force) (IOM 2006). These numbers contrast sharply with much lower official data on employment permits for Ukrainians working abroad (only 61,400 permits were granted by resident employment intermediaries in 2006). Of these, more than two thirds are typically for EU countries, especially Cyprus, Greece, and the UK.

The latest full-fledged research of labor migration trends in Ukraine was completed in 2001 when the State Statistics Committee conducted a survey of 18 000 households in 8 regions (oblasts). The number of labor emigrants in the selected 8 oblasts was estimated at 380 000 persons. Extrapolation to the whole country gives about 800 000 labor migrants. According to the survey about 60% of all migrants were employed in countries which are currently the members of the enlarged EU. The most attractive destinations for Ukrainian that time were Poland (hosting about 18% of Ukrainian labor migrants), Czech Republic (17%), Italy (8.5%), and Portugal (3.8%) (Poznyak 2002).

Another survey of Ukrainian households in eight Western regions of Ukraine in 2005 indicates that ranking of most popular destinations among Ukrainian migrants changed somewhat. Italy topped the list of most desired destinations with 60% of votes, followed by Portugal (31%), Spain (24%), and Poland (23%). Out of ten most frequently mentioned countries, seven were the EU member states (Starodub, Parkhomenko 2005).

The true scale of Ukrainian labor migrants' presence in some European countries was revealed during regularization programs. In 2002 the Italian government ran a two-month regularization program for domestic workers and contract workers. Out of 341 000 of applications from domestic workers, 27 percent were submitted by Ukrainians. During the regularization program in Portugal running from January 2001 till March 2003, more than 62,000 temporary work permits (out of a total of 180,000) were granted to Ukrainians (Poznyak 2006).

The share of Ukrainian labor emigrants coming from small cities is estimated at 42% while villagers account for about 29% and people from big cities make 25% of total number of labor migrants. Migrants from the capital accounted for just 3.0% of overall migrants stock abroad while Kyiv population exceeds 6.5% of the country population. In terms of professional structure most of Ukrainian men working abroad are construction or agricultural workers. At the same time, most of women choose to be employed as domestic workers.

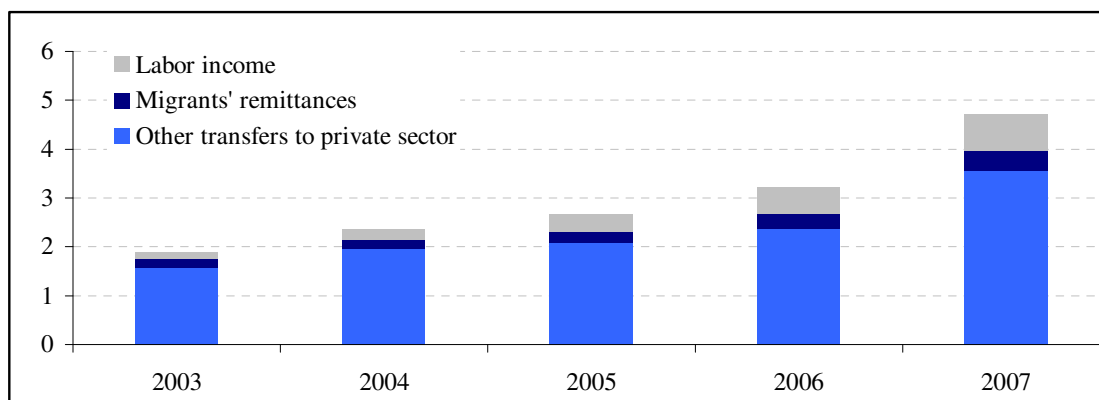
Remittances data

Statistics on migrants' remittances in Ukraine are fragmentary and data from different sources difficult to reconcile. According to WB study, migrant's remittance to Ukraine and Moldova (the countries are treated as one sub-region in the study) totaled some USD 0.44bn (Mansoor, Quillin 2006).³ Although the absolute numbers on remittances seem to be strongly underestimated under the WB's approach, the geographical distribution of remittance inflow is worth attention. About 50% of remittances to the region come from EU-15 countries, while

² Authors of this section: Vitaliy Vavryshchuk

³ Statistics on migrants' remittances are estimated by summing up workers' remittances and compensation of employees categories from the Balance of Payments statistics.

Chart 3.2.1. Migrants' remittance to Ukraine in 2003-07 by BoP categories (USD billion)



Source: NBU

37% originated from Russia and other CIS resource-rich countries. Another 5% are attributed to remittances from new EU member states.

Another recent study by International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) puts Ukraine among the top world nations receiving the largest amount of migrants' remittances in absolute terms. The IFAD estimated total remittances transferred to Ukraine in 2006 at USD 8.5bn, or 8.0% of the country's GDP that year. To compare, inward remittances are estimated at USD 13.9bn for Russia, USD 4.8bn for Romania, and USD 4.8bn for Poland (IFAD 2006).

Ukrainian official statistics on total workers' remittances and labor income abroad are far from complete and reliable. According to the balance of payments, Ukrainian workers received USD 171 million of factor income abroad and transferred USD 193 million as remittances in 2004. This is unrealistically low, given large-scale labor out-migration from the country. In order to upgrade statistics we classify transfers to "other sectors" as workers' remittances in line with the OECD recommendations. This gives us more realistic overall USD 2.4bn of transfers into Ukraine, or 7 percent of total household's consumption.

Remittances are crucial for many Ukrainian households and regions. Anecdotal evidence suggests that remittances-induced domestic demand was the key factor behind dynamic development of local manufacturing in Western Ukraine. Migrants' remittances are spent in a number of ways: according to results of regional survey, most money earned abroad are spent on purchases of real estate, repairing of dwelling, purchases of cars, material aid for relatives, and payment for high education. Obviously remittances have lots of indirect effects which are in most cases difficult to quantify. First, remittances spent to pay for higher education enhance formation of the country's human capital contributing to higher potential GDP. Second, some returning migrants invest money in new business start-ups increasing economic potential of regional economies in long-run. Remittances are also an important source of foreign exchange to Ukraine, which is especially important in view of growing deficit of merchandise trade and income balances observed in the country since 2005. Thus, inflow of remittance helps to partially compensate for increasingly negative balance of current account.

Database for CGE model

The household budget survey that we used to disaggregate income among types of households does not distinguish remittances as a separate type of income source. Presumably, respondents counted remittances as a part of "other income". However, the distribution of "other incomes"

across types of households does not correspond to the likely pattern of remittances in Ukraine. For example, “rich” (top 2 deciles in terms of per capita income) urban households have more than twice as much “other income” as “normal” urban households although it is unlikely that “normal” households benefit from migrant’s remittances to a lesser extent than “rich” households. Thus, the statistics were adjusted so as to reflect a plausible distribution of remittances across different types of households.

Our social accounting matrix for Ukraine (input data for standard IFRPI model) is based on input-output tables at basic and consumer prices, National Accounts of Ukraine, the balance of payments, the Statistical Appendix to the November 2005 IMF country report on Ukraine, and Household Budget Survey raw data for the fourth quarter of 2004. The quarterly household survey covers a sample of about 10060 households and 25700 household members. We distinguish 16 sectors (including small-scale and large-scale agricultural production) and 6 factors of production (including low-, medium-, and high-skilled labor). In disaggregating the household sector, we deviate from our practice for the more agricultural countries (such as Moldova) by not including agricultural smallholders separately because they account for less than 1 percent of all households in Ukraine.

Simulation results

Simulation results for the Ukrainian CGE model are qualitatively similar to those for Moldova. However, we use a different set of parameter changes to estimate basic macroeconomic indicators for the hypothetical “remittances-and-migration free” Ukrainian economy, given that migration and remittances in Ukraine are less predominant than in Moldova. TFP is reduced by 10 percent (scenario 1), remittances are reduced by 70 percent (scenario 2), and labor supply increased by 5 percent (scenario 3) – see Table 1.

Results of simulations reveal that the “pure” effect of remittances was quite modest. However, indirect effects of migration appear to be much more substantial. First, some part of increase in TFP can be attributed to remittance-induced demand. Second, in case of “no migration”, the economy would have benefited from higher supply of labor which, *ceteris paribus*, would have led to better macroeconomic performance. The net effect of remittances (accounting for both direct and indirect effects) proves to be impressive. The 2004 hypothetical economy would have lost about 7.1% of its potential without migration and remittances induced effects.

Light and food industry are the key beneficiaries of demand effects due to remittances. These sectors would have contracted by about 17 percent and 14 percent if the economy did not benefit from workers’ transfers. On the other hand, machinery, construction and public administration services seem to be quite remittance-neutral sectors.

All types of households benefit substantially from remittances: their overall consumption would have been lower by 14 to 21 percent in the hypothetical “remittance and migration free” Ukrainian economy of 2004. Rich urban households appear to win the most, while households with most of income coming as government transfers gain the least from remittances and remittance-induced effects. Noteworthy, in case of increase in supply of all types of labor (by 5 percent), rich urban households may gain an extra 8 percent (the most) in terms of overall consumption. This reflects the fact that households of this type possess the highest share of skilled, well-paid labor.

Table 3.2.1. **Ukraine:** Simulation Results
(base values and percentage changes in real terms)

	Base run	TFP reduced by 10 pc (except in small-scale agriculture)	Remittances reduced by 70 percent	Labor supply increased by 5 pc	Remittances reduced and labor supply increased	TFP and remittances reduced, labor supply increased
Macro variables						
Domestic absorption	320	-10.2	-2.9	3.9	1.0	-10.5
Private consumption	186	-17.5	-5.0	6.7	1.7	-18.0
Fixed investment	77	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Government consumption	61	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Exports	211	-9.5	2.9	3.6	6.5	-4.0
Imports	-185	-10.9	-1.5	4.1	2.6	-9.2
GDP at market prices	345	-9.5	-0.2	3.6	3.5	-7.1
Real exchange rate	94.6	0.6	1.8	-0.3	1.4	2.3
GDP at factor cost						
A_AGR_L	26.6	-18.6	0.5	3.7	4.2	-9.7
A_AGR_S	24.3	0.0	0.0	5.0	5.0	-5.5
A_FOOD	12.3	-14.7	-3.5	5.6	2.1	-14.4
A_LIGHT	2.7	-21.3	-1.4	6.1	4.8	-16.9
A_WOOD	5.1	-10.8	-0.7	4.2	3.5	-8.3
A_CHEM	28.1	-9.3	3.0	3.7	6.7	-3.7
A_MASH	13.4	-6.3	3.0	2.2	5.1	-0.6
A_ELEC	12.6	-11.1	-0.5	4.3	3.8	-8.5
A_CONSTR	14.1	-0.7	-0.1	0.3	0.2	-0.6
A_TRADE	38.6	-11.2	-0.1	4.2	4.1	-8.3
A_REST	2.2	13.1	-0.9	4.9	3.9	-10.2
A_TRANS	29.8	-11.1	-0.5	3.8	4.3	-7.5
A_COMM	11.3	-13.9	-2.7	5.0	2.4	-12.8
A_FIN	42.8	-9.8	-0.3	3.6	3.3	-7.4
A_PUBLIC	14.8	-2.9	-0.2	1.2	0.9	-2.3
A_PUB_SERV	31.3	-5.3	-1.3	2.1	0.8	-5.2
TOTAL	310	-9.2	0.0	3.5	3.5	-6.8
Household consumption (equivalent variation)						
HH_O_RUR	40	-19.7	-5.8	7.4	1.6	-20.3
HH_O_URB	40	-18.3	-4.8	6.7	1.9	-18.4
HH_R_URB	20	-21.9	-5.3	8.4	3.1	-21.3
HH_PUB	20	-17.7	-6.7	6.6	-0.2	-19.7
HH_TRANS	60	-13.5	-3.9	5.6	1.8	-13.8

3.3 Georgia ⁴

Georgia is a small country that has seen a significant outflow of migrants and, at the same time, a large inflow of foreign currency in the recent years. While the available data only provide an incomplete picture, accumulated net migration since the beginning of the 1990s exceeded 880,000 individuals (with some return migrants in 2004 and 2005; Statistical Yearbook of Georgia 2007). Inward remittances to Georgia amounted to more than US\$ 800 million in 2006, equivalent to about 10.2% of GDP and 72% of the incoming foreign direct investments (US\$1,100 million).⁵ The size of unofficial remittances is also large, about US\$ 315 million or 39.4% of the total amount of remittances.⁶ Meanwhile, according to the official sources, about more than a third of population (35%) is below the national poverty line: Georgia is ranked 97th in the list of countries by human development index in 2006.

The main purpose of this study is to analyze the poverty effect of remittance flows in Georgia through direct and indirect channels within the context of the social accounting matrix based CGE model. The main questions of interest are whether and to what extent a large size in the remittance flows contributes to the production and consumption pattern of the poor. Two aspects of poverty reduction are emphasized in this study: (1) the impact of remittances on the aggregated and sectoral economic growth; and (2) the impact of remittances on poor households, their production and consumption patterns across regions. In addition, this study pays particular attention to regional differences in terms of market access and transaction costs, apart from households' factor endowments and consumption patterns reported elsewhere.

The available Georgian data cover the national accounts, including the input-output transactions table, detailed balance of payments, annual report on household surveys,⁷ and row data on household budget surveys for 2004. These surveys were conducted on 3551 households inhabiting in the capital city (Tbilisi) and 9 regions through the questionnaires “*Shinda 04*” for household expenditures, “*Shinda 05*” for private and state transfers to households, and “*Shinda 05-1*” for households income from employment and self-employment which are used in this study.⁸ The source of the data is State Department for Statistics of Georgia (SDSG).

⁴ Author of this section: Ainura Uzagalieva. The author thanks Kseniya Tereshchenko for extracting the row data on household budget surveys from the Access databases and Levan Gogoberishvili for providing the Georgian dataset.

⁵ Georgian-European Policy and Legal Advice Centre (GEPLAC): Georgian Economic Trends, Quarterly Economic Trends, February, 2008.

⁶ Georgian-European Policy and Legal Advice Centre (GEPLAC): Georgian Economic Trends, Quarterly Economic Trends, October, 2007.

⁷ SDSG: “Households of Georgia”, 2003-2004

⁸ *Shinda* stands for the Georgian abbreviation of households observation (see State Department for Statistics of Georgia: “Households of Georgia, 2003-2004”).

General macroeconomic and institutional environment in Georgia

Georgia is a mountainous country with population of 4.5 mln. and area of 69.7 thous. sq. km. The topographical features of the country's territory are very contrasting including the Great Caucasian chain (5068 metres), the medium height mountains (about 3000 metres) and inner lowlands (e.g. Kolkheti and Alazani) which are used predominantly for cultivating tea, citrus, grapes and other agricultural products (the arable area is about 11% of the territory). There are 12 regions in the country including a capital region (Tbilisi), two autonomous republics and 9 regions, which are geographically and economically very diverse. The macroeconomic structure of the economy, in terms of the average shares of value added and total output by regions (Table 3.1.1), shows that industry and service activities are concentrated mostly in the capital city Tbilisi and a few other regions located predominantly at inner lowlands (e.g. Region 4). Agriculture is more widespread across the regions and plays a crucially important role as a source of production and employment. It accounts for about 21% in the gross value added and represents itself the largest employer of domestic labor (54%).

The macroeconomic situation in Georgia is characterized generally by high volatility originated in the external as well as internal sources of instability. A slowdown in the economic growth rates, from 11.7% in 2003 to 7.5% in 2006 at the annual basis, stems from the trade embargo imposed by Russia on Georgia in 2005 and 2006 as well as political instability and inflation pressures existing within the country. According to the annual reports of the Georgian central bank, for example, the large sizes of current account (1.2 bln. USD) and trade (2.0 bln. USD) deficits in 2006 were originated in the fall of exports, followed the

Table 3.3.1. The regions and main activities of Georgia

	Regions	Industry	Hotels and restaurants	Transport and communications	Construction	Agriculture
Georgia, total including:		100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
<i>Kakheti</i>	Reg. 1	3.62	0.52	0.11	1.77	14.32
<i>City of Tbilisi</i>	Reg. 2	43.47	77.83	78.99	63.00	0.10
<i>Shida Kartli</i>	Reg. 3	7.51	1.67	0.07	4.61	7.33
<i>Kvemo Kartli</i>	Reg. 4	21.36	1.64	1.87	4.44	18.67
<i>Mtskheta-Mtianeti</i>	Reg. 5	3.71	5.32	0.10	2.38	4.71
<i>Samtskhe-Javaketi</i>	Reg. 6	3.98	0.62	0.04	0.81	7.66
<i>Adjara</i>	Reg. 7	2.64	5.76	8.04	3.74	5.27
<i>Guria and Racha-Lechkhumi</i>	Reg. 8	1.28	0.79	0.08	1.36	6.88
<i>Samegrelo-Zemo Svaneti</i>	Reg. 9	1.83	2.10	10.32	14.51	16.62
<i>Imereti</i>	Reg. 10	10.59	3.76	0.37	3.39	18.45

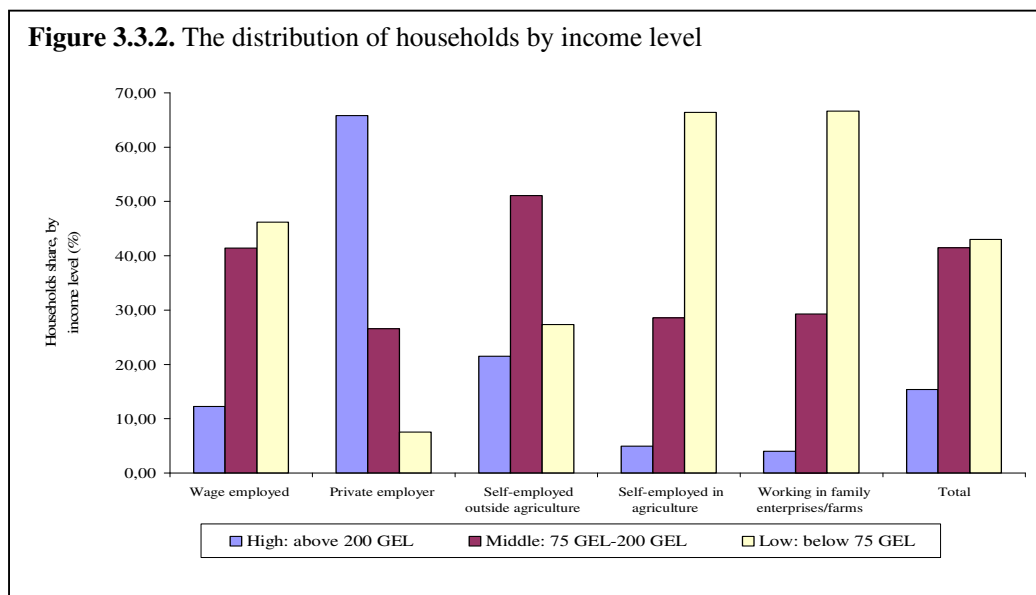
Source: SDSG

Russian trade embargo. High prices for the imported mineral products have also amplified inflation recently; it rose to 9% in 2006 from the average rate of 5% during the period from 2000 to 2002. Additional inflation factors became the large inward remittances and capital flows in foreign currency. With underdeveloped capital markets, the central bank could not sustain effectively large sterilized interventions. All these suggest that domestic macroeconomic situation is not easily controlled by the local policy-makers in Georgia. In addition to this, frequent changes in the domestic policy regimes and political instability, under weak domestic institutions, cause additional shakiness in the economy.

The local market conditions and institutions in Georgia are characterized generally by fragmented labor and credit markets, while the number of poverty incidences is large. In order to demonstrate the poverty situation of Georgia, households are grouped into three categories based on the sample of 6754 respondents available in the household surveys. These categories include: 1) the group of poor households with monthly incomes less than 75 GEL;⁹ 2) the group of middle-income households with incomes varying from 76 GEL to 200 GEL; and households whose incomes are higher than 200 GEL are assumed in this study as high-income or rich ones. According to the country-wide household data, about 43% of respondents lived below the poverty line in 2004. Rural areas have a higher poverty incidence (52%) than the urban ones (35%).

The poverty profile of household groups by major economic activities (Figure 3.3.2) is analyzed in terms of a head count ratio calculated within each group. Workers engaged into self-employment, family based business enterprises and farms have the highest poverty incidence (about 70%). One has to remark that the share of self-employed workers is very large in the economy of Georgia, equivalent to about 50% of economically active population. Among the groups considered, private employers have the lowest poverty incidence of less than 10%.

A comparison of the regions in terms of individual incomes performed in this study reveals a



⁹ This threshold is chosen because it corresponds to the minimum substance level (75 GEL) in Georgia (see SDSG: Statistical Yearbook of Georgia for 2006).

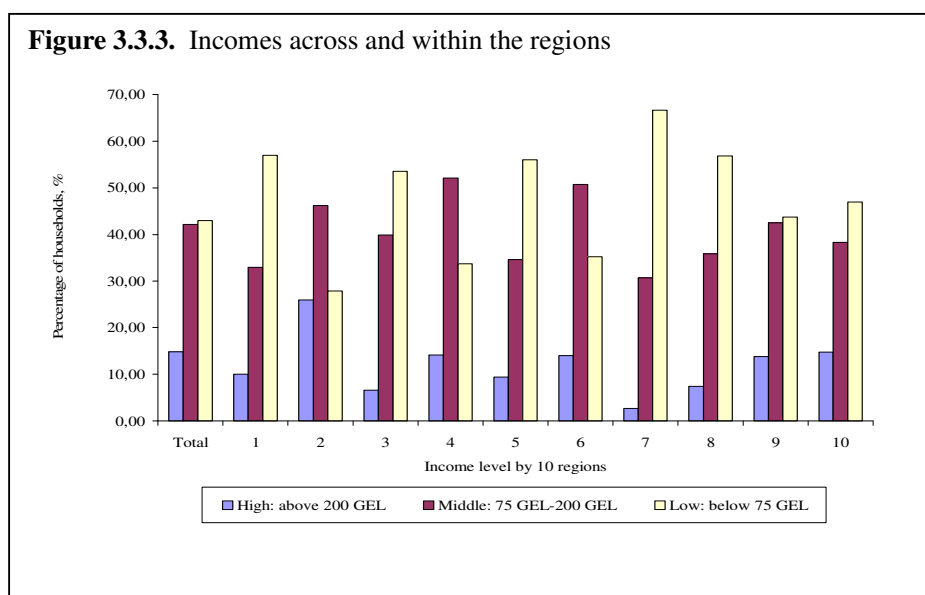
Table 3.3.2. Distribution of labor incomes by regions

	Reg. 1	Reg. 2	Reg.3	Reg.4	Reg. 5	Reg. 6	Reg. 7	Reg. 8	Reg. 9	Reg. 10
Maximum	1 054	2 000	500	950	767	3 000	600	1 000	850	667
Minimum	3	3	5	10	5	7	3	10	3	3
Mean	101	177	92	134	103	143	74	93	123	117
Median	68	132	70	109	70	100	53	70	87	80
Standard deviation	108	172	78	105	109	210	66	92	113	103

Source: the author's calculations

large difference in intra-regional poverty (Table 3.3.2 and Figure 3.3.3). The median level of household incomes is lower than the mean level and this is true for all regions, confirming again a very high poverty incidence in overall. Moreover, both median and mean levels vary largely from one region to another, that is from 53 GEL and 74 GEL in Region 7 (Adjara) to 132 GEL and 177 in Region 2 (Tbilisi). From the standard deviation values and the shapes of income distributions traced on the basis of individual incomes for every region, one can observe that differences in terms of poverty gap are also very large between the regions.

Due to a high incidence of poverty as well as fragmented credit and labor markets, commercial banks are reluctant to extend loans to clients with low-income whose land and assets are considered inadequate collateral. In addition, the capital markets, pension fund systems are underdeveloped, while the insurance market is very small (0.3% of GDP). As a result, the poor members of the society especially in distant regions have limited or no access to credit markets or employment opportunities. According to Figure 4, households borrow funds more from physical persons (or other households) than from financial institutions and banks. One should remark also that the size of the borrowed funds varies largely from one region to another, implying a very limited access to these funds in some regions (e.g. Region 4, 5, 7 and 10). This presumably signifies the fact that access to credit and other assets in this



country is determined mainly by informal networks and kinship.

Taking into account some of the above-mentioned features of the Georgian household sector as well as its macroeconomic and institutional environment, the direct and indirect channels between remittance flows and households well-being are analyzed. The standard CGE model, which is described in the above-mentioned sections, is modified by incorporating the regional dimension of market access, apart from differences in households' factor endowment and consumption pattern. The main questions of interest, in this respect, are whether and to what extent the poor households groups whose access to markets is limited can benefit from larger inward remittance flows and, thus, higher disposable incomes at the national levels.

CGE model with regional differences: data calibration and simulation results

The Georgian aggregated social accounting matrix is based on the standard IFPRI approach, constructed on the economy-wide data. It represents 13 production activities from 18 sectors reported in the original input-output tables. The domestic production generates 12 commodities. The production of agricultural commodities is separated between large and small agricultural enterprises. Transaction costs among institutions, including households, enterprises and government originate in domestic sales, exports and imports activities. Production factors, which are capital, labor and self-employment, are decomposed between agriculture and other production units. Labor is split to high-, medium- and low-skill components using the sub-classification of employed by major work positions.

The original social accounting matrix has been modified in this study by disaggregating the small agricultural enterprises into three groups of regions. This was done in order to enable the regional dimension of the market access and transaction costs. A basic intuition behind this is that farmers located in the remote or mountainous areas of the country face higher transportation and marketing margins than other regions. In this respect, three types of household farms with the highest poverty incidence are distinguished in the model. These are the farm families located geographically in regions with high- medium- and low-transaction costs. The grouping of regions is based on the topographical features of the country's territory. In particular, regions located at the mountainous parts are considered of having high-transaction costs, regions with small cities and arable land are of the medium-transaction costs, and the capital city (Tbilisi) with its surrounding is the third, i.e. low-transaction cost area. The regional disaggregation of small agricultural enterprises into three groups by transaction costs and household groups in the social accounting matrix is presented in (Table

Table 3.3.4. The distribution of small farmers by transaction costs and household groups

	Commodities in agriculture	Household								
		Total by urban and rural areas	Urban households				Rural households			
			Total	Rich	Middle income	Poor	Total	Rich	Middle income	Poor
Small agriculture with:	1121	582	42	26	11	6	539	51	158	331
-low TC	345	173	1	1	0	0	172	16	51	106
-moderate TC	347	192	36	22	10	5	155	15	45	95
-high TC	429	217	5	3	1	1	212	20	62	130

Source: Input-output tables and household surveys (SDSG)

3.3.4). Clearly, urban households face lower transaction costs with about 88% of their production activities concentrated in the regions with low and medium transaction costs. As for rural households, about 40% of their production activities take place in the regions with high transactions costs.

In examining the poverty profiles, the household accounts are of particular importance because the flows of income and expenditures need to be adequately reflected in the social accounting matrix. Therefore, based on the level of incomes and geographical location, the households of Georgia are classified into six groups including rural-rich, rural-middle income, rural-poor, urban-rich, urban-middle income, and urban-poor.

Five illustrative scenarios are set out in Table 3.3.5 for Georgia. The macroeconomic impact of remittance inflows applied homogeneously across all sectors is strongest on the private household consumption and negligible on the GDP growth rate. Remittances lead to higher domestic absorption, larger imports and lower exports. The combined effect of remittance inflows and emigration is negative with respect to all variables considered, with the strongest impact on the private consumption, domestic absorption and GDP growth rates. The growth rates of these variables in a hypothetical economy in the absence of migration and remittances in 2004 would be lower by 24.7%, 13.6% and 13.3%, correspondingly.

At the level of individual sectors, a simulated increase in remittance inflows has a strongest influence on the manufacturing output, which decreases by 14.9% and large-scale agricultural production by about 8.7%. The impact of remittances on the production of household farmers (or small agriculture) is two-fold. In regions with low and high transaction costs, the production increases by 2.8% and 1.3%, correspondingly, while in the medium transaction cost regions it falls by 2.5%. Presumably, moderate transaction costs allow these farmers decreasing the farm related activities substantially and getting involved into other kind of market related activities, once they receive remittances. The positive effect of remittances is pronounced in the construction (4.1%) and service (e.g. hotel and restaurants) sectors (2.6%). And the negative impact is on the electricity sector (-0.8%). The impact on the remaining sectors is negligible. The combined effect of remittance inflows and emigration is strongest in the small agriculture. Namely, the production of farms in regions with low, moderate and high transaction costs falls by 13%, 26% and 17%, correspondingly. Only the large agricultural sectors gain by about 14.3%.

In terms of households groups included in the model, the results reveal that emigration and remittance flows do not affect all residents symmetrically, but depend on the identity of households. In urban areas, remittances contribute to the increase of household incomes and consumption smoothing, while in rural areas the effect is positive, but rather weak. For example, the groups of rural poor and middle-income households can benefit of somewhat 1% in their private consumption each, while in urban areas these groups gain 7.4% and 5.0%, correspondingly. One can observe also that the magnitude of this impact is smaller compared to that of rich households with the pure effect of remittances equivalent to 16.9% and 7.8% of private consumption, respectively, in urban and in rural areas. Consequently, remittances are beneficial to the wealthier members of this society (i.e. rich households) in both urban and rural areas. An increase in the supply of labor by 20%, on the contrary, would improve the welfare state of households in all groups, especially, of the rural poor at the outset. These households would benefit a 16% increase in private consumption under better access to labor markets. The smallest effect of labor supply is on rich urban households (about 9% of private consumption).

The conclusion to be drawn from this exercise is that, while having a strong macroeconomic

Table 3.3.5. The results of SAM based CGEM simulations

Georgia: Scenarios						
Aggregated macroeconomic variables	Base run	Decrease in TFP by 20%	Reduction in remittances by 70%	Increase in labor supply by 20%	Combined effect	
					(4)+(5)	(3)+(4)+(5)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Level	change in real terms, %				
Domestic absorption	11,3	-2,6	-4,7	7,1	2,4	-15,9
Private consumption	7,3	-4,0	-7,3	11,0	3,7	-24,7
Fixed investment	2,8					
Government consumption	1,1					
Exports	2,6	-12,7	11,9	8,7	20,5	-1,6
Imports	-4,2	-1,3	-4,3	5,5	1,2	-12,8
GDP at market prices	9,8	-5,9	-0,3	8,2	7,9	-13,3
Real exchange rate	97,1	-2,9	3,3	1,2	4,3	3,7
Disaggregated macroeconomic indicators						
Large agriculture and other primary sectors	0,6	3,8	-8,7	-6,3	-14,3	-40,5
Small agriculture						
-low transaction cost	0,2	-9,6	-2,8	17,1	13,5	-12,4
-medium transaction cost	0,4	-10,9	2,5	22,5	25,5	3,1
-high transaction cost	0,3	-9,0	-1,3	18,7	17,3	-7,5
Manufacturing	0,7	-12,5	14,9	6,6	21,5	5,4
Electricity	0,3	-9,8	2,8	11,6	14,3	-12,7
Processing of products by households	0,4	-6,3	-1,9	10,1	8,4	-19,2
Construction	0,6	-3,3	-4,1	7,6	3,6	-16,5
Trade and repair of moto vehicles	1,0	-5,2	-1,1	8,1	7,0	-13,6
Hotels and restaurants	0,3	-6,8	-2,6	11,6	9,1	-18,9
Transportation	0,9	-7,6	0,4	9,5	10,0	-16,4
Communication services	0,4	-7,0	-1,2	10,7	9,5	-16,6
Financial, professional, other private, services	0,7	-6,4	-0,8	9,4	8,6	-14,7
Public administration/ NGOs	0,7	-3,7	-0,4	5,2	4,7	-7,9
Public services and private households	0,8	-4,5	-0,4	6,6	6,1	-9,2
Total	8,4	-6,1	0,0	8,5	8,5	-13,1

Table 3.3.5. The results of SAM based CGEM simulations (continuation)

Aggregated macroeconomic variables	Georgia: Scenarios					
	Base run	Decrease in TFP by 20%	Reduction in remittances by 70%	Increase in labor supply by 20%	Combined effect	
					(4)+(5)	(3)+(4)+(5)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Household consumption (equivalent variation)						
Rural poor households	0,9	-10,5	-1,0	15,5	14,9	-25,6
Rural middle-income households	1,5	-6,8	-0,9	10,9	10,2	-20,3
Rural rich households	1,4	-3,4	-7,8	10,5	2,6	-26,0
Urban poor households	0,6	-4,0	-7,4	11,0	3,4	-23,9
Urban middle-income households	1,2	-5,8	-5,0	11,8	6,8	-22,1
Urban rich households	1,8	2,1	-16,9	8,9	-8,6	-29

Source: the author's estimations

growth effect at the aggregated level, emigration and inward remittance flows do not affect all sectors and residents symmetrically. Moreover, they have a rather limited impact on poverty and income inequality. In urban areas, for example, remittances contribute to the increase of household incomes and consumption smoothing, while in rural areas the effect is two-fold. Namely, in regions with low and high transaction costs, remittances are beneficial to small farmers, while in the medium transaction cost regions the effect is opposite. Presumably, the moderate level of transaction costs allows these farmers shifting from the farm related activities to market ones, once have access to remittances. The magnitude of the impact caused by remittances on the consumption pattern is smallest for the group of poor and middle-income rural households (1.6% and 1.0%, respectively) and largest for rich urban households. Under the absence of remittances, rich households would burden a loss of about 16.9% in their private consumption. Consequently, the wealthier members of the society gain more from remittances than poorer household categories. Better access to labor markets, on the contrary, would improve the welfare states of many, especially, of the rural poor at the outset.

Policy priorities, in these circumstances, should be given to a pro-poor approach, especially, in improving institutional mechanisms through which the poor members of the society can have access to labor and credit markets within the country. With the focus on the inclusion of low-income and rural households in the financial sector, for example, the policies could be designed for meeting the needs of household farmers in distant regions. This would include also enabling various possibilities for linking remittance flows to the microfinance based mechanisms focused on promoting saving, insurance and investment within regions, as well as decreasing transaction costs across the regions.

3.4 Kyrgyzstan ¹⁰

Migration in the Kyrgyz Republic has become very intensive since the collapse of the Soviet Union. Between 1990 and 2005, around 500000 people left the country permanently. Many of these were Russian-speaking Kyrgyz citizens who left Kyrgyzstan for permanent residence in Russia and elsewhere. However, during the last five years, non-permanent labor migration has increased sharply, especially in rural areas with high unemployment. The information on the scope of labor migration is fragmentary and based mostly on the information from the Kyrgyz embassies abroad. According to the conservative estimates of State Committee on Migration, about 250000-300000 individuals from Kyrgyzstan are currently working in Russia and around 100000 in Kazakhstan. The most recent attempt to get a full picture on the issue of labor migration and remittances was made by the Asian Development Bank (2007) based on the survey of 3995 remittances' recipients. The survey covered the whole region of the Republic and provides useful information of the profile of migrants.

In the Kyrgyz Republic the National Bank is responsible for compiling the balance of payment and consequently for statistics on remittances at the macro level. Since NBKR does not have all required information, it has to rely on several sensitive assumptions and existing sources on money flows to estimate the magnitude of remittances. In particular, it has the following information on cross-border monetary flows involving participants in the Kyrgyz Republic:

1. Data on repatriated wages and salaries of foreign employees, who are not residents of the Kyrgyz Republic and are working on large joint ventures in the Kyrgyz Republic such as Kumtor Operating Company, the largest gold-mine enterprise;
2. Data on international monetary transfers to and from the Kyrgyz Republic done by individuals through banking accounts including card accounts (transactions below or equal to \$3000 are considered as workers' remittances), money transfer systems (e.g., Western Union), as well as the postal system; and
3. Data on the number of permanent migrants to and from the Kyrgyz Republic and the estimated average value of the property that they bring with them to the country of destination.

Important limitation NBKR faces is the lack of the information on the status of workers abroad and the economic nature of the transactions they made (e.g., intra-family transfer, payment for goods/services, person-to-person loan disbursements, etc.). This leads to the fact that the current official statistics of remittances represent a mixture of money flows of different economic nature.

There were several surveys aimed at estimating the magnitude of remittances and having the profile of labor migrants. The main problem with some of them (Institute of Economic Policy 2005 and Japarov and Ten 2006) was that they used official numbers of the National bank making them dependent on their accuracy. Till recently on the microlevel the household budget survey conducted by the National Statistical Committee did not distinguish remittance as a separate source of income. The most recent report of the Asian Development Bank (2007) contains the most comprehensive analysis of the impact of remittances on poverty and financial sector in Kyrgyzstan. 3000 respondents were interviewed in the framework of this work, providing complex information on the profile of labor migrants and remittances' recipients. More detailed overview of the results of this work is provided below.

According to the survey, there were 251,5 thou. labor migrants working abroad that account for 5% of the total population and 8.1% of the population in able-bodied age. Regional

¹⁰ Authors of this section: Aziz Atamanov and Roman Mogilevsky

distribution of the migrants has the following structure. About 70% of all migrants are from rural areas, 10% are from Bishkek and 21% are coming from other urban areas. This is very much understandable taking into account the level of development of the regions. Absolute majority of the labor migrants choose Russian Federation to work (82.5%), on the second place is Kazakhstan (12%) and only 5.5% of total migrants come to other countries.

Majority of the migrants are employed in the private sector dealing either with construction (45% from the total number) or trade activities (30.4%). Almost half of the migrants are seasonal workers. Again, as in the case of migration destination countries, migrants from Bishkek differ from other regions of the country. More of them are employed in sectors requiring higher education and higher qualification than unskilled workers have (financial intermediation, public administration, education, health care, etc.).

According to the survey conducted in the framework of the ADB's project, the magnitude of remittances coming to the country differs significantly from the official estimates of workers' remittances of the National Bank which were growing exponentially during last years (\$48.6 million. in 2002 and \$730 million in 2006). This can be explained by the results of the analysis of the transactions which shows that the growth in official volume of remittances in 2002-2006 should be attributed to the growth in large and very large transactions. This seriously questions their economic nature related to labor migration.

ADB's estimates on remittances are significantly lower than official numbers ranging from \$223.7 and \$287.1 million. with a confidence interval in 95%. Majority of remittances are coming to the rural areas. Average amount of cash remittance per household in 2006 is \$1,331. It accounts for 50% of the total household income.

Remittances mainly enter to Kyrgyzstan through banks and MTOs (78.5%), on the second place are households themselves (25.6%), on the third place are friends and relatives as a source of transfer and, finally the role of postal services is negligible. All these show that the role of informal intermediaries is insignificant.

Simple correlation analysis of the workers' remittance (the data was taken from the National Bank since it is the only source of time series information on remittances) and different macroeconomic indicators reveals that the growth of remittances contributes to some growth in private consumption and GDP, has a positive impact on imports and indirectly on government revenues, can be associated with some employment growth in informal sector and does not produce measurable impact on inflation and real exchange rate¹¹.

To have more detailed picture on the impact of remittances on the Kyrgyz economy and the welfare of its citizens, CGE model was used employing the social accounting matrix (SAM). SAM for Kyrgyzstan is based on the national accounts for 2000-2004, input-output tables for 2003, and the household budget survey for 2003-2004. We were also able to draw on an existing SAM prepared for the World Bank Mr. Miles Light for 2003 which we adjusted to the required format for the standard IFPRI model and extended by disaggregating the household sector for comparable analysis with the other countries in this workpackage. Specifically, the existing SAM has 91 sectors and households are divided into deciles for urban and rural areas. We aggregated up to 14 sectors and constructed representative household groups comparable with the groups used in Moldova's SAM, using data from the household budget survey.

¹¹ However, the situation has changed dramatically in 2007, when inflation was about 20% which is more than cumulative inflation during the last 4 years. Such a sharp increase was triggered by external price shocks, but the input of monetary factors also should be recognized.

Table 3.4.1. Kyrgyzstan: Simulation Results
(base values and percentage changes in real terms)

	Base run	TFP reduced by 20 pc (except in small-scale agriculture)	Remittances reduced by 70 percent	Labor supply increased by 20 pc (except high-skilled and non-agric. self- employed: 10 pc)	Remittances reduced and labor supply increased	TFP and remittances reduced, labor supply increased
Macro variables						
Domestic absorption	99402	-2.4	-4.5	7.1	2.5	-17.3
Private consumption	68956	-3.4	-6.5	10.2	3.6	-24.9
Fixed investment	16510	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Government consumption	13936	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Exports	30766	-12.1	11.9	8.2	20	-6.2
Imports	-38627	-2.9	-2.3	6.6	4.1	-16.7
GDP at market prices	91541	-5.4	0.1	7.7	7.7	-13.8
GDP at factor cost						
A_AGR	28094	-4.7	-2.8	9.5	6.5	-16.8
A_FOOD	1575	-4.1	-4.3	9.3	4.9	-18.8
A_LIGHT	281	-10	0.5	15.7	16.8	-12.7
A_WOOD	263	-13	5.2	16.1	22.6	-3.6
A_CHEM	8459	-11.5	15.2	5.2	19.8	-5.3
A_MASH	1265	-12.3	8.3	10.9	20.3	-5.3
A_ELEC	3576	-5.1	0.1	7.4	7.4	-14.2
A_CONSTR	2301	-1.4	0.1	1.8	1.9	-3.5
A_TRADE	12286	-3.9	-4.4	8.9	4.5	-21.4
A_REST	1217	-3.4	-5.1	9.2	3.9	-21.8
A_TRANS_COMM	4210	-8.7	1.6	10.2	12	-14.5
A_FIN	3161	-8.6	1.6	9.6	11.4	-14.1
A_PUBLIC	3839	-0.8	-0.1	1.2	1.1	-1.6
A_PUB_SERV	5692	-1.3	-1.3	2.9	1.5	-5.9
TOTAL	76219	-88.9	14.5	117.8	134.7	-159.6
Household consumption (equivalent variation)						
HH_FARM	7242	-1.5	-8.2	7.6	-0.8	-27.7
HH_O_RUR	19761	-5.6	-4.6	11.9	7.2	-25.0
HH_O_URB	11165	-2.9	-7.3	10.2	2.7	-27.0
HH_R_URB	12928	-4.8	-4.3	11.1	6.7	-22.5
HH_PUB	8866	-0.9	-7.3	7.8	0.5	-23.2
HH_TRANS	9091	-1.2	-10.6	9.8	-1.2	-24.7

Our household categories are (i) public employee households which draw more than half their income from public administration, health and social services; (ii) agricultural smallholders

with more half of their total income from small-plot farming; (iii) pensioners with more than half their total income from state transfers; (iv) other rural households; (v) rich urban households (top 2 deciles by consumption); (vi) other urban households. Labor income is disaggregated into (i) low-skilled labor: head of household has general secondary or lower education; (ii) income from medium-skilled labor: head of household has special secondary or incomplete higher education; (iii) income from high-skilled labor: head of household has higher education; (iv) income from non-agricultural employment: household head is self-employed.

4 Country Study: Russia

4.1 Data availability and quality

The data on immigration into Russia is notoriously unreliable due to the prevalence of illegal migration. State agencies report the number of the so-called “registered immigrants,” i.e. those who comply with the laws that require that both Russian citizens and foreigners register with the authorities upon arrival to Russia (or to a new location). Alternatively, there is official data on the number of work permits issued by the migration authorities and the number of foreigners legally employed as reported by the companies. Thus, official sources put the number of immigrants arriving to Russia in 2006 at slightly over 0.186 million, with the CIS countries accounting for the most of this volume (0.177 million). Among them Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan and the Ukraine sent over 30 thousands migrants each. The leading

Table 4.1 Inflow of migrants into Russia (number of people)

	1997	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Total	597 651	359 330	193 450	184 612	129 144	119 157	177 230	186 380
<i>CIS countries</i>	<i>571 903</i>	<i>346 774</i>	<i>183 650</i>	<i>175 068</i>	<i>119 661</i>	<i>110 374</i>	<i>168 598</i>	<i>177 657</i>
Azerbaijan	29 878	14 906	5 587	5 635	4 277	2 584	4 600	8 900
Armenia	19 123	15 951	5 814	6 802	5 124	3 057	7 581	12 949
Belarus'	17 575	10 274	6 520	6 841	5 309	5 650	6 797	5 619
Georgia	24 517	20 213	9 674	7 128	5 540	4 886	5 497	6 806
Kazakhstan	235 903	124 903	65 226	55 706	29 552	40 150	51 945	38 606
Kyrgyzstan	13 752	15 536	10 740	13 139	6 948	9 511	15 592	15 669
Moldova	13 750	11 652	7 569	7 562	6 391	4 816	6 569	8 649
Tajikistan	23 053	11 043	6 742	5 967	5 346	3 339	4 717	6 523
Turkmenistan	16 501	6 738	4 402	4 531	6 299	3 734	4 104	4 089
Uzbekistan	39 620	40 810	24 873	24 951	21 457	14 948	30 436	37 126
Ukraine	138 231	74 748	36 503	36 806	23 418	17 699	30 760	32 721
<i>Non-CIS countries</i>	<i>25 748</i>	<i>12 556</i>	<i>9 800</i>	<i>9 544</i>	<i>9 483</i>	<i>8 783</i>	<i>8 632</i>	<i>8 723</i>
Australia	57	27	25	22	30	42	30	28
Afghanistan	208	288	171	107	82	55	60	86
Bulgaria	750	245	255	238	212	125	118	109
Germany	2 379	1 753	1 627	1 962	2 692	3 117	3 025	2 900
Greece	183	182	124	150	224	182	200	176
Israel	1 626	1 508	1 373	1 670	1 808	1 486	1 004	1 053
Canada	73	50	74	70	103	87	99	77
China	2 861	1 121	405	410	346	212	432	499
Cuba	110	37	42	22	23	12	17	12
Latvia	5 658	1 785	1 283	990	906	819	726	766
Lithuania	1 785	945	758	722	535	339	360	371
Poland	247	61	56	53	39	48	55	48
Syria	483	358	260	144	101	56	68	67
USA	668	439	432	455	484	518	396	411
Turkey	176	164	184	144	112	77	86	172
Finland	140	83	97	136	125	141	129	137
Sweden	32	14	28	19	22	16	23	32
Estonia	3 483	786	535	534	445	446	432	347
other countries	4 829	2 710	2 071	1 696	1 194	1 005	1 372	1 432

Source: Table 5.9. INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION, “Russia in Figures 2007”, Russian State Statistical Agency

Table 4.2 Outflow of migrants from Russia (number of people)

	1997	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Total	232987	145720	121166	106685	94018	79795	69798	54061
<i>CIS countries</i>	<i>146961</i>	<i>82312</i>	<i>61570</i>	<i>52099</i>	<i>46081</i>	<i>37017</i>	<i>36109</i>	<i>35262</i>
Azerbaijan	4302	3187	2170	1704	1771	1336	1274	1366
Armenia	2578	1519	1362	1114	1098	654	620	686
Belarus'	18928	13276	11175	8829	7016	5671	6034	6318
Georgia	3286	1802	1339	964	939	740	691	593
Kazakhstan	25364	17913	15186	13939	14017	12504	12437	11948
Kyrgyzstan	6296	1857	1333	1080	959	656	473	605
Moldova	5715	2237	1660	1385	1234	907	786	636
Tajikistan	2474	1158	993	827	922	549	434	424
Turkmenistan	1532	676	352	272	251	168	125	112
Uzbekistan	7370	3086	1974	1400	1130	717	595	648
Ukraine	69116	35601	24026	20585	16744	13115	12640	11926
<i>Non-CIS countries</i>	<i>86026</i>	<i>63408</i>	<i>59596</i>	<i>54586</i>	<i>47937</i>	<i>42778</i>	<i>33689</i>	<i>18799</i>
Australia	297	176	184	144	146	167	209	167
Afghanistan	146	25	18	7	17	2	11	11
Bulgaria	668	180	163	133	156	160	124	116
Germany	48363	40443	43682	42231	36928	31876	21458	8229
Greece	886	314	204	190	186	157	155	139
Israel	12873	9407	4835	2764	2048	1733	1745	1408
Canada	1333	841	812	725	701	783	628	552
China	1222	658	156	151	86	154	456	196
Cuba	89	27	15	6	8	8	2	3
Latvia	636	365	311	256	259	226	211	223
Lithuania	1162	376	262	293	268	282	213	228
Poland	376	135	84	80	72	57	76	84
Syria	256	54	60	66	58	55	54	42
USA	9087	4793	4527	3134	3199	2919	4040	3109
Turkey	356	104	96	80	88	60	85	78
Finland	923	1142	980	1110	737	910	737	695
Sweden	151	195	148	162	151	158	110	132
Estonia	702	385	402	321	351	265	225	270
other countries	6500	3788	2657	2733	2478	2806	3150	3117

Source: Table 5.9. INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION, "Russia in Figures 2007", Russian State Statistical Agency

sources of immigrants from outside of the CIS were Germany and Israel. This number holds relatively constant starting with 2001, with the exception of 2003-2004 when it declined to roughly 0.120 million. In 2000, however, the number of immigrants was almost twice as high (0.359 million), but already the next year it dropped to its current level.

Table 4.3. Number of foreign nationals employed in Russia (according to the Federal Migration service data)

	Thousand people						
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Total	213,3	283,7	359,5	377,9	460,4	702,5	1014,0
<i>Non-CIS countries</i>	<i>106,9</i>	<i>135,1</i>	<i>154,9</i>	<i>197,4</i>	<i>238,5</i>	<i>358,7</i>	<i>476,1</i>
Vietnam	13,3	20,1	26,7	35,2	41,8	55,6	69,1
China	26,2	38,6	38,7	72,8	94,1	160,6	210,8
North Korea	8,7	9,9	12,7	13,2	14,7	20,1	27,7
USA	1,8	2,0	1,5	1,8	1,9	2,9	3,7
Turkey	17,8	20,9	15,4	37,9	48,0	73,7	101,4
<i>From CIS countries</i>	<i>106,4</i>	<i>148,6</i>	<i>204,6</i>	<i>180,5</i>	<i>221,9</i>	<i>343,7</i>	<i>537,7</i>
Azerbaijan	3,3	4,4	15,0	6,0	9,8	17,3	28,3
Armenia	5,5	8,5	12,6	10,0	17,0	26,2	39,8
Georgia	5,2	5,0	6,8	3,2	3,8	4,3	4,9
Kazakhstan	2,9	3,6	7,6	4,0	4,3	4,1	5,0
Kyrgyzstan	0,9	1,7	6,4	4,8	8,0	16,2	33,0
Moldova	11,9	13,3	40,7	21,5	22,7	30,6	51,0
Tajikistan	6,2	10,0	16,8	13,6	23,3	52,6	98,7
Turkmenistan	0,2	0,1	7,0	0,2	0,3	1,5	0,7
Uzbekistan	6,1	10,1	15,5	14,6	24,1	49,0	105,1
Ukraine	64,1	91,9	61,0	102,6	108,6	141,8	171,3

Source: Russian State Statistical Agency

Overall, according to the Russian State Statistical Agency, there were 1.014 million legally employed foreign nationals in Russia in 2006, up from 0.7025 million a year earlier and 0.213 million in 2000. The largest sources of foreign workers in Russia, according to that data, were China (0.2108 million), the Ukraine (0.1713), Uzbekistan (0.1051 million), Turkey (0.1014 million), and Tajikistan (0.0987 million). Overall, over half of all foreign workers arrived from the CIS countries (0.5377 million). Foreign workers are predominantly male (0.8585 million in 2006), while women account for only a small fraction of the total (0.156 million). The single most popular destination for immigrant workers is the *construction* industry employing 0.4141 million foreign workers in 2006 up from 0.2721 a year earlier. Next comes the *retail and wholesale trade* (including repair services) with 0.2709 million foreign workers. Agriculture and transportation employ over 40 thousand foreigners each, while “other services“ employ less than 30 thousand. The presence of foreign workers in other industries is marginal. Nearly half of all foreign workers are concentrated in Moscow (0.3556 million) and Moscow region (0.085).

This official data on “registered migration,” however, seems to significantly underestimate the volume of migration flows, especially the volume of short-term migration of low-skilled workers from the CIS countries. On the one hand, citizens of most of the CIS countries do not require visas to travel to Russia which encourages migration. On the other, the system of registration in force in Russia throughout the 2000s was extremely burdensome. In order to obtain a registration an immigrant had to satisfy a number of conditions, most importantly, he had to have a place of residence and, moreover, to obtain a permission from his landlord to be registered at this particular address. The very fact of registration made a migrant (and his tax-evading landlord) “visible” and thus exposed him or her to extortion by the corrupt officials.

Obtaining work permits was similarly burdensome. Employers also had all the incentives to encourage illegal immigration, for it gave them significant leverage over their unregistered and thus legally vulnerable workers.

As a result, even the authorities themselves acknowledge the presence of huge number of illegal immigrants. The magnitude of illegal migration is also underlined by the fact that after the registration procedure was reformed in 2007 (now foreigners don't need to ask the officials for registration, it is enough for them to simply notify the authorities about their new place of residence) the number of foreigners registering with the Federal Migration Service jumped, according to some accounts, threefold. Still, it is hard to get a reasonable estimate of the volume of migration. At the end of 2006 the head of the Federal Migration Service

Table 4.4. Foreign nationals employed, by sector (Federal Migration Service data)

	Thousand people		Percentage of the total by occupation	
	2005	2006	2005	2006
Total	702,5	1014,0	100	100
Agriculture and hunting	33,4	44,1	4,8	4,4
Forestry	17,8	28,5	2,5	2,8
Fishing, fish farms	0,7	1,2	0,1	0,1
Mining and quarrying	12,6	19,9	1,8	2,0
Manufacturing	48,7	72,2	6,9	7,1
Construction	272,1	414,1	38,7	40,8
Wholesale trade and commission trade; repair of motor vehicles, motorcycles; personal and household goods	213,9	270,9	30,4	26,7
Transport	29,5	43,3	4,2	4,3
Communication	3,5	3,7	0,5	0,4
Financial intermediation	1,9	4,2	0,3	0,4
Real estate, renting and business activities	0,5	0,9	0,1	0,1
Computer-related activities	0,6	0,8	0,1	0,1
Science and research	0,3	0,3	0,0	0,0
Geophysical, geological exploration	3,1	2,3	0,4	0,2
Land-surveying and cartographic activities	0,0	0,4	0,0	0,0
Education	1,0	1,0	0,1	0,1
Health and social work	2,2	2,8	0,3	0,3
Other community, social and personal service activities	13,6	24,1	1,9	2,4
Other activities	46,8	79,0	6,7	7,8

Source: "Russia in Figures 2007", Russian State Statistical Agency

estimated the number of illegal immigrants in Russia at 10 million, while the United Nations Population Division (World Migrant Stock) estimated the number of international migrants in Russia at mid-year (both sexes) in 2005 at 12 million, about 6 million of them female; this number, according to the UN Population Division holds roughly constant throughout 1990s-2000s. However, independent experts in Russia criticize these estimates as overblown. According to the estimates by the Centre for Migration Studies in Moscow, the stock of immigrants present in Russia at a given moment is about 7 million. Roughly 0.5 million for them are expatriate workers from the developed countries, while 5 to 6 million are "migrant labour." No more than 0.7 million of them come through official channels, while the rest arrive on their own. Among these about 20% follow the necessary legal procedures obtaining both registration and work permit, 30% register, but work without permit, and the rest (i.e. 50%) have neither registration nor permit (these estimates describe the situation before the 2007 reform of registration system).

Table 4.5. Stock of immigrants according to WB Migration and Remittances Fact book

Russian Federation (Europe & Central Asia; Upper middle income)			
Population (millions, 2006)	142	Surface area (1,000 sq. km, 2006)	17098
Population growth (avg. annual %, 1997–2006)	-0.4	GNI (\$ billions, 2006)	958
Population density (people per sq. km, 2006)	9	GNI per capita, Atlas method (\$, 2006)	5780
Labour force (millions, 2006)	73	GDP growth (avg. annual %, 2002–2006)	7
Urban population (% of pop., 2006)	72.9	Poverty headcount ratio at national poverty line (% of pop., 2004)	0
Age dependency ratio	0.4		
Emigration, 2005			
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stock of emigrants: 11,480,137 • Stock of emigrants as percentage of population: 8.0% • Top 10 destination countries: Ukraine, Kazakhstan, Belarus, Israel, Uzbekistan, United States, Latvia, Germany, Moldova, Estonia. 			
Skilled Emigration, 2000			
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emigration rate of tertiary educated: 1.3% • Emigration of physicians: 1,875 or 0.3% of physicians trained in the country 			
Immigration, 2005			
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stock of immigrants: 12,079,626 • Stock of immigrants as percentage of population: 8.4% • Female as percentage of immigrants: 57.8% • Refugees as percentage of immigrants: 0.0% • Top 10 source countries: Ukraine, Kazakhstan, Belarus, Uzbekistan, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Armenia, Kyrgyz Republic, Tajikistan, Moldova. 			

Source: Migration and Remittances Factbook is compiled by Dilip Ratha and Zhimei Xu, Migration and Remittances Team, Development Prospects Group, World Bank. More information on other countries and regions are available at www.worldbank.org/prospects/migrationandremittances.

Official data on emigration from Russia should also be treated cautiously, for it accounts only for those who have chosen to register with the Russian authorities as residing or working abroad; however, citizen have no incentives to do so, not there are any enforcement mechanisms. With all that said, the number of departures from Russia in 2006 is officially put at 54,061, with 35,262 among them going to the CIS countries. This is a marked decrease compared to the level of 2000 (145,720). Top destinations include Kazakhstan, the Ukraine, Germany, and USA. However, the official data on the number of Russian that left the country in 2006 in order to work abroad is put at 65,747.

There is increasing attention on international migrant remittances as a development policy and financial stability issue. Official statistics on remittances are primarily collected and reported through the balance of payments framework, but they are incomplete in many countries, may underreport remittance flows, and are often not comparable¹².

The primary source of information about transborder money transfers, including remittances in Russia is the Central Bank (CBR). According to CBR¹³ total money transfers to Russia amounted to \$7,500 million in 2006, with most of the funds transferred in favor of residents - 66% (\$5.0 billion) compared with 55% (\$3.5 billion) in 2005. Total outward money transfers were estimated at \$18 800 million in 2006.

Cross-border remittances via money transfer systems accounted for 32% of outward money transfers from Russia in 2006 (28% in 2005) and for 17% of inward money transfers to Russia (16% in 2005).

¹² IMF Remittances Statistics portal (<http://www.imf.org/external/np/sta/bop/remitt.htm>)

¹³ http://www.cbr.ru/eng/statistics/CrossBorder/Cross-border_06_e.pdf

The turnover of remittances via money transfer systems has risen considerably in the past few years. It amounted to \$7.3 billion in 2006. Between 2003 and 2006, the volume of remittances grew at an annual rate of 150-160%. The high growth rate was largely maintained by remittances from Russia.

The value of remittances from Russia increased by 69% in 2006 year on year basis up to \$6.0 billion. Compared with 2004, remittances grew in value by 190%. Remittances to Russia grew slower. Their value increased by 25% in 2006 year on year basis up to \$1.3 billion. Compared with 2004, they grew in value by 68%.

The CIS countries accounted for most of remittances from Russia in 2006 (90%). The value of these transfers totalled to \$5.4 billion. Money transfers to Russia came both from non-CIS countries (\$0.7 billion) and CIS countries (\$0.6 billion) in 2006.

The *average sum* of one remittance from Russia increased by 19% in 2006 (year on year) to \$546 per transaction. The average remittance to non-CIS countries was twice as much as the sum of one remittance to CIS countries (\$1,349 and \$511, respectively).

In 2006, the main recipients of money remittances from Russia carried out via money transfer systems were Uzbekistan (16.7%), Tajikistan (15.9%), Ukraine (15.4%), Armenia (10.1%) and Moldova (8.7%). Ukraine registered the minimum average remittance (\$364) from Russia.

The main remitting countries were the United States (14.6%), Kazakhstan (11.8%), Uzbekistan (7.0%), Ukraine (6.8%) and Germany (4.8%).

The geography of inward remittances was wider than that of outward remittances. In 2006, the top three remitting countries contributed one-third of money received in Russia whereas the top three recipient countries accounted for almost 50% of remittances from Russia.

*Remittances without quid pro quo*¹⁴ accounted for 27% of money transfers from abroad in favor of individuals in 2006. Their value increased by 29% (\$0.3 billion) to \$1.4 billion in 2006. 80% (\$1.1 billion) of this amount were made via money transfer systems. Transfers in favor of non-residents totaled \$2.5 billion in 2006 compared with \$2.9 billion in 2005. Their share in the structure of transfers dropped from 45% in 2005 to 34% in 2006.

As for the country profile of money transfers, Kazakhstan was the only CIS country, which remitted more funds to Russia than it received. The transfer of money from the sale of property by migrants leaving Kazakhstan for permanent residence in Russia played a noticeable role in these remittances.

The largest amount of money transfers from Russia went to China (\$2.5 billion) compared with other countries. These operations were largely conducted by non-residents. In terms of value, they accounted for one-third of all money transfers by non-residents from Russia. The average transaction was relatively large and equaled about \$20,000, exceeding by 30 times the amount of one money transfer by a non-resident from Russia to CIS countries. Over 60% of these transactions were performed by non-resident individuals from the Far Eastern and Urals Federal Districts of Russia, with the average size of a transaction equaling \$50,000. According to estimates, these transactions are related to payments for goods imported into Russia without proper customs clearance rather than to remittances without quid pro quo.

More than half of money transfers to Turkey were made by residents. Payments for the import of consumer goods and the services of travel agencies accounted for one-third of that amount.

¹⁴ Remittances without quid pro quo include grants, donations, compensation payments, scholarships, pensions, alimonies, inheritance payments, gifts, and also all remittances made via money transfer systems.

Table 4.6. Remittances according to the Central Bank of the Russian Federation

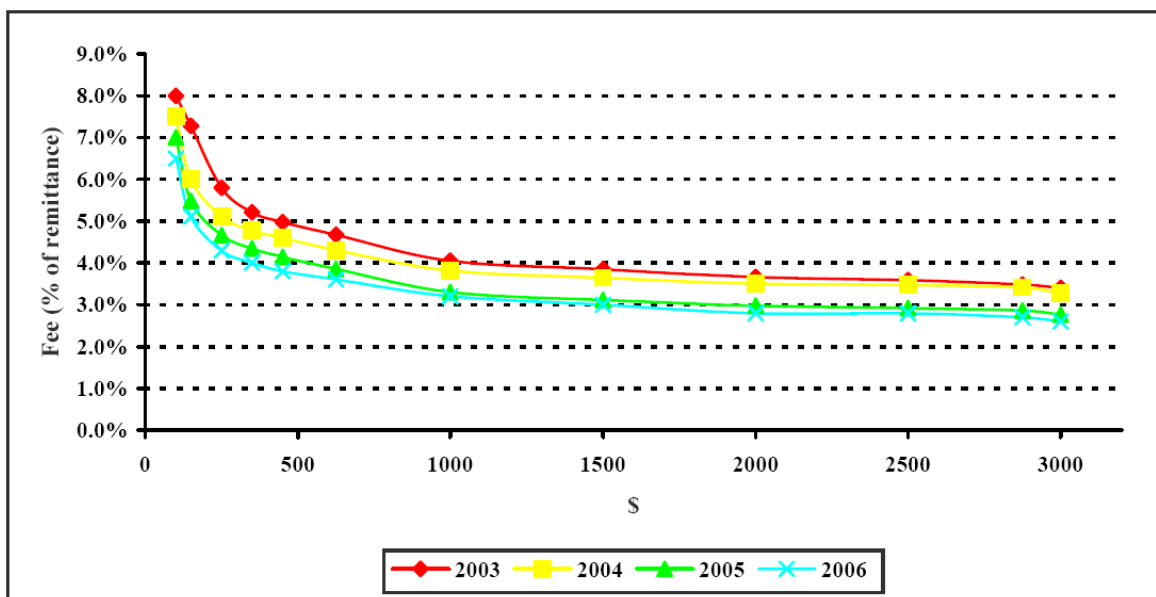
	2003	2004	2005	Q1 2006	Q2 2006	Q3 2006	Q4 2006	2006	Q1 2007	Q2 2007	Q3 2007	Q4 2007	2007
Total, \$ million.													
Money Transfers from Individuals in the Russian Federation	1,310	2,070	3,549	815	1,290	1,911	1,988	6,005	1,372	2,005	2,939	3,127	9,444
to non-CIS countries	323	106	128	188	201	622	172	182	230	285	868
to CIS countries	3,226	709	1,162	1,723	1,788	5,382	1,201	1,824	2,709	2,842	8,575
Money Transfers in favour of Individuals to the Russian Federation	588	777	1,041	271	331	340	362	1,304	342	400	451	489	1,681
from non-CIS countries	645	165	192	193	196	746	180	202	210	220	813
from CIS countries	396	106	139	147	167	559	162	197	241	268	868
Balance ²	-2,507	-544	-959	-1,572	-1,626	-4,700	-1,030	-1,606	-2,488	-2,639	7,763
with non-CIS countries	322	59	64	5	-5	123	8	21	-20	-65	-55
with CIS countries	-2,829	-603	-1,023	-1,577	-1,621	-4,824	-1,039	-1,626	-2,469	-2,574	7,707
Average remittance, \$													
Money Transfers from Individuals in the Russian Federation	457	417	494	600	613	546	512	561	674	687	623
to non-CIS countries	1,084	1,191	1,198	1,466	1,460	1,349	1,315	1,304	1,448	1,512	1,407
to CIS countries	432	380	464	563	575	511	471	531	644	652	589
Money Transfers in favour of Individuals to the Russian Federation	427	411	484	533	492	480	488	562	661	603	579
from non-CIS countries	506	497	533	578	537	536	519	580	638	597	583
from CIS countries	340	323	430	485	449	422	458	545	682	607	575

Source: Cross-border Remittances via Money Transfer Systems Reports of the credit institutions "Data on Transfers of the Individuals from the Russian Federation and Transfers to the Russian Federation for the Benefit of the Individuals and Transactions of the Resident Individuals with the Non-residents on the Territory of the Russian Federation", other reports of the credit institutions, reports of money transfer systems and of the government post service "Pochta Rossii".

According to CBR estimates, remittances by non-residents to Turkey largely included the transfer of part of wages received by Turkish citizens working in Russia to their families.

Among ten main recipient countries, the largest *average* transfer went to Switzerland (\$22,071) and the United Kingdom (\$26,256) while the smallest sums went to CIS countries: Ukraine (\$491), Uzbekistan (\$666), Tajikistan (\$648) and Armenia (\$754). According to estimates, money transfers to the first group of countries were related to transactions conducted by residents from their accounts with Russian banks to their accounts with foreign banks. Meanwhile, transfers to the second group of countries were linked to transactions carried out by individuals temporarily working in Russia. An average transaction was larger in Uzbekistan and Tajikistan than in Ukraine because money was consolidated by one trusted person.

According to CBR estimates, the average *fee* per remittance abroad via money transfer systems was 3.7% of the remittance sum in 2006. At the same time, the average fee was \$20 for the average remittance of \$500-\$600. The size of remittance fee has decreased considerably in the past few years. The largest reduction was registered for remittances ranging from \$100 to \$200. In 2006, the remittance fee fell 7% on average compared with 2005 and 13% compared with 2004.

Figure 4.2. Average Fee for Remittances from Russia via Money Transfer Systems

Source: CBR's survey of cross-border transactions of individuals:
http://www.cbr.ru/eng/statistics/CrossBorder/Cross-border_06_e.pdf.

According to World Bank estimates, the volume of inward remittance flow to Russia in 2006 was \$3 091 million, with the stock of emigrants estimated at 11.5 million. As one can see WB's estimates are twice as big as CBR's are. This is the case of inconsistency in statistical methods or incorrect terminology. CBR's figures on remittances include only personal transborder transfers, contrary to the WB methodology which includes transborder compensation of employees.

The volume of remittances sent home by foreign workers in Russia is estimated by the World Bank (Migration and Remittances Factbook) at \$11,436 million (2006), or 11.2% of GDP, of which \$4,587 million are workers' remittances, and \$6,038 million is defined as compensation of employees. The volume of remittances in 2006 increased sharply compared to the previous year (\$6,989) and even more so, compared to 2000 (\$1,101 million). These estimates are made on the assumption that the stock of immigrants in Russia in 2005 was 12 million, as estimated by the UN Population Division.

Statistical base for social accounting matrices (SAM) in Russia is a "System of Input-output tables of Russia" published by Goskomstat. The last publication contains 2003 data. In order to build a Russian SAM for 2004 we had to update data using the available information from the National Accounts and Russian statistical Yearbook for 2004. Structure of this database is close to the data requirements for the Standard IFPRI model (Lofgren et al. 2002), with one exception: there is no data on transport and trade mark-ups.

Table 4.7. Design of the first set of simulations, an increase in immigration and remittances.

GAMS CODE: Experiment 1	
Parameter SHRMIGR /0.14/ $\text{trnsfrSIM}(H, \text{SIMNTBASE}(\text{SIM})) = (1 + (\text{ord}(\text{SIM}) - 1) / 10) * \text{trnsfr}(H, 'ROW');$ $\text{QFSSIM}('LAB', \text{SIMNTBASE}(\text{SIM})) = ((1 + (\text{ord}(\text{SIM}) - 1) / 10) * \text{SHRMIGR} + (1 - \text{SHRMIGR})) * \text{QFS0}('LAB');$	
In each simulation households transfers to ROW (interpreted as remittances) and stock of immigrants in labour force increase by 1% relative to previous simulation. A first simulation is equivalent to benchmark. Migration and remittances increase twofold in last simulation relative to benchmark.	
Total labour force, thousand people (Source: Таблица 1.11.; ТРУД И ЗАНЯТОСТЬ В РОССИИ 2007)	74 146 200.00
Stock of immigrants (2005) (Source: WB Migration and Remittances Factbook)	12 079 626.00
Share of migrants in the total labour force (SHRMIGR)	$12\,079\,626 / (74\,146\,200 + 12\,079\,626)$ =14%

4.2 Experiment design

Designing experiments for this model we keep in mind two possible channels of influence of an increase in migration on Russian economy: a direct one, accounting for a hypothetical increase in immigration; and an indirect one, steaming from an increase in total factor productivity in selected industries which are usual employers of immigrants.

We conducted three series of simulations, exploring direct and indirect effects of an increase in migration. In the first series consisted of ten experiments, we look at direct consequences of a 10% increase in migration and remittances relative to a previous simulation. Thus in the last simulation a cumulative increase relative to the benchmark is two-fold. The GAMS code and

Table 4.8. Design of the second set of simulations, an assessment of an indirect effects of an increase in migration (an increase in TFP in services).

$\text{alphavaSIM}(\text{AASERV}, \text{SIMNTBASE}(\text{SIM})) = (1 + (\text{ord}(\text{SIM}) - 1) / 20) * \text{alphava0}(\text{AASERV});$	
AASERV(A) services / A_sec14 Construction A_sec16 Transport and communication A_sec17 Trade A_sec18 Other services A_sec19 Housing A_sec20 Health sports social security education culture and arts services A_sec21 Science A_sec22 Finance administration defense and civil organizations /	
In each simulation total factor productivity in services increases by 0.05%	

Table 4.9. Parameter α SIM – a shift parameter in CES activity production function, by industry for each simulation of the second set.

3304 PARAMETER α SIM shift parameter CES activity production function		Benchmark level	SIM2	SIM3	SIM4	SIM5	SIM6	SIM7	SIM8	SIM9	SIM10	SIM11
A_sec1	Electricity and heat	1.931	1.931	1.931	1.931	1.931	1.931	1.931	1.931	1.931	1.931	1.931
A_sec2	Products of Oil extraction and refinery	1.45	1.45	1.45	1.45	1.45	1.45	1.45	1.45	1.45	1.45	1.45
A_sec3	Coal	1.931	1.931	1.931	1.931	1.931	1.931	1.931	1.931	1.931	1.931	1.931
A_sec4	Peat	1.998	1.998	1.998	1.998	1.998	1.998	1.998	1.998	1.998	1.998	1.998
A_sec5	Ferrous metals	1.741	1.741	1.741	1.741	1.741	1.741	1.741	1.741	1.741	1.741	1.741
A_sec6	Nonferrous metals	1.821	1.821	1.821	1.821	1.821	1.821	1.821	1.821	1.821	1.821	1.821
A_sec7	Products of Chemical industry and petrochemical industry	1.989	1.989	1.989	1.989	1.989	1.989	1.989	1.989	1.989	1.989	1.989
A_sec8	Machinery and equipment, metal works	1.827	1.827	1.827	1.827	1.827	1.827	1.827	1.827	1.827	1.827	1.827
A_sec9	Products of Forestry, wood-processing and paper-pulp industry	1.08	1.08	1.08	1.08	1.08	1.08	1.08	1.08	1.08	1.08	1.08
A_sec10	Construction materials (including glass, china and delftware)	1.901	1.901	1.901	1.901	1.901	1.901	1.901	1.901	1.901	1.901	1.901
A_sec11	Products of Light industry	1.952	1.952	1.952	1.952	1.952	1.952	1.952	1.952	1.952	1.952	1.952
A_sec12	Products of Food-processing Industry	1.867	1.867	1.867	1.867	1.867	1.867	1.867	1.867	1.867	1.867	1.867
A_sec13	Products of all Other industries	1.871	1.871	1.871	1.871	1.871	1.871	1.871	1.871	1.871	1.871	1.871
A_sec14	Construction goods	1.973	2.072	2.171	2.269	2.368	2.467	2.565	2.664	2.763	2.861	2.96
A_sec15	Agricultural goods and services in agriculture and forestry	1.577	1.577	1.577	1.577	1.577	1.577	1.577	1.577	1.577	1.577	1.577
A_sec16	Transport cargo and communication	1.999	2.098	2.198	2.298	2.398	2.498	2.598	2.698	2.798	2.898	2.998
A_sec17	Trade (including catering)	1.338	1.405	1.472	1.539	1.606	1.673	1.74	1.807	1.874	1.941	2.007
A_sec18	Other services	1.877	1.971	2.064	2.158	2.252	2.346	2.44	2.534	2.628	2.721	2.815
A_sec19	Housing	1.918	2.014	2.11	2.206	2.302	2.398	2.494	2.59	2.686	2.782	2.878
A_sec20	Health, sports, social security, education, culture and arts services	1.206	1.266	1.327	1.387	1.447	1.508	1.568	1.628	1.689	1.749	1.809
A_sec21	Science and scientific services, including geology and meteorology services	1.017	1.068	1.118	1.169	1.22	1.271	1.322	1.373	1.423	1.474	1.525
A_sec22	Finance, banking and insurance services, government and civil organizations	1.768	1.856	1.944	2.033	2.121	2.21	2.298	2.386	2.475	2.563	2.651

some additional information on the design of the first set of simulations is in the Table 4.7.

We assume that the share of remittances in the labour income of immigrants is constant. Thus the volume of remittances in local currency units (LCU) increases by the same factor as immigration does.

Table 4.10. Design of the third set of simulations

Parameter SHRMIGR /0.14/ $\text{trnsfrSIM}(H, \text{SIMNTBASE}(\text{SIM})) = (1 + (\text{ord}(\text{SIM})-1)/10) * \text{trnsfr}(H, 'ROW');$ $\text{QFSSIM}('LAB', \text{SIMNTBASE}(\text{SIM})) = ((1 + (\text{ord}(\text{SIM})-1)/10)*\text{SHRMIGR} + (1-\text{SHRMIGR})) * \text{QFS0}('LAB');$ * Increase in productivity in service sectors $\text{alphavaSIM}(\text{AASERV}, \text{SIMNTBASE}(\text{SIM})) = (1 + (\text{ord}(\text{SIM})-1)/20) * \text{alphava0}(\text{AASERV});$										
AASERV(A) services / A_sec14 Construction A_sec16 Transport and communication A_sec17 Trade A_sec18 Other services A_sec19 Housing A_sec20 Health sports social security education culture and arts services										
This is a combination of the set of simulations 1 and the set of simulations 2: In each simulation households transfers to ROW (interpreted as remittances) and stock of immigrants in labour force increase by 10% relative to previous simulation. First simulation is equivalent to benchmark. Migration and remittances increase twofold in last simulation relative to benchmark. In each simulation total factor productivity in services (set AASERV) increases by 0.05%										
	Simulation number (The first set of simulations)									
Parameter	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09	10	11
Capital rent (% to benchmark)	0.31	0.62	0.92	1.21	1.49	1.77	2.04	2.31	2.57	2.82
Wage (% to benchmark)	-0.31	-0.62	-0.92	-1.21	-1.49	-1.77	-2.04	-2.31	-2.57	-2.82

The second set of simulations aims on assessing indirect effects of increasing migration. According to Table 4.4 most officially registered immigrants are employed in construction (40% in 2006), trade (26%), transport (4.3%), agriculture and hunting (4.4%). We enlarged this list to cover all service sectors of the model. Indirect effect of an increase in migration is modelled as an increase in total factor productivity in service sector. In the second set of experiments we conducted ten runs. In each run total factor productivity in services increases by 5% relative to a previous experiment.

The GAMS code and some additional information on the design of the second set of simulations is in the Table 4.8.

The third set of experiments combines design of the first and the second sets, i.e. in each experiment of this set there is an increase in labour immigration, remittances, and TFP in services.

4.3 Results

Comparing results of all simulations we can conclude that both, direct and indirect effects are working in the same direction. As for the numerical values, the indirect effect of the migration, as it is modelled in the second set, dominates the direct effect of an increase in immigration and remittances.

Experiment 1: doubling the stock of immigrants and remittances

The consequences of an increase in the labour migration in the model could be characterized in the following way: as inward labour migration increases, supply of labour increases for all industries, since we do not have any labour market segmentation in the model. The present model set-up does not account for unemployment, either. Thus increase in the labour force pushes wages down in the whole economy. With the supply of capital being fixed, rent rises as wage goes down (see Table 4.11 for details).

We used the standard macro closure of the IFPRI model for all three sets of simulations. In this closure a country under investigation is assumed to be a small open economy with flexible exchange rate, fixed foreign savings and fixed capital formation.

Wage rate decrease drives domestic prices down and stimulates exports. Price ratio of tradables to nontradables goes up as well as real and nominal exchange rate, displaying the depreciation being in place.

Import is part of an aggregate commodity which is demanded by households and government for final consumption and by firms for intermediate use (see Figure 4.2 below.)

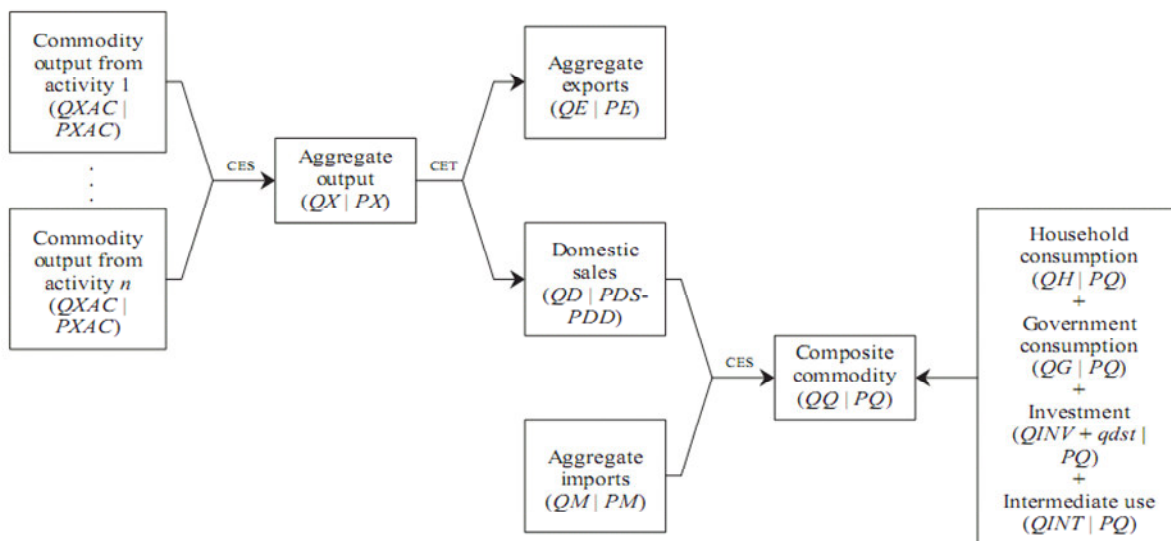
Thus increase in volume of production gives rise to intermediate use and demand for composite commodity. In a due course, this tendency gives rise to imports.

There is only one household in our version of the model. Thus we can not differentiate between residents of the country and labor migrants. An increase in migration affects the income of the representative household in two ways. First, the wage rate declines, but the labor force increases. Second, households are assumed to be the owners of the capital, thus all capital rent goes to the household budget. With an increasing labor force and declining wage rate, plus an increase in capital rent, household income increases as a result of an increase in

Table 4.11. Results of the first set of simulations.

Experiment 1	Description of a parameter	Percentage increase of LF and remittances relative to benchmark.										
		10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	
QABSTOT	real absorption (LCU at base prices)	0.54	1.06	1.57	2.07	2.56	3.04	3.51	3.97	4.41	4.85	
QHTOT	real household consumption (LCU at base prices)	1.14	2.25	3.34	4.4	5.44	6.46	7.45	8.43	9.38	10.3	
QETOT	total real exports (LCU at base prices)	0.54	1.07	1.6	2.12	2.64	3.15	3.66	4.17	4.67	5.17	
QMTOT	total real imports (LCU at base prices)	0.52	1.03	1.53	2.02	2.51	2.98	3.45	3.9	4.35	4.8	
REXR	PPP real exchange rate (LCUs per FCU)	0.25	0.49	0.72	0.94	1.16	1.37	1.57	1.77	1.96	2.15	
NEXR	nominal exchange rate (LCUs per FCU)	0.04	0.07	0.1	0.13	0.16	0.18	0.2	0.22	0.24	0.26	
PDIND	domestic (non-tradables) price index (100 for base)	-0.2	-0.4	-0.6	-0.8	-1	-1.2	-1.4	-1.5	-1.7	-1.9	
INVGDP	investment (% of nominal GDP)	-0.1	-0.2	-0.3	-0.4	-0.6	-0.7	-0.8	-0.9	-0.9	-1	
PRVSAVGDP	private (household + enterprise) savings (% of nominal GDP)	-0.5	-0.9	-1.3	-1.7	-2.2	-2.5	-2.9	-3.3	-3.7	-4	
FORSAVGDP	foreign savings (% of nominal GDP)	0.04	0.08	0.12	0.16	0.2	0.24	0.28	0.31	0.35	0.39	
TRDDEFGDP	trade deficit (% of nominal GDP)	-0.1	-0.1	-0.1	-0.2	-0.2	-0.3	-0.3	-0.4	-0.4	-0.5	
GOVSAVGDP	government savings (% of nominal GDP)	0.3	0.59	0.87	1.14	1.4	1.66	1.9	2.14	2.38	2.61	
IMPTAXGDP	tariff revenue (% of nominal GDP)	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.04	0.04	0.05	0.05	
DIRTAXGDP	direct tax revenue (% of nominal GDP)	0.01	0.02	0.04	0.05	0.06	0.07	0.08	0.08	0.09	0.1	

Figure 4.2. Commodity flows in the standard IFPRI model. (Lofgren et al, 2002)



Note: CES is constant elasticity of substitution; CET is constant elasticity of transformation.

immigration. An increase in household income and a decrease in domestic prices give rise to private consumption in all three sets of simulations.

Experiment 2: increasing total factor productivity in services

The indirect effect of the migration, as it is modelled in the second set, dominates the direct effect of an increase in immigration and remittances.

Experiment 3: doubling the stock of immigrants and increasing total factor productivity in services

Comparing results of all simulations we can conclude that both the direct and the indirect effects are working in the same direction.

4.4 Conclusions

In this country study we analyzed direct and indirect consequences of increase in migration for Russia using standard IFPRI computable general equilibrium framework. The benchmark CGE dataset – the social accounting matrix for Russia is unique and was created for this project. We presented a report on data availability of on migration and remittances for the Russian economy. We presented three sets of CGE model runs simulating direct and indirect effects of immigration.

The most important driving force behind all results in the presented sets of simulations is a significant economy-wide wage rate decrease as a direct consequence of an increase in immigration. This effect is justified by the model settings but is not supported by the mainstream empirical literature on immigration.

From this literature we know the importance of personal characteristics, such as skill level, experience, major occupation, etc. General equilibrium analysis would be much more precise and rich with all these details incorporated in the model. This exercise could be done if there

Table 4.12. Results of the second set of simulations.

Experiment 2	Description of a parameter	SIM2	SIM3	SIM4	SIM5	SIM6	SIM7	SIM8	SIM9	SIM10	SIM11
QABSTOT	real absorption (LCU at base prices)	3.92	7.74	11.46	15.09	18.64	22.12	25.53	28.88	32.17	35.4
QHTOT	real household consumption (LCU at base prices)	8.34	16.45	24.35	32.06	39.61	47	54.25	61.36	68.34	75.21
QETOT	total real exports (LCU at base prices)	2.17	4.29	6.38	8.44	10.48	12.5	14.51	16.5	18.47	20.44
QMTOT	total real imports (LCU at base prices)	4.13	8.17	12.14	16.06	19.93	23.76	27.56	31.33	35.07	38.79
REXR	PPP real exchange rate (LCUs per FCU)	0.93	1.63	2.11	2.4	2.52	2.48	2.32	2.06	1.69	1.26
NEXR	nominal exchange rate (LCUs per FCU)	0.96	1.74	2.35	2.82	3.14	3.35	3.46	3.46	3.39	3.25
PDIND	domestic (non-tradables) price index (100 for base)	0.02	0.1	0.24	0.41	0.61	0.85	1.1	1.38	1.67	1.97
INVGDP	investment (% of nominal GDP)	-0.61	-1.17	-1.68	-2.15	-2.59	-2.99	-3.36	-3.71	-4.03	-4.34
PRVSAVGDP	private (household + enterprise) savings (% of nominal GDP)	-2.25	-4.3	-6.19	-7.93	-9.54	-11.05	-12.45	-13.76	-14.99	-16.15
FORSAVGDP	foreign savings (% of nominal GDP)	0.32	0.63	0.94	1.25	1.55	1.84	2.12	2.4	2.67	2.93
TRDDEFGDP	trade deficit (% of nominal GDP)	0.39	0.77	1.14	1.5	1.85	2.19	2.52	2.84	3.15	3.45
GOVSAVGDP	government savings (% of nominal GDP)	1.31	2.49	3.56	4.53	5.41	6.22	6.97	7.65	8.29	8.88
IMPTAXGDP	tariff revenue (% of nominal GDP)	0.05	0.1	0.14	0.18	0.21	0.24	0.27	0.3	0.32	0.34
DIRTAXGDP	direct tax revenue (% of nominal GDP)	0.14	0.27	0.38	0.49	0.59	0.68	0.77	0.85	0.93	1

were empirical estimates of the relevant parameters for Russia. But empirical literature on the consequences of labor migration for Russia is constrained by the availability of data, which is very scarce to say the least.

Table 4.13. Results of the third set of simulations

Experiment 1	Description of a parameter	SIM2	SIM3	SIM4	SIM5	SIM6	SIM7	SIM8	SIM9	SIM10	SIM11
QABSTOT	real absorption (LCU at base prices)	4.47	8.83	13.1	17.29	21.4	25.45	29.44	33.36	37.24	41.06
QHTOT	real household consumption (LCU at base prices)	9.49	18.76	27.83	36.73	45.47	54.07	62.53	70.88	79.11	87.24
QETOT	total real exports (LCU at base prices)	2.71	5.38	8.02	10.63	13.22	15.8	18.37	20.92	23.46	25.99
QMTOT	total real imports (LCU at base prices)	4.65	9.23	13.74	18.2	22.62	27.01	31.37	35.7	40.02	44.31
REXR	PPP real exchange rate (LCUs per FCU)	1.17	2.06	2.72	3.17	3.44	3.54	3.52	3.38	3.15	2.84
NEXR	nominal exchange rate (LCUs per FCU)	0.99	1.78	2.41	2.87	3.21	3.42	3.54	3.56	3.51	3.4
PDIND	domestic (non-tradables) price index (100 for base)	-0.18	-0.28	-0.31	-0.29	-0.22	-0.12	0.02	0.17	0.35	0.54
INVGDP	investment (% of nominal GDP)	-0.73	-1.39	-1.99	-2.55	-3.07	-3.55	-4	-4.41	-4.8	-5.17
PRVSAVGDP	private (household + enterprise) savings (% of nominal GDP)	-2.68	-5.12	-7.36	-9.41	-11.3	-13.1	-14.7	-16.2	-17.6	-19
FORSAVGDP	foreign savings (% of nominal GDP)	0.36	0.72	1.07	1.42	1.76	2.09	2.41	2.72	3.02	3.31
TRDDEFGDP	trade deficit (% of nominal GDP)	0.35	0.69	1.02	1.35	1.66	1.97	2.27	2.56	2.84	3.11
GOVSAVGDP	government savings (% of nominal GDP)	1.59	3.01	4.29	5.44	6.48	7.43	8.29	9.08	9.81	10.49
IMPTAXGDP	tariff revenue (% of nominal GDP)	0.06	0.11	0.15	0.2	0.23	0.27	0.3	0.32	0.35	0.37
DIRTAXGDP	direct tax revenue (% of nominal GDP)	0.15	0.29	0.41	0.53	0.64	0.74	0.83	0.92	1	1.07

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