



ORIGINAL PAPER

The status of Highly Skilled Migrants in the European Union. Case Study: Opportunities for “Law” Graduates in the European Union Labor Market

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Abstract

Migration of the highly qualified workforce is a subject that has aroused interest in researching the migration phenomenon of recent years. The migration of highly skilled persons is viewed from a double perspective by the researchers: the gain for the host countries (brain gain) and the losses for the countries of departure (brain drain). The article will start from a definition of the “brain drain” phenomenon and will analyze the losses and gains resulting from this migration trend, presenting statistically the evolution of highly qualified migration on the states of the European Union. The last part of the presentation is based on the migration analysis of law graduates and will present the results of an opinion survey based on a questionnaire, conducted in the summer of 2018 in Romania, applied among students and graduates of law specialization, aiming to highlight their views on the perspectives offered by migration.

Keywords: *brain drain; brain gain; migration; European Union; “law” specialization graduates; opinion survey.*

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On the migration of highly qualified persons

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization defined the migration of highly qualified persons or the “brain drain” (locution used for the first time in the 50’s and 60’s and gaining wide usage in the late 1960s) (Cervantes, Guellec, 2002; Gibson, McKenzie, 2011; Commander, Kangasniemi, Winters, 2004) as , “an abnormal form of scientific exchange between countries, characterized by a one-way flow in favour of the most highly developed countries” (UNESCO, 1969; Kaempf, Singh, 1987 apud. Goga, Ilie, 2017).

The large scale that the brain drain phenomenon took, by increasing the number of highly qualified migrants from developing countries to developed countries, was based on “the growth-of-information and knowledge-intensive activities”, but also on the active policies of the developed states to attract skilled and “talented” personnel, in other words, policies to attract the high IQ (Commander, Kangasniemi, Winters, 2004: 236).

So, in a period of high mobility, persons “who opt to emigrate combine economic rationalism with existential questions about quality of life at destination” and “better career prospects” (Bartolini, Gropas, Triandafyllidou, 2016: 653).

Traditionally, USA was the “IQ magnet” for highly skilled immigrants, with talent, expertise and ambition, a “*sine qua non* for maintaining a competitive advantage in the knowledge-based global economy”, and that is why US had “relatively lax immigration policies to attract”, “knowledge migrants” (Shachar, 2006:103-104). But, nowadays, globally, we find other states that have resorted to emigration policies favorable to attracting highly qualified personnel, such as Canada, Australia, United Kingdom, Germany, France and other EU countries etc. (Shachar, 2006: 104-105) and, as Ayelet Shachar noticed, today “there is a growing international competition for skilled immigrants” and “leading countries do learn from, and emulate, each other”, the main tool being the “targeted skilled migration programs” (Shachar, 2006: 106).

The impact of highly qualified migration “on sending countries arises from a combination of direct and feedback effects that are difficult to quantify” (Docquier, Lowell, Marfouk, 2009: 297). So, poor countries lose the highly skilled workforce and acquire a large deficit in key sectors such as the medical sector, information technology, education, industry etc.

In the receiving states of highly qualified workforce we encounter the phenomenon of “brain gain”, which helps the development of different economic sectors, without major investments in education and qualification (Ilie Goga, Ilie, 2017: 91).

On the other hand, we find in literature and the idea of “knowledge spillovers”, so in a study carried out by Thanh Le, it is highlighted the idea that “international labour migration “effectively transmits knowledge across countries”, and “can act as a significant channel for research and development (R&D) spillovers” (Le, 2008: 618-620).

In the decision to emigrate of the high-skilled migrants, there are many reasons included, such as the “difference in GDP per capita between destination and source country” (Puglisi, Serban, 2019; Pricinã, 2018), the unemployment rate in the country of departure (Borjas, 1999, Roy, 1951, Lumpe, 2017: 10), emigration policies in the country of destination, migration costs such as “geographical distance, existence of relatives abroad, household assets, and credit availability” (Krieger, Renner, Ruhose,

2018: 35-36) but there are also non-economic factors such as cultural barriers to migration (Ilie, 2013; Sorescu, 2014), security (Ilie, 2014; Georgescu, 2014; Ilie Goga, 2019), and also, very important the “public beliefs, like high-skilled migrants are more attracted by countries with stronger American Dream” (example: “that own hard work can guarantee a better life in terms of higher income” and higher social status) (Lumpe, 2017).

Most of the researches made in the field of brain drain, emphasize the economic motivation of emigrants, because, as E.G. Ravenstein said, “the primary causes of migration are economic” (Grogger, Hanson 2015; Trebilcock, Sudak 2006: 241). So, the simplest explanation is that the highest qualified people tend to emigrate to the states with higher earnings, so they can get the greatest wages.

This could be an explanation for the fact that “United States and Canada receive a much larger share of high-skilled migrants compared to European countries, where the earnings distributions are more compressed” (Kerr, Kerr, Özden, Parsons, 2016 :9).

For the neoclassical paradigm, the factor “profi” is decisive, “these movements are seen as natural equilibrium-restoring mechanisms between low-wage and high-wage countries”, although, in general, departure states for highly qualified personnel are “mid-income peripheral countries”, not the poorest ones (Portes, 2009: 9). Furthermore, according to Michael J. Trebilcock and Matthew Sudak, “neoclassical economic theory suggests that the optimal migration policy would be not to have one at all” and “borders should be open, because constraint on the international labor market, like, closed or only semi-open borders, will generate distortions” in economy (Trebilcock, Sudak, 2006: 236).

New Economics of Migration theory, emphasizes that, in the decision of emigration, highly qualified persons refer either to the average level of living in the country of departure, or to the complete lack of jobs in the area of their education, in the region of departure (Portes, 2009: 13-14).

According to world-system analysis, an essential factor in the decision of emigration of highly-skilled persons, is technological development and also the globalization of professional standards and thus, when the local market does not allow the exercise of acquired skills, the highly qualified persons will choose to move to another region (Portes, 2009: 13-14).

In the analysis of migration, we often find in the literature, opposite points of view, regarding the effects and as Alejandro Portes notes, from a positive perspective, the migration is presented as “the safety valve to poverty and unemployment” while, also, being seen as a “river of remittances sent by expatriates”, but from the negative perspective is presented “not only as a symptom of underdevelopment, but a cause of it, as it depopulates entire regions, turns sending families from producers into renters, and allows governments to escape their responsibilities by relying on migrant remittances” (Portes, 2009: 5-6).

The cost-benefit balance between the countries of departure and the countries of destination in the case of brain migration shows us that the report is very much in favor of the benefits of the receiving countries of highly qualified migrants.

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Table no. 1 Cost-benefit ratio for countries of origin and countries of destination

Countries of departure	Countries of destination
Benefits	Benefits
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - the accumulated expertise the migrants can use in the event of a potential return to work in the country of departure - remittances (although some studies show that remittances will fall as the migrant skill level rises) (Faini, 2007; Adams, 2009) - Creation of business networks (“1. networks of scientists and R&D personnel, 2. business networks of knowledge-intensive start-ups and 3. networks of professionals working for multinationals”) (Page, Plaza, 2006: 276). Creation of organizations/ groups based on “transnationalism” (“intense traffic of communication, information, and resources across places of origin and destination) (Portes, 2009: 9) - General advantages of labor migration (like: raising living standards in families left behind or cultural development and new political views) (Parsons, Winters 2015) - providing a positive signal that motivates others in the sending country to acquire more education (Commander, Kangasniemi, Winters, 2004: 236) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - selection of the best specialists - developing the key sectors of the economy, research, medical sector and education - minimum investment in education and training - advanced research development - Creation of business networks - All the benefits of immigration (increasing birth rates, increasing public sector contributions, developing the economy, cheaper labor etc.)
Disadvantages	Disadvantages
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Large deficit in economy key sectors - Fields of activity seriously damaged by the massive migration, such as healthcare, education or research, both in terms of efficiency and of personnel (Ilie Goga, Ilie, 2017). - Loss of major investments in education and training - Loss of the best specialists, business leaders and role models (Kerr, Kerr, Özden, Parsons, 2016 :20) - A deficit of labor force in key sectors; - A diminishing number of tax payers in short and long-term; - Low-level research and expertise - All the disadvantages of labor migration (like: population decline; faster population ageing; strong pressure upon the national retirement system; low level of remittances due to less frequent contact with the family members left behind etc.) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Investments in the migration policies - Investments in the targeted skilled migration programs (Shachar, 2006: 106)

Source: Author’s own compilation

Brain drain in the European Union

According to the UN, in 2015 there were 244 million international migrants. OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development) countries, host almost 50% of the world's migrants, with a higher rate of highly educated migration (tertiary education) than net migration. OECD data shows higher rates (more than 50%) of highly skilled migration from the poorest and least developed countries (Salmi, Salmi, 2017).

In 2011, “the number of the emigrants with higher education, originating in the OECD states was 31 million, with 13 million more than in 2001” (OECD, 2015: 26 apud Ilie Goga, Ilie, 2017).

We can also see in the last years a high rise of highly qualified female migration and we can talk about a “significant feminization” of brain drain from almost all origin countries in the world. “From 1990 to 2010, the migration of high-skilled females to OECD countries rose by 157%, compared to 106% for males” (Kerr, Kerr, Özden, Parsons, 2016: 9). In 2010, the total number of highly qualified women migrants was higher than the number of the highly qualified men. Of all highly qualified immigrants, the percentage of women was higher in all OECD destination, “with the exception of Spain, although three other Southern European countries exhibited the largest overall proportions Greece (60%), Portugal (60%) and Italy (65%)” (Kerr, Kerr, Özden, Parsons, 2016: 9).

The free movement on the European labor market is one of the greatest achievements of European construction. But, without a doubt, “advantages of free movement are accompanied by significant drawbacks, which can be seen as unintended spillover effects”, like the brain drain, “through the emigration of skilled labour from poorer to richer countries” (Golovics, 2019: 63). Even after entering the European Union, the wage incomes of the newly entered states have failed to reach those of the old Member States so that, favored by the free movement on the European labor market, many people, including the highly qualified ones (in proportion of 15.6 %), decided to migrate to Western European states, and that is why, “the emigration of highly skilled persons, and now also that of lower-skilled persons, arises as an severe problem in many European states” (Golovics, 2019: 64).

In European Union, “experience of ‘poly-crisis’ in recent years (unemployment, debt, refugees crisis etc.) has exacerbated the need of member states of being perceived as being in control of migration flows” (the most expressive experience being the Brexit campaign) (Hasselbalch, 2019: 1334). So, we can see, in relation to the migration of the highly qualified workforce in the EU, “is the emergence and re-constitution of a policy area” (Hasselbalch, 2019: 1334).

In 2017, we can find around “17 million EU28 migrants”, a 32% percentage of them being in the 15-34 age category. Most of the EU28 movers had as destination countries Great Britain and Germany. In 2017, the highest number of highly qualified migrants was from “Poland (576,300), Germany (472,700), and Romania (467,500)” (European Committee of the Regions, 2018: 12). According to European Commission. Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Inclusion Directorate E-Skills, top countries of origin were Romania, Poland, Italy and Portugal (EC-DG EMPL, 2018). In 2017, a percent of 25% of “EU28 migrants with age between 15 and 64, had tertiary level education”, and they had chosen with priority “urban settings and northern areas of

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the EU (Ireland, Sweden, Denmark, Estonia, as well as several regions in the UK)” (European Committee of the Regions, 2018: 1).

Details on intra-EU migration flows can be found in the results of the ESPON project, “The Geography of New Employment Dynamics in Europe”. The project analyzed sending and receiving regions in the EU, concluding that, in 2014, there were “84 sending NUTS2 and 336 receiving NUTS2 in the EU28”. Sending regions “appear to be located in most of Portugal and Greece, in Spain, the north-eastern parts of France, the northern parts of Finland and Ireland, the Baltic States and in several parts of Eastern Europe, as well as in Cyprus” (European Committee of the Regions, 2018: 8). The ESPON project had some important conclusions (ESPO, 2017): 1. Achieving a region's average GDP was noticed that “sending regions had an average GDP per capita of 64% of the EU28 average and receiving regions had an average GDP per capita of 108% of the EU28 average”; 2. The directions of migration are: “south-north, east-west and rural-urban”; 3. From the peripheral regions there is the tendency of emigration; 4. “The knowledge economy is an important driver of intra-EU mobility and in particular of the mobility of young people and of highly skilled migrants” (European Committee of the Regions, 2018: 9).

From the 2011 Census database we can observe the main sectors that employ highly skilled EU28 movers at regional levels: “wholesale and retail trade, transportation and storage, accommodation and food service activities” sectors (31%), “public administration, defense, education, human health and social work activities” (18%) and “professional, scientific, technical administrative and support service activities (17%)” (European Committee of the Regions, 2018: 10).

Analyzing regional distribution of highly qualified EU28 migrants, we can see that the preferred regions are placed in “the northern parts of the EU (Ireland, Sweden, Denmark, Estonia and several regions in the UK) and urban settings”, and “the less attractive regions for movers with tertiary education are located in Italy”. “Employment rates of highly educated EU28 movers are very high across the entire EU”, with some exceptions, so “the lowest rate is found in Campania, Italy (52.7%), and the highest rate, equivalent to the full employment of highly educated movers (i.e. 100%), is found in two Czech regions (Severozápad and Stredni Morava), in Corsica (France), and in Lincolnshire (UK)” (European Committee of the Regions, 2018: 10).

Positive net impacts of national diversity on innovation are observed in several European countries (Kerr, Kerr, Özden, Parsons, 2016 :20 apud. Nathan, 2015; Niță, Ilie Goga, 2017; Porumbescu, 2018).

Atoyan et. al. (2016), made a study on UE, based on the large statistical data, and found that “countries with lower initial levels of per capita income experienced larger net outward migration during the past 25 years”. Also “western European countries with higher per capita incomes attracted more migrants than their less wealthy neighbours”, and we can see both skilled and unskilled migrants (European Commission. Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Inclusion Directorate E – Skills, 2018: 80).

From the presentation made above, we can see that intra-community migration, including the migration of highly qualified people is very broad. The diploma recognition system between the departure states and the destination countries has an extremely important role.

As previously mentioned, the free movement of workers is a fundamental right for the European Union citizens, a right that facilitated intra-EU labour mobility (Motoi,

2019; Olimid, 2017). But, along with the right to free movement and the implementation of the Bologna Process that facilitated the recognition of qualifications in the 48 European countries (European Commission, 2018), a large percent of highly educated persons migrated in specific European regions, bringing disadvantages to other regions (Niță, Ilie Goga, 2014).

In European Union it is “no automatic EU-wide recognition of academic diplomas”. This is why the applicants need to go “through a national procedure to get their academic degree or diploma recognised in another EU country, if they seek admission to a further course of study there. If someone already know that she/he will eventually want to pursue further studies in a different country, she/he will have to check in advance whether their diploma will be recognised in that country” (Your Europe. EU, 2018a). Every government of EU countries is “still responsible for its education systems and that is why is free to apply its own rules, including whether to or not to recognise academic qualifications obtained elsewhere” (Your Europe. EU, 2019a). Mostly, “a person can obtain a “statement of comparability” of his/her university degree, stating how it compares to the diplomas delivered in the EU country he/she is going to move to. Therefore, every person should contact the ENIC/NARIC centre in the country where he/she would like their diplomas assessed for comparability” (Your Europe. EU, 2019a).

Other European regulations “govern the recognition of professional qualifications in other EU countries (degrees that give access to a profession, such as law or nursing)” (Your Europe. EU, 2019a; Grignoli, Șerban, 2018). The system of recognition of professional qualifications in the EU is regulated by Directive 2005/36/EC, amended by Directive 2013/55/EC. “The directive provides an EU system of recognition of professional experience and promotes automatic recognition of professional experience across the member states. In the practical activity, the recognition of professional qualifications found in the Directive 2005/36/EC allows the free movement of professionals such as doctors or architects. Other professions, such as lawyers or sailors, fall under the scope of different legislation. In January 2016, the Commission introduced a new, EU-wide digital procedure for the recognition of professional qualifications – the European Professional Card (EPC)*. The procedure, is currently available for physiotherapists, general care nurses, pharmacists, real estate agents and mountain guides, and it is easier for Europeans to work where their professional skills are needed” (European Commission. IMIES, 2019a).

In European Union, the general rule, is that “a profession is regulated if a person have to hold a specific degree to access the profession, sit special exams such as state exams and/or register with a professional body before you can practice it. If the profession is regulated in the EU country where a person want to practice, he/she may need to apply to get his/her professional qualification recognized there” (Your Europe. EU, 2019b). Regulated professions differ from one country to another in the EU and that is why, every person interested, should check “the regulated professions database” (European Commission. The EU single market regulated professions database, 2020) to find out if the profession is regulated in the EU country he/she is moving to. If the occupation someone wants to exercise does not appear, it may mean that it's not regulated in the country he/she is migrating to and the person needs to ask “the national

* The European Professional Card is “an electronic certificate proving either that the professional has met all the necessary conditions to provide services in a host Member State on a temporary and occasional basis or the recognition of professional qualifications for establishment in a host Member State” (Directive 2013/55/EU, art. 3, k).

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contact points for professional qualifications in the country where he/she wants to work” (Your Europe. EU, 2019b).

According to European Commission statistics, the most mobile professions are in the medical field. Thus, making a “top 20” of these professions according to the number of decisions taken on recognition of professional qualifications for the purpose of permanent establishment within the EU Member States, EEA countries and Switzerland, we can find from 1997 to 2019, the following results:

1. Doctor of Medicine (144204)	11. Pharmacist (12519)
2. Nurse (134083)	12. Lawyer/Barrister/Solicitor (12363)
3. Secondary school teacher (106798)	13. Social worker (8918)
4. Physiotherapist (36754)	14. Kindergarten teacher/ Nursery school teacher/Preparatory school teacher (8814)
5. Dental Practitioner (27463)	15. Fork lift truck operator (8138)
6. Electrician / Senior electrician /Specialised electrician (23012)	16. Psychologist (7841)
7. Nursing Assistants and Health Care Assistants (21359)	17. Midwife (7541)
8. Primary school teacher (17005)	18. Occupational therapist (5509)
9. Architect (14423)	19. Radiographer / Radiotherapist (5493)
10. Veterinary Surgeon (13961)	20. Engineer (4947)

Source: European Commission (2019) *Statistics. Professionals moving abroad*

Case study: opportunities for graduates of “law” specialization in the European Union labor market

Law graduates have a problem in exercising a legal profession in other countries, as legislation is different from one country to another, but the system of recognition of diplomas and professional qualifications is the same as for any other specialization.

As mentioned above, the lawyer's profession has a different EU regulation, namely Directive 77/249/EEC to facilitate the exercise by lawyers of freedom to provide services and Directive 98/5/EC to facilitate practice of the profession of lawyer on a permanent basis in a Member State other than that in which the qualification was obtained.

The “lawyers already established in one EU country may establish themselves in any other EU country and carry out the same activities on a permanent basis”. To do so, they have to keep their home-country professional title.

To “establish themselves in another EU country, lawyers must register with the authorities of the host country and provide proof (a certificate) of their registration in their home country. After 3 years of regular practice in the host country, lawyers may apply to acquire the professional title of the host country” (European Commission. IMIES, 2019b).

Returning to the mobility of the legal professions, in the statistical data of the European Commission we have found the following decisions taken on recognition of professional qualifications for the purpose of permanent establishment within the EU Member States, EEA countries and Switzerland, for the period 1997- 2019:

- 12363 decisions for Lawyer/Barrister/Solicitor,
- 279 decisions for Arbitrator,
- 186 decisions for Corporate Lawyer,

- 15 decisions for Public Notary,
- 11 decisions for Insolvency practitioner,
- 5 decisions for Debt-collector,
- 4 decisions for Legal advisors,
- 2 decisions for Judicial technical expert
- 52 decisions for Mediator, as a profession correlated with the legal field

(European Commission, 2019).

Analyzing the results of a sociological research on the migration trend of “law” students and graduates

In the following section we will present some of the results of a sociological survey based on a questionnaire, conducted in 2018 in Romania, among law students and legal practitioners.

The research aimed at identifying the opinion of students and graduates of “law” specialization, regarding their potential emigration, their options and their claims. Quota sampling was used to conduct the sampling. The questionnaire was applied in Dolj County to 353 persons: 144 law students and 209 active persons in the judicial field.

Q. 1: “What are the main reasons that would determine you to emigrate from Romania?”

	Frequency	Percent
“I would not emigrate for any reason”	62	17.6%
“Precarious health system in Romania”	78	22.1%
“High level of corruption in Romania”	52	14.7%
“Low paid job”	46	13%
“Precarious education system in Romania”	40	11.3%
“Lack of a job”	37	10.5%
“Low number of jobs in my higher education field”	17	4.8%
“High products and services prices”	9	2.5%
“Personal causes (marriage, family emigration in that state etc.)”	5	1.4%
“Poor work conditions”	2	0.6%
“High crime level”	1	0.3%
“Another reason”	1	0.3%
I do not know/I do not answer	3	0.8%
Total	353	100%

The main causes for which Romanian legal practitioners and “law” students from Dolj County, Romania, would emigrate are: in a proportion of 22.1%, “the precarious health system in Romania”, in a proportion of 14.7% the “high level of corruption in Romania”, in a proportion of 13% are “poorly paid jobs”, in a proportion of 11.3%, “the precarious education system in Romania”, and in a proportion of 10.5% “the lack of jobs” (Birtu, Gavrila, Goga, Stanciu, Gruev, 2018: 40).

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Q2: “What are the main reasons due to which you choose to emigrate in a particular state?”

	Frequency	Percent
“Performant health system”	86	24.4%
“A high payroll level”	65	18.4%
“I would not emigrate for any reason”	61	17.3%
“Performant education system”	60	17.0%
“Better work conditions”	30	8.5%
“Better insurance, allowances, social benefits”	23	6.5%
“The country’s culture”	7	2%
“Family reasons (marriage, family emigration etc.)”	7	2%
“The country's infrastructure”	6	1.7%
“Beautiful landscapes”	1	0.3%
Something else	2	0.6%
I do not know/I do not answer	5	1.4%
Total	353	100%

The main reasons that would determine law students and legal practitioners to emigrate are: for 24.4% a “performant health system”, for 18.4% a “high payroll level”, for 17% a “performant education system” and for 8.5% “better workplace conditions” (Birtu, Gavrilă, Goga, Stanciu, Gruev, 2018: 43).

Q3. “If you choose to emigrate, the emigration type would be.....?”

	Frequency	Percent
“Either permanently or temporarily (depending on the conditions)”	150	42.5%
“Certainly temporarily”	147	41.6%
“Certainly permanently”	25	7.1%
I do not know/I do not answer	31	8.8%
Total	353	100%

When “asked about the type of a potential migration”, only 7.1% of the respondents said “they would emigrate permanently”, while 41.6% specified that “they would emigrate temporarily” and 42.5% said “they would emigrate either permanently or temporarily, depending on the conditions” (Birtu, Gavrilă, Goga, Stanciu, Gruev, 2018: 46).

Q4: “If you choose to emigrate, what are your expectations regarding the labour market sector in which to be employed?”

	Frequency	Percent
“I would accept to work only in the primary sector, even if the job is not in the field of my university degree specialization”	178	50.4%
“I would accept to work only in the primary sector and only in the field of my university degree specialization”	146	41.4%

“I would accept to work even in the secondary sector, but only for a limited period”	16	4.5%
I do not know/I do not answer	13	3.7%
Total	353	100%

When asked to specify their employability expectations on the labour market of the destination country, in the case of a potential migration, we notice that law students and graduates, have very high expectations, thus, 41.4% of the respondents said “they would accept to work only in the *primary sector*” (“stable jobs, generous benefits, good working conditions” etc.) and “only in the field of their university degree specialization”, a percent of “50.4% said that they would accept to work only in the *primary sector*, even if the workplace is not in the field of their university degree specialization” and only 4.5% of those interviewed, said they would accept to work in the *secondary sector* (“characterized by unqualified and unstable jobs, difficult working conditions, low salary level etc”) (Birtu, Gavrilă, Goga, Stanciu, Gruev, 2018: 51-52).

Q5: “What would be the minimum monthly income that you would expect to earn on the labour market of the destination country?”

Types of states, according to population incomes	Average of expected revenue	Real average income
“States with a high average income”	2600 €	2200 €
“States with a medium average income”	1998 €	1390 €
“States with a low average income”	1510 €	625 €

When asked to specify the minimum monthly income that they would expect “to earn on the labour market of the destination country”, the persons surveyed specified different amounts, depending on their expectations, but also on the standard of living in the different countries, “ranging from 250 euro per month to 30.000 euro per month”, but, “after making the arithmetic mean of the incomes claimed and we reach an average” of 2600 euro/month for rich countries (i.e. Germany, United Kingdom, France etc.), an average of 1998 euro/month for countries with a medium average income (i.e. Spain, Italy etc.) and an average of 1510 euro/month for countries with a low average income (i.e. Bulgaria, Hungary etc.). So, we can see “the high wage claims of law students and legal practitioners for potential mobility” (Birtu, Gavrilă, Goga, Stanciu, Gruev, 2018: 54-55).

Conclusions

Analyzing the phenomenon of brain drain and the EU statistical data, we can notice that the frequency of migration among practitioners in the field of law is relatively low. On the other hand, highlighting the facilities and limitations offered by the European legislative framework, we can conclude that the main limitation is due to the difficulty of practicing the profession in a state other than that of training, in the context of the major legislative differences of the EU member states. Moreover, empirical research shows another cause of low mobility, namely, low preference for emigration

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among law specialization students and legal practitioners, corroborated with very high financial and occupational claims in the case of a potential emigration.

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