



ISSN: 2651-2742
2024- Cilt: 7 Sayı: 2
Sayfa: 18-38.

Dergi Web Sitesi: <http://sita.cumhuriyet.edu.tr/tr/>

Gönderilme Tarihi:29.05.2024

Kabul Tarihi:25.11.2024

Konferans Bildirisi (Conference Paper)

ECONOMIC SECURITY AND MIGRATION WITHIN THE EUROPEAN UNION

Avrupa Birliđi'nde Ekonomik Güvenlik ve Göç

Cozma Oana MARIA*

Alexandru Ioan Cuza Iasi University
Romanya

Pricop Andrei IONUT

Alexandru Ioan Cuza Iasi University,
Romanya

ABSTRACT

Migration has always been a complex phenomenon that has influenced people all over the world since the dawn of human civilization. Migration became increasingly prevalent as globalisation progressed. Globalization has catalysed significant advancements in migration, unveiling both favourable and adverse implications. On the positive front, migration has emerged as a conduit for individuals worldwide to pursue enhanced employment prospects, improved political and social landscapes, and elevated standards of living. Conversely, globalization has expedited negative facets of migration, exemplified by the proliferation of human trafficking and smuggling, phenomena often resulting in harm inflicted upon innocent individuals, including children. With the formation of the European Union (EU), the European continent became increasingly familiar with the process of migration, one of the most typical migratory trends being from Central-Eastern Europe to Western Europe. As it is often assumed that poverty and corruption in sending countries of migrants trigger them to leave the area, the purpose of this paper is to explore the relationship between the phenomenon of migration inside the EU and the economic security of European citizens who choose to migrate, with a focus on Central-Eastern Europe. The present paper's purpose was accomplished using inferential statistical analysis. Economic security was composed of three indicators, rule of law and government effectiveness and persons at risk of poverty or social exclusion. The findings indicate that on one hand, as rule of law and government effectiveness get better, the migration rate becomes positive, on the other hand, as more individuals face poverty or social exclusion, the rate of migration declines. The conclusions of this paper align with a segment of the literature on migration motivations, suggesting that the presence of a considerable degree of economic security is requisite for the initiation of migration. More specifically, migration profoundly impacts both individuals and the European Union, with

* **Sorumlu Yazar:** cozma.oanamaria@gmail.com

Önerilen Atıf: Maria C. O. ve Ionuț P. A.(2024). Economic Security and Migration Within the European Union, Sivas İnterdisipliner Turizm Arařtırmaları Dergisi, 7(2), 18-38.

economic security influencing migration patterns; however, focusing on Eastern Europe alone highlights the need for broader analysis.

Key words: migration, economic security, poverty, rule of law, European Union, Central-Eastern Europe.

ÖZ

Göç, insan uygarlığının doğuşundan bu yana her zaman dünyanın her yerindeki insanları etkileyen karmaşık bir olgu olmuştur. Küreselleşme ilerledikçe göç giderek yaygınlaştı. Küreselleşme, göç konusunda hem olumlu hem de olumsuz sonuçları ortaya çıkaran önemli ilerlemeleri katalizlemektedir. Olumlu açıdan bakarsak, göç, dünya çapındaki bireylerin artan istihdam beklentileri, iyileşen siyasi ve sosyal ortamlar ve yüksek yaşam standartları peşinde koşmaları için bir kanal olarak ortaya çıkmıştır. Tersine, küreselleşme, insan ticareti ve kaçakçılığın yaygınlaşmasıyla örneklendirilen, göçün olumsuz yüzlerini genişletiyor; bu olgular genellikle çocuklar da dahil olmak üzere masum bireylerin zarar görmesine neden oluyor Avrupa Birliği'nin (AB) oluşumuyla birlikte Avrupa kıtası göç sürecine giderek daha fazla aşına hale geldi; en tipik göç trendlerinden biri Orta Doğu Avrupa'dan Batı Avrupa'ya doğru oluyor. Göçmen gönderen ülkelerdeki yoksulluk ve yolsuzluğun onları bölgeyi terk etmeye ittiği sıklıkla varsayıldığından, bu makalenin amacı AB içindeki göç olgusu ile göç etmeyi seçen Avrupalı vatandaşların ekonomik güvenliği arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırmaktır. Orta-Doğu Avrupa'ya odaklanıyoruz. Bu makalenin amacı çıkarımsal istatistiksel analiz kullanılarak gerçekleştiriliyor. Ekonomik güvenlik, hukukun üstünlüğü ve hükümetin etkinliği ile yoksulluk veya sosyal dışlanma riski altındaki kişiler olmak üzere üç göstergeden oluşuyordu. Bulgular, bir yandan hukukun üstünlüğü ve hükümetin etkinliği iyileştikçe göç oranının olumlu hale geldiğini, diğer yandan daha fazla birey yoksulluk veya sosyal dışlanmayla karşı karşıya kaldıkça göç oranının azaldığını gösteriyor. Bu makalenin sonuçları, göç motivasyonlarına ilişkin literatürün bir bölümüyle uyumludur ve göçün başlatılması için önemli derecede ekonomik güvenliğin varlığının gerekli olduğunu öne sürmektedir. Daha spesifik olarak, göç hem bireyleri hem de Avrupa Birliği'ni derinden etkiler; ekonomik güvenlik göç modellerini etkiler; ancak, yalnızca Doğu Avrupa'ya odaklanmak daha geniş bir analize olan ihtiyacı vurgular.

Anahtar Kelimeler: göç, ekonomik güvenlik, yoksulluk, hukukun üstünlüğü, Avrupa Birliği, Orta Doğu Avrupa.

1. INTRODUCTION

Migration may be viewed as the phenomena that has characterised human societies since when they first emerged. Migration has been a defining feature of human societies throughout history, shaping and reshaping communities, cultures, and economies since ancient times (Castles et. al., 2005). It encompasses both voluntary movements, such as seeking new opportunities, and involuntary displacement due to factors like conflict or environmental pressures (International Organization for Migration [IOM], 2020). Migration occurs at various scales, locally, within countries, and across international borders, and is influenced by a complex interplay of economic, social, political, and environmental factors (Bakewell, 2008). As societies have developed, the reasons for migration have diversified, ranging from the search for better living conditions and employment opportunities to escaping conflicts or persecution (Skeldon, 2013). Migration also refers to the movement of individuals from one location to another, typically across an official boundary, such as a village, town, district, or

country, with the intent of establishing a new residence (Kok, 1999). Migration can be either temporary or permanent, internal or international, and can involve diverse motivations and circumstances, from voluntary movements driven by personal or economic aspirations to involuntary displacements due to conflict or environmental crises (Lee, 1966). It is important to distinguish migration from related concepts. For example, tourism involves temporary travel without an intention to settle, and commuting refers to regular, short-term movements between home and work, neither of which is considered migration. Additionally, human trafficking or smuggling, though often involving cross-border movements, typically occurs under coercive or illegal conditions and is distinct from regular migration processes, even though these forms of movement can sometimes overlap (IOM, 2020). In this context, The International Migration Organization (IMO) defines a migrant as a person who moves across an international border or within a state away from their habitual place of residence, regardless of their legal status, voluntary or involuntary movement, reasons for the move, or duration of stay (IMO, 2019). One of the most common explanations which tries to explore the reasons why people migrate is illustrated by the pull and push factors framework. It categorises factors that influence individuals or groups to leave their place of origin (push factors) and factors that attract them to migrate to a new destination (pull factors). These factors can be economic, social, political, environmental, or personal in nature (Lee, 1966). This diversity in migration motivations and patterns illustrates its multi-dimensional nature, impacting individuals, families, and entire regions (King, 2012). Having the background of migration, it becomes evident that globalization has intensified the scale and complexity of migration. Migration and globalisation are inextricably linked phenomena that have far-reaching implications for society, economy, and cultures throughout the world (Zubiashvili, 2017). The development of globalization, characterized by increasing interconnectivity between nations, advancements in technology, and easier movement of goods and people, has amplified the phenomenon of migration (Sassen, 1998). Migration and globalization are thus inextricably linked, creating profound implications for societies, economies, and cultures worldwide (Held & McGrew, 2007).

The European continent has historically been subjected to the phenomena of migration, nevertheless, the foundation of what was formerly the European Community of Coal and Steel, and later the well-known European Union, has produced a suitable environment for the process of migration inside the EU. In the context of migration patterns within the European Union (EU), a prevalent trend, often facilitated by EU legislative frameworks, pertains to the migration from Central-Eastern European countries towards Western European destinations (Barsan-Pipu & Tache, 2017). In quantitative terms, as delineated by the World Migration Report (2020), Europe accommodated over 82 million international migrants in the year 2019. Among these migrants, approximately 42 million originated from and migrated within European nations, while roughly 40 million originated from regions outside of Europe.

However, what motivates citizens from Central-Eastern European countries to migrate towards Western EU nations? The primary rationale observed among Central-Eastern European citizens predominantly pertains to labour/economic-related migration motives (Fischer-Souan, 2019; Lleshaj, 2013; Okólski, 2004). Push factors such as diminished employment opportunities, reduced earnings, and economic strain in their countries of origin, alongside pull factors such as elevated wages, enhanced working conditions, and expanded economic prospects in Western Europe, have catalysed this migratory trend between Eastern and Western regions within the EU (Wallace & Stola, 2001). The amalgamation of economic

push and pull factors prompts inquiry into the extent to which economic security governs migration decisions of Central-European citizens. Economic security is defined as the assurance of an individual's or community's financial well-being, including stability, sustainability, and resilience to economic risks and uncertainties. It comprises having access to adequate resources, job opportunities, social safety nets, and the ability to fulfil basic requirements both present and in the future (ILO, 2004). Due to the encompassing nature of economic security, which includes factors such as stable employment, sufficient income, access to social services, and mitigation against economic vulnerabilities, disparities in economic conditions among EU member states can serve as catalysts for migration, as individuals endeavour to pursue enhanced economic opportunities available in countries offering such opportunities (O'Neill, P. E., 2006; Czaika & Reinprecht, 2022). As further examined in this paper, the analysis explores whether economic security increases or decreases the rate of migration within the EU, with an emphasis on Central-Eastern European countries. The analysis is conducted through a comparative statistical approach, utilizing data from EU migration reports, economic indicators, and surveys on personal security and migration intentions. By examining these variables, patterns in migration motivated by economic security factors are identified.

The remainder of this paper is organised in the following manner: Section 1 explores a concise overview on the concepts of migration and economic security; Section 2 outlines a brief incursion on the main determinants of migration within EU, with a focus on Central-Eastern European countries; Section 3 presents the used methodology and data; Section 4 emphasises the results and discussion over how economic security influences the migration rate in the discussed area of EU. Some final remarks conclude the paper.

2. OVERVIEW ON THE TWO KEY CONCEPTS: MIGRATION AND ECONOMIC SECURITY

2.1. Migration

People have historically relocated inside and beyond boundaries in search of better living possibilities, whether economic or social-political. As a result, migration is not a new notion since it has had a long-term influence on people's lives. Migration is not simply the movement of people across boundaries in search of better living possibilities, whether economic or social-political. It also serves as a transformative process that profoundly impacts the social, economic, and political landscapes of both the source and destination countries (Castles et. al., 2005). Migration can stimulate economic growth and address labor shortages in host countries, while also leading to cultural diversification and social challenges as communities adapt to new arrivals (Skeldon, 2013). Conversely, the departure of individuals, especially skilled labor, from the source country can result in a "brain drain," impacting the economic and social fabric of the origin society (de Haas, 2010). Thus, migration reflects a dynamic phenomenon with complex effects, reshaping societies beyond mere relocation (King, 2012). The International Migration Organisation emphasises the fact that migration reflects the movement of people away from their typical residence, whether over an international boundary or within a state, to a new location (IMO, 2006). Furthermore, IMO also delineates the migration cycle wherein individuals undergo distinct stages: (1) pre-departure, characterised by decision-making prior to migration commencement; (2) entry, denoting migrants' crossing of international borders into another country; (3) stay, representing the period during which migrants reside in their new location; and (4) return, signifying the potential for migrant individuals to return to their

home country subsequent to the migration process (IMO, 2022). When engaging in the discourse on migration, it is imperative to be familiar with certain terminology to effectively navigate this concept: Emigration denotes the act of departing one country to relocate to another; Immigration entails the act of relocating to a new country; Internal migration signifies the movement within a state, country, or continent; External migration pertains to relocation to a different state, country, or continent; Seasonal migration involves moving with each season or in response to labour or climatic conditions; Return migration denotes the act of returning to one's original place of departure (IMO, 2006). Building upon IMO's conceptualization of the term "migrant," scholarly discourse underscores various categories of migrants. The primary differentiation in this context is distinguished between voluntary migrants, colloquially termed "tourists" (Bauman, 1996), and involuntary migrants compelled to flee their home countries due to severe economic and socio-political difficulties (Wiese, 2010). From the perspective of labour migration, individuals can be categorised into two main groups: highly skilled migrants, who are in high demand in destination countries but constitute a minority among migrants, and unskilled low-wage labour migrants, who comprise the largest segment of economic migrants (Bell et. al., 2010).

Why individuals move is a frequently questioned issue among scholars ranging from economists and sociologists to psychology and demographers. Since migration is a complex and multifaceted phenomenon, influenced by various factors, including economic, social, political and environmental considerations, various fields of research have tried over time to understand this phenomenon and explain the factors that determine migration both domestically and internationally. One of the earliest contributions to migration theory came from Ravenstein in the late 19th century, who developed a set of "laws of migration" based on empirical observations. Ravenstein's laws highlighted factors such as distance, economic incentives, and demographic characteristics that influence migration patterns (Daşlı & Harmandaoğlu, 2024). Hein de Haas (2021) summarised a classification of theories explaining migration, mentioning the functionalist paradigm, the historical-structural paradigm, the symbolic interactionist perspective, and the perspective of meso-level theories. Within each paradigm de Haas (2021) groups several theories as follows: (1) the functionalist paradigm includes neoclassical equilibrium models, push and pull models, migration systems theories and migrant network theories for which migration is a strategy of optimization of individuals or families making cost-benefit calculations (de Haas, 2021); (2) the historical-structural paradigm encompasses neo-Marxist conflict theory, dependency theory (Gunder, 1966), world systems theory (Wallerstein, 1974), dual labour market theory (Piore, 1979) and critical globalisation theory, according to this paradigm migration is shaped by structural economic and power inequalities, and the ways in which migration plays a key role in reproducing and reinforcing these inequalities (de Haas, 2021); (3) the symbolic interactionist paradigm includes relatively recent theories such as transnational theory (Vertovec, 2009), diaspora theory (Cohen, 1997) and creolization theory (Cohen, 2007) and focuses on the everyday experiences, perceptions and identity of migrants (de Haas, 2021); (4) the paradigm of meso-level theories that focuses on the continuation or internal dynamics of migration (de Haas, 2010) and includes network theories, migration systems theory (Mabogunje, 1970) and cumulative causality theory (Massey, 1990). Furthermore, the UK Government Office of Science (2011) has developed a comprehensive taxonomy of migration determinants, encompassing macro, meso, and micro-level elements. At the macro level, migration determinants are categorized into various factors, including those aligned with the

functionalist paradigm, specifically political factors (e.g., governance, freedom, conflict, insecurity), environmental factors (e.g., exposure to hazards), social factors (e.g., pursuit of education, family obligations), economic factors (e.g., employment opportunities, income, wages), and demographic factors (e.g., population size, density, disease prevalence). The meso-level migration determinants encompass intervening factors that both impede and facilitate migration, such as the political and legal framework, migration costs, and technological advancements. Meanwhile, at the micro level, factors such as age, gender, educational attainment, ethnicity, religion, and language proficiency play significant roles in influencing migration decisions.

While migration has been a recognized phenomenon globally for an extensive duration, commonly perceived as a pathway through which individuals can enhance or preserve their livelihoods by accessing improved opportunities abroad, it is not devoid of challenges. Human smuggling and human trafficking represent some of the most prevalent migration related issues. The United Nations provides a clear distinction between human trafficking and human smuggling as it follows: human trafficking is the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of people through force, fraud or deception, with the aim of exploiting them for profit (Trafficking in Persons Protocol, 2000), whereas human smuggling is the facilitation, for financial or other material gain, of irregular entry into a country where the migrant is not a national or resident (Smuggling of Migrants Protocol, 2000). Human trafficking and smuggling are inextricably related to migration, bringing significant difficulties to migrants' rights, public order and security, and the promotion of safe, orderly, and regular mobility. Addressing these concerns necessitates extensive and coordinated national, regional, and international efforts to prevent trafficking and smuggling, protect victims, and prosecute criminals (Gallagher, 2001; Bhabha, 2005; Wihtol de Wenden, 2023).

Migration is a highly complex and varied phenomena that presents both possibilities and difficulties to individuals, society, and governments globally. Migration provides millions of individuals with the opportunity for economic growth, cultural enrichment, and social mobility, but it also poses substantial obstacles in terms of human rights, social integration, economic disparity, and security. Effectively tackling the challenges associated with migration requires the implementation of comprehensive and collaborative strategies that prioritise the protection of migrants' rights, the promotion of social cohesion, and the advancement of inclusive and sustainable development for all members of society.

2.2. Economic security

The conceptual framework of economic security is intricately connected with the field of security studies in the realm of international relations. Its initial articulation started during the latter half of the twentieth century, spearheaded by the scholarly lineage recognized nowadays as the Copenhagen School of thought. Following the end of World War II, the scope of security considerations expanded beyond solely military dimensions. Notably, Barry Buzan, a prominent figure within the Copenhagen School of thought, played a pivotal role in broadening the conceptual framework of security to encompass political, military, economic, societal, and environmental concerns (Buzan, 1991). Even if the concept of economic security was difficult to define and recognise, the Copenhagen School was able to highlight the key particular concerns in terms of economic security. Therefore, Buzan, Waever and de Wilde (1998) focus attention on: (1) The capacity of nation-states to sustain autonomous capabilities for military production amidst the dynamics of a globalised market; (2) The potential

exploitation of economic interdependencies within the global market for geopolitical objectives; (3) Apprehensions regarding the exacerbation of existing inequalities and the proliferation of disadvantaged economic actors in the global market, potentially engendering socio-economic disparities; (4) Concerns pertaining to illicit activities within the framework of capitalism and the open trading order, encompassing the illegal trade of substances such as drugs and weapons, the dissemination of militarily significant technologies, and environmental pressures spurred by mass consumption; (5) Fear surrounding the susceptibility of the international economy to crises, precipitated by a confluence of factors including inadequate political leadership, escalating protectionist measures, and structural fragilities within the global financial system (Buzan et. al., 1998). Building on these concerns in terms of economic security, Buzan (1991) emphasises the term of economic security as a state's or society's ability to preserve and improve its economic well-being while protecting itself against numerous internal and foreign risks to economic stability, prosperity, and wellbeing. This involves safeguarding against dangers such as economic insecurity, resource shortages, poverty, inequality, and vulnerability to economic coercion or exploitation by other governments or entities (Buzan, 1991).

Defining the idea of economic security is not a simple task, neither at the international nor European levels. Within both literature and security practice, two major approaches to economic security may be identified, the Anglo-American perspective and the Asian standpoint (Ioan-Franc & Diamescu, 2012). According to the Anglo-American perspective, the basic goal of the economic system is to provide higher living standards. In particular, the American capitalist paradigm prioritises the individual above governmental or collective institutions. In a truly democratic framework, economic endeavours are aimed at addressing consumer demands and promoting domestic production rather than preparing the country for war (Ioan-Franc & Diamescu, 2010). In Asian contexts, economic security primarily means strengthening national economic supremacy on the global arena. As a result, the state has the ability and obligation to control economic activities, particularly those that have a direct influence on national security (Ioan-Franc & Diamescu, 2010). Regarding the European continent as a whole, and specifically within the European Union, the European perspective on economic security combines elements from both the Anglo-American and Asian paradigms. More specifically, the EU takes a holistic approach to economic security, founded on the values of economic stability, resilience, and inclusion within the EU and its member states. This strategy comprises a variety of policy sectors and activities aimed at ensuring the EU's economic well-being, minimising risks, and encouraging long-term growth. In this regard, one of the aims of the *The European Economic Security Strategy* is to implement an economic governance system that aims to ensure fiscal discipline, macroeconomic stability, and member-state convergence. This framework includes instruments which establish norms for fiscal discipline and debt sustainability, organises and monitors economic policies (European Commission, 2023). Moreover, the aforementioned strategy sets up and implements trade policies that promote free and fair trade, increase market access, and safeguard European enterprises from unfair trade practices. Economic security concerns are incorporated into trade discussions and agreements to preserve important industries, assure reciprocity, and defend against foreign threats to economic interests (European Commission, 2023).

The correlation between migration and economic security presents itself as both straightforward and intricate. As articulated by Hacker (2018), economic insecurity delineates

an individual's susceptibility to potential economic setbacks. Consequently, individuals or households may opt for relocation in pursuit of enhanced economic prospects, including higher earnings, employment opportunities, or entrepreneurial ventures. Disparities in economic conditions between nations or regions can serve as catalysts for migration, as individuals endeavour to ameliorate their standard of living and financial stability. Additionally, economic volatility, manifested through phenomena such as unemployment, poverty, or inadequate access to essential services, can compel individuals or communities to migrate in search of improved economic circumstances and employment prospects. Economic crises, such as recessions or currency devaluation, may exacerbate these challenges, thereby prompting migration as a coping mechanism (Afzali, 2019; Billiet et. al. 2014; Herm & Poulain, 2012).

Economic security serves as a fundamental cornerstone for the well-being of both individuals and societies, embodying stability, opportunity, and resilience in confronting economic adversities. Given that economic uncertainties may surpass individuals' anticipated levels of economic security, migration may emerge as a means of ameliorating living conditions. Consequently, the concept of economic security is intricately linked with migration, representing both a driving force and a response to economic dynamics.

3. BRIEF OUTLINE OF MAIN MIGRATION DETERMINANTS WITHIN THE EUROPEAN UNION

The EU's expansion in the early 2000s was one of the most significant factors driving significant intra-migration flows from Eastern to Western Europe. The EU's enlargement has impacted migration trends inside the region, most notably East-West mobility. When numerous Eastern European nations, like Poland, Hungary, Romania, and others, joined the EU, it made it possible for its residents to circulate freely within the EU for job, education, and other reasons (Barrell et. al., 2007). This migration process has been facilitated by the reduction of mobility constraints, such as work permit and visa requirements. Wage differentials, economic disparities, and labour demand in Western European countries also contributed to the influx of Eastern European migrants (Engbersen et. al., 2010). In 2022, the European Union (EU) witnessed the arrival of 5.1 million immigrants originating from non-EU countries, along with 1.5 million individuals relocating from one EU Member State to another. Germany recorded the largest influx of immigrants during the year, trailed by Spain, France, and Italy. Similarly, Germany also registered the highest number of emigrants in 2022, followed by Spain, France, Poland, and Romania. Notably, all 27 EU Member States reported a surplus of immigration over emigration in 2022, whereas in 2021, four EU Member States—namely Croatia, Greece, Latvia, and Romania—experienced more emigration than immigration (Eurostat, 2024). Regarding gender distribution, a nearly equal proportion of men and women immigrated to the EU Member States in 2022, accounting for 50.4% and 49.6%, respectively. In contrast, in 2021, a higher proportion of men immigrated compared to women, constituting 55.1% and 44.9% (Eurostat, 2024). Additionally, immigrants exhibited a younger demographic profile compared to the established resident population of EU Member States. As of January 1, 2023, the median age of the EU's total population was 44.5 years, while immigrants in 2022 had a median age of 30.5 years. Furthermore, the age distribution among non-national immigrants indicated a higher representation of relatively young adults within the working age demographic compared to national immigrants. Specifically, the median age of national

immigrants was 33.5 years, whereas that of non-national immigrants was 30.0 years (Eurostat, 2024).

The primary factors influencing intra-EU migration from Central-Eastern to Western regions, as identified in existing literature, typically adhere to the "pull and push" framework, which commonly distinguishes between economic and non-economic determinants. The principal economic motivations underlying migration suggest that individuals predominantly relocate from Central-Eastern to Western EU countries due to the desire of superior economic prospects, characterised by factors such as increased salary levels and enhanced job security (Harris & Todaro, 1970; Strey et al., 2018; Dubow et al., 2019). For example, in a study conducted by Dubow et al. (2019) investigating the determinants of intra-EU migration, the primary three motives cited by participants for migration predominantly pertain to economic factors, including job scarcity, unfavourable working conditions, and inadequate income levels. In the discourse surrounding migration, economic development presents a diverse array of interpretations and perspectives for understanding migratory patterns, both on a global scale and within the European context. Migration has frequently been characterised as one of the earliest responses to poverty (Galbraith, 1979; Collier, 2007), thus a nation's limited economic advancement is viewed as a catalyst prompting individuals to depart from their country of origin. However, the role of economic development as a determinant of migration presents a perspective diverging from conventional understanding, namely how increasing economic prosperity can lead to heightened migration levels. The impact of economic development on emigration, in particular, is considerably intricate due to the phenomenon wherein initial economic advancement stimulates an upsurge in emigration rates (Vogler & Rotte, 2000; Salinari & De Santis, 2013; Clemens, 2020). Specifically, developing countries that are relatively affluent compared to their less prosperous counterparts tend to exhibit markedly higher emigration rates (Clemens, 2014; Idu, 2019). This dynamic arises from the financial constraints and risks associated with migration; individuals and households residing in impoverished regions lack the requisite financial resources to cover expenses such as recruitment fees and travel costs, and they often lack access to financial institutions willing to extend substantial loans (Taylor, 2006). Conversely, affluent individuals and households possess the financial means to cover migration expenses, are more inclined to undertake the associated risks, and have access to better mechanisms for mitigating the risks inherent in the migration process (Taylor, 2006).

Although economic considerations persist as significant determinants of migration within the EU, recent studies and scholarly inquiries indicate that mobility decisions are frequently influenced by factors beyond purely economic considerations and aspirations. exemplifies a non-economic determinant that draws immigrants to destination countries by providing an incentive for individuals to migrate and join family members who have already established residence in a new country. This phenomenon entails previously migrated family members acting as a magnet, attracting other relatives to join them (Honohan, 2009; Taylor, 2007). The concept of family reunification aligns with the broader theory of family migration, which acknowledges family considerations as pivotal factors influencing migration decisions. This theory underscores that families base migration decisions on a combination of economic, social, and cultural factors (Mincer, 1978; Belgiojoso & Terzera, 2018). Another non-economic determinant of intra-EU migration refers to the purpose of study. The purpose of study is an important predictor of intra-EU migration, motivating people to migrate within the European Union for educational reasons. As students seek possibilities for high-quality education,

specialised fields of study, language immersion, and cultural interaction, they are drawn to institutions and academic programmes in EU member states (King & Ruiz-Gelices, 2003). Lifestyle reasons are significant indicators of intra-EU migration, motivating people to migrate within the EU for better quality of life, cultural experiences, and personal fulfilment (Benton & Petrovic, 2013). This movement tendency is motivated by a desire for improved work-life balance, access to healthcare, social services, and recreational activities. Furthermore, people may be attracted to certain areas or towns in the EU recognised for their strong cultural scene, gastronomic pleasures, or outdoor activities (Hoey, 2005; Janoschka & Haas, 2013). Another non-economic factor influencing intra-EU migration pertains to the political realm, specifically concerns related to political discontent in the countries of origin of migrants from Central-Eastern European Member States. Political dissatisfaction could serve as an influential factor of intra-EU migration, driving Central Eastern Europeans to seek better government elsewhere in the EU. Corruption, a lack of political freedom, or human rights violations can all motivate individuals to migrate to countries within the EU where they believe there is more stability, democracy, and respect for human rights (Triandafyllidou and Gropas, 2014; Bygnes & Flipo, 2017). Nonetheless, according to the analysis conducted by Bygnes & Flipo (2016), while the expression of political motivations is prevalent, their articulation varies depending on individuals' educational and occupational statuses, and even more significantly, on their national backgrounds. Another interesting viewpoint, which considers the political sphere as a determinant of migration, underscores a counterintuitive finding. Specifically, elements of the political sphere in the migrants' countries of origin, such as high government effectiveness (Lawan Ngoma & Wana Ismail, 2013), reduced corruption (Cooray & Schneider, 2016), or greater democratic freedoms (Karemera et al., 2000), paradoxically tend to elevate migration rates. This is primarily attributed to the fact that reduced civil and political liberties are linked with heightened constraints on residents' ability to travel abroad.

4. METHODOLOGY AND DATA

The present paper investigates the impact of economic security and governance factors on migration patterns in Central Eastern European countries. In this study, the analysis period spans from 2007 to 2020 and includes a sample of ten countries: Romania, Bulgaria, Poland, Hungary, Czech Republic, Slovakia, Slovenia, Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania. These countries were selected for their diverse socio-economic landscapes within the EU, offering insights into the relationship between economic conditions, governance, and migration. Net migration serves as the dependent variable, representing the balance between immigration and emigration in each country. To explore the factors influencing these migration rates, independent variables are chosen to capture economic vulnerability (risk of poverty or social exclusion by age and sex) and governance quality (rule of law and government effectiveness). A comparative statistical approach is applied to analyze these relationships. This involves assessing how variations in economic and governance conditions correlate with net migration trends across the selected countries and years. Full definitions and sources for each variable are detailed in Table 1.

Table 1. Variables selected

Variable	Definition	Database
----------	------------	----------

<p><i>Net Migration</i> (dependent)</p>	<p>Net migration is the number of immigrants minus the number of emigrants, including citizens and noncitizens.</p>	<p>World Bank</p>
<p><i>Persons at risk of poverty or social exclusion by age and sex - EU 2020 strategy</i> (independent)</p>	<p>The reference population of EU-SILC is the private households and all persons composing these households having their usual residence in the national territory. A private household means a person living alone or a group of persons who live together, providing oneself or themselves with the essentials of living. All household members are surveyed, but only those aged 16 and older are interviewed. Persons living in collective households and in institutions are generally excluded from the target population.</p>	<p>Eurostat</p>
<p><i>Rule of Law</i> (independent)</p>	<p>Rule of Law captures perceptions of the extent to which agents have confidence in and abide by the rules of society, and in particular the quality of contract enforcement, property rights, the police, and the courts, as well as the likelihood of crime and violence. Estimate gives the country's score on the aggregate indicator, in units of a standard normal distribution, i.e. ranging from approximately -2.5 to 2.5.</p>	<p>World Bank</p>
<p><i>Government Effectiveness</i> (independent)</p>	<p>Government Effectiveness captures perceptions of the quality of public services, the quality of the civil service and the degree of its independence from political pressures, the quality of policy formulation and implementation, and the credibility of the government's commitment to such policies. Estimate gives the country's score on the aggregate indicator, in units of a standard normal distribution, i.e. ranging from approximately -2.5 to 2.5.</p>	<p>World Bank</p>

Employing inferential statistical analysis, the following models are constructed:

Table 2. Estimation of net migration

	Model 1 Random Effects	Model 1 Fixed Effects	Model 2 Random Effects	Model 2 Fixed Effects	Model 3 Random Effects	Model 3 Fixed Effects	Model 4 Random Effects	Model 4 Fixed Effects
PERSO	-948.720	-943.8936	-	-	-	-	-	-
NS AT	(296.252)	(316.6433	1157.669	1046.688				
RISK OF	***) ***	(285.892	(320.735				
POV			8) ***	0) ***				
RULE	22855.38	29424.62	-	-	31603.72	33786.94	-	-
OF LAW	(9642.291	(11516.98			(9752.94	(11767.6		
) **) **			9) ***	3) ***		
GOV	-	-	-	-	-	-	32363.46	30717.36
EFFECTI							(8395.21	(10414.6
VN							7) ***	6) ***
CONST	1564.646	-3028.969	22750.78	19745.00	-	-	-	-
ANT	(13125.89	(12388.64	(9560.50	(8785.94	30073.37	31556.57	29482.44	28420.46
))	7) **	5) **	(9347.37	(8104.12	(7810.14	(6848.73
					3) ***	5) ***	5) ***	9) ***
ADJ R²	0.124847	0.666281	0.10013	0.651982	0.064405	0.645880	0.091275	0.647052

Note: Standard errors are shown in parenthesis and significance levels are: *** for 1%, ** for 5% and * for 10%

The models delineated above necessitate statistical validation through the Hausman test. Accordingly, conducting this test across all models, the following outcomes are upheld:

Table 3. Hausman Test for model number 1

Correlated Random Effects – Hausman Test

Equation: Model			
Test cross-section random effects			
Test summary	Chi-Sq. Statistic	Chi-Sq. d.f.	Prob.
Cross-section random	1.443378	2	0.4859

Note: The probability being 0.4859, random effects specification is preferred the fixed effects

Table 4. Hausman Test for model number 2*Correlated Random Effects – Hausman Test*

Equation: Model			
Test cross-section random effects			
Test summary	Chi-Sq. Statistic	Chi-Sq. d.f.	Prob.
Cross-section random	0.582740	1	0.4452

Note: The probability being 0.4452, random effects specification is preferred the fixed effects

Table 5. Hausman Test for model number 3*Correlated Random Effects – Hausman Test*

Equation: Model			
Test cross-section random effects			
Test summary	Chi-Sq. Statistic	Chi-Sq. d.f.	Prob.
Cross-section random	0.109935	1	0.7402

Note: The probability being 0.109935, random effects specification is preferred the fixed effects

Table 6. Hausman Test for model number 4*Correlated Random Effects – Hausman Test*

Equation: Model			
Test cross-section random effects			
Test summary	Chi-Sq. Statistic	Chi-Sq. d.f.	Prob.
Cross-section random	0.071333	1	0.7894

Note: The probability being 0.7894, random effects specification is preferred the fixed effects

5. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

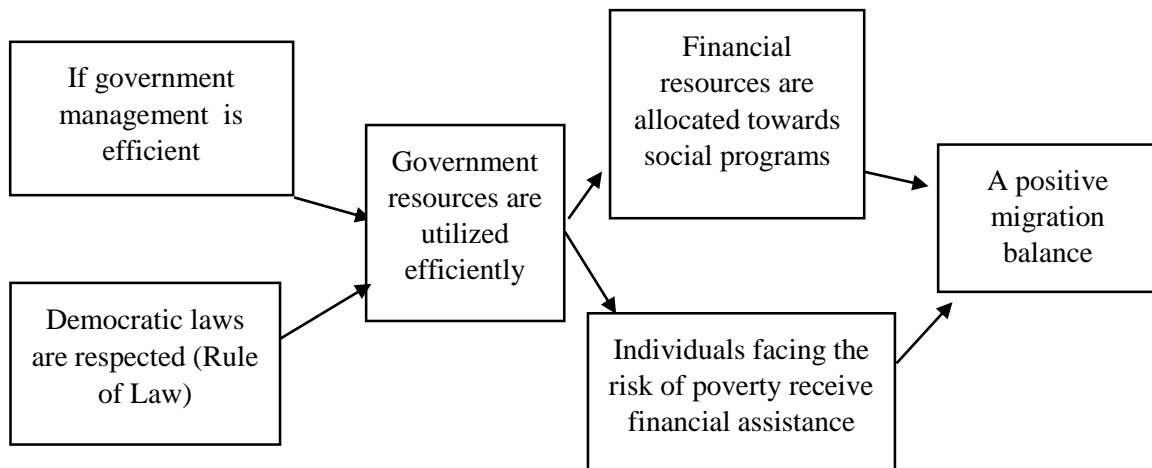
Considering the models presented in the methodology and data section, several key results are underscored. The analysis reveals a negative correlation between the proportion of individuals at risk of poverty and the net migration rate. This suggests that a decrease in poverty rates is associated with a positive net migration balance, meaning fewer individuals are emigrating from these countries. This finding aligns with Carling and Schewel's (2018) argument that extreme poverty may inhibit migration due to a lack of financial resources necessary to migrate. Push-pull theory also supports this observation, as poverty acts as a

“push” factor for migration, but only when individuals have sufficient resources to pursue opportunities elsewhere (Lee, 1966). This relationship reflects what Stark and Bloom (1985) described in the new economics of labor migration, where migration decisions are influenced not only by individual income potential but also by household and community strategies to diversify income sources. Therefore, as poverty rates decrease, fewer people might feel compelled to migrate in search of income diversification.

A positive correlation is observed between governance indicators, specifically rule of law and government effectiveness, and the net migration rate. This finding suggests that higher governance quality correlates with reduced emigration, as better governance is associated with a positive net migration balance. This observation is consistent with neoclassical economic theory, which posits that favorable socio-economic conditions reduce emigration by improving local opportunities (Borjas, 1989). Empirical studies, such as those by Karemera et al. (2000) and Cooray and Schneider (2016), have found that countries with effective governance tend to retain their citizens, as improved public services, legal frameworks, and economic stability reduce incentives to migrate. Additionally, world-systems theory explains that core regions, characterized by stronger institutions, tend to retain populations more effectively than peripheral regions (Wallerstein, 1974).

The findings highlight the importance of governance variables, suggesting that effective government management and respect for democratic laws (rule of law) contribute to reducing emigration. Effective governance enables better allocation of resources toward social programs, which can mitigate poverty and reduce emigration pressures. This aligns with findings by Lawan Ngoma and Wana Ismail (2013), who noted that high-quality governance diminishes outmigration by providing adequate social and economic support structures. *Figure 1* illustrates this relationship, showing how effective governance and the rule of law contribute to a positive migration balance by enhancing social support for individuals at risk of poverty. These results lend support to push-pull theory, particularly in the context of governance as a stabilizing “pull” factor, counteracting the “push” effect of poverty. Additionally, the findings resonate with Massey’s (1990) cumulative causation theory, where improved governance reduces the likelihood of outmigration by enhancing local living conditions.

The findings have significant implications for policymakers. Reducing poverty and improving governance could lower emigration rates by creating a more favorable local environment. This supports Stark and Taylor’s (1991) suggestion in the new economics of labor migration that poverty alleviation and good governance reduce the economic necessity for migration. In Central Eastern Europe, policies aimed at enhancing government effectiveness and supporting at-risk populations could contribute to greater population retention and stability. This approach aligns with the European Union’s broader goals of regional development and cohesion.

Figure 1

Conclusions

Migration constitutes a global phenomenon that has exerted influence on individuals and nations over an extensive period of time. This dynamic has shaped individual decisions and facilitated pursuits of improved employment opportunities, favourable political environments, or enhanced lifestyles. Despite encompassing a multitude of positive facets, migration is not immune to negative ramifications, such as human trafficking or smuggling. The intertwining of economic security with migration represents an extensively discussed topic within the European Union, serving as a potential determinant of this phenomenon. The European Union, as an entity, is significantly shaped by migration, particularly with individuals migrating from Central Eastern European nations to Western European countries in search of enhanced living and working conditions. Thus, the extent to which economic security influences and configures the migration process within the European Union emerges as a pertinent question. Regarding the statistical methodology employed, it is notable that the outcomes align with initial expectations. Specifically, factors such as justice and efficiency appear to deter individuals from emigrating, whereas conditions of poverty exert the opposite effect. It is imperative to underscore, however, that the analysis focused solely on Eastern European nations. Thus, there remains the prospect that expanding the scope of the analysis, perhaps to encompass all 27 EU countries, could yield divergent results. This expansion may yield more robust statistical outcomes, particularly through fixed effects models, or alternatively, the observed correlations may not be replicated. Hence, it is essential to vigilantly monitor this phenomenon and remain open to the prospect of future research yielding disparate findings.

References

- Afzali, F. A. (2019). Economic insecurity as a push factor of migration in afghanistan. *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications (IJSRP)*, 9(9), 533-547. <https://doi.org/10.29322/IJSRP.9.09.2019.p9369>.
- Bakewell, O. (2008). "Keeping them in their place": The ambivalent relationship between development and migration in Africa. *Third World Quarterly*, 29(7), 1341-1358. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/20455113>.
- Barrell, R., FitzGerald, J. & Riley, R. (2007). EU enlargement and migration: Assessing the macroeconomic impacts. *NIESR Discussion Paper No. 292*. Available at: <https://www.niesr.ac.uk/wp-content/uploads/2021/10/dp292.pdf> (accessed on 10 April 2024).
- Barsan-Pipu, N. & Tache, I. (2017). Risk Management of the East-West Migration Phenomenon. In N. Marinescu (Ed.), *East-West Migration in the European Union*, Cambridge Scholars Publishing. pp. 5-20.
- Bauman, Z. (1996). Tourists and vagabonds: heroes and victims of postmodernity. *Political Science Series / Institute for Advanced Studies*, Department of Political Science, 30. Institute for Advanced Studies (IHS), <https://nbnresolving.org/urn:nbn:de:0168-ssoar-266870>.
- Belgiojoso, E. B., & Terzera, L. (2018). Family reunification – who, when, and how? Family trajectories among migrants in Italy. *Demographic Research*, 38, 737-772. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/26457062>.
- Bell, S., Alves, S., Silveirinha de Oliveira, E. & Zuin, A. Migration and Land Use Change in Europe: A Review,
- Benton, M., & Petrovic, M. (2013). How Free Is Free Movement? Dynamics and Drivers of Mobility within the European Union. *Migration Policy Institute Europe*. Available at: <https://www.migrationpolicy.org/pubs/MPIEurope-FreeMovement-Drivers.pdf>. (accessed on 16 May 2024).
- Bhabha, J. (2005). Trafficking, Smuggling, and Human Rights. *Migration Policy Institute*. https://documentation.lastradainternational.org/lisidocs/424%20migration_funda_1007.pdf.
- Billiet, J., Meuleman, B., & De Witte, H. (2014). The relationship between ethnic threat and economic insecurity in times of economic crisis: Analysis of European Social Survey data. *Migration Studies*, 2(2), 135-161. <https://doi.org/10.1093/migration/mnu023>.
- Borjas, G. J. (1989). Economic theory and international migration. *International Migration Review*, 23(3), 457-485. <https://doi.org/10.1177/019791838902300304>.
- Buzan, B. (1991). New patterns of global security in the twenty-first century. *International Affairs (Royal Institute of International Affairs)*, 67(3), 431-451. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2621945>.
- Buzan, B., Waeber, O. & de Wilde, J. (1998). *Security. A New Framework for Analysis*. Lynne Rienner Publishers.
- Bygnes, S., & Flipo, A. (2017). Political motivations for intra-European migration. *Acta Sociologica*, 60(3), 199-212. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0001699316659909>.
- Carling, J., & Schewel, K. (2018). Revisiting aspiration and ability in international migration. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 44(6), 945-963. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1369183X.2017.1384146>.

- Castles, S. (1998). Globalization and migration: Some pressing contradictions. *International Social Science Journal*, 50(156), 179–186. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-2451.00122>.
- Castles, S., Miller, M. J., & Ammendola, G. (2005). The age of migration: International population movements in the modern world: new york: the guilford press, (2003), \$30. 00, 338 pages. *American Foreign Policy Interests*, 27(6), 537–542. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10803920500434037>.
- Clemens, M. (2014). Does Development Reduce Migration?. *Working Paper 359, Center for Global Development*. Available at : https://www.cgdev.org/sites/default/files/does-development-reduce-migration_final_0.pdf. (accessed on 15 April 2024)
- Clemens, M. (2020). The Emigration Life Cycle: How Development Shapes Emigration from Poor Countries. *IZA DP Nr. 13614*, IZA Institute of Labor Economics. <https://migrationnetwork.un.org/resources/emigration-life-cycle-how-development-shapes-emigration-poor-countries>.
- Cohen, R. (1997). *Global diasporas: An introduction*. University College London Press.
- Cohen, R. (2007). Creolization and cultural globalization: The soft sounds of fugitive power. *Globalizations*, 4(3), 369–384. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14747730701532492>.
- Collier, P. (2007). *The Bottom Billion. Why the poorest countries are failing and what can be done about it*. Oxford University Press.
- Cooray, A., & Schneider, F. (2016). Does corruption promote emigration? An empirical examination. *Journal of Population Economics*, 29(1), 293–310. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/44280393>.
- Czaika, M., & Reinprecht, C. (2022). Migration drivers: Why do people migrate? In P. Scholten (Ed.), *Introduction to Migration Studies*, Springer International Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-92377-8_3. pp. 49–82.
- De Haas, H. (2010). The internal dynamics of migration processes: A theoretical inquiry. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 36(10), 1587–1617. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1369183X.2010.489361>.
- De Haas, H. (2021). A theory of migration: The aspirations-capabilities framework. *Comparative Migration Studies*, 9(1), 8. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40878-020-00210-4>.
- Dubow, T., Marchand, K. & Siegel, M. (2019). *Evidence on the determinants of migration in the EU*. Available at: <https://www.reminder-project.eu/publications/working-papers/evidence-of-the-determinants-of-migration-in-the-eu/> (accessed on 15 April 2024).
- Engbersen, G., Okólski, M., Black, R., & Panțiru, C. (2010). Introduction: Working out a way from east to west: eu enlargement and labour migration from central and eastern europe. In G. Engbersen, M. Okólski, R. Black, & C. Panțiru (Eds.), *A Continent Moving West?* Amsterdam University Press. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/j.ctt46n229.3>. pp. 7–22.
- European Commission (2023). *An EU approach to enhance economic security*. Available at: https://ec.europa.eu/commission/presscorner/detail/en/IP_23_3358 (accessed on 10 April 2024).
- Eurostat (2024). *Migration and migrant population statistics*. Available at: <https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics->

explained/index.php?title=Migration_and_migrant_population_statistics#Migration_flows:_Immigration_to_the_EU_was_5.1_million_in_2022 (accessed on 15 April 2024).

Fischer-Souan, M. (2019). Between "Labour migration" and "New European mobilities": motivations for migration of Southern and Eastern Europeans in the EU. *Social Inclusion*, 7(4), 7-17. <https://doi.org/10.17645/si.v7i4.2334>.

Foresight: Migration and Global Environmental Change (2011) Final Project Report The Government Office for Science, London. Available at: <https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/media/5a74b18840f0b61df4777b6c/11-1116-migration-and-global-environmental-change.pdf>. (accessed on 9 April 2024).

Galbraith, J. K. (1979). *The Nature of Mass Poverty*. Harvard University Press.

Gallagher, A. (2001). Human Rights and the New UN Protocols on Trafficking and Migrant Smuggling: A Preliminary Analysis. *Human Rights Quarterly*, 23(4), 975–1004. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/4489368>.

Gunder, A. (1966). The development of underdevelopment. *Monthly Review*, 18(4), 17. https://doi.org/10.14452/MR-018-04-1966-08_3.

Hacker, J. S. (2018). Economic security. In J. E. Stiglitz, J.-P. Fitoussi, & M. Durand (Eds.), *For Good Measure*. OECD. <https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264307278-10-en>. pp. 203–240.

Harris, J. R., & Todaro, M. P. (1970). Migration, Unemployment and Development: A Two-Sector Analysis. *The American Economic Review*, 60(1), 126–142. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/1807860>.

Held, D., & McGrew, A. (2007). *Globalization/Anti-Globalization: Beyond the Great Divide*. Polity Press.

Herm, A., & Poulain, M. (2012). Economic crisis and international migration. What the eu data reveal? *Revue Européenne Des Migrations Internationales*, 28(4), 145–169. <https://doi.org/10.4000/remi.6171>.

Hoey, B. A. (2005). From pi to pie: Moral narratives of noneconomic migration and starting over in the postindustrial midwest. *Journal of Contemporary Ethnography*, 34(5), 586–624. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0891241605279016>.

Honohan, I. (2009). Reconsidering the claim to family reunification in migration. *Political Studies*, 57(4), 768–787. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9248.2008.00761.x>.

Idu, R. (2019). Source country economic development and dynamics of the skill composition of emigration. *Economies*, 7(1), 18. <https://doi.org/10.3390/economies7010018>.

ILO (International Labour Organisation) (2004). *Economic Security for a Better World*. Available at: https://www.ilo.org/public/english/protection/ses/info/publ/economic_security.htm (accessed on 8 April 2024).

Ioan-Franc, V. & Diamescu, M. A. (2012). Some Opinions On The Relation Between Security Economy And Economy Security. *Review of General Management*, 16(2), 43-75. <https://revecon.ro/articles/2010-2/2010-2-7.pdf>.

IOM (International Organization for Migration) (2006). *Glossary on Migration*. Available at: https://publications.iom.int/system/files/pdf/iml_34_glossary.pdf (accessed on 9 April 2024).

- IOM (International Organization for Migration) (2019). Who Is a Migrant? Available at: <https://www.iom.int/who-is-a-migrant> (accessed on 8 April 2024).
- IOM (International Organization for Migration) (2020). *World Migration Report 2020*. Available at: https://publications.iom.int/system/files/pdf/wmr_2020.pdf (accessed on 8 April 2024).
- IOM (International Organization for Migration) (2022). *World Migration Report 2022*. Available at: <https://publications.iom.int/books/world-migration-report-2022>. (accessed on 9 April 2024).
- Janoschka, M., & Haas, H. (2013). *Contested Spatialities, Lifestyle Migration and Residential Tourism*. Routledge.
- Karemera, D., Oguledo, V. I., & Davis, B. (2000). A gravity model analysis of international migration to North America. *Applied Economics*, 32(13), 1745–1755. <https://doi.org/10.1080/000368400421093>.
- King, R. (2012). Theories and Typologies of Migration: An Overview and a Primer. In E. Righard (Ed.), *Willy Brandt Series of Working Papers in International Migration and Ethnic Relations* 3/12 (pp. 1-48). Malmö Institute for Studies of Migration, Diversity and Welfare.
- King, R., & Ruiz-Gelices, E. (2003). International student migration and the European 'Year Abroad': Effects on European identity and subsequent migration behavior. *International Journal of Population Geography*, 9(3), 229–252. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ijpg.280>.
- Kok, P. (1999). The Definition of Migration and its Application: Making Sense of Recent South African Census and Survey Data. *Southern African Journal of Demography*, 7(1), 19–30. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/20853242>.
- Lawan Ngoma, A., & Wana Ismail, N. (2013). The determinants of brain drain in developing countries. *International Journal of Social Economics*, 40(8), 744–754. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJSE-05-2013-0109>.
- Lee, E. S. (1966). A theory of migration. *Demography*, 3(1), 47–57. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2060063>. *Living Reviews in Relativity*, 4(2). <http://lrlr.landscapeonline.de/Articles/lrlr-2010-2/download/lrlr-2010-2Color.pdf>.
- Lleshaj, S. (2013). Patterns of Migration in Central and Eastern Europe. *E-International Relations*. https://www.e-ir.info/2013/09/18/patterns-of-migration-in-central-and-eastern-europe/#google_vignette.
- Mabogunje, A. L. (1970). Systems approach to a theory of rural-urban migration. *Geographical Analysis*, 2(1), 1–18. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1538-4632.1970.tb00140.x>.
- Massey, D. S. (1990). Social Structure, Household Strategies, and the Cumulative Causation of Migration. *Population Index*, 56(1), 3–26. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3644186>.
- Mincer, J. (1978). Family Migration Decisions. *Journal of Political Economy*, 86(5), 749–773. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/1828408>.
- O'Neill, P. E. (2006). The European Union and migration: Security versus identity? *Defence Studies*, 6(3), 322–350. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14702430601060149>.
- Okólski, M. (2004). The effects of political and economic transition on international migration in Central and Eastern Europe. In J.E. Taylor & D.S. Massey (Eds.), *International Migration. Prospects and Policies*, Oxford University Press. pp. 35-58.

- Piore, M. J. (1979). *Birds of passage: Migrant labor and industrial societies*. Cambridge University Press.
- Salinari, G. and De Santis, G. (2013). Population growth and migration in Northern and Western Africa. *Genus*, 69(1), 61-81.
- Sassen, S. (1998). *Globalization and Its Discontents: Essays on the New Mobility of People and Money*. New York: The New Press.
- Skeldon, R. (2013). Global Migration: Demographic Aspects and Its Relevance for Development. Technical Paper No. 2013/6. *United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs*.
https://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/migration/publications/technicalpapers/docs/EGM.Skeldon_17.12.2013.pdf.
- Stark, O., & Bloom, D. E. (1985). The New Economics of Labor Migration. *The American Economic Review*, 75(2), 173–178. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/1805591>.
- Stark, O., & Taylor, J. E. (1991). Migration incentives, migration types: The role of relative deprivation. *The Economic Journal*, 101(408), 1163. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2234433>.
- Strey, A., Fajth, V., Dubow, T., & Siegel, M. (2018). *Determinants of migration flows in the EU*. Available at: <https://ec.europa.eu/research/participants/documents/downloadPublic?documentIds=080166e5b905a972&appId=PPGMS> (accessed on 15 April 2024).
- Taylor, J. E. (2006). International Migration and Economic Development. *Department of Economics and Social Affairs United Nations Secretariat*. Available at: UN/POP/MIG/SYMP/2006/09.
https://www.un.org/development/desa/pd/sites/www.un.org.development.desa.pd/files/unpd_om_200606_p09_taylor.pdf. (accessed on 15 April 2024).
- Taylor, M. P. (2007). Tied Migration and Subsequent Employment: Evidence from Couples in Britain. *Oxford Bulletin of Economics and Statistics*, 69(6), 795–818. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.14680084.2007.00482.x>.
- The European Economic Security Strategy (2023). Available at: <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX:52023JC0020> (accessed on 10 April 2024).
- Triandafyllidou, A., & Gropas, R. (2014). “Voting with their feet”: Highly skilled emigrants from southern Europe. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 58(12), 1614–1633. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0002764214534665>.
- United Nations Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea and Air, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, 15 November 2000, https://treaties.un.org/pages/ViewDetails.aspx?src=TREATY&mtdsg_no=XVIII-12-b&chapter=18.
- United Nations Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons Especially Women and Children, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, 15 November 2000, <https://www.ohchr.org/en/instruments-mechanisms/instruments/protocol-prevent-suppress-and-punish-trafficking-persons>.

Vertovec, S. (2009). *Transnationalism*. Routledge.

Vogler, M., & Rotte, R. (2000). The effects of development on migration: Theoretical issues and new empirical evidence. *Journal of Population Economics*, 13(3), 485–508. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/20007729>.

Wallace, C. & Stola, D. (2001). Introduction: patterns of migration in Central Europe. In C. Wallace & D. Stola (Eds.), *Patterns of migration in Central Europe*. Palgrave Macmillan. pp. 3-44.

Wallerstein, I. (1974). *The modern world system I: Capitalist agriculture and the origins of the European world economy in the sixteenth century*. Academic.

Wiese, E. B.-P. (2010). Culture and migration: Psychological trauma in children and adolescents. *Traumatology*, 16(4), 142–152. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1534765610388304>.

Wihtol De Wenden, C. (2023). International migration as a world issue. In C. Wihtol De Wenden, *Migration and International Relations*. Springer International Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-031-31716-3_1. pp. 1–14.

Zubiashvili, T. (2017). Globalization and migration processes. MIRDEC-4th, *International Academic Conference on Social Science, Multidisciplinary and Globalization Studies*, 04-07 July, 2017, Holiday Inn Piramides, Madrid, Spain. https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Tamaz-Zubiashvili/publication/321036735_GLOBALIZATION_AND_MIGRATION_PROCESSES/links/5a09cfc045851545eb594ea0/GLOBALIZATION-AND-MIGRATION-PROCESSES.pdf.