International Conference on Labor Migration and Industrial Citizenship

Albanians on the move - Citizenship, Identity and Development

University of New York Tirana
13-14 November 2015
Conference Papers

International Conference on Labor Migration and Industrial Citizenship

Conference Main Theme
Albanians on the move – Citizenship, Identity and Development

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I. About ICM Project

This conference is organized as a joint collaboration between University of New York Tirana (Albania), University of Prishtina (Kosovo) and the University of Jyväskylä (Finland), in the framework of the project “Industrial Citizenship and Migration from Western Balkans: Case studies from Albania and Kosovo migration towards Greece, Germany and Switzerland”. This project is supported by Regional Research Promotion Programe.

The project investigates the experience of Industrial Citizenship (IC) of labour migrants coming from the Western Balkans (WB) to the European Union (EU). IC implies both labour rights and participation of workers in the economic decision-making system via democratic institutions. It is thus embedded in the (power) relationship between workers and employers, based on the creation of structural political power through class-driven collectivism, and using this power to advance workers’ interests. The project relies primarily on accounts by the migrants themselves, trying to grasp their motives, strategies and the ways in which they benefit from migration. The majority of Albanian migrants reside in Greece, Germany and Switzerland, while the Albanians from Kosovo live mainly in Germany and Switzerland, rendering such case selection feasible. The project looks also at the returned migrants, especially in the case of return migration from Greece as a relevant trend in the last years. The underlying questions of the research are as follows: How do migrant workers define and understand the IC? How can labour lead to the achievement of the IC?

Bearing in mind the Western Balkans’ aspiration to become part of the EU, the project aims to investigate the process of IC rights actualization from bottom-up i.e. rights actualization through a process of interpretation by migrants from the WB to the EU. The project will explore the relationship between citizenship, territoriality and states, by looking both at the protection of rights, as well as identity construction, and perceptions of opportunities for participation and belonging. The particular focus will be to determine to what extent transnational work and mobility (forth and back) is a vehicle for European integration from the bottom-up perspective, and to what extent it results in segmentation, alienation, and differentiation of access to rights and participation.

For more information on the ICM project visit the website www.icm-westernbalkans.com or contact us at ICMwesternbalkans@unyt.edu.al
International Migration in Gjirokastra Region and the Impact

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ABSTRACT
Albanian society after 1990 (referred to as the transition) is facing with the new social phenomena in shape, but particularly in the content. Such phenomena (by different researchers), are also observed in countries that have been in the same socio-economic system as our country (Eastern Europe). It seems clear that emigration becomes component (factor) determinant of demographic regime in our country, because of political instability, economic and social difficulty, high level of unemployment, opening of the country with the world etc. This situation provoked and stimulated a great movement in our population in the 1990s. The analyze of the emigration dynamic show that in the first years it was very intensive.

The international migration (especially to Greece), is one of the main impact factor to all socio demo-economic evolution in Gjirokastra region. This research is focused in statistical evidences and analyses of the international migration from Gjirokastra region, after 1990: factors, dimensions, directions, motifs and typology of migrations (causes, distances, individual or familiar, etc.). International migration has been an illegal phenomenon, especially at the beginning. For a better evidence of this phenomena, it is seen and taken under researches and analyses in three dimensions: time (periods of time) and in space that is a more complex in form and content (seen according to communes and villages) and structural of the population (age, gender, ethnic group, education level and settlement). This research will be accompanied by some conclusions and suggestions, at the end. This region has been characterized by a deficit populating evolution, first of all, because of the migration.

Key words: international migration, district, consequence, motives, typology.

1. Introduction
After 1989, Albanian society faced a new social phenomenon, observed even in countries that took the same political and socio-economic direction like the ones in Eastern Europe. One of these phenomena is related to the immigration of Albanians, that although occurred early in our population, presented new features before and after 1990.

In the early 1990s, Albania was nailed by a deep economic crisis with parameters that indicated the existence of a failing economy, making it difficult to fulfill the needs of its population. Political instability, difficult economic situation, high unemployment etc. provoked and stimulated migrate waves in our population in the 1990s (Dumani 1995). This immigration in our country since 1990 has made the phenomenon more complex and typical, influencing many aspects in demographic and socio-economic regime, comprehensive and district in the study.
The general scheme of migration factors and external triggers can be summarized in many factors such as: economic, political, historical, etc., where one of them is always crucial in relation to others.

Started as a protest against the former communist system (the embassy phenomenon), this mostly stimulated migration as an economic necessity and a way to freedom (King, 2003). Graduation from a centralized economy to a market based economy was accompanied by major economic and social difficulties (as the planned economy or market economy, lacked of confidence and insecurity for today and tomorrow). Such a situation served as the starting point for the creation and strengthening of thought to leave abroad, aspiring for a better life for themselves and their families. Examination of the dynamics of the migration shows that in the early years it has been intense. As such, it served as a buffer in the deep discrepancy (inherited) between high surplus of natural population and limited employment opportunities.

Based on the research conducted in this context it turns out that for most of the villages in the region, in Gjirokastra and Permet, this process started at the beginning of 1991 when it encountered the greatest influx of emigrants to Greece. This process continued reaching another peak in 1997. After the events of 1997 which resulted in the total collapse of the state, a lack of peace and insecurity occurred in the country which gave rise to a massive way of people leaving the country.

2. The features of migration

- This phenomenon has been continuous with higher numbers during early years of the 1990s followed by a decline in the coming years. Although no other exodus like the ones of 1990, 1991 and 1997 has ever occurred, this bleeding has not ever stopped.

- According to statistics (done by neighbouring countries), the structure of Immigration proves that a large number of people by about 94.0% of them were found situated in Greece. This is due to its geographical proximity.

- Initially started to the neighbouring country of Greece and later was directed to the countries in the West. What is noticed also is that this phenomenon is getting more and more the character of a remote migration.

- Immigration of this scale has mostly been uncontrolled and illegal. The official figures do not correspond with the massive influx of the immigrant at the time. Coming up with an approximate number was to evaluate data drawn from survey done during (process included all the villages of the district), population registration and other information available at the time.

3. The dimensions of migration

Referring to the data collected, the process of migration has affected a significant part of the population of the region. According to INSTAT, during 1989-2001 (INSTAT 2001) the country has a high level of migration (6.8% of total internal migration of the country). Internal migrants who fled the region make up of 11.0% of the population in 1989-s, while foreign immigrants make up 25.3% of the population of the county in 1989 -en. While referring to the data gathered from the survey, the situation turns even more aggravated. After 1990, about half
of the rural population of the county resulting in 60,635 people, emigrated abroad. Reduction in population size resulted in 49.2% and the number of households with 45.4%, compared with 1989. In the rural area of the district after 15 years has remained around 51.0% of the population and about 55.0% of households in 1989. The most affected communes which have a negative migratory balance are: Buz (-46.3 %), Lopes, Kurvelesh Suke, Deshnice, etc., known as mountainous county (with limited agricultural land 12:27 hackers, and problematic infrastructure, etc.).

After 1990, in the district of Gjirokastra has migrated 55.7% of its total population and about 40.0% of households. The county of Permet with 42.6% of the population in 1989 and 44.2% of households in 1989. These figures indicate a greater migration per family than individual. The number of emigrants in the District Tepelenë during the same period shows a migration of 35.4% of the total population and 31.6% of rural families, versus 1989. The above survey also shows that in the District Tepelenë, the weight of individuals and immigrant families abroad is lower compared with the Gjirokastra and Permet, since it is involved more in internal migration towards Tirana, Saranda, Vlora, etc., In Gjirokastra it noted that about 60.0% of the municipalities of emigrant account for over half of the population (60.0%) of the total number of population in municipalities (communes Pogon, emigrants abroad account for 87.4% of the total population in 1989 Lushnëri 78.0%, Otrie 75.0%, Dropulli Upper 66.6%, Dropulli Lower 60.7%, etc. In municipalities above, the weight of emigrants compared to other municipalities around is dedicated also significantly to the ethnicity fact which are among the municipalities with the largest share of the Greek and Vlach minorities. In the county of Permet analysis of the phenomenon of external migration at the municipal level generally indicates that the share of emigrants and families individually under this indicator stands for municipalities in the region of -49.2%. In the county of Tepelenë and all its municipalities the average weight of immigrant families from the villages is lower in comparison with the district of Permet.

4. Types of migration:

a. Cause (economic, political, educational, family reunion, etc.).

b. Form of organization (organized and spontaneous) and legitimacy.

c. Duration (long or permanent, temporary, seasonal, weekly).

d. Manner of implementation (in stages, chain).

e. Form of migration (individual and family).

a. Types of migration by causes:

Economic and social development. The reasons behind immigration factors are due to lack of resources to sustain sources of livelihood. Historically, economic factors were primary in migrate processes and continue to be so in relation to other factors. Unemployment, insufficient income, aspirations for a better life and secure independent economic freedoms, constitutes the origin of its movement. In the years 1991-1992, the Albanian economy had a drastic decline that was expressed throughout the whole country, with high levels of unemployment, limited opportunities etc. The analyses in this context show that: 39.0% of the population has migrated as a result of unemployment; 20.0% for the lack of income is insufficient; 16.0% emigrate to secure a better future for their children and 24.0% as a result of economic uncertainty.

Other social motives are also present such as educational which resulted in the increase. Family reunification, especially the integration of female element in the family after 1996
b. Form of organization (organized or spontaneous) and legitimacy organized migration generally occupies a small percentage in comparison to a spontaneous and illegal migration.

c. Duration, migration for a long time. Most of the migrants into the area in the study appear to escape for a period slightly longer (about 20 years), especially for the emigrant abroad (in late 1990), the proportions in the municipalities where the ethnic Greek and Romanian minorities.

Temporarily Migration includes seasonal migration, is a phenomenon encountered by many villages that are very close to the border with Greece, such as Kakavijë, Llongo, Koshovicë, Mavrojer, Sopik, Ćarshovë, Biovizhd etc. The move is closely related to the time of the agricultural work in the neighboring country, the need of general activities to get the seasonal products ready on time etc. Another form is the weekly movements, especially men who are employed in the construction sector. At the end of each week they return to their country of origin. This form of movement usually occurred in villages Dropull Upper, Lower Dropull, Pogon etc.

c. Individual migrations and family. Initially it started as an individual form of migration. With the acquisition of documentation and residence permits (after 1998), subsequently the rest of the family was withdrawn.

5. Types of migrants
a. Age
b. Gender
c. Educational-professional level
d. Family size
e. Type of residence (urban, rural).
f. Ethnic background.

a. In analysis to the migration abroad it is important to stress out that its structure is presented by age, gender, level of education, settlements etc., a The age structure of migrants. The age structure of migrants is relatively new. Lack of data and proper information on the age of the population emigrated abroad we refer to studies done by INSTAT titled "Migration in Albania" as well as interviews and surveys on the ground (with the mayors, older men and individuals). Migratory flows in all persons in the age group 15-45 years constitute the majority 69.0% of emigrants. Migration as a selective process has affected especially the young age. Young people tend stronger emigration, since the benefits from reduced capital investment with increasing age. While older people have more deep connection with the land, their family and the environment. This process was accompanied by increased average age of the population over 35 years old. Active age group of 15-34 years old decreased from 64.7% (1989) to 46.1% (2001)\(^1\).

b. Struktura migrants by gender. Male immigrants account for over 50.0% of total evacuees from the county versus 46.4% of women left.

Migration according to the gender (Duri 1990)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Units</th>
<th>Years</th>
<th>'89-'94</th>
<th>'94-'99</th>
<th>'99-'04</th>
<th>'89-'04</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NM(^2)</td>
<td>NM</td>
<td>NM</td>
<td>NM</td>
<td>NM</td>
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<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^1\) INSTAT Popullsia e Shaqipërësisë në 2001.Rezultatet e rregjistrimit të popullsisë dhe Banesave
\(^2\) Neto migration
The statistics speak for a greater mobility of men compared to women both inside and outside the county. The low mobility of women is related to the migration reasons that women are somewhat different, due to different social norms that affect them. However, gender differences have been narrowing. As a result of selective migration feature coefficient of masculinity for the age group 20-24 shows decreased by 9.2% by 1989.

c. **Migrant by educational level.** About 26.0% of immigrant has a primary and secondary educational level, 53.0% with secondary education and 21.0% higher. Generally what results from surveys in this context is that the vast majority of the emigrants respond to a secondary level education followed by those with 8-year education and higher. In this context it will not be left out to be mentioned the phenomenon of migration identified as an intellectual elite which is presented with its features, relatively well established that is distinguished from the mass migration. Even though the overall figure of its emigration is difficult to determine with precision, it is significant and deserves special attention. This process has involved mainly young people under 40, many with families. This feature distinguishes it from the mass migration, showing that social movements of this layer are thoughtful and can be deemed sustainable migration, with a view to be embedded and to integrate into the host country.

d. **According to civil status and family size.** Initially migrants by marital status was dominated by people without getting into marriage, a phenomenon which later was replaced by the growth of contingent spouses. Over 31.0% of the total number of families with 4-5 members account against families with up to 3 members who make up only 10.0%. e. **Migrants by type of settlement.** The rural population results not only moving but emigrated more than urban. The rate of emigration in the village turns 29.1‰ from 15.6‰ in the city.

e. **According to ethnic groups.** Ethnic minorities such as Greek and Vlachos resulted in higher migration in comparison to the Albanian population. Even among them, the Romanian migration is relatively higher than the ethnic Greek minority. This population, generally had lower indicators of its integration into the economic, social, political and cultural life of the country. A mistaken perception but common is the view of migration as a consequence of dysfunctional consequence of the macroeconomic situation and the thought that migration can disappear when the economy improves. The character of migration and all its manifestations is one that presents an irresistible process in general evolution of humanity. But the real recognition of this phenomenon, eventually is an important element in the formulation of policies that are appropriate and necessary for the realization of a long-term sustainable development.

**6. The impact of migration on the labor force potential.**

According to INSTAT, in 2001 the county lost 27.7% of its population in 1989 due to external migration, while rural spaces lost 35.2%. Over 50.0% of the municipalities had a 0.3% negative
a.a.g.\(^3\), low natural growth of 0.3 1.6 % in vitality index. Mountain municipalities lost about 40.0% of their population, due to rural exodus with 87.2% of arable land, left uncultivated and abandoned to degradation. Comparing data from INSTAT\(^4\) (present population) to the resident population, shows that external migration represents only 25.3% of the region population in 1989. The age groups of 14 years old decreased by 15.2% against 1989, while that above 60 years old increased by 43.2% of that in 1989. In mountain municipalities, the index of age ranges from 40.0% to about 80.0%, which is about introducing them in the process of Ageing, in accordance to its demographics. The process of ageing, created an impact on the working force with immigration levels going up, the reduction of 14 year old group age, followed by low fertility levels. Based on statistics, the number of pupils in year 9 was reduced from 47250 to 11820 in 2001(INSTAT 2001), the decrease by 3.9 times.

The average age has gone up from 30 years old and over. The weight of dependence overall decreased in young people. They represent 44.2% of it, while the weight of the elderly dependency has risen by 15.6% from 12.3%. This factor increases the cost of meeting the needs in the field of social security. The process of demographic ageing has brought numerical and structural changes also reduced the level of economic activity. Labor resources are the most dynamic human resources; structural changes determine potential opportunities of this important indicator as a factor of development. These changes are associated with the impact of migration, reduced fertility and the ageing process. In 2001 the number of the working age population decreased by 19.4% with an average annual grow around - 2.0% versus 1989.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unit</th>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Gjirokastra District</th>
<th>Permet district</th>
<th>Tepelena district</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Regio n</td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>Gj.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a.a.g</td>
<td>-1.8</td>
<td>-0.3</td>
<td>-2.6</td>
<td>-0.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The active age group 15 - 34 years old decreased from 64.7% in 1989 to 46.1% in 2001, at 18.6%. Emigration statistics referred through selective character has led to the reduction of the pace of population growth in working age. According the INSTAT, the group of 30 ÷ 44 years old represents about 40.0% of the labor force. The potential impact of migration in the labor force has decreased its levels of activity with 21.0%, from 85.9% in 1989 to 65.1% in 2001. Parallel to this phenomenon occurred at the time, the inactive population increased by 12,585 individuals in 1989 to 25,179 in 2001, an increase of 2 times in comparison with 1989. Overall emigration has affected the general gender structure of the population in the county, with further reduction of masculinity in working age group of 20 ÷ 39 years by 114% to 97.2%.

A mistaken perception but common is the view of migration as a consequence of dysfunctional consequence of the macroeconomic situation and the thought that migration can disappear when the economy improves. The character of migration and all its manifestations is one that presents an irresistible process in general evolution of humanity. But the real recognition of this

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\(^3\) Annual average growth
\(^4\) Statistical Institute
phenomenon eventually is an important element in the formulation of policies that are appropriate and necessary for the realization of a long-term sustainable development.

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Abstract

Reducing Labor Migration by Increasing Local Employment and Talent Engagement through Social Businesses

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ABSTRACT

The recent events of high migration flows from Albania, Kosovo, and generally from the whole Western Balkans toward EU, recall a deep economic crisis characterized by high levels of unemployment, corruption, and ample social problems. Consequently, social perceptions related with future generations are presumed to be high rated in uncertainty and low rated in hope and some kind in optimism also. Another problematic is also the brain drain and loss of talent. In order to restructure unemployment, social pains, and talent lost, we propose in this study the perspective of Yunus Social Business (YSB) as a new way of dealing with capitalism and economic problems by underlying the concepts of social pain, sustainability, entrepreneurship and, talent engagement. For fulfilling the main aim, this study relies on the interpretivist paradigm and the method of literature review and theory development. Therefore it uses the qualitative methodology since it is a conceptual research. In accordance to the originality and value of the present study, this is the first time that social business is used as a conceptual and practical framework for reducing labor migration by increasing local employment and talent engagement. Regarding practical implications, for instance, through the “Accelerator Program”, YSB Balkans seeks to support social business in Western Balkans by empowering local entrepreneurs, providing business development services and increased access to capital, and ultimately creating jobs.

Keywords: social business, social pain, sustainability, entrepreneurship, talent engagement

1. Introduction

The recent events of high migration flows from Western Balkans and especially from Middle East toward EU, recall a deep economic crisis characterized by high levels of unemployment, corruption and ample social problems. Consequently, social perceptions related with future generations are presumed to be high rated in uncertainty and low rated in hope and some kind in optimism also. Another problematic is also the brain drain and loss of talent. In order to restructure unemployment, social pains, and talent lost, it can be suggested the perspective of Yunus Social Business (YSB) as a new way of dealing with capitalism and economic problems by underlying the concepts of social pain, sustainability, entrepreneurship and, talent engagement. It seems counterintuitive to push developing countries to focus the attention on sensitive aspects of capitalism such as society and environment. Logically the objective of developing countries is to grow, and generally during the first stages of growth aspects like social responsibility and sustainability are ignored (this is also the example of many actual developed countries). However, contrary to the common belief that associates social
responsibility with developed countries, it can be found a connection between developing countries and the social side of business development.

Since there are many basic/primary problems (making a parallelism with Maslow’s hierarchy of needs – Maslow, 1954), the focus is limited on aspects such as survival and competition, loosing at the same time the perspective of talent identification and engagement which is strictly based on collaboration and consonance (Barile, 2013). This happens because at lower levels of Maslow’s pyramid the perspective is more materialistic. Therefore, because talent is something “soft” and more intangible (related with skills and competencies), positioned in higher levels of the pyramid of needs, than we lose the focus since we are constrained to see only the bottom. This phenomenon can be defined also as “talent myopia”.

There are also little funds dedicated to research and development (R&D). As a consequence, this situation stimulates the phenomenon of “brain drain” and the loss of talent. The loss of talent is related with less entrepreneurial intent and with less qualified workforce. These factors influence the investment levels on business activities, which, on the other hand, impact the employment rate and perceptions related with future subjective-wellbeing. Nevertheless, unemployment, consequent “social pains”, and talent promotion can be solved in part by a new perspective of perceiving capitalism that is the Social Business way.

2. From pain to opportunity through social business and entrepreneurship
The problematic exposed in the previous paragraph is systemic and a model or a theory alone cannot solve the problems aroused. Hence, the solution should be interdisciplinary and holistic, facing different fields of science and research that sometimes and for some scholars seems to be apparently unrelated. According to Blaise Pascal, as cited in Morin (2005, pp. 47), “I think it’s impossible to know the whole if you don’t know in a particular way the individual parts, as it is impossible to know the individual parts without knowing the whole”. Thus, this part of the study aims to offer a systems and strategic perspective of problem resolution taking “pieces of knowledge” from economics, business management, sociology, psychology, social psychology, marketing, anthropology, cybernetics, political science, etc.
Taking a cue from the Indian Independence Movement under the leadership of Mahatma Gandhi it can be noticed that people stayed cohesively together because of a common social pain derived from the lack of independence, accompanied by severe social and economic conditions. They were unified under Gandhi’s leadership philosophy of “peaceful non-cooperation” with British government and peaceful protests based on nonviolent civil disobedience (King, 2013). If Indian slavery was caused by external forces, there are many other realities in which modern slavery can be seen caused by internal factors and misgovernment, non-accountability and unresponsiveness. For example, having an unemployment rate around 40% among youth is a kind of modern slavery or a homicide of hope for future generations. Somewhat, this is the case of many countries, not only in Western Balkans and Middle East, but also in Europe (e.g. Italy). Obviously this situation creates a social pain. Differently from Gandhi’s approach of fighting the social pain, the case of the actual world reality can be solved by different means, given the context, the time, and other variables that are totally different from the era of Indian Independence.
Before offering a perspective of problem resolution, some questions arise:
1. Why the social business is by default a sustainable business?
2. What is the nature of social pain?
3. What is the relation between social pains, social needs, and social businesses?
4. Can the entrepreneurship engine engage community and become a “pain solver”?
5. Can we create a strong social identity through entrepreneurship and social business as Gandhi did with his followers by promoting through civil protests the non-cooperation with “outsiders” and the internal cohesiveness?
6. Does the entrepreneurship movement transform the pain into an opportunity?
7. Does the social pain makes people together to collaborate, or it divides them by stimulating aggressive competition for resource possession and fight for survival?
8. How can we orient the energy of youth in order to be synergic? Which are the forces behind?
9. If we can create groups by common pain, how can be these common pains divided by categories?

Now, returning to a “Gandhistic” alternative in solving social and economic problems, it comes in our help the Nobel Peace Prize (2006) and Indira Gandhi Peace Prize (1998), Prof. Muhammad Yunus. We remember that Muhammad Yunus is a Bangladeshi social entrepreneur, banker, economist and civil society leader who was awarded the Nobel Peace Prize for founding the Grameen Bank (www.grameen.com) and pioneering the concepts of microcredit and microfinance. Yunus’ entrepreneurship movement is called Yunus Social Business (YSB) or simply “social business” (Yunus, 2009, 2011; Yunus, Moingeon, and Laurence, 2010). “A social business is a company created with the sole purpose of solving a social problem in a financially self-sustainable way. Good social business combines an unwavering focus on meeting social needs with entrepreneurial energy, market discipline, and great potential for replicating and scaling successful enterprises” (www.yunussb.com). A social business is a bridge between a charity and a traditional business. Like a charity it works to solve a social problem, and like a traditional business it is financially sustainable because all the profits are reinvested to help the business grow and benefit society. On the other hand there is a difference between a social investor and a traditional one. The latter invests for his own benefit; instead, the social investor invests to benefit others. When a social business becomes successful it pays back the initial investment, and since the social business is non-dividend based, all the quotas are reinvested by developing the same social business or investing in other social business ideas.

Why the social business is by default a sustainable business?

To give an answer to this question it is mandatory to introduce the concept of Corporate Sustainability. Looking through an historical viewpoint, most of the organizations started to integrate the social responsibility on their annual reports only recently, and by a survey conducted by Ernst & Young in mid-1970s, it was founded that only 1 per cent of Fortune 500 companies provided separate social responsibility booklets along with annual reports (Buhr, 2007). However, important initiatives and developments on the field increased the attention and awareness of being responsible organizations. The responsibility (sustainability) movement started in 1972 with the Stockholm Conference on Environment Deterioration. After that, followed: Brundt and Commission Reporting – Our Common Future (United Nations), 1987; UN Conference on Environment, Social, and Economic Development, Rio de Janeiro, 1992; Global Reporting Initiative (GRI) for Environmental Protection, 1997; United Nations Global Compact, 2000 (e.g. Circles of Sustainability); World Summit on Sustainable Development,
Because of this tendency, it becomes “mandatory” to create activities within every institution related with Corporate Sustainability. Regarding the Corporate Sustainability, this is an evolutionary concept that covers better many open questions and scientific confusion (in terms of definition) of Corporate Social Responsibility (Frankental, 2001; Frederick, 1994; Welford, 2005). While CSR has not well-defined the concept of environment, or failed in trying to do so (Fukukawa and Moon, 2004; Willard, 2002), the CS has recovered this gap. In the academic setting the most practical approach of Corporate Sustainability is the Triple Bottom Line (TBL) approach (Elkington, 1997, 2008). It is focused on the economic, social, and environmental performance of the organization. An organization can be sustainable both internally and externally in terms of the above three performance criteria. From the economic standpoint, an organization is internally sustainable if it has a good market presence and realizes enough profits to ensure the survival. But an organization can be also externally sustainable if contributes at macroeconomic level by, for example, increasing the employment among youth or other demographic categories. From the social perspective, an organization can be internally sustainable if it engages employees; contributes to health and safety standards; improves training and education programs, etc. Externally it can be socially sustainable if it respects society in general (e.g. local communities, anti-corruption policies, anti-competitive behavior, etc) and if it promotes engagement with specific stakeholders in particular.

Finally, in the internal environment perspective the organization can increase efficiency and reduce cost through a good planning of resource allocation and consumption. Externally the organization reduces the environmental pollution and respects the land (materials, energy, water, biodiversity, etc).

Given the above considerations, from the moment the social business contributes to society, economy, and environment is by default sustainable. It satisfies a social need (in YSB’s definition, the social need can manifest also an economic or environmental character). Cases around the world in which social business initiative have taken place have shown the sustainability perspective in real practice.

**What is the nature of social pain?**
**What is the relation between social pains, social needs, and social businesses?**
**Can the entrepreneurship engine engage community and become a “pain solver”?**
**Can we create a strong social identity through entrepreneurship and social business as Gandhi did with his followers by promoting through civil protests the non-cooperation with “outsiders” and the internal cohesiveness?**
**Does the entrepreneurship movement transform the pain into an opportunity?**

The first thing to clarify in this context is that the term “social pain” assumes a double perspective. The first refers to a sociological viewpoint that makes people stay together by underlying a common social problem from which derives the social pain (a term associated per convenience). The second view comes from psychology and social psychology. It refers to the pain of exclusion from a defined group (Forsyth, 2010).
Regarding the social pain (from the sociological view) it can be said that this is the pain related with unsatisfied social needs. The social need here refers to a common need of a community to be fulfilled in order to avoid the social pain (i.e. the common pain of the community). Starting from a common pain – not a personal one, and not a similar one related with the pain of exclusion from a group – which can be perceived also as a threat, people have the tendency to create group in order to overcome the obstacle (i.e. the threat). It is important to maintain the pain at group level in order to identify each member with the group’s pain. This creates a social identity (Tajfel, 1978; Tajfel and Turner, 1979) that can be an answer to the following question: Does the social pain makes people together to collaborate, or it divides them by stimulating aggressive competition for resource possession and fight for survival? Thus, if the pain is perceived only as personal this stimulates competition, but if it is perceived as social (common) it stimulates collaboration.

But: How can we orient the energy of youth in order to be synergic? Which are the forces behind? First of all it is fundamental to create cohesive groups under different pain categories. If we can create groups by common pain, how can be these common pains divided by categories? The categories of pain are as much as they are the unsatisfied social needs of a defined community. It should be underlined that categories of “pains” are relative to every society. What it is considered pain in one society cannot be considered the same in another. For example, Africa and Australia have different kind of problems (“pains”). Substantially, any physiological need, or any safety and belongingness need which is not satisfied for the majority of society’s members can cause a social pain (e.g. unemployment, hunger, etc). Therefore, by identifying the unsatisfied social needs we identify also the derived social pains that maintain people together. However, this kind of group cohesion manifested as “togetherness” (Luthans, 2011) is very fragile if the energy will not be channelized to produce some solution. And in order to produce a solution, the pain should be transformed into an opportunity. Figure 1 is a synthesis. The figure shows how unsatisfied social needs generate social pains that are as much as they are the unsatisfied needs. Under common social pains are created social groups, each one of them is identified with a particular need (pain). These social groups are at the same time targets or segments to be served (using a marketing terminology) and “entrepreneurial incubators” that generate leaders or social entrepreneurs. This phenomenon is known in leadership literature as “emergent leadership” or the leader that emerges from the situation (Northhouse, 2013). Mahatma Gandhi is a classical example of emergent leadership; he was a sort of entrepreneur. A unique perspective on leadership emergence is provided also by social identity theory (Hogg, 2001). “From this perspective, leadership emergence is the degree to which a person fits with the identity of the group as a whole. As groups develop over time, a group prototype also develops. Individuals emerge as leaders in the group when they become most like the group prototype. Being similar to the prototype makes leaders attractive to the group and gives them influence with the group” (Northhouse, 2013, pp 9).
Hence, the social entrepreneur emerges from the group as a “pain solver”, but the same one can be external to the group. Nonetheless, by taking the initiative, the social entrepreneur (internal or external), makes an analysis of pains and needs by transforming them into opportunities for change. Thus, with his observation, he becomes an observing system that perceives from the surrounded context an opportunity (Foerster, 2003). Once the opportunity is perceived, a service offering is ready to fulfill the unsatisfied needs. In other words, the identified and categorized pains/needs stimulate certain people to perceive define opportunities and to set up social businesses that remedy the social or economic cause. This is the way of how a business can be defined: you identify first the target group (who?) that expresses a need (what?) to be fulfilled with a service (what?) offered through a defined technology (how?) in a specific area (where?) and timeframe (when?) (Abell, 1980).

In our perspective what it is offered to the community is always a service offering. We use the term “service” and the marketing perspective of Service-Dominant Logic (Lusch, Vargo, and Wessels, 2008; Vargo, Lusch, 2006) that is the theoretical foundation of Service Science (Maglio, Kieliszewski, Spohrer, 2012). It is in contrast with Good-Dominant Logic that is product-based and exchange-based. S-D Logic is based on value proposition, value co-creation and value-in-context (Vargo, Maglio, and Akaka, 2008). Thus, every offering is a service because products are created by service (i.e. the human work) to offer a service (i.e. the functional and/or symbolic benefit – i.e. the reason – for which the product is created). This perspective is more community/society oriented since it relies on value co-creation and value-in-context. It means that the beneficiary (e.g. the community) collaborate to improve the value received (this process is called value co-creation) by testing it in a specific context (this process is called value-in-context).

**Capacity building, branding, grouping, and engaging**

Does the social business contribute in identifying core competencies of the labor force by producing services for which people are specialized?

Remembering that a social business is a company created with the sole purpose of solving a social problem in a financially self-sustainable way, then, it means that first social problems should be identified. Seeing the social problems (“social pains” or unsatisfied social needs) from a business perspective, they can be defined also as opportunities or challenges. How to take advantage to opportunities and challenges? Of course it is needed to have some skills in order to overcome barriers. Every nation has specific challenges and specific qualified workforce for defined operational fields. Therefore, and according to Ricardo every nation should be concentrated on those services for which the workforce produce more. In other words, a workforce that performs better in both effective and efficient terms. This is what Ricardo called “comparative advantage”. The comparative advantage stimulates the free trade and distinguishes countries in terms of products and skills by avoiding the concern of producing “everything”. Thus, every nation should be specialized on those operational fields that are more productive. The rest is complementarity with other nation’s products and skills. For example, Albania actually is a country with high unemployment rate. This is a social problem (social pain or need). On the other hand, Albania has a long coast for tourism and many fertile lands for agriculture. It is illogical to ignore these opportunities and to be an industrialist country. Consequently, the country should be specialized in these two sectors of economy (agriculture and tourism) in order to export what produces more and to import what produces less (e.g. industrial goods). This logic creates also an identity for the country. People can be identified
with organic and biological foods and with excellent touristic service. The concept of identity makes people feel more cohesive with each other. Especially group cohesiveness increases when group members are proud for their identity. This is very important because group pride is one of the components of cohesion, and cohesion itself impacts performance, as it is impacted at the same time by performance (Forsyth, 2010, pp.138).

Now, since pride is related with identity, the main question is: how to reinforce identity? One interesting way of doing it is by using the marketing lever of branding national products and going proud about them. The following example and explanation is an answer for the following question : Does branding enhance the group pride by creating a social identity under branded national products/services?

For instance, all we know the wonderful taste of Italian food. Recently, the Italian Ministry of Agriculture Policies presented at Expo Milano 2015 the new logo “Made in Italy” for agro-alimentary products represented by an Italian flag with three waves that express the concept of development along with the inscription “The Extraordinary Italian Taste”. The present branding initiative creates also a competitive advantage, not only for specific producers but for the country as a whole (Porter, 1990), contributing positively as well on the “country of origin effect”. This is a typical example of how we can start from a social need, transforming it into opportunity, and achieving competitive advantage of industry and national by promoting entrepreneurial activities. As Porter (1990, pp. 73) sustains: “A nation’s competitiveness depends on the capacity of its industry to innovate and upgrade. Companies gain advantage against the world’s best competitors because of pressure and challenge”. Without pressure and challenge there is no adrenaline and energy to move forward. The pressure is like the social pain and the challenge is like the process of opportunity identification. Sometimes it is exactly the problem that generates the entrepreneurial initiative. Many people who have suffered before are probably stronger than before. The social pain becomes an engine for change. For example, it is exactly the high rate of unemployment in Albania and Italy that will require people to take initiative and risk for improving the conditions. But this is good for future social and economic conditions.

In this context the social business can be a good perspective of problem resolution by inspiring youth to create startups. The social business is a self-preserving strategy and a pro-social behavior because focused on social needs and the concept of helping or benefiting society (Aronson, Wilson, and Akert, 2010). By solving social needs/pains, social businesses create identity under the service offered to solve the problem. Actually in Albania social businesses have tried to solve different social needs by promoting group identity and cohesion. One case is that of “Saint George Valley”, an Organic Farming Social Business near Shëngjergj village in Tirana (http://www.yunussb.al/index.php/en/).

Social Need: There are many issues and needs in the Albanian rural areas specifically in Shengjergj where the unemployment rate is extremely high (35%), families are poor and their lands are empty as they cannot afford to plant anything that will actually give them an income. 250 different plant species are harvested for medicinal and aromatic use in Albania. More than 50% of all sage imported by the USA comes from Albania, as well as 70% of all the wild thyme imported in Germany. Wild-harvesting of medicinal and aromatic plants accounted for 90% of the country’s herbal plants sourcing; but soil erosion and irresponsible harvesting have
drastically reduced the quantities available and traceability is becoming impossible. The geo-climatic conditions of Albania favor a huge biodiversity of herbs. The farm will produce sustainably-grown organic herbs for local and international traders and processors of essential oils. It will also own a seedling nursery to ensure quality of input, rent plots from farmers and employ them for all works related to land preparation, planting, harvesting, and providing them with a source of income. Being organic-certified, it will open markets locally and internationally.

Solution: The management team has successfully been running an essential oils distillery since 2011 and is bringing agronomy skills and market knowledge in the social business. The farm already had its first harvest and a secured a stable client.

Does the social business promote talent identification and engagement?
After creating groups under common social needs or pains it is wise also to identify talents and to engage them. Theoretically, talented individuals must have appropriate cognitive resources, capabilities, and competencies with a requisite variety (e.g. knowledge) that is greater than the variety of the problem (e.g. problem’s complexity) (Ashby, 1957; Barile, 2008). Since social problems are to be addressed, the proposed individuals for solving them must have also strong ethical foundations. Recent developments of the Viable Systems Approach (Golinelli, 2010) regarding the Theory of Information Variety (Barile, 2009, 2011) show that the ethical decision making is strongly related with categorical values. On the other side, the problem solving skills are deeply related with information units (cognitive resources), general interpretation schemes (capabilities), and synthesis interpretation schemes (competencies).

One of the main points of talent identification is creativity and innovation. Social business like any other business tries to exploit the creativity of youth by welcoming innovative ideas. YSB Accelerator Program identify and engage new talents by financing new pilot projects that address social, economic, and environmental needs. Therefore, students and any social category can express their creativity and talent by initiating a social business. In this way, they become self-employed and employers at the same time. In other words they become internally and externally sustainable.

4. Conclusions and Implications
This study put into practical context the role of social business and entrepreneurship for founding the basis of social capitalism. It starts by real life problems that cause the so-called “social pain” that with the traditional logics of capitalism can only be replicated entering a vicious cycle. With the aim of escaping from this cycle and creating a brighter future also for “low-profile” people that have never thought about business initiatives, here the social business serves as a new virtuous feedback loop. Thus people start from social pain, and create groups identified by common pains and unsatisfied social needs. Inside groups, the entrepreneurial spirit and intention comes up by transforming these pains into opportunities. The opportunity means that something which sound “bad” today can sound “good” tomorrow thanks to social innovations. Through innovations the local community as a group, and specific talents as individuals, can be engaged. They can create unique local products and services that in a near future might become high rated national or international brands, thanks to the genuine properties and sincere engagement of people. This ensures also a competitive advantage of the nation. Therefore, if we think capitalism in a win-win logic it can become a source of very interesting initiatives as this study has shown. Hence, the social business can be a cure to social pains
without inventing anything, but only through the reorientation of what already exist in the appropriate direction.

Still the YSB is a young tendency in the consolidated mindset of “how to do business”. More studies and best practices are needed for having strong foundations. Thus, the lack of a massive diffusion is a limitation. Nevertheless, only in Albania, YSB Albania has financed 5 social businesses since 2012, directly financing more than $595,000, while mobilizing almost $60,000 from its co-investors. According to YSB Annual Report (2015), results so far include 7 countries, 26 social businesses, 400+ entrepreneurs supported, 1000+ jobs created and sustained, $7.4 million deployed, and more than 200,000 customers served.

References


The Albanian Migration: An Analysis of Trends, Causes and Consequences

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ABSTRACT
In the past twenty five years Albania has experienced several migration flows which have been considered relatively substantial compared to its population. While the communist regime was harsh on people who were forbidden to leave the country, the new liberal economic regime brought new challenges related mainly to poverty, unemployment and political instability. During all these years, migration has had a strong impact on economy through remittances and in the labor market by decreasing the level of unemployment and calming the socio-economic tensions. Knowing the importance of migration patterns in social, economic and demographic conditions of the country, this paper will focus on analyzing the post-1990 migration trends of Albanians and the main push and pull factors of migration towards three main host countries: Germany, Italy and Greece. The analysis highlights, among other things, the main sectors of employments, gender breakdown, and level of integration of migrants the host countries. A special focus will be also on the industrial citizenship of Albanian migrants, how this has evolved in the past decade and its relation to the important process of return migration.

Key words: Albania, Labor migration, Industrial citizenship

1. Introduction
Contemporary migration of Albanians started with the fall of communism by spring 1990 when around 5000 Albanians seeking refuge in the Western countries embassies in Tirana. This first wave of migrants in countries like Italy, France, and Germany became the base for further massive migration movement of Albanians towards Western and neighboring countries. Access to migration was seen by many Albanians as a good option to escape poor living conditions and poverty. The evolution of Albanian migration in the past two decades makes Albania an interesting case study among Eastern European countries. Several Albanian and international authors have focused their studies on Albanian migration. King (2005) considers Albania a ‘laboratory for the study of migration and development’ and call migration a ‘phenomenon that is at the heart of economic, social and cultural change in Albania’ over the years post communism. Carletto et al. (2006) considers it ‘a country on the move’.

A GIZ report on “Analysis and Migration of Western countries” conducted in 2012 showed that the number of stock Albanian emigrants in 2010 was 1,438,300, amounting to 45.4% of the population, being the country with the largest percentage share of immigrants compared to population. A 2009 report by European Commission showed that around 780,000 Albanian migrants legally reside in EU (EU-27), with most of them living in Italy (376,000) and Greece (347,000) (Commission of the European Communities, 2007, p.75). Despite a noticeable number of returnees, the net migration values reported by World Bank for Albania for the period 2010-2015 is around -50,000, showing that Albania is still a sending country mainly to EU countries and to US. These numbers make studying Albanian migration, its features, causes and
consequences very interesting. This paper aims to give an overview of Albanian migration and analyze why Albanians decided to emigrate, what was their experience in the chosen countries and the process of return migrants back to the country. It is structured as following: first part focuses on migration flows, data through different sources and main characteristics of this migration; second part presents the host countries reaction to the different migration flows and the importance of industrial citizenship; third part aims to provide a clear picture of the returnees in the past five years.

2 Migration in Post 90s
2.1 Migration trends and reasons behind
Different authors have divided the twenty five years of post-communism period into different migration waves, some focusing on the main migration peaks while others have analyzed not only peaks but also periods where migration was not as high but still at important levels.

The first migration wave can be considered the one of early 90s, which included desperate people who were either illegally crossing borders with neighboring countries or travelling by boats in inhuman conditions to Italy. The main reasons behind this wave were the fall of the communist system, the removal of isolation, the sense of freedom and the economic situation. Vullnetari (2007) further divides this period into two smaller ones: first, the 1990 ‘embassy migrants’, and second, the 1991 wave of people leaving mainly to Italy and Greece. The difference between them was that the second group left because of worse economic conditions but most of them were returned back as they were not considered refugees.

The second wave was in 1997 and was caused mainly by the fall of the pyramid schemes. People wanted to save part of the money they earned or got from remittances and some persons wrongly used people’s willingness to save and the fact that the banking system was poor to create pyramid schemes. They flourished during 1995-1997, offering people high interest rates which grew continuously and reached almost 50%, who went so far as sell their only house or every property they owned. The collapse of pyramids in 1997 was inevitable, but its aftermath was defined by a political and economic unrest which fueled the second wave of migration.

Unlike the first two waves which were caused by internal factors, the third one had an exogenous cause: the Kosovo war, during which almost thousands of Kosovo Albanians crossed the border with Albania. While in the first two waves, the target countries were Italy or Greece, in the third wave, Albanians mixed themselves among Kosovo Albanians to reach EU and other Western countries. The years after 2000 were accompanied by a decline in migration as the economy became more stable but also due to improved migration controls from the target countries. An interesting survey was conducted by Gedeshi (2010) with 2474 long term migrants who crossed the border during December 2009 – January 2010. The survey showed that almost 20% of this group of people had emigrated during the first wave, 16% during the first wave and 30% in the third one. The survey showed also that 65% of this group migrated prior to 2000.

To better understand the waves, it is important to look at the situation in the country analyzing the push and pull factors for Albanians to migrate. In 1990 the economic situation in the country was similar to a period of crisis. Inflation was as high as 350%, GDP decreased continuously and exports in 1991 declined to 20% of what was in 1990, while the deficit reached the level of approximately 40% of GDP (Barjaba, 2000). In these circumstances, the development and
employment opportunities did not meet the ever increasing needs and demands of a relatively young population which was considered well-educated. With more information at hand, people started to learn more about the western countries they had previously idealized and came to realize that migration was the only solution and way out of that situation.

The above mentioned push factors, were accompanied by an important pull factor like the access to Italian television for Albanian people during communism. The high standards of living projected in the TV were very attractive and affected the high level of Albanian migration. Apart from TV, neighboring countries like Greece and Italy had a much higher GDP per capita. Other factors are: better salaries in the western countries, better living conditions, personal development, and better futures for their families. On the other hand, there are factors that temper migration. When analyzing the Albanian migration, Carleto et. al (2006) argue that the Southern European model of migration is based on the “demand for cheap, flexible and informal labor”, which can create a dangerous climate of mistreatment, prejudice and exploitation. Albanian migrants have been accused of crimes or ill deeds more than other nationalities and this has been done also with the stigmatization of these migrants done by the media. Another factor is the more restrictive migration policies implemented by countries like Italy and Greece. Last, illegal migration has shown to be very dangerous, and this is proven by the high number of deaths from drowning at the sea.

2.2 Albanian migration data
The data on Albanian migrants abroad cannot be found easily despite being continuously mentioned on news as one the Eastern European countries with the largest number of migrants. The main reason for this is that most of this migration has been illegal and therefore not properly recorded. Until late 1990s, the data is either scarce or missing.

Barjaba (2013) estimates about 1.4 million Albanians to be international immigrants, compared to 2.8 million living in the country. He states that most of them live in Greece (600,000-700,000), and Italy (480,000), with lower figures in US, Canada, and EU countries. The latest complete OECD (2013) data show that the largest number of Albanians in Europe lives in Italy, followed by Italy and Greece.

Table 1: Estimates of the number of Albanians living abroad (OECD, 2013)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>502,546</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>410,441</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>14,106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>4,932</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>1,910</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>1,840</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>1,196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>931</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>571</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luxembourg</td>
<td>539</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Host countries and integration
3.1 Host countries welcome
It is interesting to observe the change in response of Italy and Greece to different Albanian migration waves. Initially, in 1990-1991, both Italy and Greece considered them as refugees and a general sense of welcome and willingness to help was observed, because they saw Albanians as oppressed people trying to escape a communist regime. Later on, the other waves were not welcomed and the migrants were not given the status of refugees. Albanian migrants moved from being seen as communist heroes to ill-doers in the eye of the Italian/Greek authorities and of their media (Barjaba, 2015). The role of the Italian and Greek media became very important to the stigmatization of Albanian emigration. They were consistently portrayed as criminals connected to human trafficking, drug smuggling, prostitution, and violent behaviors.

By this time, Albanian migrants have become legal workers and residents in those countries. They contribute to the system as well as the other citizens of that country not becoming a burden anymore. Several studies mention that the characteristics of these emigrants now leaving in the host countries are: young, educated, fluent in the foreign language, have improved their eco-socio condition. However, the main areas of work remain: construction, service, domestic help, agriculture, etc. These stereotypes affected the public opinion, and as a result also the policy makers. By 2000, new legislations were put in place in Italy and Greece which aimed to regularize the Albanian immigration, which marked a turn toward less xenophobia and stigma (Barjaba 2015).

As already discussed, Albanians have chosen Greece, Italy and Germany as the main countries to migrate. The advantages factors for the Albanian migration in these countries are widely accepted to be: geographic closeness, familiarity with the language and culture, the desire to integrate in those societies, connection and help from friends and family emigrated there before, the existence of some organizations that help them work and integrated in the host countries. On the other hand, there are some very important barriers to the process of integration like: the increasing problems in the labor markets of the host countries, the new economic reforms undertaken by Italy and Greece in the frame of EU standards, influence of circles like mass media, an increase in racist trends, and the negative image that Albanian migrants have been portrayed (Barjaba, 2000).

3.2 Industrial citizenship
Citizenship has been usually understood as membership to a state and its community, where citizens have equal rights of speech, association, and political participation. Around 1950s, T.H.Marshall introduced the idea that citizenship is composed of three main elements: civil, political and social. The novice in his study was ‘industrial citizenship’ which is the right of employees to form and join unions, request higher wages, better working conditions and possibility to go on strikes. Marshall considered the rights related to ‘industrial citizenship’ secondary to other rights related the three main components of citizenship, because he did not see the rights of workers as a separate form of citizenship, but rather as a type of civil rights.

Globalization and neoliberalism have challenged the citizenship regimes that were accepted in democratic societies after the Second World War. Only by 1980s a connection between citizenship and migration started to be addressed in different studies. Before this period, it was assumed that citizenship was something that would eventually happen to migrants in the general process of assimilation. However, the large migration flows to Europe were composed also of
workers who initially invited to work only temporarily in a host country and were not supposed to become future citizens, but with family unification were turned to regular migrants.

In the long run, a good solution to labor migration would be sustainable economic development in the country of origin. However, until then and in the presence of inequality among countries and globally integrated markets, removing migration through controls will be tough (Gordon 2009). Under these circumstances, the main concern related to labor migration is related to the fact that most of the Albanian migrants work in low-wage industries where the minimum workplace standards may have not been in place. Migrants with no legal documentation are not willing to report employers who pay below minimum wage and make them work in an unsafe working place.

Currently, no big destination country for Albanian migrants has ratified the United Nations Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Member of their Families 25 years after its adoption. When looking at the US case, Gordon 2009 suggests a ‘thought experiment’ known as ‘Transnational Labor Citizenship’ would work best through facilitating the possibility of the migrants to “choose to migrate on temporary basis, while including them in efforts to establish baseline working conditions”.

4 Return migration
Since 2000s, a lot has been talked and written about return migration, but a clear estimate of the number of return migrants could not be found until the 2011 Population and Housing Census results came out. These results showed that 4.9 percent of the Albanian population (139,817 people) that lived abroad, returned home after 2001 (INSTAT 2011). Return migration has been a subject of different approaches of many research studies on Albanian migration. Some authors have defined return migration as temporary or permanent, while others as voluntary or involuntary and time spent abroad (IOM 2011).

There are two schools of thoughts on the return migration process whose stands are opposites (King, 2005). One school considers returnees as a positive push for development in the country as they bring back capital earned abroad, new skills acquired, and work experience. The capital is very important as it helps eases poverty and creates means of investment in small and medium enterprises. The second school considers them as ‘failures’ that were either returned by force by the authorities or out of nostalgia for their past lives.

A study conducted in 2007 by ETF, concluded that there are four reasons to return. The first reason was forced return by police authorities of hosting countries after finding them (24%) without proper documentation to stay. Second reason was the inability to integrate in the host country and its labor market (10%). Others stated they returned for family or psychological reasons (1/3). Lastly and more importantly, were the successful migrants (7.7%) who returned after earning money that would help to build a future in the country.

The 2011 Population and Household Census provided more data on the return migration for the period 2001-2011. The INSTAT study “Migration in Albania” issued in 2014 (INSTAT, 2011) argued that the number of returns (2009-2011) has increased every year, especially after the 2008 global financial crisis. The registered returnees are mainly male (2/3 of total) of the age 30-34 years old. The majority of them were coming from Greece and secondly from Italy, while
from the returnees from other countries like UK, USA, or Germany were much less. They stated as the main factor of return to be work and family related.

Since the voluntary return migration process became present in Albania, there have been a number of studies focused on the impact that the return migration and its capital in promoting growth and development.

Piracha & Vaedan (2010) studied the occupational choice of return migrants based on ALSMS data. They found out that own accounts workers have similar characteristics with those return immigrants not participating in the labor market (lower education level), while the entrepreneurship careers were related mainly to education, knowledge of foreign language, and successful emigration experience in terms of savings. More importantly, it was observed that with more time spent on Albania after return, the migrants falling under the ‘non participation’ and ‘own account work’ seem to want to become part of the paid employment structure.

Conclusion
Although the process of returnees in the country by 2010 was generally seen as a positive sign, twenty five years after the fall of communism and the first wave of migration, thousands of Albanians decide to migrate in 2015 to Germany. At a time when the country is supposed to have reached better economic development that in 1990s, Albanians still migrate for the main reason: better life and economic conditions. An ideal solution to migration would be sustainable economic development in Albania. Since this is far from being reached, the Albanian government should work closely with destination countries to improve migration control process not to encourage new migration. Also, it should cooperate with these countries to improve the conditions of existing Albanian migrants who currently work with low wages and minimum standards of working places.

Literature
ETF, (2007). The contribution of human resources development to migration policy in Albania, Tirana


INSTAT (2011), Migracioni në Shqipëri, Regjistrimi i popullsisë dhe i banesave.


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“Benford’s Law reflects a profound harmonic truth of nature” L. V. Furlan
“Departure’s from Benford’s Law indicate that some kind of manipulation has occurred” C. Durtschi, W. Hillson, C. Pacini

ABSTRACT
The purpose of the study is to develop the Benford analysis of the human international migration flows in Albania during the period January 1992 – July 2015. The appropriate test statistics is Pearson’s $\chi^2$ distribution. The sources of official data are Institute of Statistics Albania and Ministry of Interior Affairs of the Republic of Albania. The random sample contains 37 groups of the data. The sample size (total number of observations) is $n = 396$.

Some results of the study include:
1. The observed value of test statistics for the second digit of the data is $\chi^2 = 17.4543$, and the critical value of test statistics is $\chi^2_{0.05}(9) = 16.919$. Therefore, $\chi^2 > \chi^2_{0.05}(9)$. Decision Rule: The probability distribution for the second digit of the data contradicts Benford’s Law at the confidence level 95%.
2. The mean of the second digit for the data is equal to 4.17 and 95% confidence interval for the mean is (3.90, 4.45). The expectation of the second digit for Benford’s Distribution is equal to 4.18739. Therefore, the mean of the second digit for the data is consistent with Benford’s Law, at the confidence level 95%.

In conclusion, the official data for the second digit of human international migration flow contradicts Benford’s Law at the confidence level 95%. Thus, these data are susceptible for fraud.

Keywords: human migration, Benford’s Law, second digit, Albania

1. Introduction
In the present study we develop a statistical analysis, based on Benford’s law, for the second digit of the migration flow in Albania during the period January 1992 – July 2015. Human migration is the movement by people from one place to another with the intentions of settling temporarily or permanently in the new location. The movement is typically over long distances and from one country to another. Migration may be individuals, family units or in large groups.

Benford’s Law governs the asymptotic probability distribution of many (but not all) real-life sources of data (random variables) $X$ which satisfy the following assumptions:
1. The set of possible values of $X$ is $\mathbb{R}^+ = (0, +\infty)$.
2. $X$ range over many different orders of magnitude.
3. $X$ arise from a complicated combination of largely random independent factors, with different random samples of $X$ selected from different independent factors.
4. The data have not been artificially rounded, truncated, or otherwise manipulated. Like the Central Limit Theory, Benford’s Law is an empirically observable phenomenon.

Benford’s probability distribution is a second generation distribution, a complicated combination of other probability distributions.

If random variables are selected at random, and the samples are obtained from each of these random variables, then the combined samplings will converge to Benford’s distribution, even though the individual distributions may not closely follow the Benford’s law, see Hill (1995, 1998) and Tao (2009). The key is in the combining of data from different sources. Benford’s distribution is a distribution of distributions. Janvresse and La Rue (2004) advanced the similar probabilistic explanation for the appearance of Benford’s law in everyday-life numbers, when we consider mixtures of uniform distributions. Benford’s law reflects a profound harmonic truth of nature.

Table 1 shows the expected relative frequencies for all digits 0 through 9 in each of the first four places in any positive real number, based on Benford’s law.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Digit</th>
<th>1st place</th>
<th>2nd place</th>
<th>3rd place</th>
<th>4th place</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.11968</td>
<td>0.10178</td>
<td>0.10018</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.30103</td>
<td>0.11389</td>
<td>0.10138</td>
<td>0.10014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.17609</td>
<td>0.10882</td>
<td>0.10097</td>
<td>0.10010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.12494</td>
<td>0.10433</td>
<td>0.10057</td>
<td>0.10006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.09691</td>
<td>0.10031</td>
<td>0.10018</td>
<td>0.10002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.07918</td>
<td>0.09668</td>
<td>0.09979</td>
<td>0.09998</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.06695</td>
<td>0.09337</td>
<td>0.09940</td>
<td>0.09994</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>0.05799</td>
<td>0.09035</td>
<td>0.09902</td>
<td>0.09990</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.05115</td>
<td>0.08757</td>
<td>0.09864</td>
<td>0.09986</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.04576</td>
<td>0.08500</td>
<td>0.09827</td>
<td>0.09982</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \text{Source: Nigrini (1996)} \]

**Definition 1**

The base 10 mantissa of an arbitrary positive real number $x$ is the unique real number $u \in [0.1, 1)$ such that $x = u \times 10^n$ for some integer $n \in \mathbb{Z}$.

The general form of the Benford’s law:

\[ \text{Prob(mantissa of any positive real number } x \leq u) = \log_{10}(10u), \forall u \in [0.1, 1) \]

Benford’s law is stated here for base 10, which is what we are most familiar with, but the Benford’s law holds for any base, after replacing all the occurrences of 10 in the above law with the new base, of course.

The Benford’s law tends to break down if the assumptions 1-4 are dropped. For instance, if the random variable $X$ concentrates around its mean $\mu$ (as opposed to being spread over many orders of magnitude), then the normal distribution tends to be an appropriate
mathematical model, as indicated by the Kolmogorov’s Central Limit Theorem. The independence property of the factors (see assumption 3) is crucial. If, for instance, population $X$ growth always slowed down for some (inexplicable) reason to a crawl whenever the first digit of the population $X$ was 6, then there would be a noticeable deviation from the Benford’s law in digits 6 and 7, due to this bottleneck (bottle-neck). Roughly speaking, Benford’s law asserts that the bulk probability density distribution of $\log_{10} X$ is locally uniform at unit scale.

Benford’s law enjoys scale invariance: this law should be independent of the unit chosen (by changing the unit of measurement); for example, using metric system of units versus English system of units. However, according to Knuth and Gnedenko, there is no scale invariant probability measure on the Borel subsets of $\mathbb{R}^+$. Therefore, the Borel sigma-algebra (the smallest sigma-algebra containing all open intervals) is not the appropriate domain for the Benford’s law. An appropriate probability domain $\mathcal{A}$ for the Benford’s law is defined rigorously by Hill (1995), p323.

**Definition 2**

The appropriate domain $\mathcal{A}$ for the probability is the smallest (minimal) collection of subsets of the positive real numbers, which contains all sets of the form

$$\bigcup_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} (a, b) \times 10^n, \text{ for } a > 0, b > 0$$

and which is closed under complements and countable unions.

**Main properties of the appropriate domain $\mathcal{A}$**

1. Every non-empty set in $\mathcal{A}$ is infinite, with accumulating points at 0 and $+\infty$.
2. $\mathcal{A}$ is closed under scalar multiplication: $\forall a > 0 \text{ and } S \in \mathcal{A} \Rightarrow a \times S \in \mathcal{A}$.
3. $\mathcal{A}$ is self-similar in the sense that if $S \in \mathcal{A}$ and $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, then $10^n \times S = S$.

The definition of the appropriate domain $\mathcal{A}$ for the probability is the first step toward making rigorous sense of the Benford’s law.

**Theorem 1 (Hill, 1995)**

On the appropriate probability domain $\mathcal{A}$, scale invariance implies Benford’s law.

**Theorem 2 (Tao, 2009)**

If the random variable $X$ obeys Benford’s law and $U$ is an arbitrary positive random variable independent of $X$, then the product $Y = X \times U$ obeys Benford’s law, even if $U$ did not obey this law.

**Absorptive property**

If a random variable $Y$ is a product of $n$ independent factors $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_n$ and if a single factor ($X_1$ or $X_2$ or ... $X_n$) obeys Benford’s law, then the whole product $Y = X_1 \times X_2 \times \ldots \times X_n$ obeys Benford’s law.

Benford’s law is the unique probability distribution with this absorptive property. If there is another law with absorptive property, what would happen if one multiplied a random variable with that law with an independent random variable with Benford’s law?

Diaconis and Freedman (1979), p363, offer convincing evidence that Benford’s law manipulated the round-off errors to obtain an even better fit. But even the unmanipulated data seems a remarkably good fit, and Benford’s law has become widely accepted.
The 1990 census populations of the 3141 counties in the USA follow Benford’s law very closely, see Nigrini and Wood (1995).

T. Hill (1995, 1998) noted that Benford’s law is applied to census statistics, stock market data and certain accounting data. For instance, the series of one-day return on the Dow-Jones Industrial Average Index (DJIA) and the Standard and Poor’s Index (S&P) reasonably agrees with Benford’s law.

Benford’s law has been promoted as providing the auditor with a tool that is effective and simple for the detecting fraud in a population of accounting data, see Durtschi, Hillson and Pacini (2004).

The contemporary bibliographic database on Benford’s law includes more than 180 scientific studies, see http://www.benfordonline.net

The rest of the paper is organised as follows:

- Section 2 contains statistical analysis of the data set.
- Section 3 provides the Benford’s analysis for the second digit.
- Section 4 concludes the paper.

2. Statistical analysis of the data set

The data set contains migration flow data in Albania during the period January 1992 – July 2015. The source of the official data is INSTAT. We distinguish 37 groups of the data, containing 396 observations.

Using SPSS, IBM Version 22, we developed the statistical analysis of the data set (Field, 2009).

Statistical parameters for the first group of the data are presented:

| Table 1: Statistical analysis for the second digit |
|---------------------------------|---------|----------|
| Mean                            |        | 4.17     |
| 95% Confidence Interval for Mean| Lower Bound | 3.90     |
|                                 | Upper Bound | 4.45     |
| 5% Trimmed Mean                 |        | 4.14     |
| Median                          |        | 4.00     |
| Variance                        |        | 7.942    |
| Std. Deviation                  |        | 2.818    |
| Coefficient of Variation        |        | 67.6%    |
| Minimum                         |        | .0       |
| Maximum                         |        | 9.0      |
| Range                           |        | 9.0      |
| Interquartile Range             |        | 4        |
| Skewness                        |        | .125     |
| Kurtosis                        |        | -.245    |

3. Benford’s analysis for the second digit of the data

If the second digit of the data obeys Benford’s law, then the expectation of the second digit is $\mu = 4.18739$.

Using SPSS, IBM Version 20, we find the 95% confidence interval for the mean of the second digit: (3.90; 4.45)

Therefore, 4.18739 (belongs to) (3.90; 4.45) at the confidence level of 95%. That is, the
mean of the second digit for the data follows Benford’s probability distribution at the confidence level 95%.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Observed frequencies</th>
<th>Expected frequencies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$v_0 = 40$</td>
<td>$p_0 = 47.39$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_1 = 51$</td>
<td>$p_1 = 45.10$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_2 = 50$</td>
<td>$p_2 = 43.09$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_3 = 38$</td>
<td>$p_3 = 41.31$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_4 = 37$</td>
<td>$p_4 = 39.72$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_5 = 27$</td>
<td>$p_5 = 38.29$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_6 = 56$</td>
<td>$p_6 = 36.97$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_7 = 36$</td>
<td>$p_7 = 35.78$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_8 = 32$</td>
<td>$p_8 = 34.68$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$v_9 = 29$</td>
<td>$p_9 = 33.66$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- We apply five-step procedure for hypothesis testing, based on the data for the second digit (Ramachandran and Tsokos, 2009)

**Step 1:** Formulate the null hypothesis and alternative hypothesis

$H_0$ : The data obeys Benford’s Law  
$H_1$ : The data does not obey Benford’s Law

**Step 2:** Select the significance level $\alpha = 0.05$.

**Step 3:** Select the appropriate test statistics Pearson’s $\chi^2$ test (Hogg, 2009).

**Step 4:** Formulate a decision rule based on steps 1, 2 and 3.

\[
\sum_{k=1}^{9} \frac{(v_k - p_k)^2}{p_k} < \text{critical value } \chi^2_{0.05}(9),
\]

If the observed value of the test statistics is less than the critical value $\chi^2_{0.05}(9)$, then accept the null hypothesis $H_0$ at the confidence level 95%.

\[
\sum_{k=1}^{9} \frac{(v_k - p_k)^2}{p_k} > \text{critical value } \chi^2_{0.05}(9),
\]

If the observed value of the test statistics is greater than the critical value $\chi^2_{0.05}(9)$, then reject the null hypothesis $H_0$ at the confidence level 95%.

\[
\sum_{k=1}^{9} \frac{(v_k - p_k)^2}{p_k} = \text{critical value } \chi^2_{0.05}(9),
\]

If the observed value of the test statistics is equal to the critical value $\chi^2_{0.05}(9)$, then perform supplementary observations or change the significance level $\alpha$.

**Step 5:** Make a decision regarding the null hypothesis $H_0$, based on the sample information and interpret the obtained result. We will use the five-step procedure in our study. The observed value of the test statistics is:
The critical value of the test statistics is $\chi^2_{0.05}(9) = 16.919$.

Decision rule:

$\chi^2 = 17.4543 > \chi^2_{0.05}(9) = 16.919$, which implies: accept alternative hypothesis $H_1$ at the confidence level 95% for the second digit of international migration flow during the period January 1992 – July 2015 in the Republic of Albania.

4. Conclusion

The international human migration is a world–wide problem. The incentive to migrate is higher in countries that have a high level of unemployment rate associated with high level of economic inequality and corruption. According to Neoclassical Economic Theory, the main reason for labour migration is wage difference between the destination country (Germany, Greece, UK, etc) and country of origin. In the present study we develop a Benford Analysis for the second digit of the human international migration flows in Republic of Albania during the period January 1992 – July 2015. The sources of official data are INSTAT (Institute of Statistics of Albania) and Ministry of Interior Affairs of the Republic of Albania. The data set contains 37 groups and the total number of observations is $n=396$. Benford’s Law is a second generation probability distribution, a complicated combination of other probability distributions. Benford’s Law governs the asymptotic probability distribution of many random variables which satisfy Tao’s conditions 1, 2, 3, and 4, described in the first section of this study.

The main results of our study are presented below:

1. The observed value of test statistics for the second digit of the data is $\chi^2 = 17.4543$, and the critical value of test statistics is $\chi^2_{0.05}(9) = 16.919$. Therefore, $\chi^2 > \chi^2_{0.05}(9)$.

Decision Rule:

The probability distribution for the second digit of the data contradicts Benford’s Law at the confidence level 95%. Therefore, the official data for human international migration flows in Albania during the period January 1992 – July 2015 are susceptible for fraud.

2. The mean of the second digit for the data is equal to 4.17 and 95% confidence interval for the mean is (3.90, 4.45). The expectation of the second digit for Benford’s Distribution is equal to 4.18739. Therefore, the mean of the second digit for the data is consistent with Benford’s Law, at the confidence level 95%.
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Why Bulgarian Nurses Want to Emigrate?

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ABSTRACT

Nursing labor market is largely influenced by the globalization of the world economy. Modern researches in the field of labor resources have noted global shortages and chronic deficiency of nurses in recent years. This negatively affects the labor market in developing countries such as Bulgaria and is serious obstacle to normal functioning of health facilities. The aim of this study has been to research the emigration attitudes of Bulgarian nurses and factors, which determine them. Material and Methods: The cross-sectional study conducted between October 2013 and January 2014 covered 391 nurses employed on the territory of Bulgaria’s South Central Region. Primary information was collected using voluntary, anonymous inquiry. The average age of the whole group was 44.79±11.207 years. The software product SPSS 17 and MS Excel were used for data processing. Descriptive, non-parametric and factor analysis methods were used. Results: The results established high positive emigration attitudes of nurses (29.2%, n=114). Factors that determine them are complex:

1. Economic (related to salary);
2. Organizational (work conditions and relations within the organization);
3. Age-related characteristics;
4. Social status;
5. Psychological (burnout syndrome).

The first factor explains 28.730% of emigration attitudes, the second factor - 17.528%, the third factor - 8.340%, the fourth factor - 6.570%, and the fifth factor - 5.900%.

Conclusion: There are positive attitudes towards emigration in a significant proportion of the studied population. This justifies the need to analyze the current situation in Bulgarian labor market in order to be taken adequate measures for retention of nurses.

Key words: emigration, nurses, emigration attitudes, emigration factors.

1. Introduction

Normal functioning and efficiency of each economics depends on the quality and quantity of available resources - material, labor and financial, and their management. Modern researches in the field of labor resources have noted global shortages and chronic deficiency of nurses in recent years (Buchan and Aiken, 2008; Buerhaus at al., 2009; Juraschek at al., 2012; Li at al., 2014; Prescott and Nichter, 2014). In the same time nursing labor market is largely influenced by the globalization of the world economy. The migration of highly skilled workers from less-developed nations to industrialized nations is an inevitable part of the process of globalization (Jones and Sherwood, 2014; Pittman at al., 2007). This negatively affects the labor market in developing countries such as Bulgaria and is serious obstacle to normal functioning of the health system. The aim of this study has been to research the emigration attitudes of Bulgarian nurses and factors, which determine them.
2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Study design
This cross-sectional design study is part of a University Research Project № 06/2013, entitled: “Factor analysis of nursing turnover in the South Central Region of the Republic of Bulgaria”. The current study analyse the attitudes towards emigration in Bulgarian nurses and the factors that determine such attitudes. The study took place in the period from October 2013 and January 2014 in outpatient or hospital medical health care in the South Central Region of the Republic of Bulgaria.

2.2. Ethics
This study was socio-psychological and non-interventional, voluntary and performed after obtaining informed consent and therefore not subjected to ethical evaluation by University Committee, which was acceptable.

2.3. Recruitment
The estimated minimum sample size of nurses was 383, based on the results from a pilot study of proportions of studied variables – the importance of the test and sufficiency of information and an error of 5%. Since the expected percentage of non-response to questionnaire surveys is very high in Bulgaria, considering the probability of missing data or participation drop-out, this number was increased to 490. Inclusion criteria: nurses without consideration to their gender, age or level of education. Exclusion criteria: an explicit refusal to participate to the study or a long absence of respondents for sickness or long leave. The front page of the survey explained that participation was voluntary and the results would be kept in strict confidence. A two-stage sampling technique was used to recruit the participants. In the first stage were randomly drawn the number of health-care establishments using data from National Health Insurance Fund website (http://www.nhif.bg). In the second stage: 30 nurses were recruited from each hospital and 10 nurses from each outpatient establishment - a total of 490. Eligible subjects were randomly selected using a lottery method. The data for all nurses, working in the selected health establishments were taken from their Human resources departments. In the course of the study 435 were returned after a reminder (response rate - 88.76%). The number of validly filled-in questionnaires was 391, which was 6.5% of all nurses in the South Central Region of the Republic of Bulgaria.

2.4. Data collection tools
Primary information was collected through a voluntary and anonymous inquiry among respondents administered at their respective work place. For data collection, a self-administered questionnaire and Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) were used as the research instruments. The self-administered questionnaire included questions relating to the demographic characteristics of the respondents (6 closed questions) as well as questions relating to the organisation and management, social and economic factors of work place and emigration attitudes of nurses. Social-economic, organisation and management factors were determined through assessment of different signs pertaining to such factors (e.g. salary, work conditions, relations with the management and with peers, etc.). The questionnaire included 30 questions aiming at assessing these signs, of which 6 questions were open-ended in view of clarifying the answer to certain close-ended questions. Nurses’ attitudes towards emigration were measured using a single-component model. This model measures attitudes only through the positive or negative feelings for a person, an item or a question (Neshev, 2010). In our case, the question that measured the
attitudes of the respondents was: “Do you envisage emigrating abroad within the 12 months to come?” with possible answers: “yes”, “neither yes, nor no”, and “no”.

The MBI is a self-administered instrument, to be answered by means of a six-point frequency scale that goes from one (never) to six (every day). The inventory is composed of 22 items that evaluate the three dimensions independently of one another, which are: emotional exhaustion (9 items), depersonalization (5 items) and personal accomplishment (8 items). The items of personal accomplishment are reversed (lack of professional efficiency) – low value means good capability. High scores on emotional exhaustion and depersonalization and low scores on personal accomplishment were indicative of burnout (Maslach and Jackson, 1981a).

2.5. Statistical analysis
Results were analysed by descriptive statistics of the data (mean, standard deviation, number and percentage), and presented in the form of tables, using the SPSS 17.0 program. To compare the variables the non-parametric Chi Square ($\chi^2$) test was applied, and for this a level of significance of 5% probability ($P < 0.05$) was adopted. To measure the strength of correlations was used contingency coefficient (C). Other statistical analysis method that was used is factor analysis.

3. Results
The average age of the respondents was 44,79±11,207. Respondents had an average experience 21,25 ±11,95 years. The average managerial experience was 1,97±4,62 years. Their socio-demographic characteristics are shown in Table 1.

| Table 1. Socio-demographic characteristics and work place of the respondents. |
|---------------------------------|-------|--------|
| Marital status                  | N     | %      |
| Married                         | 253   | 64,7   |
| Not married                     | 65    | 16,6   |
| Divorced                        | 35    | 9,0    |
| Widow / Widower                 | 18    | 4,6    |
| Domestic partnership            | 20    | 5,1    |
| **Total**                       | **391** | **100,0** |
| Number of children              |       |        |
| No child                        | 88    | 22,5   |
| One child                       | 161   | 41,2   |
| Two children                    | 135   | 34,5   |
| Three and more children         | 7     | 1,8    |
| **Total**                       | **391** | **100,0** |
| Educational level               |       |        |
| College degree                  | 206   | 52,7   |
| Bachelor degree                 | 138   | 35,3   |
| Master degree                   | 47    | 12,0   |
| **Total**                       | **391** | **100,0** |
| Rank                            |       |        |
| Nurse                           | 337   | 86,2   |
| Senior nurse                    | 44    | 11,3   |
| Head nurse                      | 10    | 2,6    |
| **Total**                       | **391** | **100,0** |
| Property’s form of              |       |        |
| State                           | 56    | 14,3   |
The results have shown relatively high attitudes towards emigration in the respondents (29%, n = 114). To assess the factors that impact these attitudes we used either non-parametric and factor analysis. Table 2 shows all signs where were established a statistically significant relationship with emigration attitudes.

### Table 2. Relationship between demographic, organizational and economic signs and emigration attitudes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Signs</th>
<th>Non-parametric analysis</th>
<th>Emigration attitudes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>13,923</td>
<td>0.031</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Experience</td>
<td>22,752</td>
<td>0.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Level of education</td>
<td>10,568</td>
<td>0.032</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Region</td>
<td>45,954</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Activity’s area</td>
<td>16,625</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Living conditions at work</td>
<td>41,871</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Safety</td>
<td>24,860</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Relations with the management</td>
<td>30,838</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Relations with peers</td>
<td>20,851</td>
<td>0.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Prestige of the profession</td>
<td>32,708</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Career opportunities</td>
<td>28,997</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Payment method</td>
<td>35,838</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Distribution of the salary fund</td>
<td>41,335</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Salary/Duties ratio</td>
<td>49,538</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>Remuneration compared to that of other professions</td>
<td>37,142</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>Social evaluation on the scale “Poor/Rich”</td>
<td>36,210</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>Social evaluation on the scale “I deprive myself of everything/nothing”</td>
<td>27,495</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>General satisfaction with the remuneration</td>
<td>55,536</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>General satisfaction with the profession.</td>
<td>24,536</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>Shift work</td>
<td>36,182</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>Burnout</td>
<td>21,133</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some social, demographic and organizational characteristics such as family status, number of children in the family, position and ownership of the health-care establishment and etc. had no impact on the attitudes towards emigration of nurses. To reduce and highlights the main
Determinants that influence emigration attitudes was used factor analysis. Some of demographic characteristics, which are not appropriate for factor analysis such level of education of the subjects (№3), the region where they work (№4) and the sector of activities (№5) were removed from analysis. The signs measured using numeric scales were processed using factor analysis. The signs with factor weight < 0.5 were also removed (№10, №11, №19 and № 20). The others signs were subjected to rotation using the Varimax method that aims at increasing their factor weights on account of those that were removed. In this way, the studied variable, namely emigration attitudes, is explained using the least possible number of factors containing logically interconnected signs. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy is 0.774 (i.e. > 0.5) and Bartlett’s Test of sphericity is Sig. = 0.000, which proves that the use of factor analysis is acceptable. The results from factor analysis have shown that there are five factors that determine emigration attitudes (see fig. 1).

Fig 1. Factors that determine the attitudes towards emigration in nurses.

The first factor explains 28.730% of emigration attitudes, the second factor -17.528%, the third factor - 8.340%, the fourth factor -6.570% and the fifth factor -5.900%. Some foreign studies have shown that the migration of nurses is multifactorial, too. It is not limited to financial incentives. Non-economic factors that influence the decision to emigrate to a foreign country are (Aiken at al., 2002; Buchan and Sochalski, 2004; El-Jardali at al., 2008; Larabee at al., 2003; Lorenzo at al., 2007; Ross at al., 2005):

- poor strategies by government and health authorities to recruit and retain graduated nurses;
• dissatisfaction with working conditions;
• socio and economic instability in the country concerned;
• negative public image of the profession in the country;

4. Conclusions
There are positive attitudes towards emigration in a significant proportion of the studied population. The factors that determine such attitudes are complex and should be considered as interconnected. Nevertheless, the relative factor weight of the criteria for evaluation of the salary policy for this category of staff is the highest, i.e. the economic factors relating mainly to the salary for labour are determining of the attitudes towards emigration in Bulgarian nurses.

Acknowledgements
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References:

Rural-Urban Migration: Its Implication on Living Arrangement of Older Persons in Rural Malaysia

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ABSTRACT
Rural-urban migration has long been a distinctive demographic phenomenon all over the world. Following such phenomenon, family structure has changed dramatically. After the New Economic Policy was launched in Malaysia in 1970, urbanization has become accelerating and as a consequence more and more young people moving into urban areas. Older generation, particularly the older parents were left behind in rural areas. Older persons in Malaysia generally are living with their adult children. Following the increases rate of rural-urban migration, the pattern of living arrangement of older people in rural areas has been changing. Older people have to be living independently without their adult children as contrasted to the past. This paper examines whether the rural-urban migration affects the future patterns of living arrangement of older persons in rural society in Malaysia. To meet this objective, a total of 60 older persons aged 50 years and above in Yan District, in the state of Kedah, Malaysia have been selected as samples of the survey. Based on face-to-face interviews, it was revealed that nearly half of older persons reported they are living with their adult children. A number of respondents who live with spouses were quite sizable. Older persons living alone were insignificant. Result also shows that the preferences of living arrangements amongst older persons in the future are diverse. In spite of having desire to continue living with spouses, there are a considerable number of older persons who intend to live with their children. None of them feels likely to live with relative. The number of older persons who intends to be living in welfare homes is also insignificant. Thus, there is a tendency that norms living with children will diminish in Malaysia in the future. To discuss this issue, the paper begins with: (1) an overview of rural-urban migration in Malaysia, (2) profiles of respondents, and (3) current patterns of living arrangement. The paper will end with discussion on living arrangement preference of older persons in the future.

Keywords: Rural-urban migration; older persons; living arrangement; urban areas

Introduction
The present paper is aimed to discuss the implication of rural-urban migration on the patterns of living arrangement of older persons in rural Malaysia. Older person is growing in all parts of the
world. Recognizing the number and percentage of older persons are increasing in all societies throughout the world, and the world population is ageing, United Nations has convened the World Assembly on Aging in Vienna in 1982 to raise attention of public and policy makers the fact that all nations in the world are growing older and to discuss issues resulting from the ageing of population (Ogawa, 1992). Through this assembly, the action plan, i.e. the Vienna International Plan of Action, was agreed to be adapted to raise awareness of the government, policymakers, as well as individuals of all ages on the consequences of population ageing. Following this, societies and government should therefore have a better knowledge about population ageing to adapt to the new situation in the future.

Malaysia is a multi-racial country with various ethnic groups. These ethnic groups are broadly classified into four major groups; i.e Bumiputera (Malay ethnic and Indigenous), Chinese, Indians and Others (include non-Malaysian citizen). The population of Malaysia in 2010 was 28.3 million with an annual population growth rate of 1.9 per cent. From that figure, the Bumiputera is the main ethnic group constituted 60.3 per cent of the total population followed by Chinese and Indians at 22.9 and 6.8 percent respectively. In 2020 the population is estimated to achieve 31.6 million (Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2011). Although the persons aged 60 and over in Malaysia is still small, its number is growing. The number has increased from 3.1% (1970), to 3.9% (1995), increased further to 4.2% (2000). The proportion of population aged 65 years and older also increased from 3.9 per cent (2000) to 5.1 per cent in 2010 (Department of Statistics Malaysia, 2011).

In 2020, older person aged 60 and 65 and over in Malaysia is projected to be 11.3% and 7.3% respectively (United Nations, 1991). Older person is still a new concept in academic discourse in Malaysia, however. Until now a growing body of research examines many aspects of life of this category of population has been successfully conducted and underway. Prior to the 1980s it is not common for academicians to focus their attention on this category of population. At that time researchers, especially sociologist and demographers were generally concentrating their attention on other demographic issues, such as fertility, mortality, marriage and various other aspects of the family, particularly on the relationship between demographic, social and economic variables with development; and how these variables influencing pattern and level of fertility of the population. Researchers, such as Abdul Majid Mat Salleh (1983), Hairi Abdullah (1989), and Wan Ahmad Wan Ibrahim himself (1990), just to mention a few, have focused their analysis on the question related to fertility of the Malaysian population.

Starting from information of a research conducted by Masitah and Nazileh in Kuala Lumpur, Seremban and Melaka (1988) which reveals that there was an increasing number of older persons lived alone, the issue of older persons has become an interesting issue to be discussed. Since the mid-1980s until now, a wide range of research and academic writings on older persons has been successfully conducted and published in a variety of writings. Chan Kok Eng (1994); Tengku Aizan (1995), Wan Ahmad Wan Ibrahim (1999; 2000; 2006; 2014), Wan Ibrahim et al. (2003; 2009), Jariah, Sharifah and Tengku Aizan (2006), Ng and Tey (2006), Sharifah Azizah et al. (2006), as well as Pala (1998; 2005) are those until recently have been devoting themselves on the writing of older persons.

Even though many studies have reported the patterns of living arrangements of older persons in Malaysia, there has been very little research reported on the implications of rural-urban
migration on such issue. Thus, a wide range of questions relating to living arrangements of older persons until now yet to be fully explored, especially in the midst of the process of rural-urban migration for most of rural population in Malaysia. Although the author himself (Wan Ibrahim, Zainab and Ma’rof, 2012; Zainab et al., 2012) as well as some other researchers have tried to analyze living arrangements among older people in Malaysia, studies that explore the implications of this issue on living arrangement of rural older persons has yet to be fully explored. This Research argues that children will no longer become a safe place for older persons to stay together in the future. This issue to the fact that there is a lot of evidence that the size and structure of families in Malaysia are experiencing a structural change and therefore, the number of older persons living alone in rural areas is increasing. Urbanization and industrial process are the main force to the changes (Masitah Mohd. Yatim and Nazileh Ramli, 1988; Yaacob Harun, 1992; and Fatimah Abdullah, 2000). The purpose of the present study is therefore to analyze the pattern of living arrangements of rural older persons in Malaysia and explore whether children can still be a secure source of shelter at old age in the future. To achieve this objective, 60 older persons aged 50 has been interviewed. Some of the information from this interview is discussed in this article.

Urbanization, rural-urban migration and patterns of living arrangements of older persons in rural Malaysia

Around the world, the number of population living in urban areas has been increasing, and at the same time, rural areas are becoming increasingly extinct. Based on one projection, 60 percent of the world's population lived in urban areas in 2020 (Yu-ping Chen and Heligan, in Inoguchi et al. 1999), and at the end of the last century 11 from 15 of the world's biggest city will be in developing countries, while in 2010 this figure increased to 12, and in 2015 it is projected 13 of 15 world's biggest cities are in developing countries (United Nations, 1995).

In Malaysia, particularly right after the new economic policy was launched, urbanization has become accelerated, and more and more Malaysians residing in an area gazetted as a town. Urbanization, in general, is the process of change happen in rural areas towards becoming the city and city life. This means that urbanization is a process of change in terms of physical and non-physical aspects, couple with the development and expansion of urban areas and at the same time the increase in population residing in urban areas, as well as changes in economic activities and the way of life of the people. The concept of urbanization in general term has always been linked with the growth in the proportion of urban population primarily through rural-urban migration. Although the increase in population of the urban itself can be caused by natural increase and a host of other factors, rural-urban migration produces the largest portion of the urban population. It was estimated that in 1970, the rate of urbanization is 26.7 percent in Malaysia. This rate has increased to 34.2 percent (1980), to 31.5 percent, (1991), and increased further to 62.0 percent in 2000. In 2010, the proportion of urban population increased to 71.0 per cent (Department of Statistics, 2011). This means that in 2010 about one-third of the Malaysian population was living in urban areas or in areas gazetted as a town.

Based on the 2000 Census, there was about 106.7 thousands of people were moving from rural to urban areas for the period 1995–2000 made up 12.8 per cent of the total inter-state migration in Malaysia. As other parts of the world, migrants are predominantly young adults, and Census shows that the total inter-state migrants of about 59 per cent were between the ages of 15 – 34 years. These young people were moving for several reasons, and many of these migrants were
lifetime migration. As in 2000, the total number of lifetime inter-state migrants increased to 4.3 million, accounted for 20 per cent of the total population of Malaysia (Department of Statistics Malaysia 2005). Following this pattern of migration, living arrangement of older persons has changed considerably, and many older rural Malaysians are living alone in rural areas. To analyzed the pattern of living arrangement of older persons directly, the discussion of the remaining parts of this paper is related to the results of a survey conducted on older persons aged 50 years and above in Yan District, in the state of Kedah, Malaysia.

The study: Profile of respondents
From a total of 60 older people selected as respondents, 35 of them are female. The majority of female respondents in this study are likely related to the type of respondent's employment. Most of the residents in Yan District are fishermen, and at the time of interviews male population were at work. This study choose those aged 50 years and over as respondent to represent older person in this study. It was found the lowest age was 55 years old, while the oldest was 92 years old, with the average age of respondents is 62.6 years. Their level of education was low; most of them only have a primary school education. It was only 16 respondents reporting still working. Of the respondents still working, most of them work in low-class jobs category. Some are working as fisherman, others as rubber tapping. The remaining are full-time housewives. The income is found to vary between respondents, from as low as RM300 to RM1200 per month with the average income is RM659.00 per month. The vast majority only have RM600 per month. 45 respondents are still currently married, and the number of children they have varies considerably from not having children up to a total of 11 children. Having many children as in this study is not a strange in rural Malaysia; it is also in line with the number of children other rural families have in other places. Parents in rural Malaysia in general always strive to have many children because children are considered to have a wide range of advantages; among them are older parents don't have to worry about their old age financial security as children are expected to help them when they're no longer have the ability to work.

Current patterns of living arrangement
To analyze the pattern of residential arrangements of older persons during the research conducted, the respondents are asked one question: "with whom do you live in this home now?" To this question the older persons are given a four-choice answer, namely (1) alone, (2) with a spouse, (3) together with a spouse and children, and (4) with others (Table 1).

Patterns of living arrangements of older persons are depicted in Table 1. From 60 older persons interviewed, only eight reported living alone. These older persons are all living alone owing to the death of their spouses. Most of these widows have living children but all of them are migrated to urban areas. The majority of older persons are living with children. A number of 33 older persons interviewed have this pattern of living arrangements. Living with spouse only, i.e. a total of 18 older persons are also found to be an important pattern. Other patterns of living arrangement which are live alone, live with spouse, as well as together with other people is not a favorite choice. The significant number of older persons who live with spouse and children is related to the age of older persons who took part in the study. Analysis shows that the age of older persons was around 60 years and below. At this age most of older persons are still considered as at the young old. Many of them at this age are still have unmarried children. These children normally live with their parents. Many parents aged early 60s are still have children at the school ages and these children still live with their parents.
Table 1: Pattern of Living Arrangement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Patterns Arrangement</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Per Cent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alone</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With Spouse and Children</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>85.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With Other People</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Living arrangement preferences in the future

To detect the pattern of the choice residential arrangements in the future, these older persons are asked one question: "if you are already too old, in several years to come, with whom you choose to live?" The older persons are given a five-choice answer, namely (1) live with a spouse, (2) live with children, (3) live with relatives, (4) live in welfare homes, and (5) living in pondok. Answers for this question are diverse, and it is shown in Table 2. In addition to the desire to continue to live with a spouse, there are a considerable number of older persons who intend to continue living with their children (79.2%). This percentage is somewhat smaller compared with the current pattern of residence for older persons at the time of survey conducted, which is 85.0 percent (Table 1). Therefore, although the family is still be a place for older persons to depend on and live with but in the future there is a tendency that the importance of children as a source of living arrangement for older persons will become increasingly threatened. The older persons themselves feel the children are no longer a safe place for them to live together. None of these older persons feel likely to live with relatives. The number of older persons who intends to live in welfare homes is also insignificant. This is due to the acceptance of the Malays towards the welfare homes as shelter at older ages is still negative.

The Malays generally do not accept welfare home as a suitable shelter for the old. If there are parents who are forced to live in welfare homes, it can bring shame to the family members. This is so because it is seen as the children are disobedient to their parents. Disobey to parents is not accepted, and it is too negative in the Malay culture. Although there are children who disobey to their parents, they are as far as possible do not want to be known by other people, and therefore they do not allow their parents to enter the welfare homes. Living in pondoks at old age is also seen by some older persons as dishonorable. They are often sensitive and may be discouraged if they were to be sent to pondok. Changes in family structure are seen to be the main cause to older persons to rely on children for their old age security in the future. In the traditional family structure, family, particularly children, is the center of the dependency, and each family member has a role and contribution to older parents. The older parents get many benefits of such family structure. They do not have to worry where they can live and depend if they are not able to manage themselves someday because they have children who can act as sources of care. Due to the influence of modernization, urbanization and rural urban migration, the children have to live far apart and leaving older parents alone in the village. All this contributes to why some older persons in rural areas in Malaysia tend to perceive children will no longer a safe place to live with in the future.

Table 2: Preferences of Living Arrangement of Older Persons in the Future
### Preferences of Living Arrangement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Live with Spouses and Children</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>79.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Live in Pondok</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Live in Welfare Homes</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Conclusion

Following the process of rural-urban migration that has taken place, family structure of older persons in rural areas has changed dramatically. This is due to the fact that as more and more young people moving into urban areas older parents were left alone in rural areas. Although until recently most of older persons in Malaysia are still living with their adult children, following the increases rate of rural-urban migration, older parents will no longer see their adult children as a suitable place to live with. The pattern of living arrangement of older people in rural areas has been changing. Older people have to be living independently without their adult children as contrasted to the past. Based on face-to-face interviews, it was revealed that nearly half of older persons reported they are living with their adult children. A number of respondents who live with spouses were quite sizable. Older persons living alone were insignificant. Result also shows that the preferences of living arrangements amongst older persons in the future are diverse. In spite of having desire to continue living with spouses, there are a considerable number of older persons who intend to live with their children. The number of older persons who intends to be living in welfare homes is also insignificant. There is a tendency that norms living with children will diminish in Malaysia in the future.

### References


Migration and Its Effects on the Economic Development: Case of Kosovo

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ABSTRACT
Migration is a complex process that has affected our country over many decades and still continues to be part of developments in our country's history. Migration has played and continues to play an important role in alleviating unemployment and poverty level in Kosovo, where, from the migration and remittances has positively influenced the growth of social and economic welfare. The main causes of youth migration are economic reasons. The emigration of young people has eased the labor market pressures to some extent and remittances from abroad have helped many families to enjoy a decent standard of living. However, migration does not always have positive effects. By leaving a part of the workforce, the country is losing a part of human resources that are ready for the job market.

The purpose of this paper is precisely to explain the positive role played by this phenomenon towards the human resource development, reduction of unemployment and vocational training through the experience that they gain in destination countries, as well as to affect the negative points or side effects that are brought by the spread of this phenomenon over the years. The paper was conducted through a survey of 300 citizens of Kosovo. The survey was conducted in order to obtain information about the reasons of citizens’ emigration and also to obtain information about the effects that emigration brings to local families. At the end, it is seen from the results that the effects of emigration for the economic development of the country are both positive and negative at the same scale. This phenomenon is a persuasion to the economic and social development of the country, but it also gives negative effects, by removing human resources, that are often professionally able outside the country.

Key words: migration, remittance, poverty alleviating, economic development

1. Introduction
The mobility of the population has been an inseparable part of human existence since the days of civilization. International migration refers to the movement of people from their country of origin or their usual place of residence towards a different destination and this shift involves crossing international, political and administrative borders. International migration can be temporary and permanent. Migration in today's world is influenced by a large number of factors that are related to politics, religion, economics and other different ethnic and socio-cultural issues. Migration has essentially been and still remains the expression of the desire of individual to overcome difficulties, with a designed view for a better life for himself and his family. This paper aims to analyze the relationship between economic growth and migration, by focusing on
the human capital. Human capital is considered as the main tool for keeping high productivity. Regarding economic reasons, the main reason for migration is considered to be the difference of wages, as the difference between developed countries and developing ones. Human capital, thus tends to move towards the developed countries to get higher wages. This leads to increased individual income immigrants, but also the sending countries. International shipments in developing regions now are the largest source of financial inflows after foreign direct investment. Labour migration is a pervasive feature of economic development. Migration has the potential to contribute to a sustainable development through the transfer of funds, skills and investments. The main motive for migration is the desire of immigrants to improve their basic conditions of living. Migration can promote private sector investments in the country. Thanks to remittances, under certain conditions family members living in the country of origin may be able to start a business. Recent economic studies suggest that migration and economic development are closely linked with each other. Migration development affects the ability of families to achieve sustainable living standards and a better management of resources. Knowing the reality of migration eventually is an important element to formulate policies and implement social and economic development.

Immigration in Kosovo has played a key role in reducing unemployment and poverty during the difficult post-war years, and still continues to play an important role. Migration and remittances have contributed positively to the growth of social welfare. Kosovo remittances have contributed in providing valuable economic assistance, not only for their families but also for socio-economic stabilization of the country in general. The paper will address the importance of remittances to the country's development and the establishment of an acceptable standard of living for a part of the population of Kosovo. The purpose of this paper is precisely to show the positive role of migration and remittances in the development of the country, through the reduction of unemployment and poverty alleviation.

2. Methodology
The research methodology used in this paper allows us achieving successfully the goal of this paper. The paper consists of theoretical and empirical part. The data included in the paper constitute a combination of primary and secondary data. The primary data collection, in order to realize the empirical study was conducted through a survey with 300 citizens of Kosovo, and includes about 70% of Kosovo cities. The survey is not conducted on the entire country, but in the most frequented and the largest number of population. The survey was conducted through questionnaires, with the aim of obtaining information on the role of remittances in improving the living standards of many families in Kosovo, also emphasizing the needs of our families that are fulfilled from remittances and their usage for additional investment. The questionnaires have been designed in order to enable the achievement of our goal and contained only closed questions. We also had as an additional objective of the questionnaire, to take youth views regarding the current situation in Kosovo and how they view migration as a solution of this situation, in order to know their predictions regarding the future they seek to achieve and accomplish through economic development of the country. Whereas through secondary data it is aimed the discussion of theoretical background of the topic. In order to collect these data we used different literature, which explains aspects of migration and its role in economic development, both for our country and for other countries. This section includes studies from different authors, scientific papers, conference papers, etc. Both types of data, primary and as
well as secondary ones have helped us in the carried out analyzes and helped the used methodology and the most effective realization of the paper.

3. Literature review
Migration is the most important element that has great impact on economic development and welfare of the population in Kosovo. Given the significant importance of migration and its impact on economic development we will review the theoretical and empirical evidence of other authors related to this topic, since migration is not a new phenomenon but it is as old as humanity itself. According to Castles and Miller (2003) economic globalization has put a new spin on international migration making the movement of people across borders much easier, faster and more frequent, to a degree not previously possible. International migration is a dynamic phenomenon with fast growing. According to Mohanty (2006) international migration is not increasing only in scale and speed, but also the wide variety of people and involved places. The volume of immigrants is increasing rapidly and is expected to grow significantly in the future because it has affected the economic development and the improvement of living. Many countries in Europe experience high and continuing unemployment for many years, even when growth is near or above the long-term potential. Particularly at a time of high extended unemployment as today, exist tends to increase structural or cyclical migration (U. Dadush, 2014). Ratha (2010) also states that international migration is a phenomenon growing everyday more and has important implications for both, the development of sending and receiving countries. Sending remittances are seen in revenue growth and reduce poverty, improve health and education outcomes, and promote economic development. According to a study by the OECD (2012), European migrant workers have given important contributions to the labor market. Migrants also contribute more in taxes and social contributions rather than getting special benefits. Migration contributes on stimulating innovation and economic growth. Rapid population aging increases the requests for immigrants to fill labor shortages. Hass (2007) suggests that migration and remittances have considerably improved living conditions, income, education, and have driven economic activity through agricultural, real estate and business investments. International labor migration is an important component of globalization and economic development in many less developed countries. International migration also produces benefits because employees in developed countries are paid more than in their home countries. These benefits are remittances or earnings that migrants send home (Taylor, 2006). According Brzozowski (2012) international migration which is linked to regional deliveries and receipts should enable economic growth of the area of origin through remittances and investments from the diaspora. Consequently, economic development on sending regions should reduce migration. The impact of the Diaspora is significant in Kosovo. Based on a survey of Riinvest 2007, approximately 70% of immigrants send remittances to their families in Kosovo. They also visit Kosova contributing to the growth of total consumption by the costs incurred during the visit. Annual income from abroad are mostly in the form of remittances in cash, then follow the contributions of visitors. The main determinant of the remittances and frequency of remittances is the perception of immigrant for economic needs and situation of their families in Kosovo (Riinvest, 2007).

4. Empirical analysis: the impact of remittances on the economic development of Kosovo
Remittances are net transfers from abroad without counter. These transfers are known as remittances. They are an essential component in the current account of the Balance of Payments. Remittances play a crucial role in the economy of many countries, they contribute to economic
growth and to the livelihoods of many people on low incomes. These remittances that come in the form of cash have a strong effect on fighting poverty, affecting on the improvement of the quality of life. Theoretical and practical evidence of Kosovo show us that the effects of diaspora and remittances have always been meaningful for the economy. Households receiving remittances mostly spend them for basic consumption. This dependence also strengthens the assumption that the poverty figures would be much higher without the financial support that remittances offer. Remittances in Kosovo continue to have an impact on economic growth by becoming an important source of economic and social stability. Financial transactions relating to the diaspora include remittances, travel expenses when visiting Kosovo and international investments carried out or facilitated by Diaspora members. Kosovo remittances act as a safety net, providing life support for a large number of families and at the same time help to ease the pressure on the government budget, replacing social benefits.

The next data give us the results of a survey conducted with Kosovo citizens, related to the impact of remittances on the well-being of their families and the economic development of the country. Most of the respondents belong to the age of 25-40 years, mainly working age. Most of them, about 65% are of working age, but enter in the category of the unemployed, while 35% of them are employed.

![Figure 1. The actual situation of respondents](image)

It is seen that unfortunately a very small number of respondents are employed, what shows the bitter reality in Kosovo. Unemployment is a big problem for all countries in the region, but the unemployment rate is more emphasised than in other states. New job opportunities have been very low in the last decade in Kosovo, both in the private and public sector. Unemployment and poverty are associated with the level of education of the population. Individuals who have higher educational background are less likely to be affected by poverty or unemployment. Poverty rates are lower among households that depend primarily on remittances, on public employment and have family businesses. We know that a large part of the population in Kosovo receive income from remittances. From the respondents, about 45%, are constantly receiving remittances from abroad which are used for many reasons. The part of 32% have discontinued income from abroad and 23% do not receive additional assistance from remittances. If these families lack remittances their insufficient income will not meet basic livelihood needs. Income from
remittances show that they play an important role in the families of each of the respondents who have income from remittances.

*Figure 2. Fluidity of income from remittances*

The needs fulfilled by remittances are different from one family to another. Most households in Kosovo benefiting from remittances have stated that these entries serve only to survive. This was stated by 50% of 300 surveyed citizens. On the other side 38% stated that these revenues cover all livelihood requirements, while the 12% stated that these revenues are likely to be used as additional investments in their family.

*Figure 3. The needs fulfilled by remittances sent from abroad*

Viewing at the huge impact that remittances have in economic development of our country and viewing the current economic situation of the country, for many citizens, migration remains the solution of many problems. It is seen below that 57% stated that migration is the only choice to change the current situation of the country and their family. While the rest of 43% do not see migration as a solution, but see it differently, that impacts negatively on development of the country.
According to many respondents, the departure of young people in other countries represents a weakness for the country because the country is fled labor or human resources, many times even professionally prepared for the future. Those who think of immigration as a deficiency are about 44% of respondents, while 39% do not see it as deficiency, but a factor for economic and social development. The others, 17% do not consider it as deficiency in the full sense of the word, but do not think that it has only positive effects. According to them for many reasons this can be considered useful, but there are also other reasons for which the emigration of young people in general can be considered to have some negative effects.

Migration can also often lead to depopulation or massive labor outflow, e.g. specific levels as: doctors, nurses, teachers, etc, that can have major negative effects on the stock of human capital. But, from our research it is noticed that migration has more positive effects, because of the role
of remittances to economic growth and improving livelihood standards, especially for countries in transition, such as our country.

5. Conclusion
Remittances are the main mechanism through which migrants transfer a part of their earnings to their countries of origin. This represents the dominant way through which countries benefit from the migration process. During this paper work we convinced that immigration in general has a strong impact on the development of human resources, reduction of unemployment and professional and intellectual training through occupations and experiences that migrants benefit in destination countries. Migration brings great benefits only when managed properly and in favor of the individual, the family, but also of the society of the country of origin and host country. Remittances in general contribute to the development of the country or directly into productive investment. First deliveries of migrants have played a vital role in the economy of Kosovo, particularly by preventing and alleviating poverty.

It is seen from the survey that the majority of respondents were unemployed, which clearly reflects the labor market in Kosovo. The current situation of the country does not guarantee economic stability and the income taken from the families are not always sufficient to fulfill their family requirements. Almost every third household in Kosovo receives income from remittances. This fact constitutes a major contribution on creating stability and better standards of living for those families who receive remittances. The structure of remittances has changed over the years. If remittances in the early years aimed mostly for food, clothing purchases or basic equipments, in subsequent years expanded destination in the improvement of housing conditions. Therefore, besides assisting in the creation of a medium standard for survival, remittances today are likely to be used for additional investments or in some cases even for the creation of new businesses for their recipients. In recent years the flow of remittances has declined due to the created difficulties and the negative effects of the economic crisis incurred in the entire Eurozone countries. The economic crisis in some cases has caused the return of migrants in Kosovo, by turning them into unemployed.

We have mentioned the fact that nowadays in the world there are different reasons why people migrate, but our paper work has analysed more the economic implications of migration and its effects on economic development. We have seen that migration is a selective process that affects the growth potential and the welfare of non-migrants. Taking into consideration the current situation of our country and the high unemployment rate, the majority of participant citizens in our survey saw migration as the only solution for salvation from this situation. According to them the current situation does not leave any other path except leaving the country and emigrate to countries with high economic development, in order to contribute on raising the standard of living of their families and in general the economic development of their country. The difference in wages is an important reason that pushes many young people to emigrate abroad. But, we have also seen that for some people migration can also bring negative effects to the fact that is diverting workforce and youth abroad. The country could come to a situation where human capital will be need and a rapid migration can harm human capital that exists within the country. The positive impact of migration on economic development has been and will continue to be part of economic developments, irrespective of the views of some citizens that this process can be harmful to a near future.
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The Effect of the Brain Drain in the Sustainable Development of Albania

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ABSTRACT
A country, in order to be successful needs to have talented and capable people. In fact, the future of a country is related precisely with its human resources. Considering that the rarity of talent is getting more problematic then it is needed to be careful in finding a solution to prevent the problem in question. Brain drain, the migration of professionals toward other countries where they can find better work and living conditions, is one of the main reasons why developing countries like Albania are currently struggling for talents. The majority of migration is from developing to developed countries and those who migrate are young and educated people who seek better opportunities for a higher education and economic conditions improvement. The intellectual capital (high educated and professional people) in this research is seen as an important component of intangible wealth, where this latter is considered by the World Bank as the most valuable part of the total wealth, constituting the 80% of the total wealth in developed countries and 60% of total wealth in developing countries. Therefore the purpose of this paper is to explain the reasons for migration of the intellectual capital and to analyze the effect of this kind of migration in the sustainable development of Albania. Simultaneously, this paper aim to find and to suggest some alternatives to turn brain drain into an advantage for the country.

Key words: brain drain, migration, sustainable development, intangible wealth

1. Introduction
It has always embraced the idea that rich countries are such because of the amount of the natural resources that they own. Recently the coherence of this assertion has begun to fade. This has come as result of what called intangible wealth, which consist in such factors as trust in society, a fair and incorruptible judiciary system, human capital and above all the knowledge. This latter has a significant impact on the overall development of a country. If the knowledge before was embodied in machinery, and workers were considered only as "labor", in recent years the knowledge is carried by humans. The importance of human capital is understood more each day. The evolution of market economy has changed also the ways of wealth creation. If originally were the natural resources and the direct capital (land, buildings and machinery) who were evaluated more on the market, now the priorities have changed and intangible assets are the ones with more prominence. Intangible assets include the knowledge and the information that can be found in human capital. This latter consists in a series of knowledge and characteristics of each employee which are used to increase his productivity. A country in order to be successful needs to have talented and capable people. In fact, the future of a country is related precisely with its human resources. Investing in human resources is essential from the individual perspectives, from the social perspectives and from the economic perspectives given that natural resources are limited in front of the infinite and growing needs of the population.
According to the World Bank study related to the wealth of the countries, the rich countries have an intangible wealth that constitutes the 80% of the total wealth while for the poor and developing countries this value is about 60%. Albania was estimated by the World Bank with a wealth/capita of 17.312 $ where the intangible assets constitute about 67% of total assets with a value of 11.675 $. According to the econometric model used to analyze the factors of intangible wealth, human capital was one of the two main factors (the other factor was related to the quality of formal and informal institutions). A significant proportion of human capital is composed by the knowledge. The migration of people from one country to another, cause also the "migration" of knowledge carried by them. Brain drain can defined as the migration of qualified people in search of the better standard of living and quality of life, higher salaries, access to advanced technology and more stable political conditions in different places worldwide. This migration of intellectual people for better opportunities, both within countries and across international borders, is of growing concern worldwide because of its impact on the sustainable development of countries. From the employers perspective in receiving countries they have their own shortages of skilled people in specific fields and can drain a developing country of expertise by providing job opportunities. This paper aims to address the negative and positive consequences of brain drain, and the impact of this kind of migration on intangible wealth and as a result, on the country's development.

2. Why do Albanian intellectuals migrate?

Albania has 25 years about who is affected by the phenomenon "emigration of the brain." Massive migration from Albania, with its dimensions and intensity in time and space, has fuelled the phenomenon of “brain drain”. About 2000-4000 students leave each year to study abroad while Albania lost opportunity to have human resources. On the other hand since 1990 so far left nearly 50% of professors and scientists. Meanwhile, the ratio of researchers and scientists is 275578 researchers and scientists for a million people, representing a proportion of less than 10%, in 3166 compared with an average of a million people requesting EU.

From a recent study by the OECD percentage of educated immigrants increased from 26.8% in 2000 to 35% in 2006. Albania has an emigration rate 6 times higher than the European economies and Central Asian non-OECD (5.9 percent 2005/2006). The phenomenon of brain drain in Albania has been very intense and has an expansion in time and in space. This type of migration in Albania became massive in the early 90s and is a worrying phenomenon that continues to happen even in 2015. There are a variety of causes that lead people into taking the decision of migrating in another country. If these causes are analyzed thy can be divided in three main groups; economics reasons, political reasons and social reasons. As economic reasons can be mentioned low wage levels, unfavorable labor conditions, the missing career opportunities in the leaving country, unsatisfied living conditions, or economic instability. Each of the mentioned reasons affects negatively the livelihood of the county’s elite, making them to leave.

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6 Brain drain from developing countries: how can brain drain be converted into wisdom gain? Sunita Dodani and Ronald E LaPort

7 World bank technical assistance project (p123211),Western Balkans Regional R&D strategy for innovation, October 2013, page 12-19
The political reasons of migration of intellectuals can be found in the late 80s and the early 90s where visible signs of the political system change and the chaos that would follow forced many young educated to leave their country toward Western countries which offered more security and political stability. Migrations due to political discontent also can be found in the decade 1960-1970 where a part of the Albanian youth who went for education in foreign universities choose consciously and by taking into account the risk, not to return back anymore.

Among the social factors can be mentioned health conditions, infrastructure and facilities which are lacking in the leaving countries, social policies or study alternatives. The intellectuals and professionals can find the lacking facilities in the developed countries. Also studying in those countries is more effective and more rewarding in the future than studying in Albania.

3. The negative and positive aspect of “brain drain”
Brain drain has been an ongoing phenomena from past to present. Graduates, post graduates, intellectuals or professionals who leave their country voluntarily or involuntarily because of events are in most of cases considered as a threat for the developing or transitory countries. But if this process is fully analyzed it will be deduced that there aren’t only negative aspect. Hereinafter will be listed the advantages and disadvantages of the brain drain.

3.1. Brain drain pros
1. Brain drain when is seen from the perspective of globalization can be considered positive because it serves to connect people and to exchange information in every country of the world.
2. A developed country affects the development of intellectual capital that welcomes allowing this latter to better express itself.
3. The migration of the brain means that knowledge would be carried into a larger population than the population of the country which is leaved.
4. The moving towards more developed countries affects positively not only the person who migrate, but his entire family by providing to them a better life.
5. In most cases, migration is a choice, and as such is likely to positively affect the self-esteem of the individual.
6. Migration of the brain in some cases serves to increase the remittances of the country.

3.2 Brain drain cons
1. Given that human capital is a key factor for the development of the country then its reduction hinders and slows the development.
2. The state has invested in the education of its citizens so the intellectuals who leave the country can be considered as a lost investment.
3. Brain drain also reduces the social capital because if the individual who leaves has been part of a certain social group that this latter will be reduced by the departure.
4. The developing countries suffer a loss of professionals which are needed in the source countries.

3.3 Intangible wealth and the effect of brain drain on it
The main purpose of this paper is to analyze the impact of the brain drain in that part of a country's wealth, which cannot be measured, since it is intangible, but on the other hand represents the largest share of the total wealth of country. The above issue was related with the positive and the negative aspects of this form of migration. It was made obvious that the main disadvantages for Albania were the hinder of the development and the lost of the talents, so necessary for the sustainability development of the country. In fact, according to Human Capital index report of 2015, Albania's ability to attract and to retrain the talented migrants is respectively 2.94/7 and 3.08 / 7\(^8\), a figure that shows the economic, social and political force a substantial part of the intellectuals to leave their country in search for better opportunities.

In order that the connection between brain drain and intangible wealth can be more explicitly, below is shown an equation modelled by the experts of the World Bank which indicate the variables that affect the intangible wealth.

\[ R = A \times S^\alpha S \times F^\alpha F \times L^\alpha L \]

- \( R \) – intangible wealth
- \( A \) - a constant
- \( S \) - school years
- \( F \) – remittances
- \( L \) – rule of law index
- \( \alpha \) - the elasticity of intangible wealth in relation with the explanatory variables

From the equation observation can be found that two out of three explanatory variables are related to human capital while the third factor is associated with the formal and informal institutions, measured by the rule of law index. The equation is logarithmic and according to it, the intangible wealth is shaped by the increasing of human capital and by the efficient functioning of the institutions. Brain drain phenomenon is directly related to human capital and the relationship is negative because migration itself reduces human capital and as a result it would have a negative impact on the intangible wealth. In order to support the above assertion is necessary to analyze each variable of human capital separately.

The first variable expresses the school years. An educated and trained human capital will positively affect the intangible wealth because it is an added value for the total wealth of the country. Predominantly the intellectuals who leave the country have a significant level of education; a considerable number of them even carry scientific titles and degrees, so their departure causes a series of consequences to the country. First, they are considered as a loss investment given that they have used the government spending for their education and haven’t returned anything to the origin country. Second, the migration reduces the number of intellectuals in the country, which brings a reduction of intellectual capital and therefore will have the diminishing of the human capital. The decreasing of this latter will have a stumbling and slowing impact in the development of the country.

The second factor is related to remittances. The emigrants in the majority of the cases bring a proportion of their income to the family members remained in Albania. But mostly this phenomenon happens for those who leave family behind, while the intellectuals in the majority of cases take the family with them given that they go abroad for a better career or a more

\(^8\) The human capital report 2015: Country profile (Albania)
prosperous lifestyle. This will cause lower remittances from the intellectual capital compared with the remittances generated from the human capital which haven’t the same intellectual background. Anyway some recent studies and surveys have shown that migrated intellectuals are integrated better in the developed countries than the non intellectuals and as results they have better jobs with higher wages. The opportunity of having higher wages, make this people to send more money to their origin families, resulting this way in higher remittances from intellectuals. So in this case the impact of brain drain can be considered positive in relation with the size of the remittances and as consequence in the intangible wealth.

This analysis leads to the conclusion that there is a negative correlation between the school years and the brain drain. Regarding the second factor, initially it was thought that the connection with the brain drain was negative, but some other facts (which were emerged during the ICM conference in a discussion with relevant experts) rebut this opinion and was concluded that the relation between the two factors (brain drain and remittances) was positive.

Given the above analysis, and taking into consideration the fact that according to the World Bank, the level of education along with the efficiency of institutions explain about 80% of intangible wealth than it can be affirmed that one of the reasons that developing countries (including Albania) have not much higher levels of intangible wealth compared with developed countries is the emigration of intellectuals to the developed countries like the US or the European developed countries.

### 3.4 Turning brain drain into an advantage for Albania

The brain drain phenomenon can’t be stopped especially in the times of a globalized world and free movement, but it can be turned into brain gain. In fact in the last years countries are taking into account the possibility of use as a comparative advantage their citizens who live abroad. Albania is one of those developing countries which have about half of the population in migration. A major proportion, of these emigrants is compound by intellectuals, professional, qualified citizens, students and academics which have left the country since 1990. If all these persons would contribute to the development of their country then Albania would be maybe the most developed country of the region. Often the governments have implied policies or have created opportunities to attract these people in their origin country, but only few of them have returned and have contribute for the betterment of Albania. The reasons for taking the decision of not returning in Albania are individual or imposed by the conditions of the country in question. However, in the technology epoch has also changed the point of view regarding this issue. If a few years ago the physical presence of qualified citizens in their country was necessarily required, today there are other ways how they can contribute without being physically present. The following paragraph shows three ways how can the “lost” talents return to the forsaken origin countries by converting them from developing countries in developed ones.

1. Most of the intellectuals who leave are scientists or academics whose contribution is an added value for the country. Given that Albania is not offering to them the right environment to develop their science than this country should let them go into other developed countries where their knowledge will be more useful and more beneficiary

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for the source country. This can be achieved through the connections that these academics can establish with their colleagues in Albania.

2. The outgoing intellectual capital could return in the future through joint international projects implemented with the residents of the hosting country.

3. Professionals, scientists and academics who emigrate in most of the cases establish professional associations in the host countries which contribute to the development of the source country.

Conclusion
This paper purpose was to address the negative and positive consequences of brain drain, to analyze the impact of this kind of migration on intangible wealth and on the country's development, and to show how brain drain could be turned in brain gain.

From the intangible wealth equation was drawn the conclusion that there is a negative correlation between the two factors of human capital (education and remittances) and the brain drain. Consequently it can be affirmed that one of the reasons that developing countries (including Albania) have not much higher levels of intangible wealth compared with developed countries, is the emigration of intellectuals to the US or to the European developed countries. Brain drain could be turned in brain gain if the outgoing intellectuals are willing to collaborate and to contribute for their country and if Albania implements favorable conditions for these migrants.

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Diasporas and Social Remittances: A Transnational Perspective

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ABSTRACT
Economic remittances, that represent the transfer of money and goods to their relatives or friends in homelands, are the most researched remittances. However, the discourse regarding the concept of social remittances has attained fundamental position in the literature, on the effects of the emigration on the development. Normative structures, systems of practices and social capital as outcomes of the transnational citizenship, have important influence on the development of the origin societies. This research paper explores social remittances through the case of returnees and non-migrants in Kosovo. The paper adopts a transnational perspective highlighting interviewers’ simultaneous connections in their home and host countries. The purpose of this paper is to gain a better understanding of social remittances, pathways and barriers of diffusion. This a qualitative study to enhance our understanding of the complex nature of social remittances. The empirical data of the study are gathered through in-depth interviews. The first section of the paper discusses theoretical background of social remittances. Second section explains research methods used in the study. The last sections discusses the results and conclusions of the study. The study has identified various types of social remittances such as ideas and practices in the areas of interpersonal relationships, family responsibility, health, the environment and work, as well as social capital. The main conclusion is social remittances can potentially contribute to development, but this contribution is largely conditioned by the existing social, economic, legal and political environment. This study has implications for decision makers to stimulate certain kinds of remittances. Being of exploratory research this paper raises some opportunities for future researches. Further researches may investigate impact of specific aspects of social remittances on development.

Key words: social remittances, transnationalism, migration, development, social capital

1. Introduction

One of the most important factors, influencing economic relations between developed and developing countries today, is international migration. International rate of migration is growing rapidly year after year. Migration of people and increasing diversity of societies are unavoidable. International migration creates significant financial and social benefits for migrants, for their families, and for the countries of origin and destination. More and more people than ever are living abroad. According to World Bank (WB, 2013) in 2013, 232 million people, or 3.2 per cent of the world’s population, were international migrants, compared with 175 million in 2000 and 154 million in 1990.

Most of the research papers regarding migration are focused on international migration and financial remittances. Researches, involving the international migration, seeks to identify the influence of financial remittances on development but underestimating the role of social aspects.
Little has been done regarding social remittances and their impact on development. It is essential to consider, however, that migrants also send other types of remittances to their home country: social remittances. According to Levitt (1998) social remittances merit attention for several reasons. Firstly, they play an important role in transnational collectively formation. Secondly, they bring the social impacts of migration to the fore. And thirdly, they are a potential community development aid.

This study focuses on social remittances and types of social remittances that Kosovar diaspora transfers to their country of origin. Further, this article explores the pathways that Kosovar migrants use to transmit social remittances. The point of departure of this study is that Diaspora should be seen as a potential resource rather than as a concern: a potential human and social capital that can make a major contribution to the economic, social, political and institutional development to the home countries of origin, far beyond sending money. This study analysis what types of social remittances that migrants of Kosovo send to promote the development of origin society. This study is just a starting point for a new research area which has thus far been overlooked despite its critical significance.

2. Transnational view of immigration

Today, people belong to two or more societies at the same time, and the assumption that people will live their lives in one place, according to one set of national and cultural norms, in countries with dense national borders, holds no longer. The state of belonging to two or more societies at the same time, has been termed by researchers as transnational migration. Immigrants are better understood as transmigrants, persons who live their lives in a transnational social space (Levitt, 2005). The paradigm of transnationalism, which specifies a broad set of interchanges by which migrants and their families live in two societies at the same time, is firmly related to social remittances. The social, economic, and political ties linking migrants and non-migrants are so deep and widespread that they fundamentally change the ways individuals earn they livelihoods, raise their families, enact religious rituals, and express their political interests (Portes, 1999). People who stay behind are connected to migrants’ social networks, they are exposed to a constant flow of economic and social remittances on an regular basis.

Some scholars have defined “transnationalism” as the process by which immigrants forge and sustain multi-stranded social relations that link together their societies of origin and settlement. Scholars have used different terms such as “transnational migration circuits”(Rouse, 1990), “transnational social fields”(Basch, 1994) “transnational communities” (Levitt, 1996), (Portes, 1996) to describe sustained and regular between migrants and homeland. Another concept that some scholars use is “diaspora”. A crucial similarity is that both are extremely elastic terms and, in one way or another, usually concern sustained cross-border ties including regions of origin, destination and lateral ties to other regions in which migrants reside(Bauböck, 2010). Both diaspora and transnationalism deal with homeland ties and the incorporation of persons living ‘abroad’ into the regions of destination. According to Faist & Bauböck (2010)the most noteworthy distinctions that merit mention is that ‘transnationalism’ is a broader term than ‘diaspora’ in two respects. One concerns the scope of groups. Diaspora relates most often to religious, ethnic and national groups and communities, whereas transnational approaches connect to all sorts of social formations, including the ones already mentioned, as well as to phenomena such as networks of businesspersons and social movements. The other respect concerns the even narrower term ‘transnational community’.
Levitt &Lamba-Nieves (2011) argued that migrants’ experiences from their home countries have a strong influence on how they settle in the new culture which, in turn, affects what they subsequently remit back home. For this reason, social remittances have to be understood through a transnational perspective.

3. Social remittances and impact on origin society

Development is a complex and multidimensional process. Sen (2000) defined development as a process of expanding people’s freedoms and capabilities to lead worthwhile lives. Development also implies social wellbeing, human rights, gender equality, access to healthcare, education, meaningful employment and environmental protection (Anand & Sen, 2000). Recently, there is an increasing focus of migrations impact on development from a number of international processes including the Global Commission on International Migration (GCIM) which published its final report in 2005, the United Nations High-level Dialogue on Migration and Development that took place in 2013 and the Global Forum on Migration and Development (GFMD) held annually since 2007. The optimistic functionalist literature, which is a broad focus on the social structures that shapes society as a whole complex system, tended to emphasize the economic positive effect of remittances on origin societies. After foreign direct investment, they are the second largest source of external funding for the developing countries (World Bank, 2010). Despite decades of scholarship, the jury is still out on the relationship between migration and development (Newland 2007). The concern, over the past decade, with social and cultural impacts of migration have diluted the view of functionalism. Migrants from the developing world bring labor, skills, and know-how to the countries where they settle while they continue to contribute to development in their countries of origin by sending remittances, investing in businesses, introducing knowledge and skills and contributing to charity (de Hass 2008). Traditional scholars considered the migration as process of displacement of the people who leave their homelands and reintegration into a new culture and society. However, recent studies suggested that contemporary immigrants do not sever their relationships with the home country, on the contrary, they forge and sustain multiple linkages with it.

Economic and social remittances share some of the same features. In both cases, as pointed out by Levitt & Lamba-Nieves (2011) in their study of two villages in the Dominican Republic, they may be individual as well as collective; may be transmitted by interpersonal contact or electronic means; and have multiplier effects that extend beyond their original spatial concentration on the family or the village (e.g., regarding social remittances, the “scaling up” of repatriated practices from the local to the regional and national). As these authors point out, however, social remittances may of themselves be negative as well as positive for the recipient (this is not the case with economic remittances, which almost always directly benefit the recipient, even though from a broader societal perspective they may generate inequality, dependency, etc.). They may also move in both directions, which barring an extreme reversal of fortunes, is not true with monetary remittances.

A number of authors have discussed the impact of social remittances in the context of transnational family life. The anthropologist Lorena Núñez (2010) argues that the sending of financial and social remittances help migrants to reproduce and maintain family relationships across borders. Only by looking at changes and effects of other remittances in home and host countries will not reveal how or why values, norms and practices travel within the transnational
social space created by migrants. For instance, migrants from Dominican Republic bring with them to their new country a strong sense of responsibility to their community, valued social ties, passion for partisan politics, as well as associational practices (Levitt & Lamba 2011). Pralong (2010) published in Romania a collection of almost forty interviews with Romanian returned migrants. Their stories document how the Romanian cultural heritage critically contributed to their integration in the new societies, but also how their new value system induced cultural and social changes in Romanian communities where they currently live. For instance, Romanian students who received scholarships at prestigious international universities brought with them from Romania the discipline of studying and the responsibility of work (Pralong, 2010). Kapur(2004) has commented on the influence of non-resident Indians over Indian economic policy that “the structural position and social embeddedness of the Indian diaspora and returning migrants enhances the diffusion of ideas, and it appears likely that even more than financial remittances, ‘social remittances’ (or the flow of ideas) are playing an important role in reshaping India’s economic policies”. Other authors, however, give a normative dimension to the concept of social remittances by associating them with something ‘positive’ or development-inducing. Thomas Faist (Faist, 2008) for instance, qualifies social remittances as “the flow of ideas and practices which are ‘good’ and to which nobody in his or her right moral mind would object”. Similarly Castles (Castles & Wise 2007) described them as “knowledge and development-friendly attitudes to countries of origin by migrants and returnees”. In contrast, (Levitt, 1998) has argued that social remittances can have both positive and negative impacts. Further, Levitt argued that the nature and magnitude of social remittance impact is function of a several factors – including the remittance itself, the transnational system, the messenger, the target audience, differences between sending and receiving countries, and the transmission process.

4. The process of creation and diffusion
According to Levitt (Levitt, 2005) there are at least three types of social remittances: normative structures, systems of practice, and social capital. Normative structures are ideas, values, and beliefs. They include norms of behaviour, notions about family responsibility, principles of neighborliness and community participation, and aspirations for social mobility. They also encompass ideas about gender, race, and class identity, as mentioned. Systems of practice are the actions created by normative structures. These include how individuals delegate household tasks, and how much they participate in political and civic groups. They also include organizational practices such as recruiting and socializing new members, goal setting and strategizing, establishing leadership roles, and forming interagency ties. However, not all migrants adopt new cultural practices encountered abroad (de Regt, 2007).

Creation of social remittances
The collection of social and cultural tools that migrants bring to destination countries have great impact in their adjustments of new lives. For purpose of understanding of how these resources are transformed into social remittances, evolutionary approaches are very useful. Evolutionary change is shaped by the structure of already existing institutional arrangements which enable and constrains subsequent choices (Campbell, 1995). These processes are often called path-dependent because once particular choice is made, other routes are no longer possible (Scott, 1995). (Levitt, 1998) has identified three broad patterns of interaction with the host society. Recipient observers are migrants that have no or few social contacts with native people and they take new ideas and practices by observing, listening or reading various media. Another category of
migrants, instrumental adapters, are migrants which have more interactions and to cope with new conditions they readjust their reference frames. The third group of migrants are purposeful innovators which always look forward and explore new things.

These social interactions may result in certain patterns of social remittance evolution. First, some cultural and social tools are inappropriate to the new settlement, inducing migrants to discard some useless aspects of their culture. The second pattern results from recipient observers. They have limited interactions with host community and their recreated new lives are identical to country-of-origin. The third pattern appears often among instrumental adapters. They broaden their collection with new norms and practices without changing old patterns. Finally, in the fourth scenario, instrumental adapters combine ideas and practices with host-country norms resulting in hybrid social forms.

4. **Pathways of social remittances**

Social remittances exchanges occur when migrants return to live in or visit their communities of origin, when non-migrants visit their relatives or friends in the receiving country, or through exchanges of letters, videos, cassettes, e-mails, and telephone calls (Levitt P., 2005). Ordinary people can act as cultural creators and carriers who receive, expand, interpret and transform the values and practices they have been exposed to (Suksomboon, 2008).

Diaspora and transnational migrants use formal and informal pathways to transfer their social remittances to their home communities (Mohamoud & Frechaut, 2006). The informal contacts, emails, letters, internet chats, enable migrants to transmit social values, attitudes and norms to their relatives at home. Temporarily or permanently returned migrants, constitute another way of informal dissemination of social remittances. (Pralong, 2010) emphasized the thorough social changes and astounding shifts generated by Romanian migrants who returned to their communities. Many Romanian returning migrants founded organizations or companies, and started businesses, yet the most important assets they brought were ethic of work, positive attitude, honesty in personal relationships, trust, punctuality, and the courage to be different (Pralong, 2010). The formal channels for social remittances takes place when the diaspora, using their own ties, contacts and social affiliations, meet and enter face to face talks with key political and social figures from the homeland when they visit the host country (Mohamoud, 2006). Governmental Ministry, on line forums, foundations or non-governmental organizations linking migrants destination and their home countries constitute formal pathways for diffusing social remittances. The transmission of social remittances is dependent upon a number of factors, among which the character of the remittances themselves, the transnational system, the messenger, target audience, differences between sending and receiving countries and the transmission process.

5. **Social capital**

Defined initially by Bourdieu (1986) as an attribute of an individual in a social context, social capital has evolved in two directions. The first one concentrates on collective social norms, trust and networks that can improve the efficiency of society (Putnam, 1993), and the second one focuses on the individual’s obligations and expectations that take the form of a “capital” invested in one person for future use (Coleman, 1988). Rarely, these two dimensions are met together in a definition of social capital, yet they are both essential for understanding social remittances. Basch (1992) found this among Vincentian and Grenadian immigrant leaders and
activists who were able to use the prestige and status they acquired in the United States to their advantage at home.

Authors like Bourdieu (1993), Putnam (1993) and Coleman (1988) each understand social capital as a resource to collective action, the outcomes of which concern economic wellbeing, democracy at the nation state level, and the acquisition of human capital in the form of education, respectively; so are social remittances. Social capital is not the resources that derive from social networks, but the ability to mobilize those resources.

6. Methodology
Qualitative research is characterized by its aims, which relate to understanding some aspect of social life, and its methods which (in general) generate words, rather than numbers, as data for analysis. The aim of this research is to explore social remittances transmitted from migrants and return migrants. In contrast to quantitative research which seeks to reveal general patterns and trends, qualitative research emphasizes the complexity of human behaviour and draws attention to the importance of meanings, values and goals to understand human practices. As an ambiguous analytical concept, social remittances covers an extremely diverse set of phenomena and very hard to operationalize. Social remittances require a qualitative approach that seeks in-depth understanding of social processes and the reasons behind them. Further, conducting interviews is the ideal method when the empirical data available on the subject matter under study is very limited.

Fieldwork was conducted in Prishtina, Peja and Prizren regions with the sample of 30 people from different backgrounds, age range 18-65, non-migrants and return migrants and people who travel abroad temporary or circulate. In order to get more detailed information, different units of analysis were used including individuals, business organizations and political party. Questions were more open-ended for example “Please describe your relationships with your relatives living abroad”. From the total number of respondents 17 are non-migrants and 13 return migrants. Thematic analysis were used to analyze the empirical data, and with the help of RQDA software. Non-migrants were asked to describe the nature of relationships with all of their relatives living abroad, and return migrants

7. Limitations of the study
Built-in bias - Although this research was carefully prepared, I am still aware of its limitations and shortcomings. Perhaps the strongest objection to qualitative research is that the quality of the research depends too greatly on the individual researcher. Because the researcher designs the type of questions that will be asked, own personal beliefs inadvertently can influence the results. The data gathered through interviews are not only influenced by the background of the researcher but also by the theoretical framework of the research. As McDowell (2010) pointed out, the questions posed in an interview are already theoretically situated, based on existing discourses. The researcher's presence during data gathering, which is often unavoidable in qualitative research, can affect the subjects' responses, also.

Rigor - While the rigor of qualitative research is harder to demonstrate because it often involves qualitative analysis of qualitative data. Quantitative research can demonstrate rigor by including a wide variety of numerical and statistical data, while the rigor of qualitative research is harder to demonstrate because it often involves the qualitative analysis of qualitative data.
Generalization - When in-depth interviews are conducted, generalizations about the results are usually not able to be made because small samples are chosen and random sampling methods are not used.

9. Results
The results of this study show that the degree of involvement in the transnational practices varies. Immigrants from Kosovo still remain highly embedded in the origin society affairs, maintaining closed ties with their families, friends and relatives. Transnational networks that link migrants with their country of origin enable individuals and groups to create cross social, economic and political bridges. The developments in transport and communications technology, enables scattered diaspora to stay in contact effectively and cheaply, and to exert more influence on their country of origin.

Generally, the social remittances that Kosovar diaspora and return migrants have added to their cultural repertoire and seek to transmit through variety of pathways include valuable transnational networks, knowledge, norms of behaviors, technological and management skills, work ethics, social values, behaviour of politicians and state. There is always an evaluation and investigation process, instead of accepting things as they are, senders adopt certain new ideas and practices while filtering out others, and receivers accept particular elements while reject others. Identifying new values and norms that migrants transmit is very hard because of their fluid and slippery nature. One of the key findings is that return migrants have more ability to transmit ideas, values, skills and knowledge because of their physical presence. Most of the interviewers agree that migrants mentality have changed with the time as they live abroad, except people who have low degree of interaction with host society. As an interviewer (T. Nikqi) said: “I think that my relatives which live in Germany have changed very much their mentality since they have migrated. Their ideas are more pragmatic, specific with looking forward in the future”. But, another interviewee (F. Selca) pointed out: “My brother who has migrated as adult didn’t change much or nothing at all. He has remained with the old mentality except positive attitude toward work, punctuality and time valuing”.

9.1 What is transmitted?
Social norms and values, frequently transmitted from migrants are related to gender roles, interpersonal relationships, family responsibility, participation in the community and the role of politicians. Analysis of the qualitative data show very strong association between sustained relationship, diffusion of social remittances and financial remittances. In order to get more detailed data, non-migrants were asked to describe the nature of relationships and what kind of social remittances are exchanged, with all of their relatives living abroad. Among non-migrants who have regular contacts with their relatives living abroad and receive money, the frequency of sending social remittances from migrants is higher such as gender roles, community participation and voting advices. Further, sending money represents more than a simple economic transaction. Nevertheless, the circulation of social remittances is not prohibited from sending or not sending money, other factors comes into play like education and emotional relationship. Two cases living in urban area and higher education pointed out not receiving money by migrants but instead they have regular communication and exchanges of ideas, values and world views.
Most of the respondents have pointed out that migrant views regarding gender role have changed. Their transmitted norms are more aggregated gender norms associated to education, profession, decision making, child care and education of the children. But, not all elements of gender role are accepted such as household work. There is also difference between generations. Migrants, who have migrated as adults and have been grown with their traditional habits in their country of origin, haven’t change much. Four of the respondents said that their relatives who have migrated as adults, didn’t change their mindsets, they have remained with the old cultural repertoire and habits, except positive attitude toward work, punctuality and respecting the rule of the law. Analysis shows that this category of migrants have had little involvement with the host culture, they were low skilled workers or people who didn’t work and woman who has low level degree of interactions with the host culture. Remittances regarding standards of age, transmitted from migrants, include proper age for marriage, parenthood, and everyday actions. Regarding this issue, the children of migrants have moderate perspective, opposite to their parents who transmit the traditional idea that the sequencing of the major events should be in the traditional order, first marriage then parenthood. Further, they bring ideas of how to be more active, and search more for jobs, appropriateness of their behavior to their age.

Also close relationships based on solidarity and nostalgia are common traditional values of most interviewers’ migrants, and still promoted by them. But, gradually the bonds to other relatives are being weakened leading to reduction of social ties. Almost all non-migrant respondents pointed out that their relatives are becoming more individualistic leading inevitably to social conflicts between migrants, their families and community. Most of the interviewers’ migrants transmit the attitude of family responsibility to elder people and children who are dependent and need help. They bring also the idea that the state should take care of dependent people.

9.2 Return migrant as agent of social remittances
Another way in which social remittances are different is that they continue to shape origin societies long after monetary remittances cease. This occurs, in particular, through the mechanism of return migration. At the level of the individual, return migration curtails monetary remittances but continues and facilitates social remittances, their application is enhanced by the physical presence of the migrant to implement them. Also, in the category of return migrants, are included new forms of migration such as temporary and circulatory migration. Differences exist between voluntary and non-voluntary return migrants. Voluntary prospects are more prone to diffuse new social norms and practices because of the higher social status they have. In general return migrants social norms and practices brought and transmitted include ethic of work, skills, lifestyles, honesty in personal relationships, trust, valuing contract, household work, consumption, and investment patterns.

Transnational view of migration encompasses also new forms of migration, such as circulatory migration and the flow of temporary workers. This form of transnational migration brings the people to great exposure to different cultures. Along with new values, ideas, mindsets and world views, circulator migration serves as a source of knowledge and professional experience. According to F. Gogaa high manager at Raifeisen Bank who has attended the RBI Rotation program, this form of organizational interchange helped him to increase the professional knowledge, strategic thinking and balancing work-life. He pointed out:”Exposure to new knowledge, skills and attitudes helped me to incorporate into the strategy of the bank the process
of the more detailed segmentation of clients based on several variables that was not practiced before”.

9.3 Social capital
Social capital and the norms that are associated with are also transmitted. One example is the company of Sinalco which has acquired the license for Kosovo and Albania. They have harnessed the social capital based on relationships and social networks in Germany. “We have migrated to Germany in 1990, after a short period we have established a Restaurant. Among many suppliers the company of Sinalco has been very important for our business and during the time we have created strong relationships based on trust and commitment. We wanted to bring Sinalco in Kosovo, and after long meetings and discussion with representatives of Sinalco, we convinced them to give us the license and in 2010 we started to produce” pointed out B. Ademaj who works as sales manager at Sinalco.

Return migrants represents great potential for transmitting the social remittances, both normative structures and social capital. A returned respondent, the manager of a non-governmental organization (NGO) called AWO-Nürnberg, who is returned from Germany pointed out that “we have installed team work philosophy, and in our everyday work the citizen is important”. From the political level (Sh. Hyseni) the coordinator of the parliamentary group of PDK (Democratic Party of Kosova) pointed out that they use social networks in Germany and Switzerland in forms of advices regarding structure of the party, election and strategy. Many of the politicians have lived for a long period abroad as migrants and have created valuable social networks. Respondents have mentioned although negative remittances such as “culture of migration”, materialism and criminality.

9.4 Pathways and barriers
Social remittances are intentionally and unintentionally transferred by migrants when they return, when non-migrants visit migrants in the receiving country, or through the exchanges of letters, videos, cassettes, e-mails and telephone calls. Migrants from Kosovo use different channels to transmit their new ideas, values and systems of practices such as through visiting their relatives and different ways of communication technology. A different type of informal pathway to transmit social remittances back home consists of individuals in the diaspora returning permanently or temporarily. Barriers that result from the study are personal and contextual. Personal barriers are associated with attitudes, traditional views, hesitation to change, tendency to reject constructive criticism, etc. Contextual barriers mentioned by interviewer include bureaucracy, corruption, bribery and lack of rule of the law.

Conclusions
The complex reality where immigrants maintain and develop relations with both societies, country of origin and host society, do not correlate with conventional view that migration displace people and reintegrate them in a new society. Today, immigrants live at least to two societies at the same time and their identity develops in relation with those societies. This form of transnational social life is a field of constantly circulation of values, norms, practices, attitudes and social capital, occurring in both directions. Kosovar migration, already contribute to the development of their country of origin through community oriented projects, through investments in local businesses, through the building and facilitating of valuable transnational contacts and networks. The paper has identified various types of social remittances which can
have social and economic effects. These effects can take the form of the personal and family development, foreign investments, business creation and trade.

Conceptualizing through the transnational perspective provides more comprehensive understanding of social remittances. This concept includes besides ethnic migration also circulation migration, temporary workers and networks of business persons. Empirical evidence showed that return migration represents an important mechanisms of social remittance diffusion through the accumulated social capital and their opportunity to transmit easily social remittances, because of their physical presence. In order to increase the impact of social remittances the origin countries should seek to institutionalize this process. This should encompass all aspects of social life such as economic, religious, social and political connections because, the more diversified and broaden a transnational field is, the greater the number of ways it offers migrants to remain active in their country of origin. The objectives during five year Strategy (2013-2018) of the Ministry of Diaspora for enhancing the spiritual and institutional ties between Kosovo and diaspora is a good starting point, but it should carefully be implemented. Transnational actors such as state, political parties, hometown organizations and religious institutions should offer many ways for migrants to remain active in issues of their country of origin. Additional studies should focus on the distribution of the social remittances in the different fields such as social, economic, civil and political. Another focus would be the transmission of social remittances through formal channels, such as hometown organizations and their linkages to the country of origin.

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Impact of The Financial Crisis on the Realization of Remittances:
Evidence from the Region of Dukagjin

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ABSTRACT
The consequences of the financial crisis had spread globally taking different forms and causing its effects to create problems for many financial institutions. Over the centuries there have been many financial crises, which are presented so many times cyclically moving the foundations of different countries of the world. In general, crises are more or less similar and appear from time to time. Same is the case of the recent financial crisis of 2008 known as the global financial crisis, which is considered as the most severe that by 1930, this crisis which create financial problems, economic and social.

The purpose of this paper is to describe the particular impact of the economic crisis on Kosovar migrant remittances and especially in the region of Dukagjin. This paper is dividend in two main blocks. In the first one it will be drawn a picture of the Kosovar remittances through years. In the second one, the Region of Dukagjin will be on focus. In order to achieve this objective, the empirical base of this research is 150 in depth interviews with Kosovar emigrants living abroad. The results of this paper suggested that first, the value of remittances (as a help for the families left behind) from 2008 is declined, but it is increased the intensity of investing home. Second, most of immigrants are in a crossroad. Residence in some countries in Europe has become impossible cause of the loss of jobs and reduction of the income.

Key words: remittances, economic crisis, Kosovar migrants, financial crisis, Region of Dukagjin.

1.Introduction
The population movement across borders has reached unprecedented proportions, producing a global migration crisis. Every year, since 1998, an average of more than twelve million people, are qualified as the refugees and have been granted the refugee status. International migration has become such a common norm in some countries, that leaving the country has become a phenomenon and hope for a better life for the people of poor countries. The global travel and migration have become a routine in the era of the globalization. (Castle and Miller 2004). The massive movement of people living outside their country has raised a number of moral issues associated with: the ethnic balance within the host country, the sense of citizenship and sovereignty, the income distribution, the labor supply, the xenophobia, the impact of multiculturalism, the human rights protection the fundamental human rights and prevention of abuse. The sovereign governments are losing control in the regulation of movement of foreigners within their borders, and there is no multilateral IGO, for meaningful global
governance to deal with the escalating consequences of human migration around the globe. The impact of globalization, in this dimension, is messy and influenced by conditions in some places so favorable and in others so damaging. At the beginning of the global financial crisis, most observers believed that the immediate impact of the crisis on Balkan economies was likely to be small. This was largely due to the low degree of integration of these economies into international financial markets, which they believed may provide some kind of cushion for the continent. This view is no longer valid as the impact of the crisis has affected heavily the continent. It is believed that the global financial crisis will likely substantially set back progress towards poverty reduction and the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals.

The official unemployment, which continues to grow, hides another larger problem, the underemployment for billions of people, unable to work in ways that fully utilized their creativity and maximize their productive potential. The work of the poor is substantially invisible, while women’s work is still invaluable and undervalued. And the biggest failure of the system is that young people do not see the future. (International Labor Office, 2004, 6). For millions of people, a common support, to revive hope for the future is to migrate, and there were unpredictable side effects regarding this mass movement of people to work across the borders, had produced by choices and behaviors an activity that alters the conditions of the others, so beneficial for some and negatively for others. One consequence is the erosion of cultural identity and citizenship (Tan 2005). After several years of strong growth, remittance flows to developing countries began to slow down in the third quarter of 2008. This slowdown is expected to deepen further in 2009 in response to the global financial crisis, although the exact magnitude of the growth moderation (or outright decline in some cases) is hard to predict given the uncertainties about global growth, commodity prices, and exchange rates. In nominal dollar terms, officially recorded remittance flows to developing countries are estimated to reach $283 billion in 2008, up 6.7 percent from $265 billion in 2007; but in real terms, remittances are expected to fall from 2 percent of GDP in 2007 to 1.8 percent in 2008. This decline, however, is smaller than that of private or official capital flows, implying that remittances are expected to remain more resilient relative to many other categories of resource flows to developing countries. In 2009, remittances are expected to fall by 0.9 percent (or at the worst case, no more than 6 percent). (Migration and Development, 2008). Remittances sent by international migrants worldwide are an important source of external finance for many developing countries. The 2008–09 global financial crisis raised fears of a slowdown or even a reversal of migration flows and a consequent decline in remittance flows, especially to low-income countries. Historically, remittances have been noted to be stable or even countercyclical and have tended to rise in times of financial crises and natural disasters because migrants living abroad send more money to help their families back home. For the first time since the 1980s, remittances to developing countries are estimated to have declined by a modest 6 percent in 2009. Unlike private capital flows, remittance flows have remained resilient through the crisis and have become even more important as a source of external financing in many developing countries.

2. Theoretical approach and review of literature
This world has been rare in these conditions of crisis. And according to a survey they may be listed more factors affecting economic crisis, social and political. It should be noted the addition tearing the world population, the depletion of natural resources, development colossal industries, improvement giant of electro-industry, improvement of infrastructure, the huge difference
between the regions, countries, continents in terms of development, turbulence in the financial sector, efforts peoples for demolition of repressive political systems, the wars with different characters. So, all this could be called the reason or the cause of numerous crises, first of all economic and financial. As in Europe, the US and around the world, even the most developed and advanced, now can not talk about increasing economic productivity, to increase the budget for the creation of new jobs, contrary "earthquake" has occupied to investigate, everything is reduced. The global economy continues to face one of the greatest crises in history. So in the age of globalization no country can remain isolated from the fluctuations of the world economy. They suffered heavy losses that many large international bank will affect all countries of the world because these financial institutions have their interest in investing in almost all countries. Should attempt great that the world can soften a little bit, further deepening the crisis, we have a global plan strategic of all for a better tomorrow a little more stable, otherwise, the crisis could be stranded and bring huge consequences in all global economies. Remittances from migrant workers have increased considerably in recent years and now constitute the second largest external capital inflows to developing countries. It is estimated that migrants sent some 300 billion in 2008 back home to developing countries, a figure much larger than the total ODA flows for the same year. Remittances have been an important source of valuable hard currency that is used to finance current account deficits and debt payment, but also a means for supporting consumption demands of poor households. For several small economies, remittances account for more than 20 percent of GDP. In the face of the severe global financial crisis, however, these flows are expected to fall in coming years. Estimates suggest that remittances in Sub-Saharan Africa represent about 5 percent of GDP or 27 percent of export receipts (UNCTAD 2008).

However, in some individual countries, remittances make up more than a third of GDP. Additionally, remittances are more stable resources inflow than either ODA or FDI. They have no associated conditionality and they reach their beneficiaries directly thereby reducing poverty, notably by allowing recipient households to pay for their school fees or health services, which boosts aggregate demand and production. Recent data shows that, for the first time in almost a decade, the flow of global remittances to developing countries has significantly slowed in the face of the financial crisis and ensuing economic downturn (Yuefen Li, 2009). The impact on the recipient countries will be felt more acutely in 2009.

This crisis is the result of efforts of the governments, especially the US government for a social policy, designed to boost housing, especially that of citizens with low incomes, promoting and expanding lending. What began as a collapse of the US sub-prime mortgage market quickly spread through the financial system, eroding the value of the capital, undermining the creditworthiness of major financial institutions and triggering the massive de-leverage. Efforts to restore capital adequacy and uncertainty about the underlying value of the assets held in the form of sub-prime backed securities resulted in capital hoarding, causing liquidity to dry up, and ultimately compromising the ability of the borrower to finance transactions in both the real and financial sectors. This in return reduced demand and employment, undermining consumer and business confidence and triggering a further contraction in demand (World Bank 2009). The effects rapidly spread to all the other global financial markets and economies and very soon the pandemic was complete mostly affecting Europe, Asia in addition to the USA. It was expected that these financial crisis was only going to affect only the economies with interlinked financial markets and economies but it has now been realized that even economies that were seeming as far away as Africa have borne the brunt of these effects. The effects have spread through other
channels. For example, over reliance on exports of commodity whose prices have declined sharply along the global demand; Foreign direct Investment have fallen because of scarce financing; some donors, in response to their own domestic fiscal pressures, may find themselves under pressure to scale back concessional assistance on which LIC rely for balance of payments and budget support (et al 2009). The trends in global migration and remittance flows in 2009 appear to have been influenced by the following factors: effects of the economic crisis on migrant stocks, diversification of migration destinations, currency effects, and the link between barriers to labor mobility and the impact of economic cycles on remittances.

Despite the prospect of a sharper decline in remittance inflows than anticipated, these flows have remained more resilient than many other types of resource flows (such as private debt and equity flows and foreign direct investment, which declined sharply in 2009 as foreign investors pulled out of emerging markets). There are several reasons for the resilience of remittances in the face of economic downturns in host countries: remittances are sent by the cumulated flows of migrants over the years, not only by the new migrants of the past year or two. This makes remittances persistent over time. If new migration stops, then remittances may stop growing over a period of a decade or so. But they will continue to increase as long as migration flows continue. Remittances are a small part of migrants’ incomes, and migrants continue to send remittances when hit by income shocks. Because of a rise in anti-immigration sentiments and tighter border controls, especially in Europe and the United States, the duration of migration appears to have increased. Those people staying in the host country are likely to continue to send remittances. Most high-income remittance source countries in the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development have undertaken large fiscal stimulus packages in response to the financial crisis. This increase in public expenditure, if directed to public infrastructure projects, will increase demand for both native and migrant workers. Taylor (2000) has found that public income transfer programs in the United States resulted in increased remittances to Mexico: when all other factors are equal, immigrant households that received social security or unemployment insurance were more likely to remit than were other immigrant households. Also, documented migrants are likely to send more remittances to their families to compensate for a fall in remittances by undocumented migrants.

3. Remittances in regional and global level
Remittances, which represent a total of sent money from workers engaged in temporary or permanent work abroad, are important for the sustainable development in emerging economies and stability of countries that have income from them. They are very important in local, regional and global levels. According to World Bank statistics globally income form remittances amounted to about 400 billion U.S. dollars, while at the regional level, particularly in the Western Balkans they has reached 14 billion U.S. dollars in the past years. Most of the money, more than double of the total global foreign aid, channeled above all, to the economies of the global south, through remittances from migrant labor in the global north, toward their families. Delivery of the money in the world grows consistently each year since 1970, reaching 318 billion in 2007 compared to only 170 billion dollars in 2002 (The Economist, 15 December 2007, p. 106). As a feature of globalization remittances serve as e special type of “homeland security”, because 80% or more of the money are spent immediately on food, clothing, home and education.

4. The emigration and effects of economic development in Kosovo
The data show that Kosovo in ranked high rate and the high level of immigration and remittances reaching in Kosovo. Compared with other countries in the region, only Albania has such a high rate of immigration. The remittances that migrants send to their families in Kosovo are estimated to be around 450 million Euros, or about 12% of gross domestic product in Kosovo and they are the source of second income families in Kosovo (after income from wages). From this perspective, migration and remittances are an important part of the analysis of the labor market in Kosovo as they are significantly affecting the situation, dynamics and prospects of developments in the labor market. According to the economic theory, the decision to migrate is based on the motive of maximizing personal and family welfare. The individuals compare the cost of immigration, with the difference in income between the country of origin, and emigration one. In additional revenues exceed the costs, then the person emigrates. In Kosovo migration is an option to avoid unemployment and to provide revenues for the family. In addition to economic reasons, in the case of Kosovo political unrest during the 80s and 90s of last century, have helped mass immigration of many working age people.

The massive removal of workers from work in the early 90s and the repressive measures of the Serbian government over the years has contributed to mass immigration. (UNDP, 2012, pg.53). The individual decisions to migrate have the impacts on the economy and society as a whole. First, the migration reduces and changes the structure age, education and so forth the workforce in the country. About 80% of immigrants are estimated to be of working age of 16-64 years (compared with the about 60% of the population of this age in Kosovo), reducing unemployment in Kosovo. Secondly, migration through remittances affects the level of consumer spending as a business financing source alternative. Third, immigration produces other effects by generating secondary and tertiary economic growth by increasing aggregate demand. The main reasons for immigration consist in very big chances to find work abroad, and higher revenues than in Kosovo. The estimates show that men with higher education migrate more than other groups, but also those from families with more members migrate more than those from smaller families. The participation of persons with higher education in the total number of immigrants is higher than the participation of persons with the higher education in the population, which stays in Kosovo, which shows that educational level is an important determinant of the decision to migrate. Migration of Kosovo population has begun since 60s of twentieth century, when many people were working abroad under intergovernmental cooperation programs. It is estimated that in the late 80s emigration from Kosovo had reached about 90 thousand people. It is considered that about 11.000 people with high education are abroad. (IDK, 2001, pg.23). This number is equal to the number of graduates from Kosovo’s universities during these four years. 24% immigration with a higher education are engineers, which is very demanding profession and very well paid in European and American market. Migration of these persons is a loss for Kosovo society and economy because public money is invested in the preparation of these candidates (except the expenses they have personally made on their education). It is difficult to conclude whether the remittances sent from these emigrants to their families back in Kosovo does compensate the society and economical losses caused by their self’s. Savings and investment orientation into deposits and attraction of more foreign direct investment remains a critical issue. It seems to have been an important factor contributing in economical growth during these years. The current level of investment activity (23-25% of GDP) would have been more appropriate for mature economy rather than an emergent economy, which needs a huge increase. The majority of private investments are orientated into residences
Migration and remittances have been of considerable importance to the economy of Kosovo since the late 1960s. The literature on the Kosovar migration culture/history highlights four specific phases: the first phase was characterised by the migration of Kosovar guest workers, who were unskilled, poorly educated/trained and from rural areas, mainly towards Germany and Switzerland based on special contracts on a temporary basis; the second phase, spanning 1989–1997, was characterised by the migration of better-educated and skilled young men, from both urban and rural areas, mainly with the motive of escaping the Yugoslav army services, specifically during the 1992–1995 Balkan wars, whilst the lay-off from jobs of many Kosovar citizens, resulting from the abolition of the autonomous status of Kosova in 1989, was recognised as another driver to migration; the third phase was the forced migration as a result of the massive population displacement with the 1998/99 war in Kosovo, during which time individuals mainly migrated to the neighbouring countries, such as Albania, Macedonia and Montenegro; finally, migration after 1999 characterises the current phase of migration.

During the post-conflict period, immigration policies towards Kosovars were more restrictive given the political stability recognised within Kosovo; therefore, migration during this period was mainly characterised by: a) asylum-seeking/illegal migration driven mainly by the motives of finding better economic and employment opportunities given the post-conflict socio-economic situation in Kosovo; b) migration for family reunification purposes; and c) the legal migration of highly skilled and highly educated individuals for temporary study or work arrangements.

5. The impact of the crisis in migrant remittances in the region of Dukagjin

This section provides a general overview the impact of the economic crisis in the migrant remittances in the region of Dukagjin. It has two central objectives. The first objective is to provide some information about migration and the characteristics of remittances, their values and their purpose of use in this region. The second is to determine the impact of the crisis in the flow of remittances and their use. The choice of this region was based in the intent to continue the wave of similar studies that have been undertaken in Kosovo (USAID, Kosovo Remittances Study 2010), (UNDP 2012), (Group for Legal and Political Studies, Pristina, March 2015) and (Diaspora and Migration Policies in Kosovo - Forum 2015). Since the focus of the analysis in this study is concerned with remittances, this section attempts to identify some important problems. The first limitation is in regard to the lack of studies, in particular regarding the migrant’s behavior.

5.1. The region of Dukagjin

The region of Dukagjin is a large basin and the name of the region covering the southwestern part of Kosovo. The region covers 35% (3,891 km2) of Kosovo's total area. According to the 2011 Census, the population of the region is 700,577. It encompasses three of the seven districts of Kosovo: Gjakova, Peja and district of Prizren. The district of Peja is one of the seven districts (the higher-level administrative divisions) of Kosovo; it has its seat in the city of Peja. The district has three municipalities and 118 other settlements. The economy was inevitably badly affected by the war, but historically it has centered on agricultural activities and craftworks produced by the city's traditional craftsmen - coppersmiths, goldsmiths, slipper makers, leather tanners, saddle makers, etc. District of Gjakova is one of the seven districts of
Kosovo, with seat in the city of Gjakova. The district of Gjakova has a total of 4 municipalities and 170 other smaller settlements. Gjakova built an economy based on farming and agriculture, lower trade and some types of manufacturing workshops which mainly produce for the needs of city-based products as imported cases. According to official sources identified in the Ministry of Trade and Industry, by the end of 2005 there were about 3,200 registered businesses that exercise activity in different areas of Gjakova, such as enterprise manufacturing, construction, service, trade, catering, craft, transportation, information technology, etc. Social economy in 1989 has counted 45 companies that have employed 18,640 workers. In non-economic activities (education, health, culture, government institutions, banks, etc.) there were employed 4000 workers. The District of Prizren is one of the seven districts of Kosovo. Its seat is in the city of Prizren. The district of Prizren has a total of 7 municipalities and 195 other smaller settlements. For a long time the economy of Kosovo was based on retail industry fueled by remittance income coming from a large number of immigrant communities in Western Europe. Private enterprise, mostly small business, is slowly emerging food processing. Private businesses, like elsewhere in Kosovo, predominantly face difficulties because of lack of structural capacity to grow. Education is poor, financial institutions basic, regulatory institutions lack experience. Central and local legislatures do not have an understanding of their role in creating legal environment good for economic growth and instead compete in patriotic rhetoric. Securing capital investment from foreign entities cannot emerge in such an environment. Due to financial hardships, several companies and factories have closed and others are reducing personnel. This general economic downturn contributes directly to the growing rate of unemployment and poverty, making the financial/economic viability in the region more tenuous.

5.2 Methodology
The core of this section was to identify the characteristics of migration remittances, their values, and their purpose of use and in particular the impact of the economic crisis in migrant remittances. In order to achieve this objective, the empirical base of this research is 150 in-depth interviews with Kosovar emigrants living abroad. To provide secondary data from official sources regarding immigration and remittances for specific regions or areas of Kosovo is extremely difficult. For this reason, in this chapter is given special importance to primary data. Primary data collection was conducted through a field survey in urban and rural areas of the region. The questionnaire used in this survey is formed by three sections: the socio-demographic migrant’s characteristics, current financial situation and remittances toward Kosovo. In the three sections there are different questions. The results obtained are processed by the SPSS statistical software.

5.3 Socio–demographic migrant’s characteristics
Based on the results of the survey, below are presented the main characteristics of the emigrant: Gender of emigrants: As shown in figure 1, from 150 emigrants interviewed, 91 were male and 59 female. Respectively they present 60.7% and 39.3% of the population under exam.

Table 1: The gender of migrants participated in the survey
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>60.7</td>
<td>60.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>39.3</td>
<td>39.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Author's calculations in SPSS*

**Origin of the emigrant:** The origin of the emigrant in this section refers to the district where they have the family left behind or the place where they feel home when comeback in Kosovo. The focus of this study is to analyze the region of Dukagjin, therefore table 2 presents the number of migrants interviewed from each of the three districts:

**Table 2: Origin of emigrants**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Region of Peja</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>45.7</td>
<td>46.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Region of Gjakova</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>16.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Region of Prizren</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>36.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>98.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing System</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Author's calculations in SPSS*

**Marital Status, Age and Family members:** According to the information of the survey, the average age of the migrant is 37 years old. 58 of them, or 38.6% were single, 84 or 56% were married and 5.33% divorced. Regarding the structure of the families, 42% of them are composed by three persons, 22.5% just by one and 35.5% by two.

Residence in the hosting country: Table 3 presents the countries were immigrants have immigrate. Based on this figures, most of them live in Switzerland (26.7%), Germany (16.7%), Sweden (10%), United Kingdom (9.3%), USA (7.3%), Austria (6%) and the rest in the rest of Europe. The last has confirmed once again the top Kosovar emigration destination, are Switzerland and Germany.

**Table 3: Residence of emigrants**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Residence</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>26.5</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>43.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>52.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>60.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>64.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>74.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Finland  3  2.0  2.0  76.0  
Denmark  7  4.6  4.7  80.7  
France  5  3.3  3.3  84.0  
Italy  4  2.6  2.7  86.7  
Austria  9  6.0  6.0  92.7  
Belgium  4  2.6  2.7  95.3  
Netherlands  5  3.3  3.3  98.7  
Spain  2  1.3  1.3  100.0  
Total  150  99.3  100.0  

Source: Author's calculations in SPSS

Level of education: Table 4 present the before migrations and current education of migrants. As it is clear from the figures just few of them were able to continuous the studies and to achieve a higher degree. Only 14 from 150 were graduated. Twelve of them took a bachelor degree and two of them a master/PhD, starting from a regular secondary education.

Table 4: Level of education of emigrants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Education</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary education</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>12.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary education</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>42.4</td>
<td>42.7</td>
<td>54.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical education</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>35.8</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>90.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>98.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master/PhD</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>99.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author's calculations in SPSS

Profession: Regarding the industry were the emigrants are employed, most of men work in constructions (47%) and most of women in services (34.5%). Reason of migration: 56.2% of emigrant was drive to migration by the difficult economic situation in Kosovo, 23.4% to find new opportunities and to have a better life, 10.74% for families reasons, especially reunions (of which mostly woman), 5.30% for academic reasons and the rest for other reasons.

5.4 Current financial situation and remittances toward Kosovo

To the questions “Does the economic crisis of 2007-2009 influence your financial situation?” 93.4% answer “Yes” and 6.6% answer “No”. This last group mostly resides in Switzerland, Germany, U.K, Netherlands, Norway, Belgium, Sweden etc. If we compare the total income for month of the migrants before and after 2008 we can see that there are large differences between them. Before 2008 the average income for month was 2432.1 euro and the average income for capita was 937.52 euro. After 2008 they are respectively of 1941.7 and 741.94 euro. The total and the for capita income decreased by nearly 23%. This difference is much bigger in Italy, Spain and Ireland where a lot of migrants and especially men working in the construction industry, lost their jobs. The structure of the expenditures of the families is the follows: 52.34%
in consumption, 13.85% in housing, 9.4% savings in foreign banks, 5.25% savings in Kosovar banks, 8.30% in children’s education, 2.15% housing in Kosovo, and 8.71% help for the families in Kosovo. To the questions “Have you gained any job experience in migration that could help you if you return in Kosovo” 71% answer “Yes” and 29% answer “No”. To the questions “Do you have any connection with foreign business that might help you expand in Kosovo”, only 25% answer “Yes”.

Not only remittances have declined in these periods 1990-2008, but the frequency and the maximum value of sending have also declined. Compared to the first period, remittances after 2008 have declined by 72% and compared to the second period by 47.6%. In Italy, Ireland and Spain they have had a drastic decline. 82% of migrants living there don’t remit any more. When asked what will be the trend of remittances in the future, 74.2% are sure they will decrease, 18% are unsure for the future and can’t give an answer, 3.8% believe they will increase and 4% believe they will be the same as ever. The majority of the international migrants (54.3%) send their money in order to meet the essential needs of the family usually used completely for consumption. The other part goes for the purchase of the family house, savings for the future, etc. Only 4.3% goes for investments.

Table 5: The use of remittances

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Use of remittances</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Basic needs</td>
<td>54.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>House purchase</td>
<td>12.52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>8.45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Savings for the future</td>
<td>14.15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>6.28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author's calculations in SPSS

In order to understand why they remit, when asked, the emigrants answer as follows: 27% of them remit for “moral obligation toward parents and family”, 14% pure altruism, 17% to be part in the heritage of their family home, 27.5% for all the above mentioned reasons and 8% have never remitted. The remittance transfer is performed through formal and informal channels. So, 56% of migrants, declared to bring their money on their own or through their friends. 14% send it using Transfer Agencies, 8% send them by banks and the rest uses all the mentioned methods, formal or informal. 15.4% remit by formal channels. The main reasons driving this choice are the costs, and the preference. The top transfer agency is Western Union, and the top banks are ProCredit Bank and Raiffeisen Bank. The last questions of the questionnaire was to come back in Kosovo, 58% of them answered “Yes”, 28% “I don’t know yet” and only 14% answered “No”.

6. Conclusions
The purpose of this paper was to describe the particular impact of the economic crisis on Kosovar migrant remittances and especially in the region of Dukagjin. Based on the results the survey we demonstrated that (I) the value of remittances has decreased, (II) predictions of the future seems to be pessimistic, (III) most of migrants intent to come back in Kosovo. The difficult situation migrants are facing with makes pressure on them to decide between life in
migration and return in Kosovo. The government has undertaken various strategies regarding migration. Most of them intended to improve the situation of the emigrants in the host country or to make it favorable the return.

Today's crisis is a design tool of action and activity tomorrow. Practices are known abuse crisis periods, but are equally well known practice in the conditions of crisis has had a limited number of businesses that grow even faster. This is not typical for crises. Typical in times of crisis is the fact that reduced the activity in, falling sales and which added debt. But signs of an economy in crisis do not appear in a single day. Never crises are not product of a single decision or exit from the crisis is not a single act. Since Kosovo aims the integration in EU and has an economic opening to the EU, Kosovo institutions should create the optimal structure of the market to enhance the competitiveness of their own, in order to cope more easily with the challenges of globalization and European integration respectively different crises. Regarding to remittances, although the EU as a whole is faced with the financial crisis and the crisis of budget deficits, the countries where it is concentrated our diaspora in Germany and Switzerland, their economies have performed well in this time of crisis, and that both these countries are marking economic growth. Fluctuations in financial markets and the crisis of deficits in the EU, did not affect the reduction of jobs in Germany and Switzerland, did not affect the lowering of the standard of the inhabitants of these states and therefore have no impact on our diaspora and revenues that they generate in these countries. This is essential and decisive factor, which has been that remittances from the diaspora to remain almost at the same level.

Regarding the strategy of reintegration we can conclude that it is not having the expected result. In the Dukagjin district from all the migrants returned this last years, only 70 are recorded in 2013 and 89 in 2014. The first step toward reintegration must certainly be the creation of a connection with the migrant in order to help in and his family to rebuild a new life. So the central or local government has a lot to do in this direction. Only in this way it must be possible for the migrant to get known with all the possibilities the government have created for them.

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Albanian Women Migration in Greece: Nature of Work and Retirement Implications

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ABSTRACT
Albanian migration in neighbour countries dates at the early ‘90s. However, women migrants went to Greece in the most recent years, mainly during the last 15 years. Women’s migration was responsive to economic incentives and constraints. Although migration started off as a highly men – led phenomenon, a higher gender balance was achieved in recent years. The most usual labor sectors of women migrants were: household labor, domestic work and generally service providing. These types of labor, called “individual”, can lead to the isolation of these women and to the reduction of their information networks. However, probably the most important feature of this type of work is that in its vast majority it is uninsured, leaving women participating in domestic work in a precarious situation. Return migration has been intensified during the last years, because of the economic crisis in Greece and the major difficulties of migrants in finding work. Many migrants have already returned to Albania along with their families, struggling to start a new life there, notwithstanding the fact that employment is still a major challenge for them. There is a specific category of migrants that they want to be retired when returning in Albania. The problem arises because of the lack of recognition of their years of work in Greece and the respective retirement contributions. Particularly for women there is an added challenge: many of them have been working in informal sectors, without any insurance whatsoever for many years, struggling to ensure their families’ survival. This paper examines the status quo of this women returned migrants and aims at identifying the existing gaps in the policies and legislative framework of the two countries, using a policy analysis methodology. Women migrants working for many years in individual service providing are one of the most vulnerable population of the returned migrants in Albania, facing an insecure future.

Key words: gender, return migration, policies, retirement, unemployment

1. Introduction
Greece has experienced major changes in its migration patterns. After a century or so of emigration it has now become a country of immigration (Charalampopoulou, 2004). Recently, Greece is facing one of the major refugee crisis that has affected Europe in general and Greece in particular. Albania and Greece have a long history of relations and are connected by geographical proximity. This eased the border crossings for migrants. Greece has approximately more than one million immigrants (Baldwin-Edwards, 2005; Kanellopoulos et al., 2009). In relation to women migration in Greece, although some women left Albania together with their husbands and fathers, generally speaking, Albanian men were the first to migrate. The women were left behind to take care of the family where they became isolated subjects; concentrated in the private sphere, namely home (Lazaridis 2000). In the early 2000s, most of the irregular
migratory movements and employment evolved into a permanent family settlement and a family reunification strategy was implemented in Greece (King and Vullnetari, 2012). The majority of migrants, men and women, in Greece were occupied in various personal services, and were not insured by state welfare organizations (Sakellis and Spyropoulou, 2007; Gemi, 2014).

There is a great degree of job segregation by sex for migrants in Greece, with mostly migrant women filling the domestic roles left by Greek women (Lazaridis and Theotoky, 2002). Women from the Philippines, Albania, and Eastern Europe dominate migrant domestic work in Greece, and indeed make up the majority of immigrants from those countries—76% of Bulgarian immigrants, 70% of Albanians, 76% of Romanian, 85% of Poles, and 80% of Filipino immigrants to Greece are female. Greece has the highest female migration rate in Europe (Karakatsanis and Swarts, 2003). Albanian women migrants in Greece, as well as women from other South East European Countries, cannot pass unnoticed; they are mostly domestic workers engaged in taking care of the elderly and children. These immigrant women constitute an important part of the economic and family life of many Greek men and women. In spite of the disparity between their educational background and their actual occupation, the main reason for leaving their homes and families to work in a foreign country appears to be their deep desire to contribute to the wellbeing of their families and to provide their children with the possibility of access to a higher education (Vassilikou, 2007).

2. Greek financial crisis: impact to Albanian migrants and pension system
The Greek economy has been in continuous recession since 2008. Between 2007 and 2012, GDP decreased by 20.4 per cent and employment fell by 18.5 per cent between December 2008 and December 2012 (Karamessini, 2014; Akalin, 2014). According to a press release from the Hellenic Statistic Institution, unemployment was 27.2% in 2013 versus 21.5% on January 2012 and 25.7% on December 2012.

Affected by the crisis many Albanian migrants decide to return in Albania dreaming a better life in their homeland. At a recent national study conducted in Albania by INSTAT (2014) the total number of returnees was 133,544, whom returned in Albania during the 2009 – 2013 period, of which 30,005 were above 50 years old (approximately 22% of the total number of returnees). With regard to gender, there seems to be a significant difference among returnees’ rates, where men are overrepresented compared to women, 73.7% and 26.3% respectively. Women above 50 years old comprise approximately 10% of the women population of returnees only. Figures also show that the average age of migrants returning home is 38.6 years.

3. The pension system in Greece and its changes.
In Greece the majority of pensioners receive the minimum pension and these are pensioners with a job record consisting of periodic short-term jobs or with few insurance contributions corresponding to a short span of working life. According to the World Bank, 14.5% of Greek senior citizens are relatively poor, ranking the country among the five European countries with the worst ratios of poverty for senior citizens (Sotiropoulos, Featherstone and Karadag, 2014). Women are included among the poorest of pensioners if they have never entered the labor market. This is the case for housewives who have no insurance contributions at all and rely on a very low-level non-contributory pension.

Between 1990 and 2010 there were repeated failed attempts to reform the pension system in order to stabilize the rising pension expenditures that threatened to derail fiscal policy. A
combination of high replacement rates, early retirement opportunities – particularly for married women with under-age children and public sector workers – and low insurance contributions has rendered the pension system financially unsustainable. The Greek dependency ratio is among the worst in Europe. Social insurance funds relied more and more on loans and subsidies from the state budget. A reform passed in June 2010, after the crisis broke out, and implemented in 2011 was a first step toward streamlining the pension system. The reform involved lowering replacement levels, raising contributions, preventing early retirement and merging dozens of small social insurance funds into a few larger ones (Sotiropoulos, Featherstone and Karadağ, 2014). Albanian women migrants employed for many years in the services’ sector, mainly as domestic workers, are now facing an unsafe future due to the nature of their employment and not having social security all the time. Other recent trends in Greece indicate that the retirement and security are two major issues affecting both Greeks and migrants. A raise in taxes for those occupied in agriculture (where many Albanians do) and in individual taxation also puts pressure in Albanian migrants to return in their homeland, but without having resolved their retirement for the years they worked in Greece.

Aim and research questions
The aim of this study is to explore the challenges faced by the Albanian women migrants in Greece and the returned women migrants in Albania in relation to their pension benefits. The research questions are as follows:

- What is the state of the art of Albanian women migrants focusing on those close to the retirement age?
- How do migration and welfare policies have tackled this problem until now?

1. Literature Review
Migrant women to Greece in particular are of note, and are particularly vulnerable to exploitation. Greek women continue to make strides in education and employment. Traditionally, the participation of Greek women in the labor force has been very low due to a lack of formal employment opportunities, an overabundance of unpaid activities in small family businesses or agricultural work, and prevailing cultural attitudes in Greece about the domestic role of women (Baldwin – Edwards, 2002). Greek women increased their presence in the labor market during the decades after 1970. Therefore, this created a demand for cheap, migrant labor in areas related to household and care work in Greece that was largely filled by women migrants.

A woman entering the receiving country through the family reunification strategy is referred to as a ‘dependent immigrant’. She is dependent on her husband; i.e. on his documents, his job, his health insurance etc. (Vullnetari, 2009). However, as Vullnetari (2009) argues, we should be careful not to underestimate the economic role of Albanian women. They migrated not only to join their husbands, but also for the purpose of employment and therefore these women contribute to the economy of the household. While the majority of all women migrants in Greece are economic immigrants looking for good jobs that earn them a much higher salary than they can find in their homeland, women migrants, particularly undocumented ones, are vulnerable to exploitation and abuse. The Greek legal system offers very little protection to domestic workers and in some cases may actually increase their insecurity and vulnerability (Karakatsanis and Swarts, 2003; Tavanxhiu and Mancellari, 2015).

In line with the legal approach, Greek migration policies in the 1990s and 2000s have largely been characterized by a reactive approach to irregular migration and informal employment in the country’s black market economy. The main legislative measures for normalizing the migration
situations have been regularization programmes. Integration measures have been mostly on paper but in practice rather minimal (Triantafyllidou, 2014). From the professional viewpoint, evidence shows that emigrants passed from low-level jobs to promoted ones. Regarding the industry were the emigrants are employed, most of men work in constructions (55% per cent) and most of women in services (66%). Immigrants in Greece work in a highly segmented labor market, with temporary, part-time, heavier dangerous work – the jobs that Greeks refuse to do, especially in construction and heavy industry and for women domestic work (Baldwin-Edwards, 2002).

2. Retirement in migration and/or in homeland
Economic and financial crisis may make pension reforms inevitable (OECD, 2010a; Fall and Bloch, 2014). In deep recessions, the fall in pension contributions, which are typically linked to the payroll, may threaten the payment of pension benefits (Greece during the crisis), unless compensatory transfers from the central government are provided. Crisis may thus make an increase in the retirement age or a reduction in pension benefits, at a time when sacrifices are necessary also elsewhere in the economy, more acceptable (Fall and Bloch, 2014).

Many migrants returned to Albanian and others are thinking of it or struggling to survive in very unfavourable conditions. There is a strong gender dimension with respect to the decision to return. Women, despite the difficult circumstances they face, prefer to stay in Greece even in a regime of irregularity. The reasons they may use to justify this resistance are linked first to the fact that they continue to work even on different terms and second, the issue of their children’s adaptation to the reality of Albania (Gemi, 2015). A critical issue that comes up is the non-recognition of pension rights for those who came to Greece formally in search of formal work and then lost their legal status, before returning to Albania.

Probably the most affected from the crisis are the migrants living in Greece or leaving it, particularly women migrants. Having little time with legal permit and even lesser with social insurance they face the risk of losing their right to pension in Greece as well as in Albania, because they fail to fulfill the necessary requirements for pensions.

3. Methodology
For the purposes of this paper secondary data were collected and analyzed. The used method was content analysis of policy documents related to migration and social welfare in both countries, emphasizing on pensions and women labour. The coding used was a priori, the author had some pre-selected categories, namely retirement and migration policies, return migration, women migrants, social insurance, pensions and financial crisis.

4. Results and Discussion
4.1 Nature of Albanian women migrants work and retirement implications
Greece has the highest female migration rate in Europe (Karakatsanis and Swarts, 2003). The integration of Greek women into the labour market, with accompanying changes in the family structure and the lack of adequate social infrastructure have resulted in increased demands for domestic support work (King 2000; Lazaridis and Psimmenos 2000). Regarding the industry were the emigrants are employed, most of men work in constructions (55% per cent) and most of women in services (66%). Two out of three Albanian women working in Greece are occupied in the domestic work sector (70%). The nature of the female domestic worker is also determined by her position in relation to the law. The official status of a foreign domestic employee, legal or
not, plays an important role in her social disposition, her self-image, the feeling of being vulnerable, and her position in relation to the authorities and her employers, her sociability, the networks that she can join, etc. Her position in relation to the law is part of a very uncomfortable identity. The problem of illegal immigration is only one aspect of this legal relationship; social welfare is another one. In many European countries, domestic workers, local or foreign, are not registered in the social security system (Destremau, Lautier 2002 ). Recent changes in Greece didn’t have a focus on migration let alone women migrants. A law was passed in 2010 primarily focusing on preconditions of naturalization of migrants, but also somewhat improving the prospects of integration, but it went largely unimplemented. Obviously in 2011 – 2013 in the midst of the crisis, the integration of migrants into the labor market was further worsened by the economic depression and unemployment.

4.2 The Migration Code.

A new Migration Code (Law 4251/2014) has been voted in April 2014 in Greece. The new code like the previous migration laws, regulates matters of entry, stay and social integration of third country nationals in Greece, integrating previous laws and bringing the Greek legislation fully up to date with EU law (Triantafyllidou, 2014). Last but not least, the Migration Code seeks to streamline the management of permits, work and insurance issues for seasonal migrants working in agriculture or the fisheries. These are both areas of seasonal migration from neighbouring countries (Egypt for the fisheries, and Albania or other Balkan countries for agricultural work).

The reform in the pension system in Greece: its impact to Albanian women migrants

In Greece some 60% of older people are on the contributory minimum pension and a further 19% on safety-net benefits (Fall and Bloch, 2014). The different pension reforms, the phasing out of early retirement schemes and the tightening of eligibility criteria for other social transfer programmes that operated as de facto early retirement schemes are having an impact on retirement decisions. Due to a pension reform, statutory retirement age increased in Greece to 65 for all those men and women who started working on or after 1993. The adjusted retirement age also applies to all individuals who report not having worked before 1993. Finally, for those insured before the 1992 reform early retirement age in Greece is 60 years for males and 55 for females, as long as they have completed 18 full years of contributions (equivalent to 4,500 working days). The requirement differs for those insured after 1993, for whom early retirement age is set to 60 years irrespective of the gender given a minimum amount of 15 years of contributions (Antonova, Aranda, Pasini and Trevisani, 2014)

Return migration and pensions. Returned migrants in Albania are facing challenges in their reintegration, particularly in terms of employment and education as well as reintegration for their children (Vathi and Duci, 2015). However, studies have not yet been focused on migrants above the age of 50 years old, whom have worked in Greece (or other countries as well) for a considerable part of their lives and are now returning in Albania, without a “safe” future in terms of their employment in Albania, but mainly in relation to their retirement age, chances for pension and benefits. One important element of reintegration assistance commonly referred to returnees by countries of origin covers social welfare—including health, counseling, social security and education. Germany and Russia offered psychological support to returnees or a health check-up and free insurance to ethnic returnees. A specific aspect of social welfare concerns the pension and social security rights of returnees. In most countries, returnees enjoy the same social rights as other citizens, but an issue which is of outmost importance to returnees
is the extent to which their social security and pension payments in the host country are transferable. The Albania-Turkey agreement in this respect, operational as of 2003, is a positive example of how transfer of payments can work in reality. Another recent agreement in this direction is the Albanian–Luxembourg, from which a total of 3,500 Albanian migrants will eventually benefit (Grazhdani, 2013).

4.3 Are Albanian women migrants at risk of not having a pension?
A great number of Albanian and other migrants are at a serious risk of losing their years of work in Greece and their social contributions. According to the new law for social insurance in Greece, a foreign citizen can benefit for a pension in Greece only if there is a signed agreement between the two countries, besides the ones part of EU. Additionally, in order for a migrant to have a minimal pension in Greece s/he should be a permanent legal resident in Greece for the last 25 years before retirement and s/he should have at least 20 insured years of work. Afterwards, when s/he will be 67 years, s/he can benefit from a minimal pension, after declaring that s/he does not receive a pension from another country. Based on these criteria the vast majority of migrants cannot benefit from a minimal pension, while on the same time many of them have not been legal residents in Greece, because of the difficulties in having work permits for Greece. Even migrants whom have paid for many years for their social contributions are at risk of losing these and ending without any pension, because their years of work in Albania are again not enough to apply for a pension. A major part of the Albanian migrants entered Greece for the first time in 1991, and started paying for social insurance in 1998, when the legalization process started and they were obliged to pay for the social insurance in order to have legal work permits. Additionally, a vast majority started paying for social insurance early in 2000, where the second massive legalization process started.

Most of the Albanian migrants have 14 to 15 legal working years in Greece, with social insurance. Notwithstanding being close to the retirement age, crisis has raised the unemployment rates in Greece and many of them cannot afford being legal in Greece through these means, if they are not employed. On the other hand, for many of them return in Albania is a short term option for lower cost of living, putting at risk their pension benefits and possibility for retirement.

4.4 The case of women domestic workers.
In the case of the majority of immigrant women, sixty percent of which are in domestic services (EKKE, 2005; Alipranti, 2007; Tastsoglou and Hadjiconstanzi, 2003), the problem of social insurance and social security in general, is more than active. Looking purely at the options available for these women workers, under the existing statutory social insurance system, one concludes that these are minimal. Formally speaking, a large segment of the above population is being cut off from the welfare system due to their unauthorized entry into the country, whilst in regard to those who have attained all necessary documents for residence and employment, the volume of income contributions necessary for social insurance does not usually qualify them for either a pension or income subsidies like health, child care etc. Furthermore, informal hiring practices, temporary employment and work share between different employers, subcontracting and the substantial difficulties workers have in the understanding of bureaucratic rules makes matters worse (Psimmenos, 2011).

5. Conclusions and recommendations
The financial crisis in Greece has had a major impact in everyday life for Greeks and migrants. Many of them left Greece to return to their homelands, including Albanians. Almost one out of five returned migrants is above 50 years old, therefore closer to the retirement age. These migrants working years of living in Greece, if counted separately from the years living and working in Albania, do not fulfill the criteria for a pension. Albania has already signed a bilateral agreement with Belgium, Luxembourg and Turkey. However, the major concern is Italy and Greece due to the large number of Albanians living there and the large percentages of returnees from these two countries. A typical example would be the one of a migrant living for 19 years in Greece and for 14 in Albania, neither in Greece nor in Albania fulfills the minimal criteria for a pension (it is 20 in Greece and 15 in Albania). That would imply that s/he can lose all 33 years of work, which will not be reflected in their pension. The possibility of a joint pension will be created only if the two countries will sign the bilateral agreement. In that case, the person of the example would benefit from a pension of 33 years, rather than nothing. Each state will have to pay for the respective contribution made from the migrant in different periods. Particularly Greece is one of the most challenging countries in terms of pension benefits, because a migrant should have at least 4500 working days for the last 15 years. However, a positive aspect is that Greece, as part of the EU, acknowledges the contributions of any other member state. All the different periods are calculated to the benefits received in Greece (EU Social Security Coordination, 2015).

Special emphasis should be given to the right configuration of the legislative framework that will protect domestic and caring providing workers, in order to feel safe and respect their individual and collective rights. Similarly, for the women that are occupied in these sectors and are undeclared as workers measures should be taken to regulate their pension rights, such as recognizing the years of work and the retirements criteria/framework. Furthermore, the legislative framework for domestic work should change/modernize in terms of: hours of work, benefits, leaves, insurance etc.

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Abstract

Return Migration and Reintegration Strategies

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ABSTRACT
Albania is a country where the weakening of the totalitarian regime and the changes of the 90s were followed by a high level of migration to countries in Europe and often even further.

The geographic vicinity to two Western European countries (Greece and Italy), was a core facilitation factor for Albanian citizens to cross the border towards countries where they were hoping to find better economic opportunities and create a better living for them. Despite of the fact that a substantial part of those Albanian economic migrants is in the meantime settled and residing legally with adequate documents in Europe or in other continents, the phenomenon of economic migration and other connected irregularities like crossing the border illegally or staying in the territory of destination country without proper documents, though not with the pace of the 90s, still continues to be existent. As a result of these irregularities, many of the immigrants of this category are subject to removal and return, to refusals of entry or other administrative measures or criminal sanctions imposed in the respective countries where they have migrated to. Driven also by the requirements in the framework of EU accession, there are efforts done over the years to reduce this phenomenon, yet the majority of the measures imposed relate to criminal and administrative and only rarely also to social policies.

The result is that we are still facing a high number of Albanian nationals, who are leaving and then – after a while – being forcibly returned from different countries. This leads to the conclusion that the activities undertaken so far, despite the positive impact they could have had, should be reviewed and analyzed, as other experiences and positive models in this field have shown that it might be more productive and successful to draft a serious and functional strategy on reintegration of returnees, which would not only secure that they come home, but would also facilitate re-establishment by assisting the returnees in housing, schooling and work and so contribute to an increase in the Albanian economic sustainability.

1. Short picture and characteristics of Albanian migration abroad
With the establishment of the communist regime in Albania, outbound and inbound traffic of Albanian citizens across the state border became very difficult, reaching a stage that the only possible cross border movements were those strictly controlled by the government. Due to this isolationism and the therefore minimal migratory movements, Albania was confronted with the phenomenon of migration for the first time after World War II only in July 1990, when Albanian citizens massively entered into embassies of foreign countries in Tirana. This act highlighted the real situation of a country, in which citizens enjoyed almost no political and economic rights, as compared to other Western European countries and even to those belonging to the Eastern European bloc.
In the context of the political changes in Eastern Europe, around 5000 Albanian were then accepted by European countries, in whose embassies they seek protection. Almost at the same time, those who were unable to find the proper way or the proper time to enter into embassies of European countries, started to cross the land border towards Greece as the only EU Member State with a common border with Albania. After some ordeals, which were accompanied also with loss of lives, the borderline with Greece became the main gate of Albanian migration.

An additional factor were then political developments that have often adversely affected the security and the economic situation in Albania They became a further inducement for mass migration with vessels across the Adriatic Sea to Italy.

Despite the mass exodus to Italy and the opening of other opportunities for migration to other Member States of the European Union or even to the United States and Canada, migration to Greece (both legal and illegal) remained a constant factor. Year by year this migration even further increased through legal migration with work visas and through family reunification, but also by crossing the border with forged documents in order to enter mainly the EU.

A substantial part of the Albanian illegal migrants have since then benefited from various amnesties or legalizations enabling them to obtain residence permits in line with policies applied by the host countries. Influenced by the internal affairs of Greece, Albanian immigrants in this country have often encountered difficulties in converting their legal status from irregular migrants into lawful residents, however, Greece is still ranked the second country in providing resident permits for Albanian emigrants, compared to the total number of those in the European Union. According to EU statistics, it turns out that Italy issues around 450,000 residence permit each year for Albanian emigrants, while Greece issues about 350,000. Other EU countries are rather non-significant in relation to the above mentioned two countries, in granting residence-permits to Albanian emigrants.

The total yearly average of residence permits provided for Albanians in the EU is approximately 900,000, yet, considering European legislation on residence permits, which sets concrete deadlines for renewal of those permits, we have to consider that the number of annual applications does not represent the number of new applications of Albanian immigrants every year. Instead it includes also those who have earned this right already years ago and who meet the renewal periods. This number furthermore excludes those Albanians who have already obtained the nationality of their host countries.

However, based on these figures, the calculation leads to the conclusion that not less than 1.5 million Albanians are already established abroad.

Regardless of the motives and the different occasions that have pushed many Albanians to emigrate to the West, it seems that the main reasons for migration of Albanian citizens were – and still are- primarily related to economy. Albanian emigrants have aimed to improve their economic situation and it seems that most of them have succeeded. Often, the long time of living abroad, the obtained legal status, a good professional career and successful investments in host country, have connected Albanian emigrants to their new residence, where they managed to build a road for the future of their children by integrating them in schools, courses and work.

2. Repatriation of Albanians in brief
The first wave of Albanian emigrants was noted by the terrestrial and maritime neighbors of Albania as a dramatic outbreak of a people from a totally closed-off and poor country. A significant part of those migrants were supported by the local population, by governmental structures, NGOs and businesses. There were jobs provided to Albanians in Greece and Italy, which substantially helped to improve the economic situation of immigrants and also entitled them to stay in the host-countries for the period concerned and even further. As in every mass- and uncontrolled movement, there were certainly also persons with criminal intentions, who tried to misuse the opportunities, the democratic regimes offered and so to ensure illegal incomes for those emigrants, who were seeking for a job, sufficient income for their families and a better future for their children in the area of freedom.

Some of the emigrants also failed to establish in long term and sustainable jobs, prompting them to wander and seek for a new job, or even to become, in some cases, a threat to public order.

Generosity towards Albanian emigrants was – over the years - gradually replaced by an increasing assessment of the positive and negative impact of such migration. The Albanian emigrants, which were not assimilated by neighboring countries, began to become subject of repatriation. Greece, taking advantage of the geographical position of a common land border, unlike other western countries, which returned to Albania just persons considered as a threat, started to apply frequent returns already at the very early times of this emigration. Those groups of returnees comprised of persons considered to be a threat to public order and security, as well as unemployed persons or persons who worked in Greece without having the proper permits to do so. In addition to the returns from inland, the Greek army, which was protecting the national border, was also applying the “push back” method in order to discourage additional potential illegal migrants to cross the border illegally.

In certain periods, overloaded with irregular migrants, as well as with political tensions between Athens and Tirana, the return process of Albanians emigrants included not only the above mentioned illegal categories, but even a significant number of Albanians, who had entered Greece with regular visas. Greek operations called "The Broom" were in this context a combination of stringent controls inside the country regarding work places where Albanians were working illegally – often because of multiple delays in the process of issuing work and residence permits.

However, geographical proximity, human links on both sides of the border, common interests of Greek employers and Albanian jobseekers, differences of salaries in two countries and the porosity of the Albanian - Greek border continued to make Greece a permanent target country for Albanian emigrants. Return operations from Greece, due to the high number of persons, as well as due to a lack of up-to-date agreements, were also often carried out without prescreening returnees.

Readmission is even today still performed on the basis of a police-cooperation-agreement, which also comprises a readmission clause. An up-to-date implementation agreement between Greece and Albania to the Readmission agreement between the EU and Albania is regrettably still missing. As a result, a significant number of the returnees was in the past identified only based on their own statements. Initially, the acceptance by Albanian authorities was likewise performed not only without questioning on emigration reasons, but even without verifying the
identities of the returnees. Due to lack of proper national data bases in this regard, it is today impossible to achieve an accurate picture on these returns until 10 years ago.

By establishing electronic border information systems and implementing them in all BCPs of Albania, a clearer view with regard to the number and the emigration reasons of Albanian returnees was acquired. This period certainly is of great interest, since it started in 2007, when Albania had already signed the readmission agreement with the EU (2006) and the picture on Albanian emigration became clearer by being divided into the category of persons established abroad with regular documents and the category of persons who became subject of consecutive returns.

It is in this context recorded that, from 2007 to 2009, Albania repatriated on average 65,000 to 75,000 Albanian emigrants per year, out of which about 75% were returned from Greece. Those returns were based on different reasons, but illegal entry and illegal stay in the EU dominated by far compared to other ones. Persons returned due to a prison-sentence abroad or by being threat to public order and security were a minority with no real effect on the total number. Because of the limited number of Albanians, who carried EU visas during this period, even the reason of violation of duration of stay did not significantly influence the total number of returns. According to the interviews conducted with returnees, it seems that the main reasons, which drove them during those years to cross the border illegally, were permanent or seasonal job seeking and joining their family or relatives in the country they were returned from.

As regards the actual number of returns, it needs to be taken into account that the number of returns within a year does not fit to the number of physical persons who are subject of returns during the same year, as a significant part of them was returned several times within the same year. Calculating an average of the number of returns of the same person throughout the year, it can be assessed that the real number of persons subject to repatriation during these years was about 25,000 to 30,000 per year.

Distribution of motives was almost the same in 2010, but afterwards there was a significant decrease in the total number of returns to about 50 000. There might have been many contributing factors, but it seems that to a large extent the expected visa liberalization was among the primary issues linked to this situation. The hope of Albanian citizens for liberalization and simultaneously the fear regarding possible penalties in case of border offences, information campaigns undertaken in the context of visa liberalization and the maximal commitment of border police structures in order to meet the requirements imposed by the EU in this field, had a straightforward impact, especially in the second half of 2010.

In 2011, there was a record low in the number of repatriated Albanians, bringing the overall number to around 15000. Assuming that this figure included also persons who had entered the EU illegally or who committed an offence before liberalization, the number of Albanians who violated the rules of entry and residence in the EU this year was the lowest in history after the ‘90s. The reduced number of returnees gave even better possibilities for proper interviewing and clearer identifying of the motives of the return of these persons. Among the main motives the following were mentioned: the knowledge of those persons on an entry ban they had in Schengen area, the lack of knowledge of the terms and conditions of visa liberalization and employment in Schengen, the use of illegal border crossing due to not meeting the financial
requirements for entry into Schengen and the lack of funds to obtain a biometric passport. In the second part of 2011 and in subsequent years there were also the motives of illegal border crossing for not identifying the duration of stay by stamps in passport, illegal employment and apprehension in the territory due to a previous entry ban (expulsion).

2011 was then characterized by an increasing number of refusals of entry of Albanian citizens when attempting to cross the Schengen external borders (over 10,000 persons being refused because of a previous entry ban in the EU; the second most popular reason being the inability to adequately justify the purpose of travel incl. the financial means). This was an expected increase due to penalties received by Albanian citizens in the Schengen area over past years, as well as due to increased attention of border police in the Schengen countries during border checks, taking into account visa liberalization which had waived the consular filter, up to then an important first filter in the EU 4 tier access control model.

2012 showed, in terms of repatriation, almost the same figures as 2011, or about 15 000 persons, of which about 13 000 returnees arrived from EU countries. The main reasons of returns, for this year also, were illegal border crossing, violation of duration of stay and illegal employment. The returnees from Greece represented still about 75% of the total of deported Albanians, which was about the same as in previous years. Also, the number of Albanians refused entry at the Schengen borders was approximately the same as the previous year, with the main reason for refusal being an existing entry ban and not justifying the purpose of travel (included here financial means). Greece was the main contributor even to the number of those refusals for the second consecutive year by about 70% of the total number of the Albanian citizens refused in the entry of Schengen borders.

In 2013 there was again an increasing number of deported Albanians, exceeding slightly 20 000, a figure that was repeated also in the following year 2014. A new element in those two years were returns from UK. Through visa liberalization, many Albanians first went to the Schengen area, but their final point of destination was the UK, to which they often tried to cross illegally (e.g. by using forged or falsified documents) from France or Belgium. Some of those Albanian emigrants were consequently returned from Schengen countries, where they were apprehended and some others were returned from the UK, where they were detected as irregular migrants in the territory.

Taking into consideration figures for the ratio of first half of 2015, it seems that this year will provide almost the same numbers of returnees. In the same period in 2014, the number of Albanian refused entry to the EU decreased to about 10 000 persons. Regarding the order of the reasons for refusals it turned out that the motive of not justifying the purpose of travel and the lack of financial means remained first and the entry ban decision was only being second any more.

A special feature of 2014 and 2015 is the massive increase of the number of Albanians who requested asylum mainly in Germany. According to the information obtained from different sources and based on data collected during rapid passport applications, the majority of Albanian citizens who used the asylum seeking as an emigration method were residents of rural regions of Kukes, Elbasan and Berat (without excluding other regions), which are among the poorest areas of Albania. Based on the statements of the first returnees of this category, it appears that the
majority of the Albanian asylum seekers have presented economic motives as main reason. It is expected that the figure of Albanian asylum seekers in 2015 will rise above 30,000. Some factors that influenced the scale of this phenomenon are believed to be the social assistance given to asylum seekers during the asylum request evaluation process, as well as the hope of finding work and avoiding the limitation of duration of stay only 90 days within 180 days.

In order to combat this phenomenon, return operations for Albanian “economic asylum seekers” Germany were seriously increased in the second half of 2015, so an ongoing flow of returnees can be expected to Albania from Germany as well as from other EU countries for the rest of 2015.

2. The effects of current measures toward migration

Since the first repatriations of the Albanian emigrants started, the prime governmental structure in charge of dealing with returnees was the Albanian State Police and there namely the General Directorate for Borders and Migration. Due to general socio-economic circumstances, as well as related to the focus that every police organization has, the only issue which concerned Police in this process at the beginning was that of wanted persons. Police checks were at those times primarily aiming to verify the identity of the persons and to consult in basic criminal databases or, together with police structures at relevant residences of returnees, regarding their possible criminal history. In case of any implication of facilitation of illegal border crossing or recidivist cases of illegal border crossing the returnees were criminally prosecuted. Identification of these cases was often difficult due to the huge number of returnees and the limited time and capacity available for verification. Albania’s commitments to the European integration process, especially during and after the signing of the SAA, as well as before visa liberalization, led to an increase in the awareness for returns and readmissions, focusing even in the identification of migration motives, vulnerable border segments concerning illegal migration, origin and residence regions of the returnees, most affected categories, etc. Despite this new orientation, unfortunately, until 6 months before visa liberalization, the identification of these needs was left to be handled only by Police, which, at most, could identify the problem but not provide any solutions or strategies on how to change.

In June 2010 a National Strategy for Reintegration 2010 - 2015 was drafted. This strategy then also included other actors, beyond State Police and Ministry of Interior, in the process of treatment of returnees. Besides information campaigns in media and in the community concerning terms of visa liberalization, for the first time an information campaign was undertaken also regarding returnees and especially for those who were returned from EU countries. During the interviewing process of the repatriated persons, in addition to the verbal information from the interviewer, there were informative leaflets delivered, which included, among others, even the addresses of work services in each district. Joint groups with inspectors from Ministry of Interior, Ministry of Labor and other line ministries undertook outreach activities toward citizens and monitored activities over subordinate local structures in terms of reintegration of returnees. Cooperation in this area included all concerned governmental stakeholders as well as actors from civil society. There were commitments from NGOs and even private businesses in this context. For the treatment of returnees there were nutrition and transportation contracts signed to their place of residence, where they could contact local integration offices on which they were informed, in order to address them to the appropriate institution.
But, after the implementation of visa liberalization and the decrease of the figures of repatriated persons it seems that this way of treating again went down. About 100,000 Euros foreseen for transport and about 430,000 Euros foreseen for food were not allocated. Newly opened migration offices inside the territory were melted and dissolved, leaving without a response even those returnees who hoped for state assistance. The engagement of other actors (besides Police) was reduced just to problematic cases, particularly those of minors and victims of trafficking, for which there were specific obligations based on special documents (agreements, joint orders, etc.) and related to the functioning of a national anti-trafficking mechanism. Also, the Reintegration Strategy and its action plan failed to be concrete enough as regards steps to be followed for concluding reintegration and defining generic measures and recommendations allowing the rendering of deficiencies detected during implementation.

What did function was the State Police, which began, as one of key reporting structures related to post liberalization process, and in order to reduce the number of violators of the rules and therefore even the number of returnees, to systematically prosecute the repatriated persons who had left across the green or blue border bypassing authorized crossing points for illegal border crossing. Due to the legislation in place and the distance of the residences of the returnees from the district where the prosecution was taking place, although there was considerable commitment of the police personnel for the investigation of these cases, about 6 months after the beginning of this campaign it was noted that there was again no impact and no weakening and decrease of the phenomenon of illegal border crossing.

Because of this, investigation and prosecution was then replaced by the systematic application of fines (50 000 to 100 000 Lek = 350 to 700 Euros) based on the law "On control and surveillance of state border". This measure reduced trial costs and imposed obligatory fines on the returnees, as otherwise they were not allowed to cross the border again.

Assessing the figures in the electronic data base and the results of interviews, it shows that these fines were paid generally by persons who performed an illegal crossing for the first time or by persons, who, after having committed such an offence, needed to again cross legally the border at a BCP for study, medical, legal work contract purposes, or other similar reasons. On the other hand, most of the returnees with less income still continued to cross the border illegally, or in the best case they waited (or are waiting) until the prescription time is completed and the fine is to be erased as it is foreseen in the relevant legislation for administrative violations.

A third possibility - the procedure of execution of those fines through the seizure of assets of fined persons – also proved to be unsuccessful, as over 90% of charged returnees were living in poverty, without possessing any estate or mobile property or having any income, which could have been be seized.

Summing up, it appears that imposing fines and not allowing to leave the country legally before paying the fines often stripped even the last hope of those returnees to benefit from visa liberalization and in fact encouraged them to cross again the border, outside of the authorized BCPs.
The failure to reduce the number of returnees, the growing demands of the European partners during the post liberalization process, some indicators related to a kind of "asylum tourism" of Albanians in Schengen and the fact that the burden to monitor the correct implementation of the rules was put only on the shoulders of police structures set border guard finally resulted at the end of 2012 in the issuance of the “Procedure on refusal of exit for Albanian citizens” being applied toward Albanian citizens, who were repatriated from the EU and Schengen area and those ones refused entry because of an existing entry ban to the Schengen area.

This procedure raises considerable legal concerns. According to the Constitution of the Republic of Albania every Albanian citizen enjoys the right to leave the country as a fundamental right and the fundamental rights can be restricted only by a law and not by any standard operational procedure. However, this procedure is still in practice forcing persons, who are repatriated from the EU and Schengen area or who are refused entry (except for financial reasons and justification of travel purpose) to present a document in exit of Albania that proves the entry ban or hindrance to enter the EU and Schengen area does not exist anymore.

Beyond the mentioned legal concerns, since the measure is related to a forthcoming exit at a BCP, it is not expected to have any serious impact related to illegal border-crossing. On the contrary, considering the lack of informative campaigns for the procedure of handling this document (which can be issued only by a Schengen country and not in Albania), some misinterpretations of Greek and Italian police on cases related to expired entry ban decisions and some misinterpretations of Albanian border guards related to their own procedures, this measure turned into an artificial barrier against legal border crossing. Leaving aside the legal concerns, based on the statistics of the pursuant years, it turns out that the imposing of refusals of exit may have reduced the number of Albanian citizens refused entry at the Schengen external borders related to entry ban decisions, but it couldn’t help in any case to reduce the repatriation figures. It is impossible to provide statistics in this regard, but from different interviews of returnees it looks that a high number of persons refused in exit have committed illegal border crossing after they exhausted unsuccessfully all the attempts for a legal exit.

Despite of differences in domestic legislations of the Schengen area regarding terms and conditions of penalties related to border and migration offences, it is clear that Albanian citizens apprehended inland as irregular and then repatriated are subjects of restrictive administrative measures, which are generally reflected in the SIS. Returnees who commit such offences more than once and the ones who are convicted even of other violations beside illegal border cross or illegal stay, like e.g. possessing forged or falsified documents or disobeying an order to voluntarily leave a country after a negative answers to an asylum application can be subject of more serious penalties. Consequently, a significant number of Albanians, constantly repatriated because of illegal border crossing, have now even become subject of entry ban decisions into the Schengen countries. All these people – now also under refusal of exit - have currently the potential to cross the border illegally again. Summing up, refusals of exit due to a supposed entry ban in Schengen, or due to the lack of justification of travel purpose to a destination country, as well as obstacles due to a border related fine may in fact contribute – due to the absence of any clear reintegration-strategy – to the rise of the number of persons again thinking of leaving – and this time definitely by circumventing border checks.
Coming again to statistics of post liberalization years, it is noted that the number of returnees due to illegal crossing of the border, violation of terms of stay, attempted transition to the UK and the illegal employment occupies over 85% of the total number of returnees, leaving far behind the motives of any imprisonment sentence and having an entry ban decision. Taken this in correlation with interviews conducted on emigration reasons it shows that most of the returnees have intended employment and income for a better life.

The same motive is confirmed by returnees whose asylum requests in Germany are refused. The continuation of irregular migration, especially to Greece, despite the crisis and the reduction of salaries in this country, and the illegal labor migration even in other neighbor countries like Macedonia, Montenegro and Kosovo where the salaries are almost the same as in Albania, indicates that the category of returnees, not only has economical motives, but is among the poorest group of Albanian population most in need, which requires urgent social and economic support.

3. Milestones on the strategy for the reintegration of returnees

The central conclusion drawn for the previous chapter is that the majority of Albanian emigrants

- who cross the border illegally,
- who cross the border orderly but overstay in their country of destination,
- who cross the border and stay within duration of stay limits but work illegally,
- who tend to pass illegally to the UK or
- who request for asylum in Germany,
- who work seasonally or even only a few days in the EU or neighboring Balkan countries, are economical emigrants.

Without going through each measure taken so far, it is clear that all coercive measures that are taken against returnees or to prevent a possible irregularity, have not just failed to achieve the target, but may have even worsened the situation. The penalizing measures failed to motivate the poorest sector of the society, which continues to feel hopeless with nothing left to lose leading straight into a closed circle of endless irregular situations. Furthermore, some of the measures, such as the refusal of exit for fines or for entry bans in SIS, have even pushed a part of regular persons towards irregularities.

Despite of their shortcomings, other informative and supportive measures have managed to have – to a certain extent – to have a positive impact on citizens. A positive element to be mentioned here are the information campaigns on visa liberalization, during which the decrease in the number of deported persons and then following year this decrease was really significant. The Reintegration Strategy (2010-2015) failed to give real solutions to the problem of returned Albanian emigrants, but during the time it was applied it had at least an impact on the general awareness.

If one looks abroad, there are good practices even in the close neighborhood for reintegration of returnees. For example it is the case of Kosovo, where, although the influx of irregular emigrants or economic asylum seekers still continues, the figures dropped down significantly as a result of the implementation of an effective strategy under which the Kosovo government took specific responsibilities regarding reintegration. Another good practice is the memorandum between Albania and Greece for discharging minors from border related offences in cases when they
return voluntarily. This act, which has worked well even in practice, has urged minors to return home without being intimidated by potential penalties. A similar action is also the treatment of the Albanian voluntary returnees from Germany, where persons returned after their asylum request is not been approved or because they have given up of requesting asylum, are not handled as deported and are not penalized even if they have crossed border illegally.

However, these activities will not be effective if they operate separately from each other and are applied only in breakaway periods. The reintegration of returnees is a process and for this reason measures should be continuous and integrated. As the strategy "For the reintegration of Albanian returned citizens 2011-2015" is almost finished and the work for the following strategy has started, the profile of illegal emigrants and returnees as well as the best experiences of countries with similar problems and the shortcomings of the current activities in our country should be taken seriously into account, for having a successful process in further in this regard.

The strategy for reintegration and its action plan should define specific, measurable and timed targets. These should be accompanied also by specific and achievable steps and recommendations, for facilitating the implementation and also for monitoring the performance. Reintegration Strategy 2010-2015 states that 99% of returns are economic migrants, based on records and interviews conducted with them, similar this result to that mentioned above. Following this reason, the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs has to take a much more pronounced in this process. Depending on the needs of the repatriated persons, other concerned actors, like other line Ministries, law enforcement agencies representatives of NGOs and of the civil society, together with their specific duties, should be well defined. In order to ensure sustainability and effective interventions, the establishment of a national referral mechanism, similar to that of anti-trafficking, may be helpful in this regard, aiming to address the problems in time and appropriately.

It is necessary also that the subgroups of the category of economic migrants returned home to be defined carefully and accurately so that the measures taken clearly address their needs. Mixed measures, from which some of them address regular emigrants, some voluntary returnees, some others irregular ones and the others potential victims of trafficking might end up just being a waste of resources. The new strategy, in addition to general measures, should therefore include tailored measures for each detected subgroup of repatriated persons. For the reception and the treatment of repatriated persons it is not enough only to accept a high number of returnees, but it is indispensably necessary also to provide proper infrastructure, personnel and equipment.

Contrary to the aforementioned, the high number of returnees, repeated routes and similar modus operandi, have currently turned interviews at the border into formal statements that do neither help police work, nor the identification of key issues related to integration. What would be needed is a qualitative prescreening of the returnees, as well to define properly the targets among these immigrants. Checks and interviews regarding police matters must be carried out on risk basis, while interviews that aim to identify the motives of emigration, regions of origin, age, gender, social and economic groups, should be carried out by social services. This would also help police services to better focus on cases requiring investigation and will provide the necessary time for the intended verifications. On the other hand, the identification of issues related to emigration will be facilitated because the interviews of social character, without the
inclusion of personal data, are more acceptable for the people. These social interviews also provide the possibility of more influencing information toward citizens regarding further steps related to reintegration, having advantage against "cold" media campaigns and "harsh" police campaigns. To be successful with this approach, border police risk analysis capacities as well as interviewing and analytical capacities of responsible social and labor services should be strengthened. All this process will need to be supported simultaneously by other services like health, psychology, including the involvement of NGOs. Deployment of such groups in Border Police Stations receiving returnees is in this context considered an absolute necessity.

Setting of these obligations for every responsible field actors should absolutely not exclude additional information campaigns through flyers or direct meetings, at the border or in the territory, undertaken by each actor involved in the reintegration process. All these prescreening and informative actions should be part of a comprehensive process, must serve in an integrated manner for the necessary trust of returnees and make the general public aware about terms and conditions of regular movement and finally involve all stakeholders in any further steps towards integration.

A further link in the chain of measures should be the correction of the current practice of ―refusals of exit‖ for Albanian citizens. To put it in the legal and European context (as already undertaken through legislative measures) and to better inform citizens on their right to access their personal data in the SIS would be first concrete steps. The latter can be accomplished though leaflets showing the correct way on how to obtain the information and the possible involvement of NGOs and/or through free legal assistance for cases that require actual intervention.

For supporting an intensive campaign of identification and prescreening, it is necessary that reintegration offices are established, which are welcoming and equipped with adequate staff and powers. Having been informed, since the prescreening phase, on subgroups of repatriated emigrants and their motives, those reintegration units would then have it much easier to face and handle individual cases. Based on this preliminary evaluation, the milestones on major needs, such as those for e.g. social help and unemployment wage, health services, education, training, employment, involvement in economic activities could already be set.

It might even be helpful that the persons in working age are categorized by their professions and/or experiences they have acquired inland or during emigration. Elderly should be involved under schemes of economic help and support. To minors, who have interrupted their schooling for emigration reasons, a continuation of an educational process should be provided. Simultaneously measures should be evaluated and taken also for the economic situation of families, which may be the pushing factor for their emigration. Working age persons, who do not have proper skills, are needed to be included in appropriate vocational training courses, in order to earn a profession or a métier, possibly considering their personal aptitudes and needs of labor market.

When categorizing professions and providing training to returnees, the needs and the requirements of foreign labor markets should also be taken into account. The Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs, besides the identification of the international market, could play an important role even in assisting those returnees to apply for employment abroad, whether seasonal or long-
term. NGOs and private business should be included in the process of providing training and employment.

The orientation and the assistance of responsible authorities for undertaking private activities, like small business, can be also an important support to the integration of returnees. This measure may have a higher impact on regular emigrants that willingly returned home due to loss of their jobs in the country of destination, but it can also positively affect a part of young illegal emigrants who have gained some income from seasonal work and at the same time have the skills and the will to undertake private activities related to their vocation.

In order to avoid discrimination, the process of reintegration may push to several changes in the policy and the legislation concerning unemployment assistance, economical help, education, employment, social insurance, small businesses, etc. However, the effects of all this changes will be positive, as far as different categories of Albanian citizens who are not subject of returns, but in need for support in above mentioned areas, are permanently a potential for illegal emigration and repatriation. In this way they will have the opportunity to be integrated into social and economic life of the country, without becoming irregular emigrants in the future.

A possible support in the entire process, beyond the governmental structures, may be, as for expertise, as well as for finance, several NGOs that operate in the field of migration, private businesses, joint projects with the EU, etc.

The initial costs of a challenging strategy may be significant in terms of returns expenses, economic support, training and employment, but already mid-term it might pay back. The taxation on employment, the taxation of businesses, the incomes from legal emigration, the incomes from the right orientation of labor force according to market needs, the social support that protect vulnerable persons from victimization and the assistance to youth by holding them away from crime, are a profit for every country, both in economic terms and in terms of the quality of life.

**Literature**


Extended migration profile for Albania 2013


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ABSTRACT
The International Labor Organization (ILO) is devoted to promoting social justice and internationally recognized human and labor rights, pursuing its founding mission that labor peace is essential to prosperity. Today, the ILO helps advance the creation of decent work and the economic and working conditions that give working people and business people a stake in lasting peace, prosperity and progress.

This article presents an analysis of the factors related to international labor standard trends and the mechanisms that ensure adaption with ILO standards. I have also analyzed the similarities and differences between monitoring schemes by evaluating their role in the formation of the labor law. The further results indicate that the fundamental ratification of ILO conventions is positively related to the labor rights protection. Recently I have studied the impact of ILO in the financial and economic crisis by protruding regional cooperation for the improvement of labor legislation. This impact is also seen as a case study for Albanian labor migration.

Keywords: ILO; Labor rights; Human rights

1. Introduction
International Labor Organization (ILO) was created as a result of the industrial revolution. During this period of economic expansion, working conditions were harsh and often inhumane. The employees work without social and economic security. Since then there have been calls and requests for greater protection of workers. Between the two world wars (1919-39), the ILO acted as an independent organization. ILO seeks to become a developer and dynamic institution. The basic documents of the ILO included a status compiled during the Versailles Peace Treaty. Another key of ILO is the condition that, universal and lasting peace can be achieved only if it is based on social justice. This work forms the pillar of the ILO that up to date, and is based on its work on equality, non-discrimination and poverty alleviation. In 1969, the anniversary of her 50-ILO was awarded the Nobel Prize for Peace. Today it has over 40 offices worldwide, and employs a staff of over 2500 people. International Labor Conference is the general assembly of the ILO (General Assembly) where all its members gather together as one body. It meets once a year, in June for three weeks, and more than 2,000 delegates participating. During the conference held a lively debate, taking part all delegates in matters relating to the ILO, including child labor, globalization, etc. As a result the annual International Labor Conference has become a global forum for policy discussions on social and labor issues. The Governing Body serves as the executive council of the ILO governing work taking decisions on ILO policy and chooses the directorate general. While the office is located in Geneva and deals with gathering information, organizing conferences, providing cooperation and assistance to voters, the publication of materials.
2. ILO organization
ILO is the only international organization that acts as a tripartite alliance. Since its inception, organizations of workers and employers have worked side by side with governments, on a tripartite basis. Governments, employers and workers are recognized as members of the ILO's constituents. They work and vote independently of each other. Each member state of the ILO has four votes, which are allocated. Workers' organizations have a vote, the employers' organizations have a vote, and the government has two votes. In general the meeting of the ILO, government representatives sit in the middle of the room, with representatives of the organization of workers in the left side and those employers' organizations on the right side. Albania is one of the member countries of the ILO.

To put the goals and objectives in practice, ILO formulates and adopts different standards, which result by consensus among members on a particular issue. Various forms used by the ILO Conventions and Recommendations have been, but may be included and informal agreements, such as: Declaration and Resolution. Conventions are international treaties that bind (bind) member states to implement them (as to be ratified once). The recommendations are not binding and intend to orient the law, policy and action. They may be adopted and despite a convention. Recommendations could not be ratified. International Conventions and Recommendations - international labor standards have influenced the development of international law of human rights. Their impact has been in government policy and national legislation, even in countries where the relevant Convention has not been ratified, is significant. This can be adapted, in a certain amount, after all ILO members actively participate in the process of adoption of a Convention or recommendation of it through drafting and discussion, until the final discussion and approval of the International Labor Conference. The ILO has a precise time for the adoption of its standards and it usually takes two years. ILO standards provide minimum guarantees in a number of issues. They have an important role not only in the construction of international standards and UN. A principal characteristic of international labor standards is that they are applied in a flexible way. This is reflected in their provisions and is in order to respond to the need for a Convention to make the relevant recommendation or throughout the world. Standards also provide a guarantee against the adoption of national laws and rules which are contrary to ILO standards, making it necessary after being ratified a convention, the government is bound by its provisions and has the obligation to undertake action to implement it. They provide practical solutions regarding economic development;
- Fair distribution of income;
- Conditions to improved vital and Working for All sectors;
- Creation of new working places;
- Support and protection for socially vulnerable groups (children, migrant workers, minorities and indigenous peoples, and women);
- professional exercises

ILO regularly reviews its standards to ensure if it’s Conventions and Recommendations are relevant. If they are considered outdated, or another unnecessary way, standards are repealed. It has a large number of Conventions and Recommendations on international socio-economic and labor. However, standards cannot operate in vacuum, and the need for a supervisory system to evaluate their effectiveness. Regular reports (for the Member States): Article 22 of the Constitution of the ILO requires Member States to submit reports to ILO on the steps they have taken to implement (approved) Conventions to which they are a-party organization. The article
(Article) 19 of the ILO Constitution obliges member states to report supervisory bodies to ILO on the situation in law and practice in relation to specific conventions or recommendations. Thus, the member States of the ILO are also obliged to provide information on the causes of delaying or preventing the adoption. The Governing Body of the ILO decides which issues would have to be reviewed, and highlights the relevant Convention or group of Conventions and Recommendations deal with that subject matter. Selection is based on the current concerns of the ILO. Recently, bears are topics of equality of opportunity and treatment - in 1996, we migrant workers - in 1999, the tripartite consultation - 2000 women's night work in industry. Immediately after the Governing Body on any topic, questionnaires were sent to the Member States. They analyzed the responses of the Member States and compiled in a report called 'OVERVIEW' (General Survey). These surveys produce in-depth reports, to enable the ILO to create a belief that operating effectively separate standards. Finally, they are used to determine whether certain Conventions and Recommendations suitable for time or if need be reviewed.

Observations are used to indicate multi-year problems or serious failures in the implementation of ILO Conventions, and present so that as the Committee of Experts asks the government to take an action that will ensure the full implementation of any Convention. They can also be used to welcome the progress achieved as a result of previous comments Committee. Experts Committee can add a note at the end of Observation to ask the government for it to submit its next report - before the deadline (ex. off regular reporting cycle) or to appear before the International Labor Conference. The Conference Committee on the Application of Standards that the report of the Conference on the implementation of Standards (Applications Committee) is a committee of the International Labor Conference. It is tripartite in structure, with the governments, employers and trade unions that participate actively in the consultations. It meets once a year during the International Labor Conference in June, and examines issues related to the adoption and implementation of ILO Conventions. The primary focus of his work is the review of the report of the Expert Committee.

3. Albania Impact

In the background of the financial and economic crisis, the International Labor Organization (ILO) calls for a global pact to work. But the ILO can achieve far less than intended in reality. With financial and economic crisis many people around the world are losing their jobs. This affects not only the Nordic countries, but primarily in developing countries. Who should seek work in the informal labor sector, earns less, no social security and often confronted with a greater risk of accidents. Consequently the International Labor Organization has created the need for an international minimum standard for the promotion of employment for social security and working conditions have come out more and more awareness in the past 20 years. Instead of representing the economy is a policy that was of the view that internationalization and economic policies oriented towards a free trade will have a positive impact on working conditions and minimum standards. Since it has not been like this it has been confirmed by many studies. More they showed that there were such things as wage cuts, reduction of social services and obstacles to labor unions in Western industrialized countries, even up to the salary, with which does not provide even essential food as well as bonded labor and minors, mainly in developing countries and those countries that are in the industrialization stage. To meet such a phenomenon ILO has developed standards and programs or conventions, as well as 183 has asked member states to ratify and implement those.
On 7 and 8 September 2010 Regional Conference was held with discussion topic "work legislation on collective bargaining in the public and private sector in the countries of the region and to improve its cooperation in accordance with international standards". The conference was organized by the ILO - International Labor Organization, in Durres, attended by legal expert, representatives of ministries of labor of the countries of the Region, who discussed the current state of legislation and practice in each country for talks and contracts collective as well as about the necessity of increasing regional cooperation in order to improve the situation and the achievement of international standards, a necessary step in the process of integration of the countries of the region into the European family. This is the seventh conference in each conference and discuss specific areas are covered by labor legislation. In the seventh conference was attended by representatives of the Ministry of Labor of Albania, who have brought the Albanian experience and have emphasized the importance of the exchange of experiences and the necessity of strengthening the cooperation between the countries of the region for the improvement of labor legislation in accordance with international standards.

The relevance of Albania as a field study for the exploration of the poverty–migration–development nexus can be illustrated by a few key indicators. First, there is the scale and intensity of migration; some data and a chronology of the out-movement were given in sections 3 and 4. Already in 1995, around a quarter of Albanian families had one or more of their members involved in migration; a third of these had two or more member’s abroad (Misja and Misja 1995: 225). Migrants were more likely to come from families which were larger than the national average, and generally from rural areas. These figures suggest that it was the most numerous –and thus the economically more vulnerable –families that were first affected by migration. Second, we can note the scale of remittances, estimated in the mid-1990s at $500 million per Year –higher if non-recorded transfers are included. As a result emigration has been a major factor in the financial survival of the country since 1990, and in the maintenance and improvement of the livelihood of Albania’s population. A tabulation of IMF data on the percentage weight of migrant remittances against exports of goods and services in 1998 places Albania firmly at the top of the 48 list of 30 emigration countries (Visco 2000: 21). The Albanian ratio is 154 percent, followed by Jordan at 43 percent, Bangladesh and Egypt 27 percent, India 21 percent and Morocco 20 percent. A third interesting indicator is provided in a 2002 European Commission discussion document on the migration–development nexus, which puts Albania (along with Mexico and Morocco) amongst those countries which lie in the ‘migration band’. These are countries of low-to-middle income levels (GNP per capita of around $1,500–1,800) with sustained high emigration which are at present traversing the so-called ‘migration hump’. This means that large-scale emigration will continue for some time, but not indefinitely given the generally positive economic indicators.

A full analysis of the impacts of migration –both international and internal –on the social and developmental dynamics of Albania would theoretically involve a lengthy and wide-ranging discussion. The extent of this discussion, however, is limited by the available research and documentation, which are still quite sparse, partly due to how recent the mass -migration phenomenon in Albania is and partly also because of its rapidly evolving nature, so that what might have been true in the early or mid-1990s is no longer the case today. In order to structure our discussion in this section we address four key issues on the socio-economic impact of migration for Albania: remittances, return migration, demographic effects, and some more
generalized and speculative comments on the relationship with development and poverty alleviation.

Conclusions
✓ The ILO’s Decent Work Agenda is critical for promoting effective labor migration governance, protecting migrant workers’ rights, promoting social dialogue and sustainable enterprises, and addressing labor market needs. Recent global debates on migration and development have affirmed the significance of labor migration and labor mobility, and migrant workers as agents of innovation and change for development outcomes.

✓ Labor migration can be a vehicle for balancing labor supply and demand, for stimulating innovation and for transferring and spreading skills. Labor market information systems, sound labor market needs assessment taking into account demographic factors, and skills recognition are important to avoid brain waste and deskilling, poor labor market integration and downward pressure on working conditions for all workers.

✓ Social dialogue lies at the heart of the ILO’s mandate. Through social dialogue at local, national, bilateral, sub regional, regional and international levels, the ILO’s tripartite constituents can play an important role in the development of rights-based, transparent and coherent labor migration legislation and policies, taking account of labor market needs.

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Long Path to Equal Opportunities
Albanian Diaspora in Swiss Labour Market from 1999 to 2012

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ABSTRACT
Switzerland has been a country of immigration since early industrialization. In the 1990’s the Albanian diaspora became one of the largest migrant groups in Switzerland, an estimated proportion of 10 percent of Kosovo citizens reside in Switzerland. Despite the welcoming reality towards migrants, ethnic Albanians have become one of the most prejudiced group and faced substantial discrimination. This lead to obstacles of social and economic integration into the host society. This paper will shed light on the process of labor market integration of Albanian diaspora in Switzerland over time. Therefore, we focus on the second wave of Albanian migration to Switzerland that took place in the 1990’s primarily as a result of humanitarian migration and family reunification. Contrary to the first wave of Albanian migrants, in frame of guest worker policies of 1970’s and 80’s, the second wave was not driven by labour market demand. Panel data will be applied to track the labour market integration, since the arrival of many Albanian refugees fleeing the conflict of 1999 in Kosovo. Furthermore, we discuss specific determinants of labour market integration in the Swiss context. The paper is structured in the following way: At first, we present an overview of the Albanian diaspora in Switzerland and the methodological challenge of isolating them in social surveys. Then we discuss labour market integration in Switzerland and the relevant policy framework. The third chapter derives theoretical determinants for labour market integration of Albanians in Switzerland. Finally, the research design and results are discussed and conclusions are drawn.

Key words: Albanian diaspora, labour market, integration, immigration, Switzerland

1. Introduction
Labour market integration of immigrants has been examined by many migration scholars and is considered a key indicator of immigrant’s integration into receiving societies (Lodovici 2010). In western democracies persistent employment and wage gaps between the immigrant population and natives have been observed (Angrist und Kugler 2003, OECD 2010). Hence, the scale of these differences and gaps vary significantly among European countries (Eurostat 2011). Empirical studies have identified a broad range of individual and contextual factors explaining disadvantages of immigrants in labour markets (Dustmann und Fabbri 2005, Kogan 2007, 2011). In general there has been a wide research effort on explaining labour market outcomes of immigrants in general while studies focusing on outcomes for specific groups of immigrants are less common.

In this paper, we investigate the determinants of labour market integration of immigrants
in Switzerland originating from former Yugoslavia (FY). Immigrants from the Western Balkan experience substantially higher unemployment rates in Switzerland compared to overall migrant population and natives. Generally acknowledged this has been related to skill differences (Sharani et al. 2010).

While Switzerland experience low unemployment and a dynamic labour market, immigrants from former Yugoslavia became one of the most prejudiced ethnic minority in the country (Wyssmüller 2005). Ethnic discrimination has created a major obstacle for their labour market integration (see Liebig et al. 2012). The goal of this paper is to shed light on the labour market outcomes of immigrants from former Yugoslavia to Switzerland over time. The main focus will be on reasons of migration and their category of entry. This specific migrant group is particularly suited for this investigation due to its composition of distinct subgroups. We argue that different migration pattern have a long term effect on immigrant’s labour market integration. Therefore, we distinguish between guest worker migrants, humanitarian migrants, family migrants, and second generation migrants (those who are born in Switzerland). So far there is mainly descriptive evidence that reasons for migration are correlated with labour market integration (see Cooper et al. 2014, Irastorza und Bevelander 2014). The absence of causal analyses can be partly explained by the lack of data sources for European countries linking immigration status on arrival with labour market outcomes over time. The main aim is to shed light on the knowledge gap on the employment outcomes of the different categories of migrants (Cangiano 2012). Many studies have been narrowed on labour market integration of a particular group like refugee population (see for example Bevelander und Pendakur 2009) or family migration (Irastorza und Bevelander 2014). To investigate group differences on labour market outcomes we use panel data from the Swiss Household Panel (SHP) between 1999 and 2012.

Common datasets containing information on labour market outcomes of immigrants include no questions about the legal status obtained by a migrant at arrival or the contextual motivation for the particular migration decision. By exploiting the coincidence of change in migration policy regimes in Switzerland and particular push factors of migration from Former Yugoslavia during different time periods, we are able to test indirectly the effect of different migrant categories on their long-term labour market outcome. We calculate panel data regression models including a series of socio-demographic controls. Results indicate that migrant category at entry has a long-term effect on labour market participation and individual income.

The paper is organized into three main chapters. The first chapter explores the conceptual framework of labour market integration of immigrants in receiving societies and briefly reviews the findings of previous studies on determinants of successful labour market integration. Then we proceed with the introduction of the key characteristics of Western Balkan immigration to Switzerland and its relevance for immigrant’s long term labour market integration. Afterwards we present the data and research design of the study. Finally we present the empirical results and draw conclusions for future research.

2. Trajectories of Immigrant’ Labour Market Integration

Labour market integration is often measured in terms of individual employment or occupational status and income in the comparison between natives and immigrants. A series of individual and contextual characteristics are likely to influence individual labour market outcome and hence the
gap between natives and immigrants (see Dustmann und Fabbri 2005, Fullin und Reyneri 2011, Kogan 2007, 2011). In this literature the individual human capital measured as education, skills or work experience and gender are found to be substantial explaining factors of this gap. The duration of residence in the receiving country is positively correlated with labour market integration (Bisin et al. 2011, Cebolla-Boado, H., Finotelli 2014). Over time immigrants develop their social network in the receiving country and they acquire more countryrelated skills like language fluency that is likely to increase access to job-related knowledge and job opportunities. Those migrants with strong identification with their ethnic group tend to experience lower labour market integration (Bisin et al. 2011).

Furthermore migration policies may influence the integration outcome of immigrants (Bilgili et al. 2015). The more safe and longterm the legal status of migrants in the resident country the more migrants are keen to invest into their stay there and the better opportunities they experience on the job market. A number of studies have found evidence that naturalization has a positive impact on the labour market outcome of immigrants (OECD 2010). Overall, results of these studies reveal that sociodemographic characteristics might explain only part of the unemployment and wage gap between natives and immigrants. After controlling for such socio-demographic explanation factors, migrants are still found to perform significantly worse in terms of their labour market outcome. Consequently, it is necessary to consider also other potential explanation factors. In this paper we argue that path dependency is a neglected determinant of employment and wage gap. The path of migrants in the labour market of receiving societies starts with the act of migration as such shaped by an individual motivation for migration and a legal status obtained at their arrival. The permit obtained at arrival is important because it selects migrants through the definition of entry rules and it defines the public services and individual rights available to immigrants after their entry. The legal category of entry reflects the characteristics of national migration policies. By path dependency we refer to the idea that present labour market outcome can be explained by individual migration history shaped by the context in which migration took place. The reason for migration in combination with the legal category places immigrants in a certain social and economic position that defines the starting point of individual integration trajectory from where integration process take place in an incremental manner. In the next section we discuss potential path dependency for labour market outcomes of FY immigrants in Switzerland.

3. The Case of Western Balkan Diaspora in Switzerland
In order to justify the selection of Albanians as study sample, we need to elaborate on the characteristics that distinguish the Albanian minority in Switzerland from the native society as well as from other ethnic minorities. Central to this migrant-specific characteristics is the motivation for migration. We can distinguish specific subgroups of immigrants from former Yugoslavia to Switzerland. The first wave of immigrants from this region has been experienced from the 1960’s till the end of the 1980’s. Guestworker were recruited in former Yugoslavia in order to fill labour shortages in the booming Swiss economy. These workers were employed as seasonal workers and enjoyed limited rights for residency and family reunion. The official policies were targeted on labour recruitment without long-term integration of these workers into Swiss society. Nevertheless, many seasonal workers stayed in Switzerland, got permanent residence in the end of 1980’s and enjoyed the right for family reunification. This labour-recruitment policies from Yugoslavia has been stopped abruptly in 1992 when Switzerland redefined its migration policy and faced an economic recession during the following years.
However, the immigration from Yugoslavia gained momentum by people fleeing war and conflict during the 1990’s. Many 10’000 humanitarian migrants from the Western Balkan found shelter in Switzerland during the Balkan Wars starting in the year 1991 and with a peak in the year 1998 and 1999. After this wave of asylum seekers the immigration of Albanians to Switzerland dropped substantially. Furthermore immigration continues till today but has changed again its main characteristics. While countries of former Yugoslavia are now considered safe states and asylum claims are rejected, the path of family migration became the main source of migration from former Yugoslavia to Switzerland. Since the year 2000, an estimated number of 4000 persons arrived every year to Switzerland through the channel of family migration (Sharani et al. 2010: 32). Since then no major change of migration policy regime occurred for citizens in the Western Balkans. These three groups – guestworkers, humanitarian migrants and family migrants - occurred not only in different periods, but also by different legal channels and with different motivation to migrate. The main pull factor for guestworker migrants were labour market shortages in Switzerland – and the active recruitment policy of Switzerland have been a mean to escape poverty by earning higher salaries with seasonal work in Swiss industries that enabled many to support their family at home. Migration of guestworker was mainly driven by the labour shortages on Swiss labour market and active political recruitment. The second group of FY migrants claimed asylum in Switzerland tried to escape persecution and violence during the Balkan wars. It was not labour-market driven at first place, but the existing diaspora in Switzerland facilitated the flight. Humanitarian migration in the 1990’s was initiated through the humanitarian channel.

1 Within the Schengen area (includes Switzerland) visa liberalization for Balkan countries (except Kosovo) has been implemented, but the rules of entry for the purpose of residence are not directly influenced by this change.

2 As a result of policy changes the occurrence of categorical substitution effects is likely: migrants shift from one legal avenue to another, for example instead of labour migration they shift to family migration (see de Haas 2011). Policy change is nevertheless likely to influence labour market outcome of immigrants since not all would-be migrants are able to shift to another legal channel. Furthermore, for the migrants shifting from one legal category to another (mostly more precarious) the policy change mean that they are faced with different entitlements determining their access to public services and labour market. by the push factors of war and violence. The third group of migration since the year 2000 was mainly driven by social ties and family networks.

Based on these different categories we expect different starting points in labour market trajectories. Guestworker migrants purpose of migrating is directly linked to the labour market through active recruitment and hence guaranteed job before their entry. This gives them immediate access to labour market and working experience. They were urgently demanded industrial workers in Swiss industries arriving in a period of economic boom that facilitated their labour market integration. Humanitarian refugees on the other hand were granted asylum status after an administrative process of evaluating their asylum claims. Their main purpose of migration was escaping war and persecution. Access to labour market was more indirect since a range of restrictions for asylum seekers are in place. The temporary mindset of the flight and the
Abstract

prospect of returning back home after the conflict might negatively influence their integration efforts and lead migrants to accept low-skilled or low-paid jobs. Furthermore these refugees arrived at a time period when Switzerland faced a long economic recession with unprecedented levels of unemployment. The bad economic situation and the sudden influx of the highest number of refugees in Switzerland since the second world war lead to a perception of threat posed by new arriving migrants. Family migration as the third group is as well not directly linked to the labour market. The main purpose of family migration is either establishment of a new family through marriage or reunification of an already existing family. Family ties might negatively affect labour market integration of these migrants since they enjoy an economic and social safety net within the family in the receiving society and their need for labour market activity is substantially lower. Marriages between the same ethnic group is likely to increase ethnic identification instead of social integration into receiving society. From these considerations we derive the following hypotheses about path dependency in labour market outcomes based on migration category:

Hypothesis H1: guestworker migrants experience a higher labour market participation than migration with non-work-purpose
Hypothesis H2: guestworker migrants experience a higher labour market income than migration with non-work-purpose
Hypothesis H3: the more long-term residence status of immigrants, the higher the labour market participation as well as income of immigrants

Data and Method

We test our hypotheses with a large dataset from the Swiss Household Panel (SHP) containing longitudinal data from 1999 to 2012 and including a series of questions on social-demographic and labour market related issues necessary for our investigation. Most data sources on labour market outcomes of immigrants includes questions on nationality and country of birth, but they do not allow to differentiate between different entry categories like work permit, family migration or asylum seeker. The SHP data allows under certain conditions to separate different entry categories by combining nationality with time of arrival. First we create a sample consisting only of immigrants from former Yugoslavia based on the question about the nationality of the respondents. This variable changes over time due to state transformation on the western Balkans between 1999 and 2012 and through naturalization. Furthermore the dataset reveals that respondents use the nationality question to answer their ethnicity instead of their citizenship.3 We solve these problem by including all individuals in the sample that at least at one period answered by a citizenship from Western Balkans.4 In order to separate the four different waves of FY immigration to Switzerland, we calculate a categorical variable by the time of their arrival in Switzerland. Migrants arriving before 1991 are considered guestworkers, those arriving between 1991 and 1999 are considered humanitarian migrants, the individuals migrating after 2000 are considered family migrants. Last but not least, the variable includes a fourth category of migrants that are born in Switzerland.

The determination of these different groups is facilitated by different legal regimes and contexts during different time periods that make this way of measurement an accurate operationalization. By differentiating these three groups we solve at the same time another methodological problem that immigrants who entered the country at different periods cannot be compared directly because of changing migration policy or migration flows over time. In total the sample includes
605 individual FY immigrants with a total of 3154 observations. This is a sufficiently large N to conduct statistical analysis. Surveys asking people for their motivation to

3A common observation is that people claim to be Kosovo citizens as well as Albanian citizenship. Such an arrangement does not occur often in reality. Furthermore we observe shifts over time from citizenship of Yugoslavia to citizenship of Albania. This case is also not very likely in reality. Hence we can assume that “Albanian” is referring to their ethnicity and not to their citizenship.

4 Western Balkans includes Croatia, Bosnia, Serbia, Monenegro, Serbia & Montenegro, Kosovo, Albania and Yugoslavia. Albania is included because it refers most likely to their ethnicity and not their citizenship since there has not been a substantial immigration from Albania to Switzerland. Migration are highly likely to not reflect the legal status at arrival due to the disconnect between immigration status and reasons for migration. Migrants may apply for certain types of permit just because this is for them the easiest way of entering the country. That’s why we consider our measurement to be more adequate for the purpose of this investigation. While residence status is a dynamic variable, migration status at arrival is not and allows to measure the initial starting point of integration trajectory. Labour market integration of immigrants is the result of complex causalities determined by opportunity structures characterized by individual and contextual variables. Causal analysis to isolate single determinants can be facilitated by choosing subsets that enables us to keep contextual variables like institutional and policy setting stable. The dependent variable of labour market outcome we measure by employment status (active/not active) and gross annual work income measured on a metric scale. We confine the sample to people between the age of 16 to 64 and include age in number of years as a control variable. Further socio-structural controls include gender (dummy variable) and duration of residence in number of years. The human capital we measure by level of education (low, middle, high). The residence status we measure by four different categories from Swiss citizenship, long-term residence C, annual permit B and short-time residence. Swiss citizenship is chosen as a reference category.

The longitudinal data at hand requires specific modeling techniques to take into account the panel data structure. The most common one are fixed effects (FE) and random effects (RE) both with certain advantages and disadvantages. Fixed effect is no option for our investigation since our explaining factors of migrant categories doesn’t change over time. Therefore we primarily calculate random effect models. But we also test different models like pooled OLS and “within estimators” to test how robust our findings are. The challenge is to test for potential confounders in the model, therefore we focus particularly on the variable age and duration of residence that might be strongly correlated with the migrant category. 5 By focusing on just one polity (Switzerland) we can assume that immigrants are influenced by common policy setting that just vary over time but avoid the necessity to control for different policy regimes on immigration, immigrant integration and labour market regulation between different countries.

5. Results and Conclusion
The panel data models reveal a clear pattern of labour market integration of immigrants from former Yugoslavia in the Swiss labour market. Those arrived as humanitarian immigrants in the
1990’s experience a significantly lower long-term labour market integration than guest worker migrants - both in terms of income and participation. Therefore, hypothesis H1 and H2 can be confirmed. Similarly, family migrants experience as well a significantly lower labour market participation, although these coefficients needs to be taken with a grain of salt since there are only a small number of family migrants in the sample and the ones included are observed over a shorter time period. The interaction-terms between the migrant category at entry and the age of respondents indicates that the effect of the migrant category is decreasing over time, but it remains strong and significant. The type of residence permit influences the labour market outcomes of immigrants in the expected manner. Immigrants with a Swiss passport enjoy a higher labour market participation as well as higher income compared to non-Swiss immigrants also when controlled for socio-structural variables. The most negative correlation with labour market outcomes we can find with short-time residence permit and annual and long-term permit in the middle. Although the residence permit does not prove statistical significance in every category and every model, there is nevertheless a clear pattern in all the models and coefficients: the more long-term the residence permit, the better the labour market integration. Therefore we consider hypothesis H3 as confirmed by the empirical analysis. Surprisingly the duration of residence does not prove to be an essential explanation factor, which is another hint that specific trajectories are relevant relevant for the long term labour market integration and not the simple passing of time. With higher age and higher education level we find an expected higher labour market income. The income models have more explanation power than the job-models. The income models might be more accurate to track outcome trajectories due to higher variance in the dependent variable. In this paper we analyzed labour market trajectories of immigrants from former Yugoslavia in Switzerland between 1999 and 2012. This subgroup experiences significantly higher rates of unemployment in the Swiss labour market compared to the overall immigrant population and to the natives. Does the initial circumstances of migration has a long-term effect on the labour market outcomes of migrants? We find strong evidence that the migrant category at entry influence the labour market trajectories of immigrants in the host country. Nevertheless, this study faces some methodological shortcomings, that immigrant categories are not overlapping by time. Future research should develop empirical strategies to distinguish more precise between the entry categories of migrants to track their effects on the success on the labour market.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Description</th>
<th>(1)</th>
<th>(2)</th>
<th>(3)</th>
<th>(4)</th>
<th>(5)</th>
<th>(6)</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Family size</td>
<td>2.000</td>
<td>2.000</td>
<td>2.000</td>
<td>2.000</td>
<td>2.000</td>
<td>2.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family income</td>
<td>65,000</td>
<td>65,000</td>
<td>65,000</td>
<td>65,000</td>
<td>65,000</td>
<td>65,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
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<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:**
- Family size and family income are constant across all observations.
- Education and occupation are binary variables.

**Family Characteristics:**
- Education: 0 for primary, 1 for secondary.
- Occupation: 0 for unemployed, 1 for employed.

**Income:**
- (1): income (in units of $1000).
- (2): total income (in units of $1000).
- (3): income from employment (in units of $1000).
- (4): income from self-employment (in units of $1000).
- (5): income from other sources (in units of $1000).
- (6): total income (in units of $1000).
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The trade-off between precarious jobs and labour market segmentation in Albania

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ABSTRACT

Labour markets in developing countries are in general featured by employment insecurity and labour segmentation. Most labour market research analyst address the unemployment figures as the main social and economic concern, and fail to capture and analyse the precarious, insecure, uncertain jobs. This paper deals with the trade-off between precarious employment and labour market segmentation in Albania. We define the precarious employment as holding jobs that involve involuntary part-time work, or do not cover social security contributions. Using data from the Albanian LSMS 2012, we estimate multilevel mixed-effects logistic regressions to investigate the fixed and random effects on the worker insecurity of the working poor and working non-poor, migratory experienced workers and non-migratory experienced workers. Our findings reveal that the precarious work and labour market segmentation are positively linked to the migratory experiences.

Keywords: Precarious employment, labour market segmentation, working poor, insecure jobs

INTRODUCTION

Labour market in Albania is featured by a relatively high unemployment rate which has remained at two digit level during the whole transition period. Unemployment figures alone are a cause for concern, but even these fall short to capture the larger majority of people who work, but who are engaged in the precarious, insecure, uncertain jobs. Labour markets in developing countries are often characterised by dualism (Lewis (1954). Albanian labour market exhibits problems of segmentation. As in other countries that face the problem of segmented labour markets, the main in-between line for labour market segmentation in Albania is not easy to be identified as different forms of standard and non-standard employment exhibit some features of instability, limited professional perspectives, low pay or other elements of ‘precariousness’.

The segmentation of labour market is not explicitly of the contractual context, but in the case of Albania it refers mostly to the quality of jobs as well as the informal employment. According to Labour Force Survey (INSTAT 2014), about one third of employed in Albania are classified as contributing family workers, in other words informal employment is greater when added the employees that are not entitled their rights at least for the social contributions. Moreover, segmentation
implies limited transitions to better jobs. Defining the precarious work in Albania as low quality jobs which include contributing family workers, wage employees who are not entitled to social security scheme, home workers; and workers performing a casual job, it is obvious that labour market segmentation and precariousness are strongly interconnected.

The reminder of this study is organized as following. Section 2 describes a short literature review. Sectin 3 presents the data and the methodology used to define precarious work. In section 4 are presented the empirical results, while section 5 concludes.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

Buddelmeyer et al. (2004) analyzed the contribution of business cycles and structural factors to the development of employment part-time in the EU-15 countries through combined the cross-sectional and time-series variations during the past two decades. Their analysis is used to indicate whether the part-time jobs are used likewise the flexible working agreement by firms in the EU-15 during this period. Their empirical results demonstrated the negative effect of business cycles on the progress of part-time employment. Also they found that the classification by age and gender had the significant effect related to the impact of business cycles on the rate of part-time work for young and male prime-age workers, while the effect was very poor women and insignificant for older workers. Empirical results of them emphasized the importance of institutional and structural factors likewise the determinants of the part-time employment rate. Meanwhile the authors highlighted the effective significance and positive impact of changes in the legislation related to the part-time employment developments.

Jackson (2004) showed that trade unions have the positive impact on women's wages and the wage gap between genders and the increasing of union coverage has potentially raised the wages and employment outcomes of women in precarious jobs. Also they had an impact on increasing the wage equality between women and men in the public sector, while they were neutral in private sector as a whole. The author emphasized that the challenge of trade unions is increasing the organizing efforts of women, particularly the women in the private services and highlighting the issues of equality in collective agreements through changes in public policy.

Modena and Sabatini (2010) investigated the instability of the women’s work status likewise the significant and unpersuasive determinant related to the decision to have children, particularly for young couples with low and middle incomes. Otherwise the unemployed and precariously employed women, far from being encouraged to have children due to the lower opportunity costs of leaving the labour market, were surely less likely planning to have the children. Authors emphasized the other appropriate explanatory variables like the women’s age, men’s work status and education, women’s citizenship, marital status.

Herman (2014) highlighted the main reasons and mechanism of working poverty in the EU countries during 2007-2012 including the recent economic crisis in order to identify the possible measures to be taken in the reducing of poverty-works. The author emphasized that the comparative analysis demonstrated the increasing of working poverty phenomenon in the EU countries with the significant prevalence between them. The correlation and regressive analysis results recommended that the gap amongst the national human capital and economic development could be
explained by the disparity in the rate of working poverty. The author indicated that vulnerable and precarious employment represented the considerable determinant after the high level of poverty working in the EU countries during the period under analysis. He underlined through taking into consideration the cumulative influence of multiple socio-economic development along 2007 - 2012, that results of analysis according to the foremost components and cluster analysis point out the common features and differences between EU Member States regarding working poverty, employment performances, the efficiency of welfare state system and the level of human and economic development.

Dias da Silva and Turrini (2015) analyzed the wage differences between the permanent contracts and fixed terms to EU countries using data by European Structure of Earnings Survey. They found out that the employees with permanent contracts earn on average approximately 15% more than the employees by fixed term contracts. The wage premium of permanent contracts was higher according to men, employees at middle age and with middle education and elementary professions. Also they found out that the permanent employees had the higher education and the wage premium for age. Authors investigated the differences of wage premium related to the permanent employees amongst countries and linked them with indicators of the labour market institutions. Empirical results indicated that the premium of higher wages according to permanent employees was linking to the high level of employment protection by the permanent contracts, to the high share of temporal employment in the economy, to the extended periods of the unemployment benefit and the low minimum wages.

Adams and Deakin (2014) emphasized that the coordination and risk management functions related to the standard employment relationship (SER) continues to be relevant in market economies and adapted into the new conditions. The authors showed that the SER had the complex and evolving relation related to the gender and social stratification. In the European context where SER achieved to articulate obviously, the institutional solutions linking to the precariousness and inequality were developing extremely innovative in order to avoid the simple deregulation in additional to the integrated policy responses, furthermore including the several additional regulatory mechanisms. However, the links between non-standard and precarious working have completed SER through transitions in the labour market and did not show it likewise the crucial aim according to the labour market regulation.

Deakin (2013) emphasized that the market segmentation was challenging due to its links with the poor job quality, inequality and discrimination, and on the other hand related to the efficiency toward the resource allocation. He related the segmentation to the result of contractual implementation which it was efficient in terms of individuals but according to the socially view was sub-optimal. Author found that the growth of atypical employment into several contexts and the informal employment in other contexts were the emergency responding to the SER likewise the legal model and normative benchmarking according to the precaution’s aspects of labour law, particularly the employment protection legislation.
DATA AND METHODOLOGY

Using the Albanian LSMS 2012 data we estimate multilevel mixed-effects logistic regressions to investigate the differential effects of the worker insecurity of the working poor and working non-poor and migratory vs. non migratory experienced workers.

Albeit the term precarious work is being increasingly used at the European and international level, there is not a universally accepted definition for this term and concept. In the EU, precarious work has been defined as a combination of a low level of certainty over job continuity, poor individual control over work (notably working hours), a low level of protection (against unemployment or discrimination), and little opportunity for training and career progression. This has also been referred to as employment with “low quality”. Low quality jobs include, for example, “dead-end jobs” and “low pay/low productivity jobs”. It includes temporary, seasonal, part-time, on-call, day hire, casual or short term contracts; as well as self-employment, home working and multiple jobs (Siebern-Thomas, 2005). Based on the LSMS questionnaire, we define the precarious work in Albania as low quality jobs which include the following: (1) contributing family workers; (2) wage employees who are not entitled to social security scheme; (3) home workers; and (4) workers performing a casual job.

We consider the two-level model where, for a series of M independent clusters, and conditional on a set of random effects $u_j$:

$$\Pr(y_{ij} = 1 | u_j) = H(x_{ij}\beta + z_{ij}u_j).$$

for $j = 1,\ldots,M$ clusters, with cluster $j$ consisting of $i = 1,\ldots,n_j$ observations. The responses are the binary-valued $y_{ij}$, treating $y_{ij} = 1$ if the dependant variable $ij \neq 0$, and $y_{ij} = 0$ otherwise. The outcome of our estimated regressions is the precarious work which is a dummy variable taking the value 1 if the respondent is categorized in at least one of the forms of precarious work, and zero otherwise. The regressors used in our model include: age in years; education; international migratory status; poverty status; part time vs. full time employment; and sex. Mixed-effects logistic regression is logistic regression containing both fixed effects and random effects.

MODEL RESULTS

In tables 1 and 2 (in Annex1) are presented the results of the estimated mixed-effects logistic regressions for the determinants of being engaged in precarious jobs as a function of the selected variables. The first regression is estimated to control if participation in precarious work in Albania is gendered, while the second model allows comparing the likelihood of holding a precarious job between the migratory and migratory experienced workers.

Age is statistically significant in explaining the involvement in the precarious job for men, while for women the model results show that the effect of age is not statistically significant. As migration theory states, international migration in the case of Albania is gendered. Our model results show that the effect of migration is stronger for men who have ever experienced international migration and are holding precarious jobs compared to women.

The higher is the level of education, the lower the odds of being employed in precarious work for both men and women. Having a upper-secondary vocational education or a university degree when compared with the base category of lower
primary education decreases the odds of being trapped in a situation of precariousness in the labour market. The results reveal that education is statistically significant despite the international migratory experiences of workers. Those who hold a part-time job have a higher likelihood to find themselves in precarious work compared to those evolved in regular working-hours jobs regardless of the migratory experiences or sex. While the effect of poverty status (being working-poor or not) surprisingly is not statistically significant.

**Table 1** Parameter estimates and standard errors from fixed-effects regression model for the precarious work by sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coef.</td>
<td>Std. Err</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-0.025</td>
<td>0.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International migration experience</td>
<td>0.315</td>
<td>0.106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poverty status (working poor =1)</td>
<td>0.167</td>
<td>0.130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part time work</td>
<td>0.898</td>
<td>0.097</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Education**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lower secondary</td>
<td>-0.602</td>
<td>0.198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper secondary general</td>
<td>-1.120</td>
<td>0.202</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper secondary vocational</td>
<td>-1.401</td>
<td>0.230</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary</td>
<td>-2.800</td>
<td>0.232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>1.589</td>
<td>0.331</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

No. obs = 4.057
Wald chi2(8) = 447.54
Log likelihood = -2322.47
Chi2 = 0.0000

No. obs = 2.009
Wald chi2(8) = 295.75
Log likelihood = -880.29
Chi2 = 0.0000

Base category: Lower primary education, Full time work (>= 40 hours/week)
Table 2 Parameter estimates and standard errors from mixed-effects regression model for the precarious work by migratory experienced v.s. non migratory experienced workers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Migratory experienced workers</th>
<th>Non-migratory experienced workers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Coef.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Std. Err</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>-0.021</td>
<td>0.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex (male = 1)</td>
<td>0.210</td>
<td>0.365</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poverty status</td>
<td>0.532</td>
<td>0.384</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part time work</td>
<td>0.773</td>
<td>0.256</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Education**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>Standard error</th>
<th>LR test vs. logistic regression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Chibar2(01)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower secondary</td>
<td>-2.307</td>
<td>1.046</td>
<td>65.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper secondary general</td>
<td>-2.767</td>
<td>1.051</td>
<td>668.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper secondary vocational</td>
<td>-3.494</td>
<td>1.095</td>
<td>7.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary</td>
<td>-4.254</td>
<td>1.106</td>
<td>0.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>3.213</td>
<td>1.195</td>
<td>0.0190</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

|                      |          |                |                      |
|                      | No. obs = 538 | Wald chi2(8) = 54.3 | Log likelihood = -320.65 |
|                      | No. obs = 5.528 | Wald chi2(8) = 668.36 | Log likelihood = -2910.77 |
|                      | Chi2 = 0.0000 | Chi2 = 0.0000 | |

Base categories: Lower primary education; Full time work (>= 40 hours/week)

In table 3 are shown the estimated variance components. There are random effects at the settlement area level (living in urban or rural area).

Table 3 Estimated variance components for the random effects at the urban/rural level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Random effects parameters</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>Standard error</th>
<th>LR test vs. logistic regression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Chibar2(01)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>0.1037</td>
<td>0.1065</td>
<td>65.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>0.4757</td>
<td>0.4835</td>
<td>114.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Migratory experienced</td>
<td>0.1147</td>
<td>0.1344</td>
<td>7.87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CONCLUSION
This study contributes to the wake of the theoretical debate on precariousness of jobs and its relation with the labour market segmentation, by examining the most common forms of the non standard jobs. Our findings indicate that the likelihood of having a job that is precarious decreases as age increases. The estimated model results show that the effect of migration is stronger for men who have ever experienced international migration and are holding precarious jobs compared to women. The higher is the level of education, the lower the odds of being employed in precarious work for both men and women. Having an upper-secondary vocational education or a university degree when compared with the base category of lower primary education decreases the odds of being trapped in a situation of precariousness in the labour market. The results reveal that education is statistically significant despite the international migratory experiences of workers. More in depth analysis is needed to better understand the trade-off between precarious work and labour market segmentation, because these two persistent phenomena consequently bring out further distortions in the labour market and should be placed in the policy making agenda.

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