

EUROPEAN SECURITY ARCHITECTURE IN THE 21st CENTURY

Editors:
Anatolii ZADOIA
Svitlana FEDULOVA



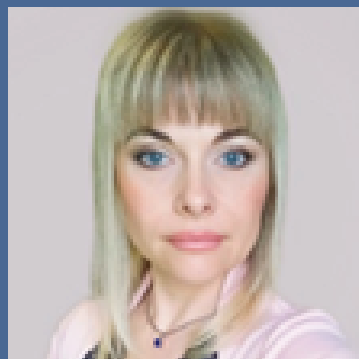


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The monograph combines theoretical and methodological, analytical and applied levels of research. It offers a holistic vision of the architecture of global security, where economic, environmental, energy, digital and social dimensions are integrated. The focus is on Ukraine as an active subject in the formation of a new security order in Europe, based on the principles of sustainability, partnership, innovation and mutual responsibility.

The results of the study are interdisciplinary in nature and will be useful to all those interested in the prospects for building a new European security architecture.

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Chapter 11
***Ukraine's contribution to human resource security and
reducing disparities in the European labour market***
(O. Zakharova)

Aggravating demographic challenges, population ageing, and imbalances between labour supply and demand have become serious issues for most countries worldwide. These problems are particularly acute in the countries of the European Union (hereinafter referred to as the EU), where workforce shortages in strategic sectors of the economy threaten to significantly slow innovation-driven development and reduce economic competitiveness in the near future. Such trends may substantially alter the global balance among key economic actors. The COVID-19 pandemic, the financial and economic crisis, and subsequently the war in Ukraine have further aggravated the socio-economic and humanitarian situation in Europe, triggering a redistribution of labour resources and significant changes in migration flows. In this context, workforce security in European countries is increasingly recognised as a critical component of national security. It encompasses preservation, development, and efficient utilisation of human capital and forms the foundation for partnership-based cooperation mechanisms among European countries across various sectors. These mechanisms aim to jointly and more rapidly address workforce imbalances in Europe. Thus, Ukraine's contribution to ensuring workforce stability and labour market balance in Europe has become exceptionally relevant and requires comprehensive academic analysis, which the chapter that follows seeks to provide.

11.1. Workforce security and labour market stability in eu countries: trends and challenges

In the contemporary global society, security issues have acquired exceptional importance for all countries, including those in Europe, due to a wide range of interrelated factors. These include heightened geopolitical tensions, escalation of armed conflicts in various regions, global economic volatility, and rapid technological change, all of which substantially affect the stability of socio-economic systems.

Alongside traditional dimensions of security, such as food, energy, environmental, and military, new dimensions are increasingly gaining prominence, among which workforce security now occupies a central position. Workforce security determines the ability of public authorities to meet the economy's demand for qualified specialists and talent, prevent human capital outflows, foster innovation across all spheres of human activity, and sustain economic development at both regional and national levels.

Over the past 20 years, most EU countries have experienced a gradual decline in fertility rates, while mortality rates have remained relatively stable, with a slight upward tendency (Fig. 11.1). This relative demographic stability has been achieved through adequate income levels, access to high-quality nutrition, advanced healthcare services, well-developed social infrastructure, and effective healthcare systems across all 27 EU member states. These factors indicate a certain adaptability of demographic processes to the socio-economic conditions of individual countries.

In 2006, the highest crude birth rate was recorded in Ireland (15.3‰), while the lowest was observed in Germany (8.2‰) [1]. By 2024, the situation had changed: Cyprus reported the highest birth rate (10.2‰), whereas Italy recorded the lowest (6.3‰). This clearly demonstrates a sustained downward trend in the number of live births per 1,000 inhabitants across the EU during the analysed period, which constitutes one of the most powerful drivers of accelerated population ageing.

Regarding mortality dynamics, in 2006 the highest crude death rate was simultaneously observed in Latvia and Bulgaria (14.9‰), whereas Ireland recorded the lowest rate (6.7‰). By 2024, the situation had changed only marginally: Latvia still exhibited the highest mortality rate (14.3‰), and Ireland again maintained the lowest level (6.5‰). Overall, peak mortality rates showed a slight downward trend during the study period, which is a

positive tendency.

Notably, Ireland stands out among EU countries for having one of the most favourable demographic situations, combining the lowest mortality rate with one of the highest birth rates (10.0‰ in 2024, significantly above the EU average). This warrants further in-depth research of the demographic context in Ireland to identify the set of factors that contributed to such positive outcomes and to explore the potential transfer of this experience to other EU member states.

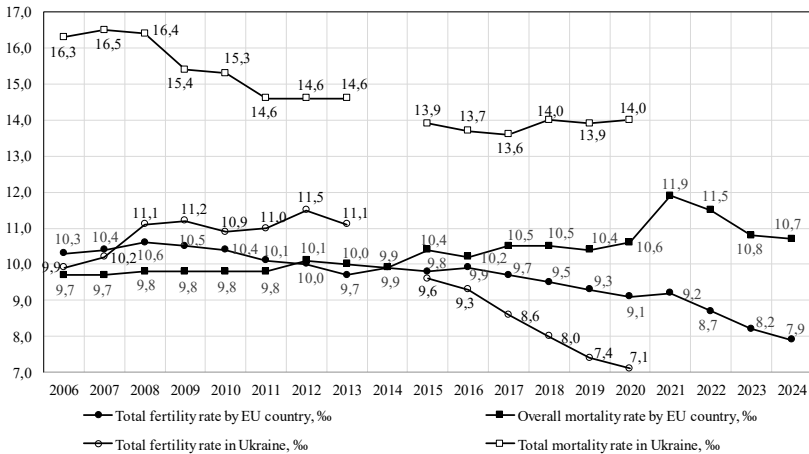


Fig. 11.1. Dynamics of crude birth and death rates in EU countries and Ukraine, 2006–2024, ‰

Source: compiled from [1]

Since 2014, the EU has experienced a negative demographic phenomenon long familiar to Ukraine throughout its independence: annual mortality exceeding fertility, with the gap between these indicators widening over time. This dynamic underlies adverse changes in the age structure of populations and ultimately leads to an intensification of population ageing, which is a minatory tendency [2]. However, active migration policies and attracting young workers from partner countries have partially offset labour shortages in the EU, helping to maintain labour market stability and support sustainable economic development in the member countries.

In contrast, prior to the russian invasion, Ukraine exhibited higher

fertility rates than the EU (e.g., 11.5 births per 1,000 inhabitants in Ukraine versus 10.0 in the EU in 2012), but also significantly higher mortality rates and a much larger excess of deaths over births. This reflects substantial disparities in living standards and the ineffectiveness of Ukraine’s social policy. Over the entire period of independence, these trends represent an even more severe challenge than population ageing, namely, depopulation [3; 4; 5]. Over the past eleven years, due to the war, this trend has reached catastrophic proportions, and effective solutions have yet to be found.

The excess of mortality over fertility in EU countries since 2014 resulted in negative values of natural population growth (Fig. 11.2). From 2020 onward, annual population decline exceeded 1.1 million people, peaking at 1.28 million in 2022. While such dynamics would be irreparable for Ukraine, their impact on the EU’s total population was relatively limited, causing but a slight decline in 2021–2022 (Fig. 11.3). Subsequently, population growth trends resumed in the EU, largely due to a strong “demographic resilience” supported by high living standards, which continue to attract migrants from other countries, including Ukraine.

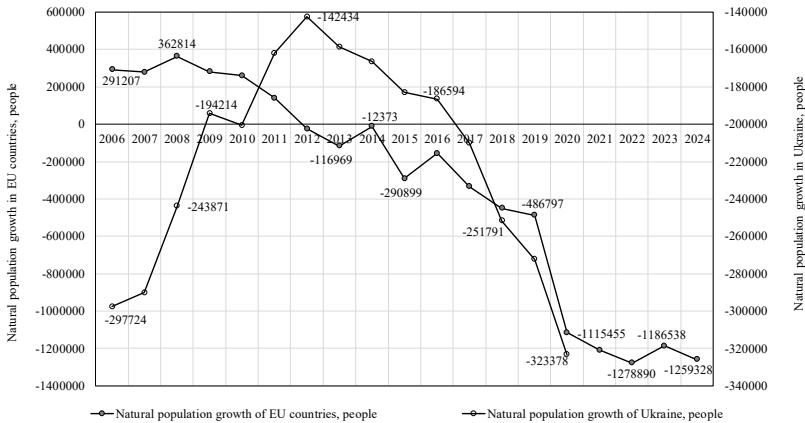


Fig. 11.2. Natural population change in EU countries and Ukraine, 2006–2024, persons

Source: compiled by the author based on [1]

Although most EU countries demonstrate low though relatively stable population growth, overall population expansion has been made possible by

proactive migration policies, robust family support systems, and effective demographic incentive programmes. Despite ongoing population ageing, EU countries have avoided sharp population decline through successful integration of labour migrants, including those from Ukraine.

Ukraine, by contrast, continues to experience a negative demographic trajectory, further widening the gap with European countries in terms of population recovery. While the natural population decline initially showed some improvement almost halving the gap between the number of births and deaths, from 2012 onward the situation deteriorated significantly. On the eve of the full-scale invasion, natural population decrease exceeded even the lowest levels recorded in 2006. This has directly contributed to a sustained decline in Ukraine’s total population throughout the analysed period. Population decline in Ukraine is driven not only by demographic factors but also by intensified migration processes, large-scale labour emigration, and wartime losses among both military personnel and civilians.

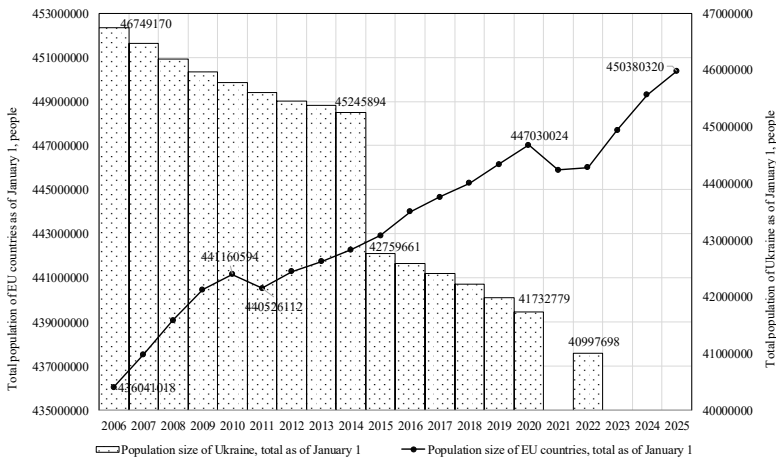


Fig. 11.3. Population size in EU countries and Ukraine, 2006–2025, persons

Source: compiled by the author based on [1]

This situation poses serious challenges to the preservation of labour potential, the functioning of social infrastructure, and the maintenance of economic growth in the country, both during wartime and in the post-war period. Against this background, the experience of European Union countries

appears particularly instructive. Through well-designed demographic, social, and migration policies, EU states have managed to stabilise the size of their permanent population and, in some cases, even achieve gradual population growth over time, despite external shocks and force majeure circumstances. For this reason, the European model of managing demographic processes may be highly relevant for Ukraine in the context of developing post-war recovery strategies and strengthening national workforce security.

An important component of a country's workforce security is the age structure of the population in a given territory, which determines the ratio between the working-age and non-working-age population. This structure can be characterised by the dynamics of the age dependency ratio, a key indicator and marker of regional social resilience. Various methodological approaches may be deployed to calculate this indicator; however, this study adopts the classical definition – ratio of the population aged 0–14 and 65 and over to the population aged 15–64 (Fig. 11.4). In our view, this ratio provides the most objective picture of population age structure, labour potential, and the level of social burden placed on the economically active population. Such an approach enables a comprehensive understanding of demographic ageing, workforce reproduction, and the capacity of the national social security system.

Throughout the entire study period, the age dependency ratio in EU countries exceeded 50 dependants per 100 working-age individuals and demonstrated a stable upward trend, although the pace of growth has slightly slowed in recent years. This level is relatively high and, in most cases, exceeds the corresponding value observed in Ukraine. The increase is primarily driven by population ageing and the growing share of elderly people in the total population. If the growth of the indicator were driven by an increase in the population aged 0–14, such dynamics could be considered positive, as they would create a strategic foundation for long-term workforce reproduction and sustainable demographic development. However, in the EU context, the rising dependency ratio is largely the result of population ageing, which intensifies pressure on social systems and pension funds.

Indeed, according to 2024 data, EU countries have approximately 1.76 employed persons per one social dependant, creating significant strain on pension systems, healthcare services, and the social care sector. The continued increase in this ratio over time reflects persistent ageing trends, as the elderly population grows faster than the working-age population. This situation necessitates the activation of employment-support policies, efforts

to extend the working lives of older individuals, and the attraction of labour migrants to maintain economic balance [6]. At the same time, a regulated level of immigration allows the EU to partially offset labour shortages, supporting workforce renewal and productivity growth across economic sectors. Consequently, achieving and maintaining an optimal balance between working-age and non-working-age populations should be regarded as a key objective of EU workforce and socio-economic policy in the coming years.

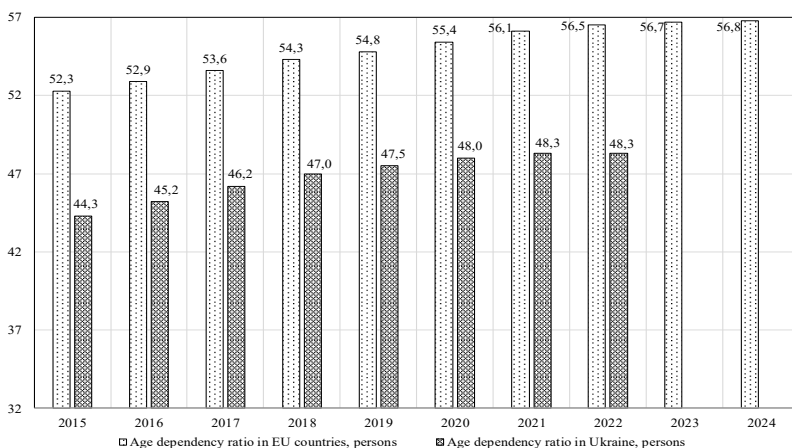


Fig. 11.4. Dynamics of the age dependency ratio for EU countries and Ukraine, 2015–2024 (persons)

Source: compiled by the author based on [1].

In Ukraine, the age dependency ratio exhibited a persistent upward trend over the study period, increasing from 44.3 to 48.3 persons. This negative dynamics is driven by a declining share of young people and the outflow of the working-age population, highlighting the urgency of regulating workforce balance at both national and regional levels. Demographic and labour market conditions have further deteriorated due to internal displacement, emigration in search of safer living conditions, and other objective factors. An additional threat contributing to the rising dependency ratio is the increased mortality among the working-age population, children, and youth as a result of ongoing shelling of civilian cities by the Russian Federation, military casualties at the front, and heightened morbidity and mortality caused by prolonged exposure

to severe stress. In 2024 alone, the number of births in Ukraine was three times lower than the number of deaths, significantly worsening the country's demographic situation. As a result, Ukraine's labour market is already experiencing a substantial shortage of human resources, particularly highly qualified personnel, which may pose a serious risk to the implementation of post-war economic recovery programmes.

Thus, the analysis of various components that collectively form the foundation of workforce security, using EU countries as an example, allows us to conclude that European labour policy is systemic in nature. Its effectiveness is ensured by a well-balanced combination of demographic, educational, social, and migration instruments aimed at maintaining equilibrium between economic needs and labour market capacities.

Today, European countries demonstrate an effective model of workforce stability based on long-term strategic workforce planning, a high level of social protection, and the stimulation of inflows of intellectual capital from countries with lower levels of economic development. However, relying exclusively on external labour inflows in the long term is risky. Therefore, internal workforce reproduction programmes are required, focusing on increasing birth rates among the native population, providing effective support to families with children, developing vocational education and retraining systems, and promoting lifelong learning. Special attention should be devoted to encouraging youth participation in the labour market, expanding opportunities for women, and integrating older persons and veterans into productive activities through flexible employment arrangements and intergenerational knowledge transfer [6].

Such measures can reduce dependence on external labour migration and enhance labour market resilience during periods of significant demographic fluctuation. Moreover, investment in internal human capital development will strengthen innovation capacity and improve the global competitiveness of the European economic area. In this context, the EU experience may serve as a valuable reference for Ukraine in building its own workforce security system based on balanced development, inclusiveness, and strategic planning based on anticipating the economy's demand. However, for such a system to be successfully implemented in Ukraine, it is essential to end hostilities, guarantee safety across all regions, and substantially improve living standards, which will create conditions that would facilitate, in the first place, the return of Ukrainian citizens who have left their homes due to various

factors and, secondly, will attract foreign residents to consider Ukraine as a country for a stable and prosperous future [7].

Unfortunately, this remains a vision for the future. At present, Ukraine has become one of the key donors of valuable labour resources to the European labour market, significantly influencing workforce security and labour market stability in EU countries. The mass forced migration of Ukrainian citizens caused by military aggression has filled labour shortages in several critical sectors of European economies, from services, agriculture, and logistics to healthcare, education, and information technology. This inflow of labour has played a crucial role in maintaining the functional resilience of European economies, particularly during post-pandemic recovery and rising demand for skilled workers. Ukrainian employees, widely recognised for their discipline, strong workplace ethics, high qualifications, and adaptability, have contributed substantially to productivity and economic stability in host countries. Moreover, the relatively high educational attainment of Ukrainian specialists has strengthened the intellectual and technological capacity of receiving states. At the same time, the Ukrainian diaspora has acted as a catalyst for intercultural and professional linkages, fostering the emergence of a shared labour space between Ukraine and the EU.

11.2. Ukraine as a strategic partner of the eu in ensuring workforce security and demographic resilience

Labour migration, as a socio-economic phenomenon, affects host regions and donor regions in different ways. Countries belonging to the first group generally benefit from labour migration through access to sufficient volumes of low-cost labour, filled vacancies in low-prestige and physically demanding jobs, GDP growth, increased household incomes, and reduced social tension. In contrast, donor countries face negative consequences such as a decline in the economically active population, reduced innovation capacity, critical shortages of specialists in vital sectors, and deteriorating quality of governance due to the emigration of qualified youth, experienced professionals, and researchers. These outcomes also reflect the loss of returns on investments in human capital and its gradual depletion for the national economy [3].

Ukraine belongs to this second group of countries. Its economy has long been affected by deep socio-economic, financial, and political crises

stemming from ineffective and unstable governance, widespread corruption, demographic decline, and a weak innovation strategy. As a result, many highly qualified working-age individuals have perceived employment abroad as the only viable strategy for ensuring stable living conditions for their families, thereby limiting Ukraine's potential for human capital growth.

In a generalized form, twelve key criteria can be identified that influence an individual's decision to emigrate: marital status, availability of decent employment and working conditions, ownership of real estate, possession of movable property, level of education and the prestige of the diploma obtained, health status of the individual and family members, opportunities for high-quality annual recreation, the ability to ensure an adequate level of education and healthcare for oneself and one's family, professional ambition, capacity to satisfy consumer needs, and, finally, the availability of financial savings for unforeseen circumstances [3; 7]. Naturally, this list may be expanded; however, these factors define the fundamental framework within which individuals make life-trajectory decisions that underpin trends in the accumulation of both personal and societal human capital.

The issue of population outflow for temporary or permanent residence abroad became particularly acute following the onset of the full-scale military invasion of Ukraine by the Russian Federation on February 24th, 2022. As a result, approximately 8.3 million people fled to European countries as refugees, the majority of whom were women and children (as of mid-2022, women accounted for 86.0% of all Ukrainian war migrants) [8; 9]. Throughout the war, the number of Ukrainian war migrants fluctuated due to simultaneous processes of departure and return driven by various subjective and objective factors. As of early October 2025, 5,752,670 Ukrainian war migrants remain in Europe [10]. The largest host countries as of September 1st, 2025, were Germany (1,233,280 persons), Poland (1,006,900 persons), and the Czech Republic (397,250 persons) [10].

The prospects for rapid economic recovery and infrastructure reconstruction in post-war Ukraine will largely depend on whether Ukrainian citizens return during the cessation of hostilities. However, even under optimistic scenarios developed by experts at the M.V. Ptukha Institute for Demography and Social Studies, no more than 50.0% of Ukrainian war migrants are expected to return. Even this relatively low return rate indicates an imminent and severe shortage of national labour resources in Ukraine's labour market following the end of the war. Should only 20.0-30.0% of migrants return – which is highly plausible – the government must already

begin implementing comprehensive programmes to stimulate repatriation. Such programmes should combine economic and social reintegration mechanisms, including housing provision, job creation, tax incentives for returning entrepreneurs, professional adaptation schemes, and psychological support.

Equally important is the development of regional infrastructure and improvements in quality of life at the community level, ensuring that return becomes a conscious choice rather than a forced necessity. Additionally, conditions must be created to engage the Ukrainian diaspora in economic recovery, including investment in local businesses and participation in joint educational and research initiatives. This approach would not only compensate for workforce losses but also transform migration into a driver of human capital development and economic renewal.

Indeed, despite its devastating consequences, the full-scale war in Ukraine has resulted in Ukrainian human capital becoming a significant factor in strengthening labour security within the European Union. Millions of Ukrainian professionals have contributed to the continuity of production processes, stability of service sectors, and functioning of social systems across EU countries [11].

Moreover, their contribution is not merely quantitative but also qualitative: Ukrainian migrants, through their professional culture and adaptability, enhance efficiency and innovation in European economies. This phenomenon is shaping a new model of workforce interaction between Ukraine and the EU, grounded in solidarity, mutual benefit, and the integration of human potential into a unified European space.

A distinctive feature of the current migration wave from Ukraine is its gender-age composition: the overwhelming majority of migrants are working-age women and children. This structure is largely the result of mobilisation restrictions that kept men in Ukraine. In the short term, this has helped EU countries partially reduce age-dependency ratios, as working-age women entered labour markets and integrated actively into host economies. At the same time, the demographic structure of EU populations has been rejuvenated through the arrival of young Ukrainian families and children, creating potential for future natural population growth.

In the long term, this trend is expected to strengthen Europe's labour potential by combining education, mobility, and high adaptability among Ukrainian migrants. In addition, the participation of Ukrainian women in economic activity contributes to improving gender balance and increasing

employment in sectors requiring strong communication and social competencies. Thus, forced migration from Ukraine, despite its tragic origins, has become a factor of positive demographic transformation and enhanced labour resilience in EU countries.

At the same time, the war in Ukraine has generated positive shifts not only in EU labour security but also in European economic development more broadly, despite the substantial financial assistance provided to Ukraine and its refugees. Poland offers a clear example of this impact [12]. Ukrainian refugees have strengthened sectors such as construction, logistics, transport, and services by often performing work considered unattractive by local workers. During the first two years of the war, Ukrainians in Poland established 59.8 thousand private enterprises and businesses, creating jobs for both their Ukrainian countrymen and Polish citizens. According to official estimates, Ukrainian war migrants contribute between 0.5% and 2.4% to Poland's GDP annually, with a stable upward trend.

Thus, Ukraine has made a tangible contribution to ensuring Europe's labour security by providing its most valuable resource, namely, human capital, which has supported labour market stability and facilitated socio-economic integration and humanitarian cohesion across the continent. Given the protracted nature of the war, this contribution is strategic rather than short-term: Ukrainian professionals are becoming an integral part of a new European economic architecture based on mutual support, solidarity, and shared responsibility for human capital development. While Ukraine faces population losses due to war and labour migration, EU countries benefit demographically and in workforce capacity, strengthening labour market stability, which is an essential factor in global competitiveness.

For Ukraine, participation in European labour markets also offers opportunities to reduce unemployment and enhance the quality of domestic human capital through professional development programmes, internships, and academic mobility. This interaction fosters the formation of a shared workforce space characterized by the exchange of knowledge, skills, and management practices.

At the same time, large-scale labour migration requires the Ukrainian state to develop mechanisms for retaining intellectual potential and stimulating the return of specialists after they acquire European experience. This issue is particularly sensitive for both Ukraine and EU countries hosting Ukrainian war migrants. Without large-scale return migration, rapid post-war economic recovery in Ukraine will be difficult; conversely, EU countries are

not interested in losing migrants who have already integrated into local labour markets, enrolled their children in schools, and established stable livelihoods.

This creates a complex dual-interest dilemma: Ukraine needs the return of its human capital for reconstruction, while EU countries seek to preserve it to maintain labour stability. In the long term, this may lead to a new model of cross-border labour mobility in which Ukrainian professionals remain part of the European labour space while maintaining strong ties with their homeland.

A step in this direction would be for the government to approve dual citizenship for Ukrainian citizens. Accordingly, it is essential to develop bilateral partnership mechanisms between Ukraine and the EU aimed at the mutually beneficial realization of Ukrainian workforce potential and support for post-war recovery processes [13]. Thus, workforce security acquires strategic importance not only at the national but also at the continental level, as labour market stability is a fundamental prerequisite for economic growth and social cohesion within the European Union.

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