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Migration Pressures and Immigration Policies: New Evidence on the Selection of Migrants

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Abstract

This paper aims to better understand emigration pressures in migrant sending countries by looking at the determinants of the propensity to migrate at the individual level. The analysis is based on survey data from Albania, Moldova, Egypt and Tunisia collected by the European Training Foundation (ETF) in 2006. Within this context the study focuses on (i) the self-selection of migrants in terms of skills and (ii) the impact of selective immigration policies on the migration process. The paper finds that migration pressures, or the intent to migrate, are not subject to any self-selection. However, immigration policies exert a strong out-selection that is likely part of the reasons why positive selection is found in many studies. Further, the study confirms that the EU attracts comparatively lower skilled migrants than other destinations.

JEL Classification: F22, O15, J61, O52

Keywords: Migration, Migrant Skills, EU and Migration, Selection, Immigration Policies

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1 INTRODUCTION

The migration of skilled people has become a hotly debated issue in both sending and receiving countries. In the case of the European Union (EU), for example, efforts are under way to attract skilled labor through increasingly selective immigration policies. In order to counteract a trend in immigration statistics that has left the EU with a considerably higher share of low skilled immigrants than other regions, particularly the United States (US), policies favoring immigration of highly skilled workers have been introduced in a number of European countries, including France, Germany, Ireland and the United Kingdom. Moreover, in September 2007, Franco Frattini, the EU Commissioner for Justice, Freedom, and Security, proposed the introduction of a unified “Blue Card” which aims at attracting highly skilled migrants from outside the EU.

But effectively selecting immigrants and protecting borders against low skilled immigrants is difficult. Pressures to migrate are immense, due to enormous economic inequalities between sending and receiving countries, especially in South-North migration. Even less influence can be exerted by sending countries, as there is hardly a way to establish restrictive *emigration* policies. Hence, it is in the interest of both groups of countries to understand the factors that determine the decision of individuals to migrate. It is important to learn more about the characteristics of people who decide to move, why they go abroad and where. Understanding these determinants may ultimately help to better match supply and demand of migrant labor, to predict migrant flows and to boost the success for migrants in the host country.

Against this background this paper will look at the determinants of the propensity to migrate at the individual level. Geographically, it will focus on four sending countries that neighbor the EU: Albania, Moldova, Egypt and Tunisia. The analysis will be based on survey data collected by the European Training Foundation (ETF) in 2006. The survey was designed to study migration intentions and the characteristics of migrants (and non-migrants) in sending countries and thus provides a unique micro data set. The approach to analyze characteristics is based on the theory of intentions established by the work of Ajzen (1988). In addition, the detail in the ETF data allows to expand Ajzen’s model and to define degrees of likelihood of an

individual to migrate and to identify individuals who are just before migrating. Thus, the paper will also contribute to evaluating how well intentions predict migration behavior.

Within this context the study distinguishes two steps in the migration process of the individual. The first step where migration intentions are formed and the second where those intentions are actually realized. The study will analyze the self-selection of migrants in terms of education levels, other skills and in terms of integration in their home labor market. The second step refers primarily to the role that migration policies play in restricting (or allowing) actual migration, but also to the degree to which the individuals are determined to actually move abroad. Similar to the first step, selection—that is the out-selection—of migrants will be the primary interest of the analysis.¹ Other factors that may play into selection patterns such as network effects or country specific characteristics will be also considered.

The paper finds that the selection of migrants is indeed not clear-cut. There is no evidence that migration pressures are subject to any selection pattern. This means that it is not the highly skilled in particular who want to go abroad. Rather, unemployment and network effects are important determinants for migration intentions. For the second step of realizing migration intentions, the study finds a robust positive out-selection. Education seems to be indeed a factor that is associated with overcoming migration restrictions. In terms of the destination choice of migrants, the study clearly confirms the trend that the EU receives less skilled migrants than other destinations. There is no evidence for selection of those heading to the EU while there is positive selection for those heading elsewhere. This implies that migration policies are in principle effective in selecting migrants, but such policies have not yet been successful in the EU. It may be a slow process to change this pattern due to strong network effects that uphold the flow of less skilled migrants.

The paper is structured as follows. First, the theory of intentions, its application to migration and the literature of selection will be reviewed. Subsequently, the data and conditions in the survey countries will be presented and the models for estimation introduced. The results of the estimations will be presented in section four. The study concludes with a summary of findings and elaborates on policy implications that result from this research.

¹ The analysis will use the terms self-selection and out-selection to distinguish between selectivity that occurs in migration intentions (self-selection) and through subsequent migration barriers such as immigration policies (out-selection).

2 THEORY OF MIGRATION INTENTIONS AND SELECTIVITY

2.1 *Migration and Intentions*

Most economic literature on migration agrees that the main driving forces behind migration are differences in (expected) net returns between sending and receiving countries. Thus, a migrant holding certain characteristics and skills weighs expected gains in the potential host country against costs associated with migration and gains that can be obtained when staying in the home country (Harris and Todaro 1970, Hatton and Williamson 1998, Massey et al. 1993).² Some literature also stresses that this migration decision is not only evaluated by the migrating individual alone but rather by the whole family following a strategy of risk diversification (Stark and Bloom 1985, Stark 1991, Katz and Stark 1986, Lakshmansamy 1990, Findlay 1987).

Gains are widely defined by wage differences. Nevertheless, these differences are not the only important driver of migration as is demonstrated by the fact that the poorest countries are not the ones sending the largest numbers of migrants (Massey 2005, Hatton and Williamson 2005, Waddington and Sabates-Wheeler 2005). Consequently, gains may also originate from other inequalities in the political, economic, social, demographic and geographical environment (e.g. freedom, protection, better health care); or generally better living conditions than in the origin country.

Costs associated with migration vary and may include the actual migration costs (e.g. travel costs, visa), psychic cost of leaving the home country and family, adjustment costs in the host country or risks underlying migration decisions (Schwartz 1973, Carrington et al. 1996, Bauer et al. 2000, Gordon and Molho 1995, Drinkwater 2003, Langley 1974, Hart 1975).

Over the past years difficulties in finding adequate data to study the characteristics of migrants prompted economists to make more use of intentions data and thereby study migration behavior indirectly—an approach that is also followed by in this study (Hughes and

² Also see, Sjaastad (1992), Todaro (1969), Molho (1986), Borjas (1994), Chiswick (1999) or Bauer and Zimmerman (1998) for an overview of approaches.

McCormick 1985, Papapanagos and Sanfey 2001, Drinkwater 2003 Adams 1993, Bilborrow et al. 1987). This allows looking at individual characteristics that are important to determine migration at a time when the migrant is still in the country of origin and consequently allows to look at migration pressures in more detail. The problem in these samples could be that they might suffer from selection because those who have already left the country are not captured in the surveys. However, host country data do not give a full picture of migration pressures either as it includes only those people who succeeded in migrating and who have been selected due to factors such as immigration policies and proximities between sending and receiving countries (Jasso et al. 2000). While the survey used in this study may indeed suffer from the first kind of selection, it is nevertheless possible to analyze both migration pressures and the role of immigration policies, and to disentangle ‘self-selection’ (in migration pressures) from ‘out-selection’ (by immigration policies). The great detail of the variables available allows incorporating migration constraints despite using intentions-based data.

Obviously, it is arguable whether intentions are an adequate predictor of actual migration behavior. Thus, it is fundamental to explore the link between intentions and subsequent actions. The starting point for this analysis is the work on the ‘theory of reasoned action’ of Ajzen (1985, 1988). It does not differ essentially from economic theory but approaches the migration decision from the socio-psychological angle. Based on this theory the action (emigration) is taken after the consequences have been weighed against the present status—all based on individual conditions, perceptions and expectations. Manski (1990) and Burda et al. (1998) point out that although there is some informational content in intentions-based survey questions, researchers should not expect too much from such data. Manski (1990) stresses that there is no reason that differences on the individual level between intentions and behavior should “average out” in the aggregate. Also, Bertrand and Mullainathan (2001), hint at the general problem of using subjective variables as a dependent variable in econometric modeling.

However, many studies confirm that, ‘actions’ are very well predicted by intentions (Louviere et al. 2000, Böheim and Taylor 2002, Kule et al. 2002, Papapanagos and Sanfey 2001, Sandu and De Jong 1996). And numerous studies have emphasized the applicability of the theory of intentions or reasoned action to the migration context. Although, based on internal

migration, where following the migrant is much more practical than in international migration, they find a close relation between intentions and actions.³

It should be kept in mind, however, that the costs of international migration are higher; migrants face more obstacles and practical issues might dominate individual characteristics (e.g. need more resources, different language, getting a visa and work permit etc.). It may also be possible that the time between forming intentions and the actual action or emigration is longer in international migration. This may lead to an increased tendency of the individual adjusting her intentions until it comes to international migration, though empirical evidence for this is scarce. Gardener et al. (1986) for example finds that legal obstacles had been the main reason for Philippines abandoning their plans to migrate. Moreover, van der Erf and Heering (2002) analyze survey data from Morocco asking whether the significance of the characteristics that are said to predict intentions hold when these intentions are refined including timing of migration and actual steps already taken towards migration. They find that individual characteristics under these circumstances increasingly become less important predictors.⁴ These concerns about the discrepancies between intentions and behavior will be picked up in this study and tested to the extent possible. Due to the detail in the data underlying this study, these problems can, in fact, be mitigated as will be explained further below.

Most studies of intentions in international migration start with individual human capital or socio-demographic characteristics, such as gender, age, education, work experience, unemployment and language skills as essentially determining migration decisions (De Jong et al. 1996, Grasmuck and Pessar 1991, Bilsborrow 1993, Mora and Taylor 2005, Boyd and Grieco 2004, Stark and Taylor 1991). It is beyond the scope of this review to report all results of studies that have been done, the following will consequently focus only on literature that will be particularly important for the approach in this work which is the selection of migrants in the migration process distinguishing between self- and out-selection.

³ E.g. Fuller et al. (1986), De Jong et al. (1996); Sandu and De Jong (1996); De Jong, 2000 for Thailand; Fawcett (1986); Hughes and McCormick (1985), Gordon and Molho (1995) for the UK; Lu (1999), Yang (2000), Zohry (2005) for Egypt, Burda (1993) and Burda et al. (1998) for Germany, Ahn et al. (1999) for Spain and Faini et al. (1997) for Italy, Knight and Song (2003) for China, Drinkwater (2003), Liebig and Souza-Poza (2004) for EEC and EU countries.

⁴ However, their sample size becomes very small.

2.2 *Selection of Migrants*

A recurring question when it comes to characteristics of migrants is whether migrants are positively or negatively selected, and, as indicated, this is very controversial. Borjas (1987) argues that a more unequal income distribution in the sending country leads to an adverse skill mix of migrants, thus, negative selection. This view is widely challenged; and Chiswick (1978, 1999, 2000) in particular, points out that positive selection can be expected—a higher income inequality in the sending country would only attenuate positive self-selection (Chiquiar and Hanson 2002, Liebig and Souza-Poza 2004). For example, Mora and Taylor (2005), Taylor et al. (2003) and Adams (2005) all find that human capital variables have a significant positive impact on the decision to migrate. Finally, Chiquiar and Hanson (2005) and Orrenious and Zavodny (2005) come up with general evidence for intermediate selection in Mexican migration to the US. Chiquiar and Hanson (2005) also conclude, that migrants tend to positively self-select when the costs of migrating are high, and vice versa. Overall, the underlying selection in the migration decision is ambiguous and likely different with respect to specific sending and receiving countries as well as to motives of migration. Also, findings vary according to whether host or origin data was used (Constant and Massey 2002, Burda et al. 1998, Borjas and Bratsberg 1996, Beenstock 1996, Jasso and Rosenzweig 1988).

Asymmetric information may also affect the composition of migrants. In the absence of any signaling and screening mechanisms by the host country's employers, asymmetric information would lead to adverse selection of migrants (Katz and Stark 1987). Thus, if there were a screening mechanism in place, such as private recruitment firms, the skill level of migrants would increase because the additional information would be reflected in wages (Chau and Stark 1999). The basic model of asymmetric information has another application to the context of migration. Most importantly, the migrant also lacks information about conditions in the destination country.⁵ As a result, the migration decision has to be based on expectations (under asymmetric information) that may lead to a number and composition of people willing to leave that does not correspond to the capacities of host countries to absorb these migrants.

⁵ Also see Molho (1996).

High positive expectations may lead to large numbers of people emigrating regardless of their skills. A rather pessimistic perspective would dissuade highly skilled people to leave.⁶

It is obvious that expectations mainly impact on migration intentions and thus on migration pressures. In a study on internal migration in Thailand, De Jong (2000) incorporates expectations about gains when staying at home versus to leaving. He argues that these expectations are the main factor impacting (negatively) on migration intentions. He considers migration as a two-step procedure; first, the intentions are formed influenced by various individual characteristics; then actual migration behavior occurs which he tracks using internal migration data.

2.3 Immigration Policies and Selection

In the case of international migration the realization of intentions is subject to additional constraints. Immigration policies and the restrictions they impose impact on the migration process and may prevent many from realizing their intentions. It should be expected that countries such as Australia and North America with traditionally more selective immigration policies create a positive out-selection and that countries with no such policies attract immigrants with lower average skill (educational and professional) levels.

Recently, several European countries, including France, Ireland, Germany and the UK, have begun to increasingly promote selective migration policies.⁷ On the macro level, numbers on immigrant stocks by education level in OECD countries show that the share of skilled immigrants in countries with selective migration policies is much higher than in the EU, which primarily has received unskilled migrants. For example the share of skilled immigrants in 2000 was 42.5 percent for the US, 37.8 percent for Australia and 23.1 percent in the EU15 (Docquier and Marfouk 2006).

Based on modified version of the above-mentioned macro data, Grogger and Hanson (2008) explain positive selection of individuals into migration and positive sorting of migrants across destinations using a Roy (1951) model of income maximization. They find that the selectivity of migration by skill depends on the reward to skill in the source country while skill-

⁶ McKenzie et al. (2007) present an interesting empirical study on the role of expectations in the migration decision.

⁷ See Constant and Zimmerman (2005) for a more detailed discussion.

related wage differences are the dominant factor in explaining why the some countries receive more skilled immigrants than other destinations. Further, they control for distance variables such as language, colonial ties and geographical distance and find significant impacts. For example English speaking countries seem to receive comparatively more skilled migrants. They also control for factors that are part of migration policies. For example they find that destinations with liberal refugee and asylum policies draw relatively low skilled immigrants. Unfortunately, their findings on the effect of immigration policies are limited due to lack of comparable data. Nevertheless, it is crucial to note that they find positive sorting for countries with skill-related wage differences that are mostly also those who have adopted selective immigration policies.

Belot and Hatton (2008) also find that the greater the return to skills in the destination as compared to the source country, the stronger will be the positive selection of immigrants by skill-level, but they also argue that other factors such as cultural differences, geographic distance, linguistic proximity and immigration policies play an important role. However, they are not able to measure the latter. Similarly Bruecker and Defoort (2007) find that a higher inequality in earnings in the host countries can increase the favorable selection bias, while the same holds true for the sending countries. Moreover, they control for the role of migration barriers using guest worker agreements and a free movement control and conclude that decreased migration barriers favor lower skilled migrants, which implies the opposite direction for migration policies that increase the barriers.

The latter can also be seen in a setting of migration cost reduction, which leads to the impact of migrant networks or the prevalence of diasporas on migration flows and their skill composition. Migration networks may lower migration costs and benefit lower-income individuals disproportionately (McKenzie and Rapoport 2006, 2007, Munshi 2003, Orrenius and Zavodny 2005, Petersen et al. 2004). Similarly, the size of networks also affects the use of family reunification programs, which generally allow for lower skilled migration. When migration constraints are less restrictive, traditional push and pull factors in migration are more at work, which correspond to migration pressures as Mayda (2005) finds in her comprehensive analysis of migration determinants.

While most studies fail to explicitly incorporate migration policies when analyzing selection, there is one study that focuses particularly on this issue. Aydemir (2003) analyzes the migration process using micro data of migrants going from the US to Canada where he matches data from both countries to include migrants and non-migrants in both countries. Using the Roy model as a starting point, he models two steps where he first captures the selection in the application for immigration to Canada and subsequently the selection out of the pool of applicants, thus those who have obtained a visa. He finds a negative selection in the first step and a positive selection in the second. He concludes that the selection most studies find is driven by the selection imposed by receiving countries policies. He also notes that receiving countries select from a pool of negatively selected migrants. The latter would imply that countries with no selective migration policies might in fact have negatively selected migrants.

Overall, from the theory and literature reviewed, it can be summarized that economic motives and conditions, and how they are perceived, are the primary cause of migration intentions. Economic prospects are important in both initiating and perpetuating migration. Networks are crucial in determining migration flows and their destinations, and may help reducing costs and risks for migrants and their families. At the individual level the characteristics of migrants are important as are the individual perceptions, which, based on the available information level, lead to expectations that result in particular migration intentions. Critical is to what degree intentions actually predict behavior. This is where migration policies have their impact and select migrants out of the pool of people willing to migrate. Largely, it seems that the composition of migrants in many host countries shifts towards relatively better educated people compared to the composition of people in the respective home countries, confirming a positive selection of migrants. But the studies also point out that the finding is not clear-cut and there are often many “buts” and “ifs”.

This study will contribute to this discussion by shedding more light onto migration pressures in sending countries and the role of migration constraints. It will follow the two-step approach of the previously mentioned study by Aydemir (2003) and distinguish between the willingness or intent to migrate and the realization of migration intentions. With the unique data that the study is based on, it is possible to disentangle self-selection from out-selection in these two steps and to incorporate the role that receiving countries play in the migration process. The study will also look at destination choices of migrants to find evidence of

selection patterns that have been prevalent in the past, that is in particular to test whether the EU is (still) receiving less skilled migrants than other destinations. Given that the EU has a large stock of low skilled immigrants this has implications for the effectiveness of its selective migration policies. An explanation is that the dominance of network effects and their tendency to reduce the skill composition in migration flows as well as the heavy use of the family reunification scheme may slow down the intended impact of such policies immensely. The next section will present the data that is used to analyze the above question and present the models used for the estimations.

3 DATA, STYLIZED FACTS AND ECONOMETRIC APPROACH

3.1 *The Survey Countries*

Four EU neighboring countries are included in the survey underlying this study; these are Albania, Moldova, Egypt and Tunisia. Table 1 presents their primary destination regions on the macro level showing that the EU is the main destination for Albanians and Tunisians; Moldavians primarily go to Russia and Egyptians to the Gulf region. Another table presenting the top-10 receiving countries is included in the appendix (A1). Thus, the tables show that the migrants from the survey countries go to a variety of different countries and migration flows from the sample countries are not skewed towards one region or country.

Table 1 Destination regions for immigrants from the survey countries

Host region	Albania	Moldova	Egypt	Tunisia
Latin America and Caribbean	0.5%	0.2%	0.3%	0.2%
EU27+	83.0%	10.8%	9.1%	76.4%
Eastern Europe and Central Asia	6.0%	78.1%	1.0%	2.3%
Middle East and North Africa	1.4%	3.9%	72.4%	11.7%
North America	5.6%	3.5%	7.4%	2.3%
Southern Africa	1.4%	1.6%	6.4%	5.1%
South Asia	1.2%	1.4%	1.4%	1.4%
East Asia and Pacific	0.9%	0.5%	2.0%	0.5%
Total	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Source: Parsons, Skeldon, Walmsley and Winters (2007).

Turning to the each survey country in particular. The large majority of migrants from Moldova are young, married males who usually work in the Russian construction industry for a limited period. The proportion of women is higher within the migrant flows to Italy, Greece, Spain and Turkey, where they work primarily in domestic and care services. About 40 percent of Moldavians are seasonal migrants, many of them illegal. As in the rest of Moldova's working population, most migrants have secondary education and 20-25 percent of them completed university. Permanent migrants tend to be better educated than temporary ones. Based on data that is unfortunately only available for OECD countries (and not including Russia), 45.8 percent of Moldovan immigrants in OECD countries are skilled—they represent 3.4 percent of the tertiary educated labor force in Moldova (Docquier and Marfouk 2006).⁸ Moldovan migrants remit home about 56 percent of their earnings. The share of migrants in the total active age population is estimated to be 18 percent (Okólski 2004, Goerlich and Trebesch 2008, Ghenecea and Gudumac 2004, CBS AXA 2005).

The tradition of emigration from Albania goes back 15 years to the break down of the Former Soviet Union; in 2000 8.4 percent of the Albanian labor force lived in OECD countries. Albanian migrants tend to be young, disproportionately male, better educated, and the primary destinations are Greece and Italy. 9 percent of the Albanian tertiary educated labor force lives in OECD countries and 18.4 percent of all Albanian emigrants are highly skilled. Migrant remittances represent an important source of foreign exchange for Albania. Also, it was found that migrants are generally well positioned to find a job or establish a business on their return to Albania (Castaldo et al. 2005, Kule et al. 2002, Docquier and Marfouk 2006, Papanagos and Sanfey 2001).

A study by Giubilaro (1997) found that Tunisia had a migrant potential of 19 percent of the working age population and predicted that given the labor market pressures, emigration would increase (predicted for the time 2005-2010). Recently, increasingly significant numbers of qualified workers have emigrated from Tunisia, not only towards Europe (and France in particular) but also towards the Gulf States and North America. This is likely due to the considerable improvement in the levels of education of the Tunisian population over the past 30 years, and because of high levels of unemployment among higher education graduates.

⁸ The overall selection rate is likely to be lower as most Moldovans go to Russia and they tend to be less skilled (Goerlich and Trebesch (2008)).

Unemployment among young graduates is a huge problem and rose from 10.2% in 2004 to 14% in 2005. This rate is expected to increase further, in 2016 to 21.6% and in 2017 to 26.1% (European Training Foundation 2007, Docquier and Marfouk 2006, Giubilaro 1997). The share of tertiary educated Tunisians who reside in OECD countries is 12.5 percent and the selection rate (share of skilled emigrants to all emigrants) is 14.9 percent.

Unemployment is also a crucial factor for migration from Egypt. Official estimates placed unemployment at about 9 percent in 2004, but independent estimates are closer to 20 percent. Most migrants are males migrating to Arab Gulf countries such as Saudi Arabia, Libya, Jordan, and Kuwait. Estimates of number of migrants to the Gulf countries range from 1.5 to 1.9 million, of which 88 percent migrate to the aforementioned countries. Unfortunately estimates of the share of tertiary educated migrants to the Gulf countries do not exist, but the share of tertiary educated Egyptians heading to OECD countries was 4.6 percent in 2000. The selection rate of Egyptian emigrants to OECD countries is comparatively high with 58.9 percent. Recently Egypt has also witnessed massive immigration flows from neighboring African countries due to conflict and political instability in the Sudan and Sub-Saharan Africa (Zohry 2005, Docquier and Marfouk 2006, Adams 1993).

3.2 *The Data*

The following analysis is based on a survey of potential migrants, which was conducted by the European Training Foundation (ETF) in 2006.⁹ The underlying questionnaire of the survey has five sections. The first section gathers general demographic information of the individuals interviewed. The second section concentrates on work related variables. The third identifies who principally intends to migrate abroad. Subsequently, section four extensively interviews those who want to move abroad and asks a variety of questions determining a) how likely it is that they really will migrate, b) where to and why they want to leave and c) how they envision their migration process. Section five returns to the full set of respondents and asks questions regarding the household members, dwellings and additional income sources. The survey resulted in a total sample size of 3,834 respondents, 998 from Albania, 1,009 from Moldova, 812 from Egypt and 1,015 from Tunisia.

⁹ There was another survey undertaken simultaneously which targeted return migrants. Also, another country, the Ukraine, will be added soon.

Details about the survey design can be found in the appendix. What should be mentioned here are potential problems that arise from misrepresentation of the data of the respective national population, which may result in a bias of the estimates. This concerns primarily Egypt where some villages and governorates were over-sampled to increase coverage of potential migrants to Europe. In addition individuals outside the labor force who were not in full-time education were excluded. The latter added to the already existing problem of male overrepresentation.¹⁰ Overall, comparison with other data from the countries shows that national representation was not fully achieved (see appendix for more detail). This has to be kept in mind throughout the analysis. Also, it should be emphasized that this analysis is based on data from four particular countries and results may not necessarily apply to migrants from other countries.

3.3 *Econometric Approach*

The study employs various econometric models; the three main models will be presented in the following. They all analyze the selection within migration pressures, the role of migration policies in out-selecting migrants from the source countries, and the destination choice. All models assume a logistic distribution of the error term and make use of maximum likelihood estimation. The latent variable underlying the observations of the dependent variables y is y^* , with $y^* = \beta x + \varepsilon$. This section will first explain the variables that y takes in the three mentioned models and then explain the covariates in βx which are roughly similar in all models.

The general model will estimate the probabilities that y takes a certain value (m) conditional on the covariates x and can be expressed in terms of probabilities such as

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Pr(y = m \mid x) &= \Pr(\tau_{m-1} < y^* \leq \tau_m \mid x) \\
 &= \Pr(\tau_{m-1} < \beta x + \varepsilon \leq \tau_m \mid x) \\
 &= \Pr(\varepsilon < \tau_m - \beta x \mid x) - \Pr(\varepsilon \leq \tau_{m-1} - \beta x \mid x) \\
 &= F(\tau_m - \beta x) - F(\tau_{m-1} - \beta x)
 \end{aligned}$$

¹⁰ Women are also underrepresented in Tunisia. In general, educated people tend to be overrepresented but there is no sign that this occurred in a systematic way. The survey was unfortunately not corrected by weights to lessen these issues.

with F being the cumulative distribution function (CDF) of the logistic function underlying the model. Further, $y=m$ if $\tau_{m-1} < y^* < \tau_m$ for $m=1 \dots J$ possible outcomes of y , where the τ 's are the thresholds or cut-off points that are mainly relevant in the ordered logit model and equal to zero for the binary logit.

The first model looks at factors that determine the probability of a person to have intentions to move to another country. Accordingly, the main purpose of this regression is to analyze the factors that determine the intent to migrate independent from any restrictions that these individuals may eventually face to actually leave the country and enter a host country. A binary (logit) model¹¹ with $m=1$ is used and therefore the model will estimate the probability of $y=1$ or the person intending to move:

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr(y = 1 | x) &= \Pr(\tau_0 < y^* < \tau_1 | x) \\ &= F(\tau_1 - \beta x) - F(\tau_0 - \beta x) \\ &= F(\tau_1 - \beta x) \end{aligned}$$

This model uses the full sample of potential migrants and non-migrants and has 1912 cases that intend to move and 1922 that don't.

The second model is estimated for the subsample of people who intend to move, thus, all results are conditional on this selection. The purpose is to identify the role of immigration restrictions resulting from migration policies in selecting migrants out of the pool of people willing to move. The model is an ordered logit model with 3 different outcomes, thus $m=3$.¹² The following probability expressions hold for each outcome:

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr(y = 1 | x) &= \Pr(\tau_0 < y^* < \tau_1 | x) \\ \Pr(y = 2 | x) &= \Pr(\tau_1 < y^* < \tau_2 | x) \\ \Pr(y = 3 | x) &= \Pr(\tau_2 < y^* < \tau_3 | x) \end{aligned}$$

Accordingly, the dependent variable measures the propensity to migrate in three increasing categories and the individuals who intend to move are further categorized by increasing likelihood that they will actually do so. The three categories follow the answer to the question: does this person actually intend to realize her intentions? The answers are

¹¹ For the purpose of identification τ is set to zero in a binary model and the model only includes the constant within βx .

¹² The model satisfies the proportional odds or parallel lines assumption.

y=1=Maybe, y=2=Likely and y=3=Certain. The calculation of the categories is not based on one question from the questionnaire only, but rather on a set of variables asked to determine how close potential migrants are to really migrating. For example, the questionnaire asks how likely it is that a person moves within the next 6 months or within the next two years. Further, individuals are asked about their ability to finance migration and about whether they know about, and already possess, certain prerequisites for migration such as passport, visa, health record, work contract or approval for study. The answers to this very rich set of questions allow a detailed classification that distinguishes between the degrees of likelihood of migration. Still, it should be kept in mind that this data is limited on a-priori intentions and that we do not observe who will actually migrate.

The third model is a multinomial logit where the choice of destination is explained. Individuals choose either to be a non-migrant, to go to the EU (as of 2006) or to go to another destination.¹³ The probabilities of the outcomes are defined by

$$\Pr(y = m | x) = \exp(\beta_m x) / \sum_{j=1}^M \exp(\beta_j x)$$

$\Pr(y=j)$ has to sum to 1 over all choices ($\sum_{j=1}^M \Pr(y = j) = 1$) and only M-1 of the probabilities can be determined independently, which can be solved by setting $\beta_1 = 0$, resulting in

$$\Pr(y = 1) = 1 / 1 + \sum_{j=2}^M \exp(\beta_j x)$$

$$\Pr(y = m) = \exp(\beta_m x) / 1 + \sum_{j=2}^M \exp(\beta_j x)$$

for each outcome. With M=3 outcomes like in this particular case, there are M-1=2 equations that are defined independently from each other. As the category of non-migrants forms a natural base category, both outcomes, EU and non-EU, will be compared to this base category.¹⁴ The dependent variables of all models are summarized in Table A2 in the appendix.

¹³ The sample size does not allow any further distinction.

¹⁴ The discrete set of choices in the model satisfies the Independence from Irrelevant Alternatives assumption (IIA), i.e., that the error term is extreme value distributed and not correlated across choices.

While the dependent variable to be explained and the sample choice vary across the models, the determinants are similar though not equal. For all models with the underlying latent variable $y^* = \beta x + \varepsilon$ the equation to be estimated is

$$\beta x = \beta_0 + \beta_1 D + \beta_2 E + \beta_3 LM + \beta_4 I + \beta_5 M + \beta_6 C$$

D represents a set of demographic variables such as age, sex, marital status, household (HH) size, number of children and relation to head of HH. These are the same across the models. E represents variables of education, which are of primary interest in this analysis. Included in E is a set of dummies with primary (and no education), secondary and post-secondary or tertiary education and language skills. The schooling level variable is the same across the models.¹⁵ In the data, looking at all countries the share of higher skilled people is higher among the “migrants” than among the general population. Additionally E includes language skills.¹⁶ The language variable is ‘speaking an additional language to the mother tongue’ for models 1 and 3 and. As more specific information is available for the subsample of migrants, the language variable in model 2 is ‘how well the person speaks the language of the intended destination country’.

LM represents a set of variables associated with labor market characteristics of the individuals and is the same across all models. It includes the labor market status, level of work performing and industry dummies. The descriptive data of the labor market status reveals that in total especially unemployed people intend to move, followed by casual workers and students. For people who intend to stay in their home country the number of professionals and those who work in middle and high management (high) is much higher. In general, most individuals work or have worked in the industry of public administration and utilities (not counting those who never worked or didn’t answer the question) followed by petty trade and agriculture. Nevertheless, among those who intend to move, construction seems to be the leading industry.

¹⁵ The construction of this variable attempts to harmonize across education systems corresponding to information from the World Higher Education Database by the International Association of Universities (IAU) and the UNESCO (UNESCO, IAU WHED).

¹⁶ Language skills are a very important factor for integration in the host country, see Chiswick and Miller (1995, 2003).

Further, the models control for several income related variables (I). The survey gives information on several income sources, including yearly salary¹⁷, income from other family members, rent, savings, pensions and social assistance, land, or remittances. Further, whether individuals consider their income as sufficient and finally how they compare to other households in the community. The remittance variable is also likely to capture migration network effects because those who receive remittances are more likely to migrate as they have links to the remittances sending country and are more exposed to the idea of migration.¹⁸

Other migration relevant variables are included in the control of M in the equation. For the first model this only includes the variable of having a family member abroad (network effect) which proved as a very important determinant in many studies and is relevant for 10 percent of the entire sample but almost 17 percent for those who have intentions to move; and whether someone is aware of a migration assisting program of private or governmental nature. The latter concerns 15 percent of the sample. As expected, this percentage is lower for those who intend to stay (7 percent) and higher for those who want to move (24 percent). It should be noted that the latter variable might be associated with endogeneity problems. Awareness of programs requires active involvement of the person, and as a result, there may be a tendency for people who intend to migrate to also be more aware of such programs. This technical problem could in principle be addressed by a two-step procedure using a suitable instrumental variable. A useful variable could be the distance of an individual's residence to such program or another characteristic of how (easy) an individual can access information about the program. Unfortunately, such a variable is not found in the data and could not be constructed as geographical information on respondents is practically absent. In the second model this variable further distinguishes between those who know about a program and those who also want to participate. Endogeneity is less problematic due to the use of the subsample, the coefficient should clearly be positive.

In the third model the variable of having a relative abroad is modified to having a household member in either the EU or other locations, which is obviously an important control

¹⁷ In Euro and adjusted by 2006 average exchange rates.

¹⁸ See Van Dalen et al. (2005b), Rapoport and Docquier (2005), Lucas and Stark (1985), Poirine (1997), VanWey (2004), Stark (1999) for more details.

when it comes to destination choice. This variable tests whether networks direct migration flows to a certain destination, which is most likely the case.

As mentioned before, the subsample used for the second model allows taking advantage of more specific migration information. Thus M includes more variables. The first is the source of information about the destination country. The idea is that sources, which give better information, will allow the information recipient to have an advantage in realizing migration, e.g., overcome migration constraints. The data shows that people mainly acquire information via friends abroad (if “other” is ignored). This is particularly prevalent in Egypt and Tunisia. Having been abroad, as a source of information, is comparatively higher in Albania and Moldova. Overall, formal institutions—i.e. schools, agencies, and other organizations—seem to have a minor role as an information resource. It is assumed that information from relatives, from having been abroad and from institutions offer the best or most accurate information.

Further, M includes reasons for migrating (personal, improve living standard, improve work, other). In the descriptive data the primary reason why people intend to migrate seems to be either to improve work options or, more generally, living conditions. By country it can be seen though that this is particularly the case in Albania and Moldova, while in Tunisia and Egypt personal reasons become more relevant. Included is also whether the migration decision is influenced by others, which is the case for about one third of migrants.

All models also control for country specific characteristics by including country dummies C.

4 RESULTS

Within the models presented above the analysis will primarily look at variables that are relevant in determining the selection of migrants. This does not only refer to educational variables but also variables with respect to labor market characteristics, income and network variables. Also it will be tested whether country specific characteristics are of importance when it comes to the selection of migrants. The analysis will start analyzing the first model and the intent to move. Then it will move on to presenting the results of the second model, which will be complemented by several additional estimations to check for the robustness of the results. Finally, results from the destination choice model will be presented which will emphasize the status of the EU in the selection discussion and her desire to increasingly select immigrants.

4.1 *The Intent to Move*

The results from the first model are presented in Table 2, which shows odds ratios and marginal effects for the full set of variables included in the model. This model explains the characteristics that individuals who intend to migrate abroad have compared to those who have no such intentions. Regarding the education variable, the probability of migration intentions significantly increases by about 6.7 percentage points for tertiary compared to primary educated people. The effect of secondary education is small and insignificant. This is in line with other studies,¹⁹ but already at this point, it should be noted that there is much less selection in migration pressures when country differences are taken into account (see further below). It appears that education is a variable that is significantly different across countries.

Language skills are positively associated with the intent to migrate.²⁰ While speaking two or more foreign languages proved insignificant and is excluded from the analysis, speaking more than one language, is significant with a marginal effect of 9 percentage points.

The labor market status of a person is categorized in six different categories: being an employee (base outcome), employer, casual worker, student, unemployed and unknown or never worked.²¹ Only unemployment seems to have an impact. Compared to employees, the odds of moving increase by 84 percent (the marginal effect is 15 percentage points). This is in line with problems identified in the labor markets of the respective countries. Many unemployed people—young ones in particular—see migration as a way (back) into employment (Castaldo et al. 2005, Zohry 2005).²² An interaction of education and labor market status reveals, in fact, that particularly higher educated people who are unemployed or have not yet worked, are more likely to be among the migrants. The result of this interaction is presented in Figure 1 showing the predicted probabilities of intending to move by education. This also adds to the notion that the education effect may not be clear-cut.

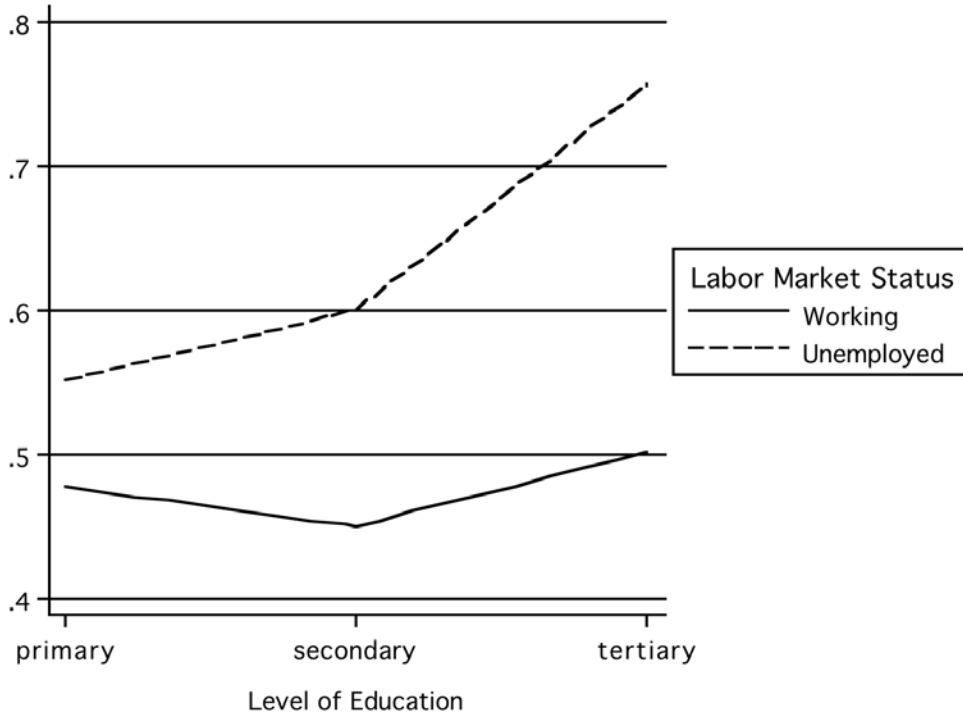
¹⁹ See Van Dalen et al. (2005a), Sadiqi (2007), Goerlich and Trebesch (2008), Hay (1980) and others.

²⁰ Also see Mora and Taylor (2005).

²¹ It should be noted that the latter is just a control for those for whom no answer or other information was given and has no value for interpretation. However, keeping the observations allows maintaining the sample size.

²² Running the model including an interaction of age and labor market status however, did not confirm this.

Figure 1 Predicted Probabilities of the Intent to Move: Effect of Education by Employment



The work level of people is of particular interest with respect to selection. People working in a higher work level seem to be less likely to move, which is intuitive as they are well established in their home country and are not as much subject to emigration pressures. This finding tends to be ignored by policy makers in receiving countries who develop visa policies such as the blue card, which target exactly this group. Evidence in the past has shown that while these visas sound appealing (e.g. the German “Green Card”) they do not necessarily attract many migrants.²³ The estimates from this model confirm such evidence.²⁴

There are a variety of variables with respect to a person’s financial resources. The income variables include salary and various income sources such as rent, savings or other family members. The overall tendency is that these resources are inversely related to migration intentions as previous research found, but the effect is not very large.²⁵ The big exception is income from remittances, which has a large positive impact. Remittances also capture network

²³ See Focus-Migration (2005) for the German Green Card.

²⁴ Note that even though one might suspect a collinearity problem in the estimates due to correlation between education and work skill level, this is not a problem in this model.

²⁵ Also see Stark (1991), Goerlich and Trebesch (2008), van Dalen et al. (2005b), Adams (1993), McKenzie and Rapoport (2004), (Skeldon 1997), Waddington and Sabates-Wheeler (2005).

effects, which have a positive impacts in most studies as they do in this data. This finding is reinforced by the strong effect of the variable “presence of a family member abroad”, which increases the odds of migration by 24 percent.

Table 2 Dependent: Intent to Migrate

Dependent: Intent to Migrate (Logistic Regression)		Odds Ratio	Marginal Effect	
Demographics	Age	0.988 (0.010)	-0.003 (0.003)	
	Female	0.495*** (0.046)	-0.173*** (0.022)	
	Married	0.988 (0.150)	-0.003 (0.038)	
	Number of children	0.820*** (0.053)	-0.050*** (0.016)	
	Relation to household head (HHH) (HHH and spouse=base outcome)	Child, grandchild or other of HHH	1.181 (0.158)	0.042 (0.033)
HH Size	Family abroad	1.040 (0.028)	0.010 (0.007)	
	Family abroad	1.242 (0.172)	0.054 (0.034)	
	Education (primary=base outcome)	Secondary	0.988 (0.104)	-0.003 (0.026)
	Tertiary/Post-secondary	1.308* (0.180)	0.067* (0.034)	
Language	Language	1.438*** (0.150)	0.090*** (0.026)	
	Labor market status (employed=base outcome)	Employer	1.007 (0.131)	0.002 (0.033)
		Casual worker	1.171 (0.162)	0.039 (0.035)
		Student	0.865 (0.156)	-0.036 (0.045)
		Unemployed	1.840*** (0.272)	0.150*** (0.035)
Never worked/Unknown	Never worked/Unknown	1.142 (0.255)	0.033 (0.056)	
	Industry of work (public admin. and utilities=base outcome)	Petty Trade	0.958 (0.190)	-0.011 (0.049)
		Manufacturing and mining	1.350 (0.268)	0.075 (0.049)
Construction	1.896*** (0.374)	0.157*** (0.046)		

Dependent: Intent to Migrate (Logistic Regression)

	Odds Ratio	Marginal Effect	
	Commerce	1.146 (0.219)	0.034 (0.048)
	Agriculture	1.139 (0.229)	0.033 (0.050)
	Hotel, restaurant and domestic services	1.696*** (0.333)	0.130*** (0.047)
	Transport and repair	1.700*** (0.326)	0.131*** (0.046)
	ICT and other	1.448* (0.278)	0.092* (0.047)
	Never worked/Unknown	0.866 (0.282)	-0.036 (0.081)
Skill level of work (high=base outcome)	Medium	1.660*** (0.228)	0.126*** (0.034)
	Low	1.740*** (0.265)	0.137*** (0.037)
	Never worked/Unknown	1.450 (0.436)	0.093 (0.074)
	Salary	0.997*** (0.000)	-0.001*** (0.000)
Income satisfaction ("ok"=base outcome)	Sufficient	1.096 (0.130)	0.023 (0.030)
	Not sufficient	0.706*** (0.070)	-0.087*** (0.025)
Income compared to others in the community ("same"=base outcome)	Better	1.165 (0.151)	0.038 (0.032)
	Worse	1.076 (0.110)	0.018 (0.026)
Income from	Remittances	2.254*** (0.283)	0.198*** (0.029)
	Other family member	0.861* (0.076)	-0.038* (0.022)
	Agriculture	0.839 (0.104)	-0.044 (0.031)
	Savings	1.028 (0.128)	0.007 (0.031)
	Rent	0.635*** (0.089)	-0.112*** (0.033)
	Social assistance and pension	1.102 (0.104)	0.024 (0.024)
	Land owner	1.002	0.000

Dependent: Intent to Migrate (Logistic Regression)		Odds Ratio	Marginal Effect
		(0.119)	(0.030)
Awareness of programs assisting migration		4.599***	0.345***
		(0.568)	(0.023)
Country dummies	Egypt	0.897	-0.027
(Albania=base outcome)		(0.120)	(0.033)
	Moldova	0.528***	-0.157***
		(0.078)	(0.035)
	Tunisia	1.469***	0.096***
		(0.208)	(0.035)
Number of observations		3618	3618
Log-likelihood		-2078.02	-2078.02
Chi-square		610.774	610.774
Pseudo R-Square		0.171	0.171

Note: * p<0.10, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01, standard errors in parentheses

Overall, a first result is that better educated people who are less integrated in the home labor market (unemployed or working in lower skilled jobs) tend to migrate. However, testing the robustness of the result by estimating the model for each country separately, shows that education variable is different across countries. In fact, the result is driven by the sample from Egypt. Excluding Egypt from the sample results in an insignificant coefficient for tertiary (and secondary) education. The previously found selection in the model explaining the intent to move is consequently a special case of Egypt.²⁶ This finding requires introducing interactions to further investigate the effect of education. This allows specifically looking at the problem that education may be driven by the sample from Egypt, and simultaneously keeping the larger sample size.²⁷ The results are presented in Table 3.

²⁶ On the one hand the explanation may lie within the survey design, i.e. the special problems that interviewers faced in Egypt, which do not rule out that highly skilled people intending to migrate were systematically over-represented. However, according to other empirical evidence Egypt also has a high selection rate (share of skilled emigrants among all emigrants) of almost 60 percent in OECD destinations (Docquier and Marfouk (2006)).

²⁷ Sample size became more critical in the by country models.

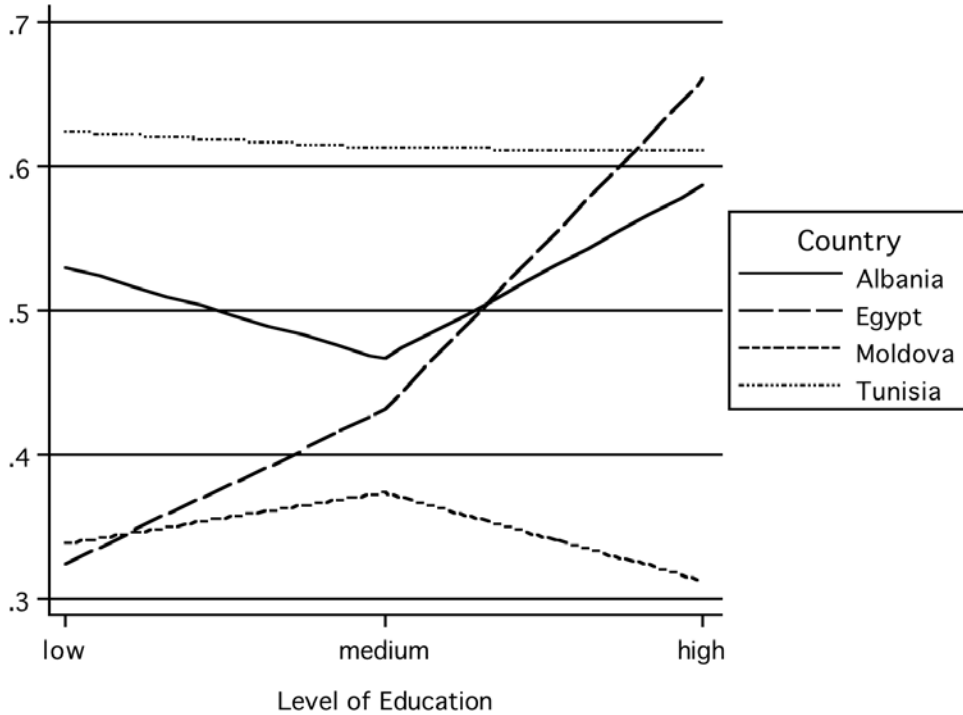
Table 3 Dependent: Intent to Migrate - Interactions between education and countries

Dependent: Intent to Migrate (Logistic Regression)		Odds Ratio
Education (primary=base outcome)	Secondary	0.774 (0.141)
	Tertiary/Post-secondary	1.258 (0.341)
Country dummies (Albania=base outcome)	Egypt	0.424*** (0.109)
	Moldova	0.452*** (0.101)
	Tunisia	1.474* (0.335)
Interactions	Secondary*Egypt	2.039** (0.580)
	Secondary*Moldova	1.506 (0.384)
	Secondary*Tunisia	1.228 (0.324)
	Tertiary/Post-secondary*Egypt	3.232*** (1.142)
	Secondary/Post-secondary*Moldova	0.707 (0.259)
	Secondary/Post-secondary*Tunisia	0.751 (0.244)
Number of observations		3618
Log-likelihood		-2061.33
Chi-square		629.193
Pseudo R-Square		0.178

Note: * p<0.10, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01, standard errors in parentheses

The results show that the effect of tertiary compared to primary education on the probability to move is now insignificant. As Albania is the base outcome for the countries, this effect concerns tertiary educated Albanians. The interaction effects of Egypt with tertiary and secondary education are positive and significant. All other interaction effects are insignificant. All country dummies remain significant indicating that there are other country specific characteristics that they capture. What all this means for the predicted probability to move is visualized in Figure 2, which shows the effects of education by country.

Figure 2 Predicted Probabilities of Intent to Move: Effect of Education by Country



The results lead to the conclusion that the positive impact in the sample is indeed driven by Egypt and for the three other countries there is no selection when it comes to education of people intending to move. Thus, it is not the educated in particular who create migration pressures and want to move abroad. However, as the brain drain literature well documents, it is often the educated that arrive in the host country, which leads to the second step in the migration decision where not only intentions but also constraints such as those imposed by immigration policies are of concern. This step will be addressed in the next section.

4.2 Realizing Migration under Immigration Policies

The model describing this second step in the migration process is, as mentioned before, an ordered logit model that only includes the subsample of those who intend to migrate. The model takes migration intentions further, and identifies characteristics associated with people who are extremely likely to migrate in the near future (outcome “certain”), likely to do so (outcome “likely”) or uncertain in the realization of their migration intentions (outcome “maybe”). Again, the dependent variable is calculated based on answers from questions regarding (i) personal evaluation of the likelihood to migrate and (ii) requirements that have

already been fulfilled to actually migrate (e.g. having a visa). Also, it should be noted that the model is based on the “selected” subsample and thus it should be emphasized that the model compares within the group of intending migrants and does not include non-migrants. The results are reported in Table 4. The first column shows odds ratios and subsequent columns marginal effects for each outcome. The results are as follows:

Tertiary or post-secondary education has a positive impact on the propensity to migrate compared to primary education; the proportional odds increase by 85 percent. Thus, better-educated people who intend to migrate are more likely to actually do so. With respect to language skills, speaking the language of the country where the individual would move to fluently compared to ok does not increase the propensity to migrate; but having very poor language skills clearly seems to be an obstacle to moving. The proportional odds decrease by 33 percent compared to the reference group. It should also be emphasized that poor language skills are also problematic for transferring ones skills to the new host country.

The variable on labor market status brings new insights. The skill level of work has no significant effect and is in fact excluded from the model.²⁸ Unemployment is now insignificant. Unemployment may signal a lower ability to sustain in the workforce and therefore this group does have increased pressure to migrate. However, it could be speculated that unemployed people may face more obstacles when realizing migration intentions than working people and therefore they are not more likely to realize their intentions. The effect of being a student decreases the propensity to migrate significantly. The outcome for students could result from the possibility that students are usually still outside the labor market and at the beginning of their career. As a result, they may be less certain about their career path and consequently less sure about emigration.

Salary seems to matter much less. Subjective and relative income measures, or income satisfaction measures, however, seem to make more of a difference. Considering one’s income as sufficient is positively associated with the intensity of migration intentions. This may reflect the ability to better finance migration and make use of services facilitating migration. It should be stressed that this does not contradict the previous finding (and that of other studies) of

²⁸ The reason for this is that the fourth category of those who didn’t answer ‘don’t work or never worked’ is almost identical to the last category of the industry dummies (controlling for a similar group) and as it does not add to the explanatory power for the model while the industry dummies have, the variable can be dropped.

increased migration intentions among the less wealthy because the model addresses only those who intend to migrate.²⁹ The effect for people who feel relatively deprived compared to their neighbors is insignificant.

Income from remittances is again positive and significant, indicating that network effects are also important in the step of realizing migration intentions. It could be, for example, that the person sending remittances is a family member and facilitates migration through a family reunification scheme.

The reason why people migrate is interesting to look at, though only indirectly linked to the selection of migrants. Personal reasons seem to be of primary importance to realize migration intentions, the dummies comparing to this base outcome all have a negative coefficient (though not always significant). Personal reasons include people saying they generally did not see a future in their home country, they were following their family, or left to get married. Hence, this dummy may also capture some network effects and the finding could correspond to migration through channels of family reunification, a channel that has generally allowed migration of more low skilled people.³⁰

Another migration relevant variable is the source from which the individuals gather their information. Better information may make it easier to tackle migration requirements imposed by the host country. The variable of information source in the model has seven categories: information from the news media, institutions, friends abroad, immediate family abroad, having been abroad, and other. It is assumed that the information from institutions, family abroad and having been abroad results in “better” and more credible information.³¹ Indeed, compared to news, which is the base outcome, these three categories have a significant positive effect. Having been abroad has the strongest impact and increases the odds by 124 percent. It should be noted that the share of return migrants in this group is likely to be very small due to the

²⁹ See Adams (1993), Burda et al. (1998) and McKenzie and Rapoport (2004).

³⁰ Note that the significance of personal reasons does imply that economic reasons (better work and eventually better living) are not major reasons for people to migrate but they seem to be less relevant for realizing migration intentions and are possibly more important for forming migration intentions.

³¹ Also see McKenzie et al. (2007).

survey design; so these people are mostly visitors.³² This variable also captures network effects as it incorporates the category of having a relative abroad.³³

Table 4 Dependent: Propensity to Migrate

Ordered logit model		Odds ratio	Certain Marg.Effect	Likely Marg.Effect	Maybe Marg.Effect
Demographics	Age	0.979 (0.013)	-0.004 (0.002)	-0.001 (0.001)	0.005 (0.003)
	Female	0.777* (0.106)	-0.041* (0.021)	-0.016 (0.010)	0.057* (0.031)
	Married	1.463** (0.283)	0.067* (0.035)	0.016** (0.006)	-0.083** (0.041)
	Number of children	0.954 (0.095)	-0.008 (0.017)	-0.003 (0.005)	0.011 (0.022)
Relation to household head (HHH) (HHH and spouse=base outcome)	Child, grandchild or other of HHH	0.968 (0.158)	-0.005 (0.028)	-0.002 (0.009)	0.007 (0.036)
	HH Size	0.949* (0.030)	-0.009* (0.005)	-0.003* (0.002)	0.012* (0.007)
Ability to speak language of potential destination country ("ok"=base outcome)	Very well	0.936 (0.111)	-0.011 (0.020)	-0.004 (0.007)	0.015 (0.027)
	Hardly	0.664*** (0.086)	-0.065*** (0.019)	-0.029** (0.012)	0.094*** (0.031)
Education (primary=base outcome)	Secondary	1.046 (0.133)	0.008 (0.021)	0.002 (0.007)	-0.010 (0.028)
	Tertiary/Post-secondary	1.853*** (0.302)	0.112*** (0.032)	0.018*** (0.005)	-0.130*** (0.032)
Labor market status (employed=base outcome)	Employer	0.928 (0.147)	-0.012 (0.026)	-0.004 (0.010)	0.017 (0.036)
	Casual worker	1.206 (0.201)	0.033 (0.030)	0.008 (0.005)	-0.041 (0.035)
	Student	0.592*** (0.113)	-0.079*** (0.026)	-0.043** (0.021)	0.123*** (0.046)
	Unemployed	0.996 (0.148)	-0.001 (0.025)	-0.000 (0.008)	0.001 (0.033)

³² In fact, respondents were asked whether they had been abroad for more than six months and had returned more than 3 months and less than 10 years ago; if this was the case they were asked the „partner“ survey on return migrants which is not touched upon in this paper.

³³ It should be noted that literature also shows that network effects lower the migration cost and make the migration option more feasible to poorer and less educated people. Consequently they may disproportionately benefit lower skilled migrants and reduce the selection. Unfortunately this hypothesis could not be tested with this data due to sample size issues. (see Massey et al., (1994, 1998); Munshi (2003); Winters et al. (2001), Bauer et al. (2000), Hugo (1981), Taylor (1986), Gurak and Caces (1992), Groenewold (2001), McKenzie and Rapoport (2004)).

Dependent: Propensity to Migrate

Ordered logit model		Odds ratio	Certain Marg.Effect	Likely Marg.Effect	Maybe Marg.Effect
Industry of work (public admin. And utilities=base outcome)	Never worked/Unknown	2.289*** (0.574)	0.167*** (0.058)	-0.010 (0.020)	-0.157*** (0.039)
	Petty Trade, Commerce, hotel, restaurant	1.241 (0.241)	0.037 (0.035)	0.010 (0.007)	-0.047 (0.042)
	and domestic services	1.572** (0.337)	0.083* (0.043)	0.011*** (0.004)	-0.095** (0.042)
	Manufacturing, mining and agriculture	1.359 (0.277)	0.054 (0.038)	0.012** (0.005)	-0.066 (0.042)
	Construction, transport and repair	1.076 (0.221)	0.012 (0.035)	0.004 (0.010)	-0.016 (0.045)
	Other or never worked/Unknown	1.001*** (0.001)	0.000*** (0.000)	0.000** (0.000)	-0.000*** (0.000)
Income satisfaction ("ok"=base outcome)	Salary	0.988 (0.146)	-0.002 (0.025)	-0.001 (0.008)	0.003 (0.033)
	Not sufficient	1.537*** (0.182)	0.073*** (0.020)	0.022*** (0.007)	-0.095*** (0.026)
Income compared to others in the community ("same"=base outcome)	Sufficient	1.259 (0.188)	0.041 (0.027)	0.009** (0.004)	-0.050 (0.031)
	Worse	1.029 (0.128)	0.005 (0.021)	0.002 (0.006)	-0.006 (0.028)
Income from	Better	1.334** (0.170)	0.051** (0.023)	0.012*** (0.004)	-0.062** (0.027)
	Remittances	0.840* (0.087)	-0.030* (0.018)	-0.009* (0.005)	0.039* (0.023)
	Other family member	1.007 (0.158)	0.001 (0.027)	0.000 (0.009)	-0.002 (0.035)
	Agriculture	1.277 (0.208)	0.043 (0.030)	0.009** (0.004)	-0.053 (0.034)
	Savings	1.094 (0.206)	0.015 (0.033)	0.004 (0.008)	-0.020 (0.041)
	Rent	0.950 (0.112)	-0.009 (0.019)	-0.003 (0.007)	0.012 (0.026)
	Social assistance and pension	1.101 (0.168)	0.016 (0.026)	0.005 (0.008)	-0.021 (0.034)
	Land owner	0.752**	-0.047**	-0.018*	0.064**
Reason for leaving	Improve living				

Dependent: Propensity to Migrate

Ordered logit model		Odds ratio	Certain Marg.Effect	Likely Marg.Effect	Maybe Marg.Effect
conditions					
(personal=base outcome)		(0.098)	(0.021)	(0.009)	(0.030)
	Better work	0.802 (0.109)	-0.036* (0.022)	-0.014 (0.009)	0.050 (0.031)
	Other	0.975 (0.183)	-0.004 (0.031)	-0.001 (0.011)	0.006 (0.042)
	Migration decision influenced by others	0.795** (0.091)	-0.038** (0.018)	-0.014* (0.008)	0.052** (0.026)
Information about destination country via:					
(news=base outcome)	Institution	1.784* (0.593)	0.112 (0.072)	0.003 (0.015)	-0.116** (0.058)
	Family at home	0.811 (0.201)	-0.033 (0.037)	-0.015 (0.021)	0.048 (0.058)
	Friends abroad	1.117 (0.195)	0.019 (0.030)	0.006 (0.008)	-0.024 (0.038)
	Been abroad	2.245*** (0.541)	0.161*** (0.055)	-0.004 (0.017)	-0.157*** (0.039)
	Other	0.523*** (0.089)	-0.104*** (0.026)	-0.043*** (0.014)	0.147*** (0.039)
	Family abroad	1.519* (0.356)	0.077 (0.047)	0.010** (0.004)	-0.087* (0.045)
Migration assisting programs					
	Would participate	1.622*** (0.237)	0.089*** (0.029)	0.012*** (0.004)	-0.101*** (0.028)
	Is aware but no participation intend	1.151 (0.189)	0.024 (0.029)	0.006 (0.006)	-0.031 (0.035)
Country dummies (Albania=base outcome)					
	Egypt	1.674*** (0.304)	0.094*** (0.036)	0.015*** (0.004)	-0.109*** (0.036)
	Moldova	1.807*** (0.326)	0.109*** (0.036)	0.015*** (0.005)	-0.124*** (0.035)
	Tunisia	0.634** (0.117)	-0.073*** (0.028)	-0.031** (0.015)	0.104** (0.043)
	Cut1	0.347** (0.177)			
	Cut2	2.533* (1.292)			
Number of observations		1762	1762	1762	1762
Log-likelihood		-1726.1	-1726.1	-1726.1	-1726.1
Chi-square		317.985	317.985	317.985	317.985
Pseudo R-Square		0.093	0.093	0.093	0.093

Note: * p<0.10, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01, standard errors in parentheses

The country dummies are significant in all models, which implies that there are country specific characteristics that play a role in the likelihood of migration. Again, it could be that the result of a present selection could be driven by Egypt as it was in the first model. However, interactions between country and education variables do not confirm this and the results are robust towards excluding Egypt from the sample. Thus, it can be concluded with relative confidence that the selection of migrants does not happen in the willingness to migrate, but in the willingness and ability to realize ones intentions. It is in this second step that selective immigration policies are of importance as they indeed seem to affect the probability of migration.

Now, it is possible to argue that the way the dependent variable in the ordered logit model has been computed is arbitrary and results may not be true. This problem can be addressed by estimating models for the variables that are included in the calculation of the categories in the dependent variable. This is not possible for all of the variables due to sample size issues but it is for most of them. The results are presented in the appendix in Table A3.

In the first of such models the dependent is the number of documents that a person has and that are necessary to emigrate. The variable can take the values 1 to 5 and takes the features of count data. The model is thus estimated using a poisson regression (column 1) and, despite its small data range, also estimated using OLS regression (column 2). The results confirm the positive selection of migrants and are robust to excluding Egypt.

Further, the model is estimated applying a number of logit models measuring the probability of having a certain document: more than one document (column 3); more than two documents (column 4); a passport (column 5); a health record (column 6). Finally, a logit on whether migration can be financed or not is estimated (column 7). Except for the last model, all the models confirm the positive selection of the second model (also when excluding Egypt).

Having estimated the model with respect to migration requirements, it is also necessary to estimate a model on the variable that lets the respondents evaluate their likelihood of migration within the next 6 months because it is also part of the calculation of the dependent in

the model of the previous section.³⁴ However, the results should confirm the outcomes from the first model as it captures the willingness to move rather than migration policies. The results are presented in the appendix Table A4. The model is estimated as an ordered logit with 5 categories ranging from ‘very unlikely’ to ‘very likely’ in the dependent variable (see column 1). As not all variables satisfy the parallel lines assumption, the same model is also estimated as a general ordered logit model allowing multiple equations (column 2 – 5). It turns out that education is insignificant and the models do not show any selection.

More generally, it should be noted that all models above do not control for destination specific characteristics or “pull” factors such as for example return to skills in the destinations. While these are certainly important determinants for the selection of migrants they are not subject in this analysis and cannot be captured with this data.

Summing up the results, the additional regressions confirm that migration policies seem to induce a positive out-selection of migrants from a pool of people that is willing to migrate and that is not selected. The question is subsequently what this implies for the EU of which many countries have introduced selective immigration policies, or are about to do so.

4.3 Destination Choice and Selection

The following analysis will study destination choice of potential migrants on the individual level. It will distinguish between the EU as one destination and non-EU as a second destination, which includes several Gulf countries, Russia, North America, Australia and Turkey.³⁵ The analysis will primarily focus on the question whether the level of education is indeed different for migrants heading to the EU than for those heading to non-EU destinations.

The results from estimating the multinomial model of destination choice are presented in Table 5. Estimation results are shown as relative risk ratios (RRR) and marginal effects. Generally, the relative risk ratio states that for a unit change in the predictor variable, the relative risk ratio of outcome *m* relative to the reference group is expected to change by a factor of the respective parameter estimate, given that all other variables in the model are held constant (at the mean). Thus, they are somehow similar to odds ratios and an a more intuitive way to present results from multinomial logit models than the bare coefficients. Consequently,

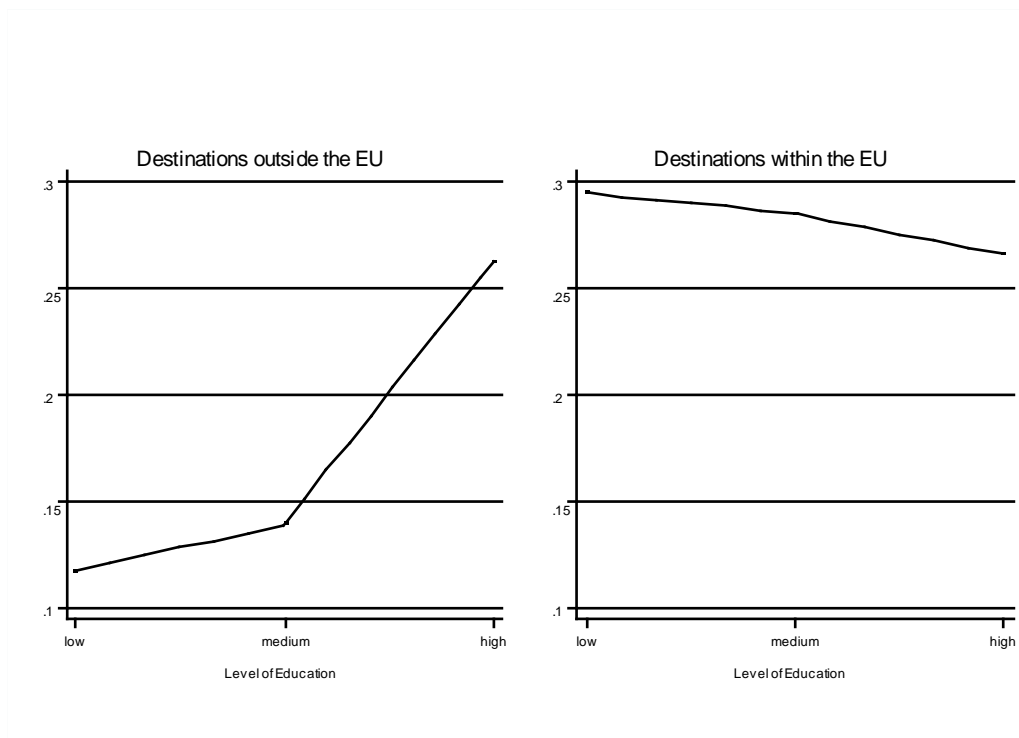
³⁴ There is also a similar variable taking the next 2 years as a time frame.

³⁵ The destinations had to be combined due to sample size issues.

for this specific model, EU and “other” are both compared to the reference group of non-migrants and special attention should be given to variables where these ratios are different for both choices (each compared to the reference group).

The selection in terms of the education level of migrants who choose non-EU destinations, is much stronger compared to the EU. Tertiary education versus primary education has a much higher relative risk ratio for non-EU than the EU outcome, which is insignificant. This translates into an increase in the odds of choosing non-EU over EU of 143 percent when changing from primary to tertiary education. This does not mean that there are no highly skilled people deciding for the EU but it suggests that migrants to the EU are not positively selected and rather exhibit similar levels of education to their home country. Figure 3 illustrates the effect of education by presenting the predicted probabilities for each destination.

Figure 3 Predicted Probabilities of Destination Choice: Effect of Education



With respect to the labor market status, unemployment is a significant push factor for migration. Still, the relative risk ratio for choosing one of the destination alternatives versus the other when being unemployed compared to employed is roughly the same. This also applies to

the negative and significant effect of a higher work level (managerial or professional) versus low skilled, though the effect is a bit smaller for the non-EU destination.

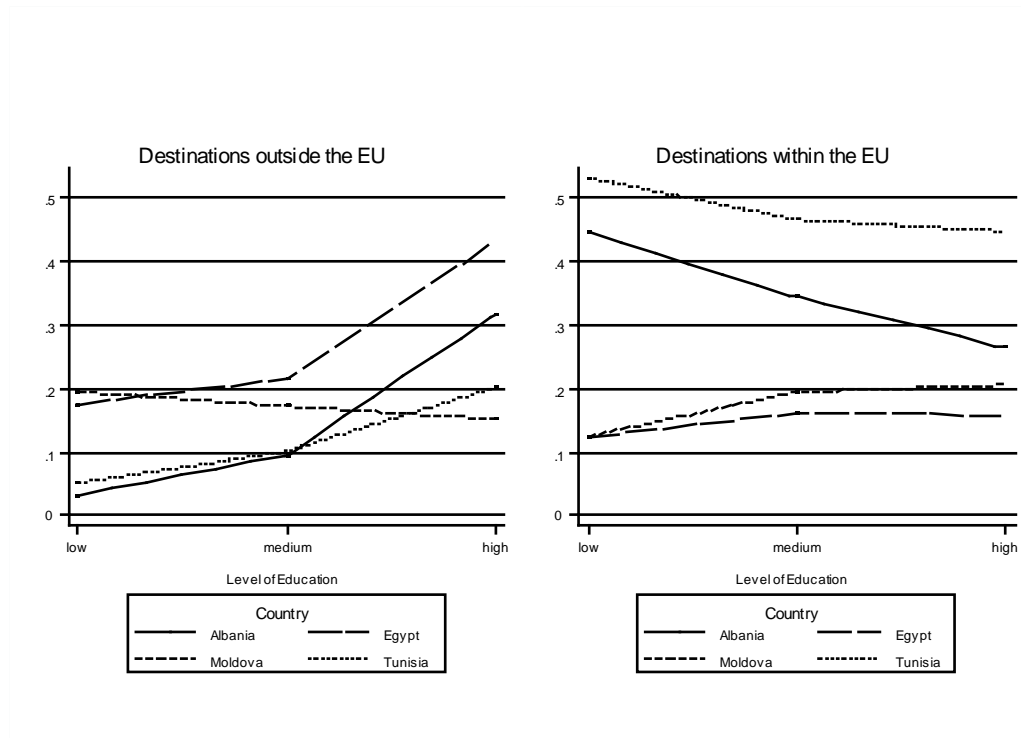
Regarding salary and other income sources the two choices compare pretty similar to the non-migrant group. This also extends to income from remittances, which is also a strong indicator for existing migration networks. The more important network variable is the location of a HH member living abroad—in the non-EU region or in the EU. The coefficients show exactly the expected signs and are highly significant. For the non-EU outcome the relative risk ratio for a HH member in the EU is 0.44 and in the non-EU region 1.66. For the EU outcome it is the other way with relative risk ratios of 1.87 for a HH member in the EU, and 0.49 for a member in non-EU countries. Consequently, existing networks or links between people in sending and receiving countries greatly impact on the destination choice.

To sum up the results, it can be said that higher education is especially important for non-EU destination countries. The latter result is to some extent driven by migrants going to North America and Australia which have the strongest selective migration policies.³⁶

The above results also show significant country dummies and make again a strong case to look at the impact of education by including potential differences across countries, as this has been important in the first model. Hence, the next model includes interaction effects of the country and education variables. The results are presented Figure 4, which shows how the predicted probabilities of both outcomes vary by education and country.

³⁶ This result was indicated by another model where “other” was further split up into North America and “other”. It is not presented here as it did not satisfy all assumptions (IIA) and the sample size of the North America choice was critical.

Figure 4 Predicted Probabilities of Destination Choice: Effect of Education by Country



The figure shows that except for Moldova the predicted probabilities of outcome non-EU strongly increase with increasing education. The curves are rather flat for the EU outcome, or even decrease in education (Tunisia and Albania). Thus, the interaction model confirms the result of selection among people heading towards non-EU destinations and no selection of those heading to the EU.³⁷ The notion from macro data on immigration stocks—unfortunately only available for OECD countries—that the EU has been receiving a greater proportion of low skilled immigrants than other destinations is consequently confirmed and selective migration policies in EU countries have not yet been effective.

³⁷ Obviously, also excluding Egypt does not change the results.

Table 5 Dependent : Destination Choice: EU versus Non-EU

Dependent : Destination Choice: EU versus Non-EU						
Multinomial Logit Model		Non-EU	EU	EU	Non-EU	Non-Migrant
		RRR	RRR	Marg.Effect	Marg.Effect	Marg.Effect
Demographics	Age	0.991 (0.014)	0.989 (0.011)	-0.002 (0.002)	-0.001 (0.002)	0.003 (0.002)
	Female	0.422*** (0.052)	0.492*** (0.053)	-0.104*** (0.019)	-0.079*** (0.014)	0.184*** (0.021)
	Married	1.069 (0.207)	0.995 (0.167)	-0.004 (0.032)	0.009 (0.025)	-0.005 (0.036)
	Number of children	0.919 (0.080)	0.752*** (0.056)	-0.054*** (0.015)	0.002 (0.011)	0.053*** (0.016)
Relation to household head (HHH) (HHH and spouse=base outcome)	Child, grandchild or other of HHH	1.189 (0.206)	1.211 (0.180)	0.031 (0.028)	0.014 (0.021)	-0.046 (0.032)
	HH Size	1.015 (0.038)	1.070** (0.032)	0.013** (0.006)	-0.001 (0.005)	-0.012* (0.007)
Family living abroad (no family abroad= base outcome)	In EU	0.436*** (0.130)	1.868*** (0.319)	0.174*** (0.040)	-0.106*** (0.019)	-0.068* (0.041)
	In other	1.660** (0.354)	0.491** (0.137)	-0.142*** (0.035)	0.115*** (0.039)	0.027 (0.048)
Language	Speaks more than one language	1.532*** (0.216)	1.404*** (0.165)	0.050** (0.022)	0.040** (0.016)	-0.090*** (0.024)
Education (Secondary=base outcome)	Primary	1.199 (0.177)	0.991 (0.111)	-0.010 (0.022)	0.025 (0.019)	-0.015 (0.025)
	Tertiary/Post-secondary	2.753*** (0.488)	1.130 (0.172)	-0.031 (0.028)	0.152*** (0.030)	-0.121*** (0.033)
Labor market status (employed=base outcome)	Employer	0.934 (0.161)	0.882 (0.123)	-0.022 (0.027)	-0.004 (0.022)	0.026 (0.029)
	Casual worker	1.199 (0.212)	1.180 (0.181)	0.026 (0.030)	0.017 (0.023)	-0.043 (0.034)
	Student	1.121 (0.227)	0.606*** (0.114)	-0.099*** (0.030)	0.038 (0.029)	0.061 (0.038)
	Unemployed	1.505** (0.268)	1.530*** (0.233)	0.069** (0.032)	0.035 (0.025)	-0.104*** (0.033)
	Never worked/Unkno	0.899	0.862	-0.025	-0.008	0.033

Dependent : Destination Choice: EU versus Non-EU						
Multinomial Logit Model		Non-EU	EU	EU	Non-EU	Non-Migrant
		RRR	RRR	Marg.Effect	Marg.Effect	Marg.Effect
	wn	(0.283)	(0.196)	(0.042)	(0.039)	(0.050)
Industry of work (public admin. And utilities=base outcome)	Petty Trade, Commerce, hotel, restaurant and domestic services	0.927	1.855***	0.137***	-0.039*	-0.098**
		(0.180)	(0.366)	(0.043)	(0.023)	(0.041)
	Manufacturing, mining and agriculture	1.116	1.739***	0.116**	-0.014	-0.102**
		(0.239)	(0.367)	(0.047)	(0.026)	(0.044)
	Construction, transport and repair	1.286	2.615***	0.203***	-0.019	-0.184***
		(0.273)	(0.540)	(0.047)	(0.025)	(0.043)
	Other or never worked/Unknown	0.747	1.649**	0.119***	-0.060**	-0.059
		(0.149)	(0.356)	(0.045)	(0.023)	(0.044)
Skill level of work (low=base outcome)	High	0.745*	0.556***	-0.099***	-0.015	0.115***
		(0.127)	(0.090)	(0.027)	(0.021)	(0.031)
	Medium	0.973	0.881	-0.025	0.002	0.023
		(0.138)	(0.101)	(0.023)	(0.018)	(0.025)
Income satisfaction ("ok"=base outcome)	Salary	0.998***	0.997***	-0.000***	-0.000***	0.001***
		(0.001)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
	Not sufficient	1.140	1.285**	0.046*	0.006	-0.052*
		(0.163)	(0.162)	(0.025)	(0.018)	(0.027)
	Sufficient	0.797*	0.719***	-0.057***	-0.015	0.072***
		(0.101)	(0.077)	(0.021)	(0.016)	(0.023)
Income from	Regular remittances	2.556***	3.118***	0.195***	0.061	-0.256***
		(0.847)	(0.957)	(0.069)	(0.052)	(0.058)
	Occasional remittances	2.325***	2.325***	0.133***	0.074***	-0.207***
		(0.414)	(0.356)	(0.034)	(0.028)	(0.032)
	Other family member	0.884	0.828*	-0.033*	-0.008	0.041*
		(0.098)	(0.083)	(0.020)	(0.014)	(0.021)
	Agriculture	0.593***	1.048	0.032	-0.066***	0.034
		(0.075)	(0.108)	(0.021)	(0.013)	(0.022)
	Savings	1.126	0.829	-0.042	0.025	0.017
		(0.172)	(0.126)	(0.028)	(0.022)	(0.030)

Dependent : Destination Choice: EU versus Non-EU						
Multinomial Logit Model		Non-EU	EU	EU	Non-EU	Non-Migrant
		RRR	RRR	Marg.Effect	Marg.Effect	Marg.Effect
	Rent	0.658** (0.120)	0.666*** (0.100)	-0.063** (0.026)	-0.036* (0.020)	0.099*** (0.030)
	Social assistance and pension	1.264* (0.157)	1.035 (0.108)	-0.004 (0.020)	0.031* (0.017)	-0.027 (0.023)
Country dummies	Egypt (Albania=base outcome)	2.195*** (0.393)	0.378*** (0.059)	-0.204*** (0.021)	0.170*** (0.032)	0.034 (0.034)
	Moldova	1.428* (0.288)	0.376*** (0.061)	-0.190*** (0.023)	0.094*** (0.031)	0.096*** (0.035)
	Tunisia	1.280 (0.257)	1.686*** (0.249)	0.099*** (0.031)	0.007 (0.026)	-0.106*** (0.034)
	Constant	0.264*** (0.133)	0.760 (0.322)			
Number of observations		3626		3626		
Log-likelihood		-3086.86		-3086.86		
Chi-square		924.632		924.632		
Pseudo R-Square		0.16		0.16		

Note: * p<0.10, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01, standard errors in parentheses

5 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this paper was to generate new insights for the discussion of the migration decision and selection patterns that occur within the migration process. The study finds that migrants are not self-selected in their intentions to move abroad. Rather, migration intentions, or pressures to migrate, arise among unemployed people or people working in lower skilled jobs. However, there is a strong positive out-selection when it comes to the realization of intentions. The findings support that this out-selection is mainly created by restrictions imposed by migration policies. This means that policies have no impact on the development of migration pressures but on the propensity to realize migration intentions.

Further findings show that there is no selection among people intending to go to the EU but there is strong selection among those heading to other destinations, which refer to North America and Australia, countries that have traditionally had very selective immigration

schemes, and the Gulf countries, the main destination for Egyptians where numerous temporary migration programs between these countries induce a rather high skilled migration. Consequently, the data confirm the trend of macro data that the share of highly skilled immigrants is indeed much higher in countries with selective immigration policies than in countries with no such policies. The EU has only recently started to introduce more selective policies and in the past migration, has primarily allowed immigration through family reunification schemes.

These findings have several implications for EU immigration policies. The data, which was collected in 2006, shows that the selective schemes that many EU countries have recently introduced have not yet been successful. Thus, the data confirm the concerns about the composition of immigrants of many EU countries. The reason for this may be found in the strong network effects, also shown in this analysis, and in the fact that EU countries have comparatively large family reunification schemes that seem to dominate the selective immigration schemes. The EU already has a lower skilled composition of migrants compared to North America or Oceania. As a result these immigrant stocks may induce a similar composition of migrants, in particular when migration barriers are lower such as is the case of family reunification schemes. In addition, the migration cost reducing effect found in many studies disproportionately affects lower skilled migrants.

Also, countries with selective migration policies are often those with labor markets offering higher skill premiums to highly skilled workers. As shown by very recent research such as Grogger and Hanson (2008), these labor market opportunities immensely impact on the kind of immigrants the respective countries attract. In addition, the language advantage that these mainly English speaking countries have over the EU with its diverse languages, make the skills of migrants more transferable to the host labor market. Thus, selective immigration policies in these countries dominate other immigration schemes and are complemented by sound labor market opportunities.

Given these observations, it is unlikely that the EU will compensate her emigration of researchers and other skilled people as well as her skills gaps by immigration of highly skilled people. The EU has to be more realistic and acknowledge that it will take quite some time to change the trend of lower skilled immigration. It will also be necessary to intensify efforts to

fill skill gaps from within, for example by increased activity in research and development, more opportunities for researchers in the EU and improved incentives to get educated in fields that are in great demand. The EU has already started to move in this direction and it needs increase these efforts to reach up to its competitors.

Also, it would be useful to conduct a more honest debate about immigrants and their skills, as it should not be forgotten that many sectors rely on immigrant labor particularly for low skilled jobs. Thus, the EU's demand in these sectors corresponds to migration pressures. It may be worth looking into options to select migrants within the low skill level. For example, governments could identify sectors that clearly depend on immigrant labor and make immigration into these sectors easier while increasing barriers elsewhere.

For highly skilled migrants, it must be kept in mind that while they are indeed effective in selecting migrants it takes more than the mere selective migration policies. Governments must create incentives in the labor markets so that migrants actually make use of (existing) selective migration schemes. While it is hard to tell firms to offer more attractive wages, they could come up with tax incentives and other privileges. Also, they could better inform employers about visa procedures of hiring foreign skilled workers. Another important issue is also to improve the recognition of foreign skills that has proved to be inadequate in many countries. In fact, there is an emerging body of literature that deals with so-called brain waste.³⁸ Difficulties in approving their skills create additional barriers to enter the country and might drive migrants to other destinations where they can actually perform in their profession.

In any case, no matter what migration policies the EU engages in, the policies should also be communicated to the sending countries also. This is where people decide to move and choose their destination based on the information they have. The EU should ensure that people who have the intent to migrate know about the opportunities in the EU. If migrants keep thinking in traditional patterns that good education is the ticket to the US, Canada or Australia, it is even less likely that the composition of skills in migration flows will shift.

³⁸ See e.g. Kapur and McHale (2005) and Mattoo, Neagu and Ozden (2008)

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7 Appendix

7.1 *The ETF Survey*

The survey is designed to represent the national population in the age range of the 18 to 40 year-old people. In each country, a 2-stage cluster sample was selected, in which first-stage clusters were a minimum of 4-6 regions chosen to represent the geographical diversity of the country, and second-stage clusters were villages, communes or municipalities chosen to represent the geographical diversity of the selected regions. The detail of this cluster selection had been agreed with the respective local service providers who carried out the interviews, such that at both stages (selection of regions, and selection of villages, communes or municipalities), areas with high and low levels of development, areas of high and low levels of international migration, and both rural and urban areas were included. Initially, it was anticipated that 1000 interviews would be conducted in each country with interviewers following random routes for their interviews and certain procedures in choosing the interviewee within the respective households to minimize any selection bias.

The analysis of representation of the respective national population in the survey data was undertaken by comparing the data to other data sources from the country (Census and Surveys) and UN population data. For Egypt comparison with other data shows that men are highly overrepresented – a problem already mentioned. Further young people are strongly overrepresented for both men and women. With respect to Tunisia men in general are highly overrepresented compared to the Tunisian population. Further, based on UN data, men are overrepresented in their mid 20s and women in the early 20s while census data shows comparable ages for men and only women tend to be younger. Education was not possible to assess (due to lack of comparable data) except that the illiteracy rate in the census is much higher than in the sample indicating that the people in the sample are better educated.

Also, the sample of Albanians differs from its population but not to such an extent. The analysis shows that men are overrepresented in the sample. The comparison of the age-distribution illustrates that individuals in the sample tend to be younger than the national population. This is caused by a high overrepresentation of young men in the sample; women are slightly older than the national population. With respect to education primary educated men

and especially women are underrepresented, hence the individuals in the survey are better educated than the Albanian population of the respective age group.

Representation in the sample from Moldova is much better with respect to age and gender and more questionable when it comes to education. Educated people are overrepresented and individuals with general secondary education are underrepresented. Splitting by gender reveals that men with vocational education are highly oversampled and that females are highly underrepresented in primary education and overrepresented in vocational and university education

7.2 Tables

Appendix-Table 1 Top 10 Host Countries of Migrants from the Survey Countries

Host country	Albania	Host country	Moldova	Host country	Egypt	Host country	Tunisia
Greece	403856	Russian Federation	277527	Saudi Arabia	1015124	France	364498
Italy	167439	Ukraine	222478	Jordan	127018	Germany	61508
Germany	92415	Romania	27679	United States of America	123192	Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	15689
United States of America	39861	United States of America	20674	Occupied Palestinian Territory	103457	Israel	9949
TFYR Macedonia	25001	Germany	14845	Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	55681	Saudi Arabia	9545
Serbia and Montenegro	13451	Israel	14305	United Arab Emirates	48652	Serbia and Montenegro	8851
Pakistan	8568	Kazakhstan	9531	Lebanon	45602	Syrian Arab Republic	8509
Canada	6281	Pakistan	7941	Oman	42090	United States of America	8458
Kuwait	4158	Greece	6358	Germany	40852	Democratic Republic of the Congo	8167
Switzerland	3426	Latvia	6216	Italy	38706	Belgium	7995

Source: Parsons, Skeldon, Walmsley and Winters (2007).

Appendix-Table 2 Intent to move abroad by country, N=3834

	Albania	Egypt	Moldova	Tunisia	Total
Non-Migrant	56%	53%	56%	37%	50%
Migrant	44%	47%	44%	63%	50%
of whom					
- maybe	38%	29%	28%	45%	36%
- likely	38%	40%	42%	37%	39%
- certain	25%	31%	30%	17%	25%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Migrants and non-migrants by destination, N=3838

	Albania	Egypt	Moldova	Tunisia	Total
Non-migrant	56%	53%	56%	38%	50%
Other	8%	31%	22%	12%	18%
EU	36%	16%	22%	50%	32%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Appendix-Table 3 Dependent: Immigration Requirements

Dependent: Immigration Requirements		# of doc IRR	# of doc Coef.	Doc_1+ Odds Ratio	Doc_2+ Odds Ratio	Passport Odds Ratio	Health record Odds Ratio	Finance Odds Ratio
Demographics	Age	1.006 (0.005)	0.007 (0.005)	1.046** (0.019)	1.001 (0.017)	1.069*** (0.019)	0.952** (0.020)	0.975* (0.015)
	Female	0.894** (0.047)	-0.103** (0.051)	0.844 (0.153)	0.796 (0.147)	0.887 (0.157)	0.644** (0.142)	0.768* (0.123)
	Married	1.205** (0.092)	0.186** (0.080)	1.880** (0.495)	1.363 (0.385)	2.014*** (0.522)	1.266 (0.441)	2.245*** (0.516)
	Number of children	0.954 (0.035)	-0.057 (0.036)	0.833 (0.117)	0.800 (0.111)	0.703** (0.104)	1.077 (0.211)	0.887 (0.102)
	Child, grandchild or other of HHH (HHH and spouse=base outcome)	0.957 (0.070)	-0.040 (0.074)	1.181 (0.255)	0.624* (0.169)	1.150 (0.252)	0.897 (0.315)	0.960 (0.194)
	HH Size	0.957*** (0.013)	-0.035*** (0.011)	0.870*** (0.035)	0.910* (0.050)	0.910** (0.036)	0.894 (0.064)	0.989 (0.039)
Ability to speak language of potential destination country ("ok"=base outcome)	Very well	0.971 (0.045)	-0.024 (0.044)	1.016 (0.152)	0.873 (0.152)	0.968 (0.142)	0.875 (0.183)	1.297* (0.183)
	Hardly	0.898* (0.053)	-0.086* (0.050)	0.715** (0.116)	0.767 (0.162)	0.752* (0.120)	1.025 (0.245)	0.891 (0.137)
Education (primary=base outcome)	Secondary	1.057 (0.052)	0.050 (0.043)	1.024 (0.158)	1.357 (0.268)	0.878 (0.135)	1.915*** (0.429)	0.982 (0.140)
	Tertiary/Post-secondary	1.376*** (0.087)	0.289*** (0.060)	2.638*** (0.572)	2.633*** (0.639)	1.999*** (0.419)	2.174** (0.678)	1.147 (0.214)
Labor market status	Employer	0.927	-0.074	1.078	0.624*	1.112	0.828	0.980

Dependent: Immigration Requirements		# of doc	# of doc	Doc_1+	Doc_2+	Passport	Health record	Finance
		IRR	Coef.	Odds Ratio	Odds Ratio	Odds Ratio	Odds Ratio	Odds Ratio
(employed=base outcome)		(0.061)	(0.065)	(0.235)	(0.151)	(0.238)	(0.242)	(0.198)
	Casual worker	0.982	-0.006	1.403	0.885	1.111	0.983	0.696*
		(0.060)	(0.060)	(0.304)	(0.218)	(0.237)	(0.260)	(0.135)
	Student	0.791***	0.173***	0.685*	0.652	0.647**	0.582	0.498***
		(0.061)	(0.067)	(0.154)	(0.184)	(0.143)	(0.206)	(0.111)
	Unemployed	0.994	-0.013	1.157	0.774	0.870	0.564**	0.637**
		(0.063)	(0.062)	(0.229)	(0.176)	(0.170)	(0.163)	(0.116)
	Never worked/Unk nown	1.045	0.027	2.206**	0.536	1.476	0.823	1.388
		(0.088)	(0.082)	(0.778)	(0.234)	(0.482)	(0.358)	(0.442)
Industry of work (public admin. And utilities=base outcome)	Petty Trade, Commerce, hotel, restaurant and domestic services	1.103	0.082	1.559*	1.073	1.787**	0.920	0.854
		(0.086)	(0.081)	(0.410)	(0.287)	(0.460)	(0.305)	(0.221)
	Manufacturi ng, mining and agriculture	1.117	0.095	1.286	1.480	1.421	0.951	0.976
		(0.093)	(0.086)	(0.357)	(0.427)	(0.390)	(0.334)	(0.270)
	Construction , transport and repair	1.024	0.012	1.628*	0.702	1.919**	0.623	0.895
		(0.083)	(0.082)	(0.440)	(0.209)	(0.510)	(0.224)	(0.241)
	Other or never worked/Unk nown	0.932	-0.062	1.092	0.700	1.481	0.572	0.688
		(0.076)	(0.082)	(0.307)	(0.201)	(0.413)	(0.213)	(0.185)
	Salary	1.000	0.000	1.001	1.001	1.001	1.000	1.003***
		(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)
Income satisfaction ("ok"=base outcome)	Not sufficient	0.984	-0.011	1.192	0.893	1.114	0.558**	0.456***
		(0.056)	(0.050)	(0.221)	(0.195)	(0.195)	(0.148)	(0.079)
	Sufficient	1.165***	0.143***	1.482**	1.237	1.631***	0.786	1.558***
		(0.057)	(0.047)	(0.229)	(0.218)	(0.247)	(0.173)	(0.214)
Income compared to others in the community ("same"=base outcome)	Worse	0.927	-0.054	0.855	0.844	0.946	1.223	0.887
		(0.054)	(0.051)	(0.169)	(0.205)	(0.181)	(0.338)	(0.166)
	Better	0.954	-0.041	0.852	1.025	0.733*	1.215	1.350**
		(0.050)	(0.051)	(0.144)	(0.190)	(0.121)	(0.281)	(0.205)
Income from	Remittances	1.055	0.053	1.255	1.297	1.186	0.975	1.262
		(0.053)	(0.051)	(0.218)	(0.237)	(0.199)	(0.199)	(0.196)
	Other family member	1.026	0.026	1.128	1.010	1.060	0.795	0.766**
		(0.046)	(0.042)	(0.160)	(0.165)	(0.144)	(0.158)	(0.099)
	Agriculture	1.104	0.097	1.247	1.298	1.128	1.486	1.058
		(0.071)	(0.061)	(0.240)	(0.309)	(0.215)	(0.366)	(0.191)

Dependent: Immigration Requirements		# of doc IRR	# of doc Coef.	Doc_1+ Odds Ratio	Doc_2+ Odds Ratio	Passport Odds Ratio	Health record Odds Ratio	Finance Odds Ratio	
Reason for leaving (personal=base outcome)	Savings	0.936 (0.066)	-0.066 (0.066)	0.904 (0.193)	0.832 (0.191)	0.832 (0.176)	1.254 (0.338)	2.975*** (0.653)	
	Rent	1.022 (0.084)	0.020 (0.080)	0.868 (0.214)	1.095 (0.290)	0.832 (0.204)	1.603 (0.466)	1.086 (0.245)	
	Social assistance and pension	1.052 (0.050)	0.041 (0.046)	1.178 (0.178)	1.122 (0.191)	1.192 (0.177)	1.097 (0.218)	1.019 (0.144)	
	Land owner	0.970 (0.059)	-0.039 (0.058)	1.009 (0.192)	0.909 (0.209)	0.826 (0.156)	1.198 (0.292)	1.465** (0.260)	
	Improve living conditions	0.989 (0.048)	-0.008 (0.047)	0.691** (0.115)	1.066 (0.205)	0.664** (0.108)	1.681** (0.406)	0.761* (0.115)	
	Better work	0.942 (0.049)	-0.047 (0.047)	0.652** (0.110)	1.090 (0.222)	0.643*** (0.107)	1.503 (0.384)	1.049 (0.167)	
	Other	0.914 (0.064)	-0.086 (0.065)	0.687 (0.159)	0.684 (0.191)	0.746 (0.169)	0.739 (0.267)	1.081 (0.230)	
	Migration decision influenced by others	0.908** (0.041)	-0.091** (0.041)	0.634*** (0.090)	0.875 (0.138)	0.680*** (0.094)	1.088 (0.203)	1.054 (0.139)	
	Information about destination country via: (news=base outcome)	Institution	1.147 (0.147)	0.232 (0.172)	1.803 (0.971)	1.047 (0.401)	1.160 (0.558)	1.727 (0.728)	0.881 (0.350)
		Family at home	0.788** (0.078)	-0.236** (0.095)	0.864 (0.270)	0.468** (0.161)	0.861 (0.259)	0.431* (0.203)	1.160 (0.321)
Friends abroad		0.913 (0.070)	-0.090 (0.077)	1.459* (0.329)	0.447*** (0.108)	1.320 (0.283)	0.790 (0.237)	1.345 (0.274)	
Been abroad		1.134 (0.098)	0.167* (0.098)	4.780*** (1.927)	0.767 (0.218)	5.308*** (2.014)	0.614 (0.224)	3.265*** (0.996)	
Other		0.773*** (0.055)	-0.240*** (0.070)	0.874 (0.181)	0.327*** (0.078)	0.832 (0.165)	0.388*** (0.116)	0.547*** (0.107)	
Family abroad		0.912 (0.095)	-0.086 (0.105)	1.246 (0.399)	0.506** (0.174)	1.344 (0.419)	0.755 (0.306)	1.089 (0.309)	
Migration assisting programs		Would participate	1.169*** (0.060)	0.164*** (0.057)	1.380 (0.282)	1.568** (0.279)	1.378* (0.268)	1.319 (0.274)	1.441** (0.230)
	Is aware but no participation intend	1.017 (0.062)	0.013 (0.055)	1.643** (0.387)	0.821 (0.230)	2.001*** (0.465)	0.355** (0.157)	1.663** (0.369)	
Country dummies (Albania=base outcome)	Egypt	0.710*** (0.061)	0.266*** (0.073)	0.381*** (0.089)	0.594** (0.155)	0.268*** (0.063)	0.101*** (0.046)	1.931*** (0.420)	
	Moldova		0.163**	2.777***	1.037	1.947***	1.059	0.834	

Dependent: Immigration Requirements	# of doc IRR	# of doc Coef.	Doc_1+ Odds Ratio	Doc_2+ Odds Ratio	Passport Odds Ratio	Health record Odds Ratio	Finance Odds Ratio
	1.167**						
	(0.088)	(0.073)	(0.669)	(0.273)	(0.455)	(0.321)	(0.180)
Tunisia	0.972	-0.040	1.359	0.602*	1.002	0.741	1.365
	(0.071)	(0.072)	(0.318)	(0.157)	(0.227)	(0.221)	(0.296)
Constant	1.019	0.970***	0.649	0.806	0.421	1.369	1.614
	(0.209)	(0.204)	(0.441)	(0.600)	(0.283)	(1.228)	(0.993)
Number of observations	1762	1762	1762	1762	1745	1730	1760
Log-likelihood	-1964.78	-1940.86	-860.68	-697.7	-890.99	-514.78	-989.6
Chi-square/F-Stat	374.873	8.23	268.641	165.468	267.255	144.661	305.644
(Pseudo) R-Square	0.049	0.1680	0.181	0.107	0.185	0.14	0.184

Note: * p<0.10, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01, standard errors in parentheses

Appendix-Table 4 Dependent: How likely is it that you migrate within the next 6 months?

Dependent: How likely is it that you migrate within the next 6 months?

Ordered logit model (1) Generalized ordered logit model (2) - (5)		(1) Odds Ratio	(2) very unlikely Odds Ratio	(3) quite unlikely Odds Ratio	(4) neither likely nor unlikely Odds Ratio	(5) quite likely Odds Ratio
Demographics	Age	0.984 (0.012)	1.026 (0.016)	0.966** (0.014)	0.966** (0.014)	0.971 (0.019)
	Female	0.624*** (0.080)	0.617*** (0.080)	0.617*** (0.080)	0.617*** (0.080)	0.617*** (0.080)
	Married	1.261 (0.222)	1.175 (0.215)	1.175 (0.215)	1.175 (0.215)	1.175 (0.215)
	Number of children	0.877 (0.071)	0.870 (0.100)	1.041 (0.099)	0.767*** (0.075)	0.786* (0.113)
Relation to household head (HHH)	Child, grandchild or other of HHH	0.822 (0.131)	1.299 (0.284)	0.989 (0.174)	0.509*** (0.091)	0.593** (0.153)
(HHH and spouse=base outcome)	HH Size	1.018 (0.032)	1.014 (0.034)	1.014 (0.034)	1.014 (0.034)	1.014 (0.034)
Ability to speak language of potential destination country	Very well	1.016 (0.110)	1.047 (0.119)	1.047 (0.119)	1.047 (0.119)	1.047 (0.119)
("ok"=base outcome)	Hardly	0.652*** (0.084)	0.665*** (0.089)	0.665*** (0.089)	0.665*** (0.089)	0.665*** (0.089)
Education	Secondary	0.969 (0.110)	0.937 (0.113)	0.937 (0.113)	0.937 (0.113)	0.937 (0.113)
(primary=base outcome)	Tertiary/Post-					

Dependent: How likely is it that you migrate within the next 6 months?

Ordered logit model (1) Generalized ordered logit model (2) - (5)		(1)	(2) very unlikely	(3) quite unlikely	(4) neither likely nor unlikely	(5) quite likely
		Odds Ratio	Odds Ratio	Odds Ratio	Odds Ratio	Odds Ratio
	secondary	1.006	0.869	0.869	0.869	0.869
		(0.150)	(0.140)	(0.140)	(0.140)	(0.140)
Labor market status	Employer	0.785	0.854	0.565***	0.735	1.011
(employed=base outcome)		(0.127)	(0.182)	(0.102)	(0.147)	(0.261)
	Casual worker	1.413**	1.328*	1.328*	1.328*	1.328*
		(0.205)	(0.208)	(0.208)	(0.208)	(0.208)
	Student	0.277***	0.298***	0.298***	0.298***	0.298***
		(0.053)	(0.057)	(0.057)	(0.057)	(0.057)
	Unemployed	1.002	1.298	1.230	0.723*	0.544***
		(0.140)	(0.247)	(0.212)	(0.132)	(0.129)
	Never worked/Unknown	1.947**	0.884	2.086***	2.378***	2.033**
		(0.517)	(0.270)	(0.553)	(0.613)	(0.726)
Industry of work (public admin. And utilities=base outcome)	Petty Trade, Commerce, hotel, restaurant and domestic services	0.860	0.579**	0.900	1.152	0.886
		(0.161)	(0.138)	(0.189)	(0.246)	(0.243)
	Manufacturing, mining and agriculture	1.466*	1.412	1.412	1.412	1.412
		(0.287)	(0.303)	(0.303)	(0.303)	(0.303)
	Construction, transport and repair	1.069	0.873	1.324	1.111	0.763
		(0.208)	(0.225)	(0.293)	(0.249)	(0.211)
	Other or never worked/Unknown	0.887	0.688	0.693	1.294	0.785
		(0.181)	(0.173)	(0.159)	(0.297)	(0.228)
	Salary	1.000	0.999	1.001	1.000	0.999
		(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)
Income satisfaction	Not sufficient	0.818	0.860	0.860	0.860	0.860
("ok"=base outcome)		(0.111)	(0.121)	(0.121)	(0.121)	(0.121)
	Sufficient	1.414***	1.466***	1.466***	1.466***	1.466***
		(0.165)	(0.180)	(0.180)	(0.180)	(0.180)
Income compared to others in the community	Worse	1.332*	1.338*	1.338*	1.338*	1.338*
("same"=base outcome)		(0.198)	(0.214)	(0.214)	(0.214)	(0.214)
	Better	1.011	1.060	1.060	1.060	1.060
		(0.127)	(0.135)	(0.135)	(0.135)	(0.135)
Income from	Remittances					

Dependent: How likely is it that you migrate within the next 6 months?

Ordered logit model (1) Generalized ordered logit model (2) - (5)		(1)	(2) very unlikely Odds Ratio	(3) quite unlikely Odds Ratio	(4) neither likely nor unlikely Odds Ratio	(5) quite likely Odds Ratio
		1.044	0.950	1.506***	0.949	0.911
		(0.145)	(0.164)	(0.232)	(0.156)	(0.205)
	Other family member	0.603***	0.743**	0.730***	0.487***	0.457***
		(0.060)	(0.109)	(0.088)	(0.060)	(0.084)
	Agriculture	1.187	1.196	1.196	1.196	1.196
		(0.193)	(0.193)	(0.193)	(0.193)	(0.193)
	Savings	0.769	0.539***	0.524***	1.776***	1.398
		(0.139)	(0.101)	(0.097)	(0.354)	(0.329)
	Rent	1.249	1.062	1.537**	1.068	1.288
		(0.213)	(0.244)	(0.302)	(0.210)	(0.343)
	Social assistance and pension	0.945	0.943	0.943	0.943	0.943
		(0.110)	(0.110)	(0.110)	(0.110)	(0.110)
	Land owner	1.085	0.868	0.957	1.670***	1.306
		(0.176)	(0.162)	(0.166)	(0.301)	(0.291)
	Improve living conditions	0.862	0.772*	0.944	0.800	0.550***
	(personal=base outcome)	(0.106)	(0.122)	(0.134)	(0.118)	(0.109)
	Better work	0.820	0.788*	0.788*	0.788*	0.788*
		(0.107)	(0.108)	(0.108)	(0.108)	(0.108)
	Other	1.220	1.217	1.217	1.217	1.217
		(0.220)	(0.223)	(0.223)	(0.223)	(0.223)
	Migration decision influenced by others	0.694***	0.777*	0.981	0.477***	0.481***
		(0.074)	(0.112)	(0.127)	(0.069)	(0.091)
	Information about destination country via:	1.233	0.739	1.485	1.788	3.316**
	(news=base outcome)	(0.505)	(0.293)	(0.503)	(0.650)	(1.604)
	Family at home	0.776	0.957	1.315	0.539**	0.283***
		(0.175)	(0.290)	(0.333)	(0.140)	(0.123)
	Friends abroad	0.960	1.466*	1.647***	0.584***	0.478***
		(0.169)	(0.311)	(0.316)	(0.118)	(0.121)
	Been abroad	2.018***	1.820***	1.820***	1.820***	1.820***
		(0.469)	(0.378)	(0.378)	(0.378)	(0.378)
	Other	0.688**	1.047	1.047	0.377***	0.286***

Dependent: How likely is it that you migrate within the next 6 months?

Ordered logit model (1) Generalized ordered logit model (2) - (5)		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
		Odds Ratio	very unlikely Odds Ratio	quite unlikely Odds Ratio	neither likely nor unlikely Odds Ratio	quite likely Odds Ratio
		(0.115)	(0.211)	(0.186)	(0.071)	(0.071)
Migration assisting programs	Family abroad	1.682** (0.438)	1.885** (0.609)	2.234*** (0.636)	1.550 (0.426)	0.789 (0.286)
	Would participate	1.014 (0.140)	0.949 (0.133)	0.949 (0.133)	0.949 (0.133)	0.949 (0.133)
	Is aware but no participation intend	1.067 (0.150)	1.189 (0.181)	1.189 (0.181)	1.189 (0.181)	1.189 (0.181)
Country dummies (Albania=base outcome)	Egypt	0.893 (0.170)	0.952 (0.223)	0.583** (0.123)	2.139*** (0.493)	0.330*** (0.110)
	Moldova	1.119 (0.202)	1.978*** (0.447)	1.084 (0.222)	1.223 (0.269)	0.303*** (0.100)
	Tunisia	1.217 (0.212)	1.547* (0.356)	3.494*** (0.719)	0.685* (0.144)	0.446*** (0.122)
	Cut1	0.087*** (0.043)	1762 -2281.66			
	Cut2	0.282** (0.139)	803.537 0.182			
	Cut3	0.708 (0.347)				
	Cut4	2.941** (1.442)				
Number of observations		1762	1762	Parallel Line Assumption:		
Log-likelihood		-2607.60	-2281.66	Chi2(63)	79.07	
Chi-square		350.247	803.537	Prob>chi2	0.0832	
Pseudo R-Square		0.065	0.182			

Note: * p<0.10, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01, standard errors in parentheses

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Summary Findings

This paper aims to better understand emigration pressures in migrant sending countries by looking at the determinants of the propensity to migrate at the individual level. The analysis is based on survey data from Albania, Moldova, Egypt and Tunisia collected by the European Training Foundation (ETF) in 2006. Within this context the study focuses on (i) the self-selection of migrants in terms of skills and (ii) the impact of selective immigration policies on the migration process. The paper finds that migration pressures, or the intent to migrate, are not subject to any self-selection. However, immigration policies exert a strong out-selection that is likely part of the reasons why positive selection is found in many studies. Further, the study confirms that the EU attracts comparatively lower skilled migrants than other destinations.

HUMAN DEVELOPMENT NETWORK

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