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CHINESE MIGRANT FEMALE ENTREPRENEURSHIP:

A STUDY ON THE POSSIBILITY TO MIGRATE AND TO
BUILD AN INDEPENDENT ACTIVITY

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迁徙者这一术语通常被理解为涵盖所有有关移民的决定是由个人出于“个人便利”而不受外部强制性因素干预而自由采取的情况。因此，这一术语适用于个人和家庭成员移居另一个国家或地区，以改善他们的物质或社会条件，改善他们自己或家庭的前景。

为什么中国人移民，为什么他们选择意大利，为什么他们能比从其他国家的移民在意大利经济体系中更好地整合？他们为什么选择独立的企业？妇女在这些企业中的业主作用是什么？

我的分析重点将特别集中在年轻的中国女性，他们离开中国来到意大利的动机。为什么我们国家能吸引中国女人？他们为什么要离开他们的国家？在中国的意大利劳动力市场的看法是什么？

今天的妇女成功地获得了一种平等和对自身能力的充分考虑，她们总是更加频繁地从事那些过去通常属于男人的工作。

今天，妇女管理企业，创建企业，在各种企业中获得重要职位，也许，由于多任务处理的女性特质，她们成功地做好本职工作，同时管理私人领域。

不幸的是，这些妇女在大多数时候都是自营职业者的机会不在他们的国家，他们可能不得不搬迁到他们的项目中去。移居到其他国家，他们将成为移民，他们将不得不面对许多障碍，但到现在为止，移民属于我们的社会和我们的文化，在某些情况下，他们也影响我们与他们的。

看到这种移民妇女的处境，试着想象她们在国外成功创业是多么困难和非凡。这肯定是一个长期的过程，并非没有困难，但其中一些妇女成功了，即使有关数据的数据还不十分精确和完整，在这篇论文中，我将证明，妇女是独立的移民，他们愿意迁移，建立自己的创业活动和独立。

我想指定这个女性创业动力的增加，从另一个更广泛的现象的迁徙流动女性化现象。因此，这种新的女性移民景观，不仅使女性成为追随丈夫的女性，而且成为一个自治移民项目的女主人公，这是由必要性推动的，也是在意大利确认自己的可能性的。移民妇女似乎当时承担的迁移运行比较新的职位，对移民的选择，在到达社会整合手续，最重要的是，在比较的位置自己的文化之间，在东道国的转变。在某些情况下，妇女是主要的环或链的迁移，但是他们在劳动力市场和项目的决策过程本身的积极作用。

采用性别观点意味着要意识到在过去的几年里，迁徙的场景发生了深刻的变化。流的女性化是一个转型的含义和特征的动力学迁移项目的指标。

总是有更多的妇女独自迁徙，渴望解放。移民妇女不仅要经历一个解放的过程，而且要在最好的情况下，也要赋予权力，或者更确切地说，要意识到自己的能力和自己身份的国际建构。

总之我的分析将集中在三个主要方面：迁移的背景来源和到来，女性在这两个国家的意大利和中国的创业环境和作用。分析这一点，我将设法了解一个女人移居意大利并自己创业的动机。我也会通过对来自吉林长春华侨大学的年轻中国女性的一些采访，试图了解他们毕业后的愿望，如果他们想创业，如果他们想在意大利找到这项业务，为什么？。

在第一章中，我分析了两迁移情境（意大利语和中文）他们是继电器不同，在意大利，我们总是能找到移民和移民的自由，而在中国，在过去，没有这种自由，直到一点，有时人们想在中国可能不回来。

在第二章中，我分析了我感到惊讶的女人的角色并没有这么大的不同。在中国和意大利在过去妇女被提交到一个宗法家族的力量，现在他们获得的权利做任何人包括企业家和去其他国家实现项目。

妇女的固定化是一个历史性的壮举，是一代又一代的，是人类团体与领土建立永久关系的主要手段之一。在我们原始的工业文明中，旅程不再是纯粹的良性活动。然而，在长期的父权制文明发展中，航海被看作是一种展示男性力量的活动，并在其流动中形成了一个特别的“男性”对立面，将“女性气质”根植于地方、土壤、花园以及地球母亲的同一天性中

在第三章中，我试图用最简单的方式解释我所知道的创业精神，这是一个很难实现的概念，但一切都是企业家精神，因为它是实现、促进和管理项目的能力。显然，最重要的是拥有一个项目并坚信它的实现。

创业是一个主题，一直在过去的 20 年中，占主导地位的公共辩论，特别是在意大利，获得了合法性，从未有过的。

企业家精神可以用不同的方式和维度来表达，从一个大的公司经理到一个挑选合适的销售产品的步行者。

长期创业，从词源学的观点来说，来源于拉丁语的动词“prehendere”意味着“做自己”。从经济的角度来看，创业是一个多层面的领域，不同的方法面临。

在论文的第二部分，我将对访谈进行分析。我将试着去了解是否有这些年轻妇女离开中国的愿望，开始自己的项目，开始在意大利。

面试的问题实际上是着眼于未来：你的项目是什么？您想迁移吗？当一名企业家会是什么感觉？

我对这项工作的想法源于这样一个事实：在意大利，在我的城市，有许多中国人参加各种活动，许多妇女参与其中。没有其他人口能够融入经济体系，因为他们已经能够。出于这个原因，我决定理解为什么要追溯到迁移项目的开始，我可以得出结论，最重要的原因是动机。

离开你的原籍国逃离或试图有一个更好的生活没有网络，支持或项目带来什么。离开贵国，有一个精确的项目和一个社区来支撑它，这是中国社区所做的，正如我们在意大利大部分城市看到的那样，他们成功了。

在收集了采访中不同答案的所有数据后，我得出结论，我的期望是错误的。

我想，看到所有在意大利和我的城市生活和工作的中国人，出于不同的原因，他们宁愿离开他们的国家，但是离开。在回答这些年轻女性只有 1 / 10 宁愿离开中国，不是因为她想逃跑，但是因为她要实现梦想，关于艺术在意大利。别人都不愿意离开自己的家庭，他们看到中国未来。

另一个重要的数据是，只有 2/10 的女性愿意成为一名企业家，而另一些女性不仅不愿意，而且认为女性没有经济头脑，因此无法追求创业道路。

最后，我必须指出，在我的论文中，我指出，在这两种现象中，移民、创业和妇女的作用有了演变和进步，但正如采访回答所指出的那样，要实现完全融合还有很长的路要走。

我不知道什么时候走向平等的决定性步骤何时完成，何时我们的世界将真正成为全球的代表。我所知道的是，有些事情正在发生变化，我们所能做的就是，这种行动比歧视更快。

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ABSTRACT

Immigrants are an important part of our society, of our culture and, in some cases, they are influencing us with theirs. It is not rare that they are seen as a threat because there is in many people the preconception that immigration is linked with crime and illegality. Sometimes this thought can be truthful but sometimes we have demonstrations that these people do not take anything from us, on the contrary, they represent a benefit from which we should get something.

In my work, I would like to pay specific attention to the link between migration and entrepreneurship because there are many immigrants who invest their time and money to build enterprises that are integrated in the Italian economic system.

Entrepreneurial mind-set particularly belongs to Chinese population that, according to its values, would never live as a scrounger in a foreign country; on the contrary, they would do anything to give their contribution, and they would certainly build an independent activity to sustain their family and community.

Furthermore, I would like to adopt a gender perspective, focusing on women's participation in entrepreneurship. In the last years, the migratory scene has deeply changed. The feminization of migration flows points to a transformation of the meanings and the dynamics that characterizes the migratory project.

Why do Chinese migrate, why do they chose Italy and why can they integrate better than other immigrants can in the Italian economic system? Why do they chose and independent activity? What is the entrepreneurial role of women in these activities?

This work provides a background on migration history in Italy and China, of the role of women in these two countries and their position in migration processes based on a literature review and theoretical discussion. Subsequently the study focuses on the attitude of young Chinese women towards migration, work and entrepreneurship based on qualitative interviews with young Chinese women.

INTRODUCTION

Why do Chinese migrate, why do they chose Italy and why can they integrate better than other immigrants can in the Italian economic system? Why do they chose an independent activity? What is the entrepreneurial role of women in these activities?

The focus of my analysis is particularly on young Chinese women and their motivation to leave China to come in Italy. Why does our country attract Chinese women? Why do they plan to leave their country? What is the perception of Italian labour market in China?

Women today have succeeded in getting closer to a parity of conditions with men in many fields and a great consideration for their own abilities and they are always more frequently devoted to jobs that, in the past, were destined to men. Today women manage activities, create enterprises, reach important positions in varied firms and, in many cases, they succeed in doing well in their job and at the same time manage the private sphere.

I want to specify that this phenomenon of female entrepreneurship gain momentum from another wider phenomenon of feminization of the migratory flows. This new scenery of female migration sees therefore protagonists not only women that follow the husband, but also women bearers of an autonomous migratory project, pushed by the necessity and by the possibility to affirm themselves, for example, in Italy. In some cases, women constitute the primary ring of the migratory chain or, however they have an active role in the labour market and in the decisional process of the project itself.

To adopt a gender perspective means to be aware that in the last years the migratory scene has deeply changed. The feminization of the flows is the indicator of a transformation of the meanings and the dynamics that characterizes the migratory project.

More and more women migrate alone, for a desire of emancipation. Migrating women cannot only run into a process of emancipation but in the best of the cases, also of empowerment, or rather of awareness of her abilities and ri-construction of her own identity.

It is surely a long run and not without difficulty because women are underrepresented in migrants running a business and entrepreneurship in general but some of these women succeeded (Zhu and Chu, 2010). The data regarding the numbers are not very precise and

complete yet but, in this thesis, I will put in evidence that women are independent migrants, they are willing to migrate, to build their own entrepreneurial activity and independence.

Chinese case, in particular, is interesting because China is having a great development in those years and is not just a development from the economical point of view but also from a social point of view in particular regarding women's desire to gain their own independence (Zhu and Chu, 2010).

The first part of my thesis focuses on three main points: the migration contexts of origin and of arrival, the role of women in both countries Italy and China and the entrepreneurial contexts. After that in the second part, there will be an analysis, based on interviews with ten young Chinese women attending University in China, to understand their attitude towards migration and entrepreneurship and towards Italy, in particular as possible country of destination.

Analysing this last point I will try to understand the motivation for a woman to migrate to Italy and to start an enterprise on her own. Empirically, I will analyse their motivations base on qualitative with young Chinese women from the Jilin Huaqiao University in Changchun trying to understand what their aspirations are after graduation, if they would be interested in starting a business, if they would like to locate this business in Italy and why.

In the first chapter, I analysed the two migration contexts (Italian and Chinese) and their peculiarities. I will focus on Italy, as an emigration country, where emigration and re-immigration has always been free and on China, characterised, in the past, by limitations in the freedom of movements. These two contexts characterized by this two different history of migration find themselves linked in the choice of Chinese people to choose Italy over other countries and I will explain this link in a specific paragraph of this chapter. I decided to focus on that in the first chapter because I wanted to give an introduction to migration and to immigrant's motivations and contexts.

In the second chapter, I analysed the role of women and changes over time in both countries.

I will show that both in China and Italy in the past women were submitted to the power of a patriarchal family while now their gaining the right to do whatever men do including being entrepreneur and leaving for other countries to realize that project.

In the third chapter, I will illustrate and discuss the meanings of entrepreneurship which refers to the ability to realize, promote and manage a project

Entrepreneurship is a theme that has dominated the public debate in the last 20 years and that, especially in Italy, acquired a legitimation that never had before.

Entrepreneurship can be expressed in different ways and dimensions, from a large corporation manager to a walker who picked the right place to sell his products.

The term entrepreneurship, from an etymological point of view, derives from the Latin verb “prehendere” that means “take on themselves”. From the economical point of view, entrepreneurship is a multidimensional territory where different approaches are confronted.

In the second part of my thesis, I will turn to the analysis of the interviews. I will try to understand if there is the desire of these young women to leave China, to start their own project and to start it in Italy.

The interviews focus on the aspirations and future prospects of these young women, their projects and plans and their attitudes towards migration, work and entrepreneurship.

My idea for this work originated from the fact that in Italy, and in my city, Caserta, there are many Chinese running various activities and many women are involved. There is no other population able to be integrated in the economic system, as they have been able to. For this reason, I decided to understand why by going back to the very beginning of the migratory project.

My expectation was that motivation would play a big role in pushing Chinese people and particularly young Chinese women to migrate and start a business. After having gathered all the data coming from interviews, I had to partially revise my expectations.

Looking at the answers of these young women a tiny minority would like to leave China, not because they want to escape but because they want to realize their “dreams” regarding art in Italy. All the others not see themselves leaving their families and they see their future in China. Similar results concern the interviewees’ perspective on entrepreneurship: besides limited exceptions, these young women do not see themselves as entrepreneurs and think that.

Women don’t have an economic mind-set and so are unable to pursue an entrepreneurial path. It is true that my small group of interviewees is not a representative one of young women in China. However, it is made up of young women that are supposedly open to the world given their interest in the Italian language and culture.

To conclude whereas the theoretical part of my thesis points important information concerning migration, entrepreneurship and women's role, the interview materials suggest that there is still a long way to go gender parity.

FIRST PART: LITERATURE ON MIGRATION, WOMEN'S ROLE AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP

CHAPTER 1: MIGRATORY CONTEXT IN ITALY AND CHINA

Italy represents an attractive context for immigrants from various countries. Our country is seen by migrants who are escaping poverty, wars or those who are simply looking for a better life as an easy country to penetrate, even irregularly, or as a bridge to enter other countries (Nunziata, 2013).

In this chapter, I am going to trace the history of migration in both countries in order to understand what are push and pull factors in both countries and to see how migration contexts change in time and influence the reasons why people migrate and their destinations.

First of all, we are going to see how and why, in general, people decide to migrate and what are the kind of people leaving their countries based on motivations.

1.1 MOTIVATIONS AND PERSPECTIVES OF MIGRATION

Images source: Dati Statistici sull'immigrazione in Italia dal 2008 al 2013 e aggiornato al 2014- Ministero dell'interno- Ufficio centrale di statistica.

Never before, in the world, so many people lived far from their homes. Precarious living conditions, the climate of violence and war, environmental degradation, economic prospects of misery and the growing gap between poor and rich countries are at the root of such a phenomenon.

In recent decades, global migration has reached unprecedented proportions. According to the calculations of international organizations, currently about 175 million people live far from their homeland (Nunziata, 2013).

The causes of this massive migration are essentially push factors of the exit countries and pull factors of the entry countries.

In the processes of human migration the term push factors refers to the conditions that push an individual or a human group to migrate in order to change his life conditions or to leave an uncomfortable situation in the country of origin .

In the same migratory process, pull factors are the conditions that attract an individual or a human group, good economic environment, job opportunities etc.

Push factors and pull factors are strongly linked conditions because their combination determines the migration process.

Push factors can be considered the excessive demographic growth and the consequent inadequacy of resources, the impossibility to see recognized equality right and though the lack of perspective for a socio-economic improvement, the presence of totalitarian political regimes that persecute ferociously the opponents, ethnic or religious contrasts and wars.

Pull factors can be considered the perspective of a job in a more open-minded and democratic society, to give a better education to children, to sum up a better life quality.

The migratory phenomenon caused by push factors invests individuals or communities driven by a complex decision, determined, according to the demographers, by forces that attract these communities to a certain place that constitutes the goal. This decision involves the whole identity of the individual and the networks of people (Qiao Yan, 2013).

Generally, the driving factors for the migration choice are represented by:

- situations of underdevelopment, misery, underfeeding
- impossibility of obtaining a minimum level of survival
- persecutions of a political or religious nature
- impossibility of satisfying material needs
- lack of stable employment
- impediment to the realization of a personal project
- environmental emergencies
- need for release from Community ties
- difficulties related to personal fulfilment of the individual according to their own aspirations.

(Segreteria di Stato delle Migrazioni, 2014)

In the past centuries, America represented the Promised Land where every man could satisfy his expectation and find his perfect work placement.

Today almost all Western countries offer this perspective of an adequate salary level in order to send back to their families in the country of origin consistent savings.

Currently in the world the most consistent migratory flows are:

- From North Africa or South Sahara regions to Western Central Europe
- From Asia to America, Australia and New Zealand
- From China to Western Central Europe, United States and Canada

Today, for example, this is the case for immigrants from Third World countries attracted by the rich Western myth, strong in terms of resources, work and opportunities, combined with the image of a democratic and modern society carried by the school or by mass media.

DEFINITIONS

I would like to introduce my argument giving some definitions to better understand the topic of this work and the subjects of this chapter: migrants.

First, we have to define the word foreign that is often misinterpreted. As foreign person is intended the natural and legal person that is in the territory of a State but has a nationality belonging to another and for that reason does not possess the citizenship of the host country.

Another definition that is usually misunderstood is the definition of immigrant. People quite every time think about migrants as bad people or criminal but the term immigrant is referred to a person who entered, Europe, for example, to study, work or for a family stay coming from non-EU countries.

We also must distinguish migrants from refugees and asylum seekers because they also move to other countries but with completely different motivations.

The refugee is a person who decided to leave his country because of discrimination or persecution for political, ideological, religious or racial reasons that would never spontaneously leave his country for a better economic future.

The asylum-seeker or displaced- person is a person that is forced to leave his country because of war, foreign occupation, natural disaster and human rights violation.

Beyond this classification, we have the category of irregular immigrants, whom people are migrating clandestinely who are able to avoid being expelled and being caught by police.

1.2 ITALIAN IMMIGRATION

Immigration in Italy is a relatively recent phenomenon that has begun to reach significant dimensions at the beginning of the 1970s to become now a characteristic phenomenon.

Italy, for most of his history has been an emigration country and the immigration has almost been an inexistent phenomenon except for some events during the Second World War, like the Istrian exodus, or the home coming of Italians from former African colonies.

In 1981, the first census of foreign people in Italy calculated the presence of 321.000 foreigners of which one third was “stable” and the rest was “temporary”. In 1991, the number doubled and it kept growing. (Dati statistici sull’immigrazione in Italia dal 2008 al 2013 e aggiornato nel 2014)

Regulations (DATI STATISTICI SULL’IMMIGRAZIONE IN ITALIA dal 2008 al 2013 e aggiornamento 2014)

To better understand the evolution of migration in Italy we should begin from regulations. They are important because regulation establishes migrants conditions and is thanks to the scarce regulation that, maybe, many migrants chose Italy over other more attractive countries.

The first immigration period in Italy has been characterized by the absence of an ad hoc normative. In effect:

- Until 1986 the only norms regulating the presence of foreigners on the national territory were contained in a Testo Unico delle Leggi di Pubblica Sicurezza which faced this phenomenon exclusively on securitarian terms
- In 1986, the Parliament approved the Law n.943, referring to the norms regarding the collocation and the treatment of non-EU workers, furthermore this law was against the clandestine immigration. This law was meant to regulate the entrance of immigrants and to define a regulation on the working positions and on the illegal stays.
- In the 90’s has been approved the law n.39 referring to the urgent norms regarding political asylum, non-EU citizens’ entrance and stay and to the regulation of non-EU citizens and stateless persons already living on the national territory. This law is the

first attempt of discipline in a matter, which was previously regulated by institutes regulated by ¹T.U.L.P.S..

- On the 25th of July 1998 through the legislative decree n.286 has been adopted a “Testo Unico” on foreigners.

Successively to this initial situation, the legislation kept evolving until today and will continue evolving for a long time.

Types of Stays (DATI STATISTICI SULL’IMMIGRAZIONE IN ITALIA dal 2008 al 2013 e aggiornamento 2014)

Another factor that let us understand the kind of migration that is present in Italy and that is expected by migrants is to understand what kind of stay they chose or they expect to receive once migrated. The choice is mostly linked to the personal situation of the subject asking for the residency permit, to the duration and to the possible renewal.

We can distinguish three different types:

- First stay refers to the permit lasting two years released for the first time to the migrant who retains the requirements.
- Permit renewal refers to the permits following the first. The permit is renewed if the migrant still retains all the requirements.
- Long-period stay permit can be asked if the migrant still retains a valid permit, if he is regularly living in the country for at least 5 years and who fits precise legal requirements.

The stays can also be distinguished by motivation. There are several motivation behind the release of a permit of stay but the more common, including the 90% of the permits, are subordinate work, family reasons, independent work/ commerce, study reasons.

¹ Il Testo unico delle leggi di pubblica sicurezza (abbr. TULPS), in the Italian legal system, is a unique text of the Kingdom of Italy, still in force in the Italian Republic.

The new Italian public security law was issued with the R.D. November 6, 1926 n. 1848, and Royal Decree 18 June 1931 n. 773 approved the Testo unico. With the Royal Decree of May 6, 1940, no. 635 was issued the relevant implementing regulation (Regulation implementing the Testo Unico of Public Safety Law).

**PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF RESIDENCE
PERMITS FOR THE MOST COMMON REASONS**

From 2008 to 2013

Reason of the stay	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Subordinated work	47,53	49,25	51,66	50,30	48,58	47,61
Family reasons	36,48	35,76	34,46	35,24	35,69	37,02
Independent work/trade	7,77	7,28	6,91	6,83	7,18	7,31
Study Reasons	1,06	1,28	1,21	1,70	1,72	1,70
Total of reasons	92,84	93,56	94,23	94,07	93,17	93,64
Other reasons	7,16	6,44	5,77	5,93	6,83	6,36

A third way of distinction on the types of stays can be done according to sex, age and area of

Distribution based on sex - National data

Year	Male	% on the total of a year	Female	% on the total of a year	Total
2008	790.500	50,89	762.729	49,11	1.553.229
2009	1.051.760	50,46	1.032.496	49,54	2.084.256
2010	1.250.722	50,08	1.246.572	49,92	2.497.294
2011	1.465.217	50,42	1.440.892	49,58	2.906.109
2012	1.484.816	50,23	1.471.191	49,77	2.956.007
2013	1.526.030	50,37	1.503.887	49,63	3.029.917

origin.

As the chart show, the release of stay permits based on sex is constant with a percentage in favour of males.

Most present nationalities in Italy

Stay permits has been issued to people from 161 different nationalities.

The following Italian maps regarding to 2008 and 2013, for each of the most represented countries, refers to the stay permits concentration in each of Italian regions. We will limit to provide the map regarding China that is the object of our research.

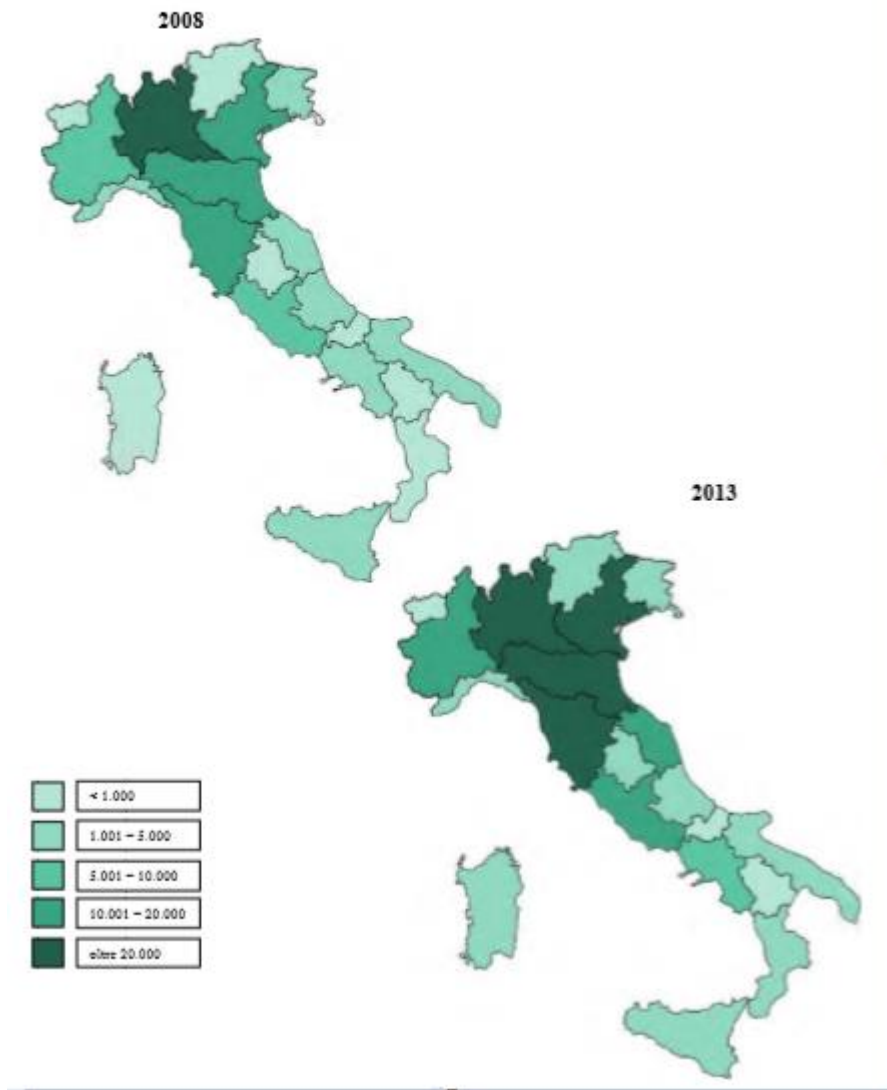
First eight countries for the number of residence permits released

Referring year 2013 - Absolute values

Non-EU countries	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Albania	228.630	301.835	336.544	372.273	375.842	377.989
Marocco	221.614	283.575	328.294	367.992	367.156	373.658
Cina Popolare	95.314	141.942	181.105	216.036	233.589	246.081
Ucraina	90.348	143.939	184.681	209.681	208.663	217.477
Filippine	63.349	84.700	99.744	125.025	128.881	134.369
Moldavia	48.532	76.302	110.549	129.666	128.311	128.824
India	49.676	73.534	96.567	115.324	117.241	125.399
Bangladesh	40.693	53.901	67.805	85.366	88.928	100.849

Number of residence permits released to subject from China

Absolute values



According to the information gathered until this point, we can state that immigration represents a relevant social phenomenon and one of the most important issues to which in necessary pay attention.

1.3 CHINESE IMMIGRATION (Qiao Yan, 2013) - (Colussi, I cinesi d'oltremare)

The international Chinese migration has a long story that can be divided in four phases based on the relation between China and the other Western countries:

- 1- Migration before the Opium War (1840-1842), defined as the ancient migration in which the destination are the other Asian countries in particular South-East Asian countries.
- 2- Migration in the time lapse between the Opium War and the Second World War, called the “labour migration”, in which the destination were South-East Asia, Americas, Oceania, Africa and Europe.
- 3- Migration between the 1949-1978 called “restrictive migration” because, the migrant population is strictly controlled by the Chinese government and the exits from the country slow down.
- 4- Migration from the 1978, defined as “open mobility”. Along with the policy of “Reform and opening up”², migration entered a new phase and the number of Chinese migrant going back grew. In this phase the major destinations are: United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, France, Great Britain and Japan.

The different dynasties in Chinese history always had an ambiguous attitude towards migration; sometimes they sustained overseas migration but did not sustain the return home: sometimes they encouraged migration in order to attract the remittances of migrants residing abroad; sometimes they closed the borders not to allow emigration. This shows that in China political powers have always had a strong influence on the regulation on migration flows.

² “Reform and opening up” refers to the program of economic reforms termed “Socialism with Chinese characteristics” in the People's Republic of China (PRC) that was started in December 1978 by reformists within the Communist Party of China, led by Deng Xiaoping. Economic reforms introducing market principles began in 1978 and were carried out in two stages. The first stage involved the de-collectivization of agriculture, the opening up of the country to foreign investment, and permission for entrepreneurs to start businesses. The second stage of reform involved the privatization and contracting out of much state-owned industry and the lifting of price controls, protectionist policies, and regulations, although state monopolies in sectors such as banking and petroleum remained.

Chinese overseas migration history can be traced back to the Qin³ (221-206 a.C.) dynasty when the first Qin emperor sent Xu Fu⁴ towards East looking for the medicine for immortality (elixir of life) and he crossed the sea landing in Japan. After that the Han⁵ (206 a.C-220 d.C.) emperor Han Wu⁶ sent Zhang Qian⁷ in a diplomatic mission in central Asia, his travels are linked to the history of the Silk Road 丝路。 The discovery of the Silk Road opened the path towards the development of navigation encouraging the opening of the routes towards the South and the Indian Ocean. During the Tang dynasty⁸ (618-907) the exchanges between China and other countries became always, more frequent especially with Japan, Korea and other Asian countries. From this moment on, the Chinese residing in other countries were called “Ethnic Chinese” and the quarters in which they resided were called Chinatown.

It is during the Ming dynasty⁹ (1368-1644) that we can assist to the major movement of people moving to other countries.

³ The Qin dynasty (Chinese: 秦朝; pinyin: *Qín Cháo*; Wade-Giles: *Ch'in² Ch'ao²*) was the first dynasty of Imperial China, lasting from 221 to 206 BC. Named for its heartland in Qin state (modern Gansu and Shaanxi), the dynasty was founded by Qin Shi Huang, the First Emperor of Qin.

⁴ Xu Fu (Hsu Fu; Chinese: 徐福 or 徐市) was born in 255 BC in Qi, an ancient Chinese state, and served as a court sorcerer in Qin Dynasty China. He was sent by Qin Shi Huang to the eastern seas twice to look for the elixir of life. His two journeys occurred between 219 BC and 210 BC. After he embarked on a second mission in 210 BC, he never returned.

⁵ The Han dynasty or the Han Empire (Chinese: 漢朝; pinyin: *Hàn cháo*) was the second imperial dynasty of China (206 BC–220 AD), succeeded by the Three Kingdoms period (220–280 AD). Spanning over four centuries, the Han period is considered a golden age in Chinese history. To this day, China's majority ethnic group refers to themselves as the "Han people" and the Chinese script is referred to as "Han characters". It was founded by the rebel leader Liu Bang, known as Emperor Gaozu of Han, and briefly interrupted by the Xin dynasty (9–23 AD) of the former regent Wang Mang. This interregnum separates the Han dynasty into two periods: the Western Han or Former Han (206 BC – 9 AD) and the Eastern Han or Later Han (25–220 AD).

⁶ Emperor Wu of Han (156 BC – 87 BC), was the seventh emperor of the Han dynasty of China, ruling from 141–87 BC. His reign lasted 54 years — a record not broken until the reign of the Kangxi Emperor more than 1,800 years later. His reign resulted in vast territorial expansion, development of a strong and centralized state resulting from his governmental re-organization, including his promotion of Confucian doctrines.

⁷ Zhang Qian (Chinese: 張騫; d. 113 BC) was a Chinese official and diplomat who served as an imperial envoy to the world outside of China in the 2nd century BC, during the time of the Han dynasty. He was the first official diplomat to bring back reliable information about Central Asia to the Chinese imperial court, then under Emperor Wu of Han, and played an important pioneering role in the Chinese colonization and conquest of the region now known as Xinjiang. Today Zhang Qian's travels are associated with the major route of transcontinental trade, the Silk Road. In essence, his missions opened up to China the many kingdoms and products of a part of the world then unknown to the Chinese.

⁸ The Tang dynasty or the Tang Empire (Chinese: 唐朝) was an imperial dynasty of China followed by the Five Dynasties and Ten Kingdoms period. It is generally regarded as a high point in Chinese civilization, and a golden age of cosmopolitan culture.^[4] Its territory, acquired through the military campaigns of its early rulers, rivaled that of the Han dynasty, and the Tang capital at Chang'an (present-day Xi'an) was the most populous city in the world.

⁹ The Ming dynasty was the ruling dynasty of China – then known as the Empire of the Great Ming – for 276 years (1368–1644) following the collapse of the Mongol-led Yuan dynasty. The Ming, described by Edwin O.

Before the first Opium War (1840-1842), a million Chinese were residing overseas. During this period the majority of people moving were traders and artisans interested to developing their own business.

After the Opium War migration, pushing factors were mainly two: Chinese socio-economic context and the needs of workforce of the colonial powers.

After the War, there were many landless peasants and there were many rebellions, so there are two categories of workers who migrated in this period:

- 1- Migration operated through a “contract” that was a tacit form of slavery
- 2- Migration with their own means

The workers from the first category represent the majority of Chinese workers overseas. Overseas migration represented for many people a way out from poverty.

Chart n.1: Number of Chinese going overseas in the period 1801-1925

Years	1801-1850						
Destination	Southeast Asia	Cuba	Perù	Australia	Stati Uniti	Indie Occidentali	Others
Migration distribution	200.000	17.000	10.000	10.000	18.000	15.000	5.000
Total	320.000						

Years	1851-1875							
Destination	Indie Occidentali	Guyana inglese	Cuba	Perù	Panama	Stati Uniti	Australia	Nuova Zelanda
Migration distribution	30.000	20.000	135.000	110.000	25.000	160.000	55.000	5.000

Years	1851-1875					
Destination	Hawaiian Islands	Filippine	Arcipelago malese	Indie Orientali Olandesi	Canada	altre
Migration distribution	25.000	45.000	350.000	250.000	80.000	40.000
Total	1.280.000					

Years	1876-1900							
Destination	Stati Uniti	Hawaiian Islands	Arcipelago malese	Indie Orientali Olandesi	Australia	Canada	Filippine	Altre
Migration distribution	12.000	5.000	360.000	320.000	8.000	4.000	20.000	21.000
Total	750.000							

Years	1901-1925				
Destination	Sudfrica	Europa, Inghilterra Nordafrica	Arcipelago malese	Indie Orientali Olandesi	Altre
Migration distribution	55.000	150.000	125.000	300.000	20.000

Source: Qiao Yan, 2013 (L'emigrazione cinese e gli immigrati dallo Zhejiang meridionale a Sassari)

Reischauer, John K. Fairbank and Albert M. Craig as "one of the greatest eras of orderly government and social stability in human history", was the last imperial dynasty in China ruled by ethnic Han Chinese.

After the Revolution on the 10th of October 1911, Chinese revolutionaries overthrow the Qing dynasty and established on the 1st January 1912 the Republic of China electing as temporary president Sun Yat-sen¹⁰. He opened legitimate channels through which Chinese people could move overseas.

When the First World War broke out European countries requested workforce and for this reason in October 1917 the Chinese government created the Chinese Business Worker's Office 侨工事务局 which as main objectives had:

- 1- Recruiting new workforce to send overseas
- 2- Protect the interests of overseas workers

This is the first institution pertinent to the migrant workers.

After the 1949, the management process of the overseas Chinese can be divided in four phases:

- 1- Strict restriction
- 2- Strict control of the formalities necessary to the release of the passport
- 3- Simplified process for the release of the passport
- 4- Possibility to request freely the passport for private reasons

Substantially when the R.P.C. was founded, because of the strained relations between Taiwan and China, the general policies on expatriation of Chinese citizens were imprinted on the strict control of the exits and on lessen the control on the entries. In other words, the government did not want the Chinese citizens to leave China and wanted Chinese people who already left the country to easily come back.

From the 1978, we have the so-called "open migration" that is a free migration. In this period, the main causes of migration are study, business, investments, family reunification etc.

¹⁰ Sun Yat-sen (12 November 1866 – 12 March 1925) was Chinese physician, writer, philosopher, calligrapher and revolutionary, the first president and founding father of the Republic of China. As the foremost pioneer and first leader of a Republican China, Sun is referred to as the "Father of the Nation" in the Republic of China (ROC) and the "forerunner of democratic revolution" in People's Republic of China (PRC). Sun played an instrumental role in the overthrow of the Qing dynasty (the last imperial dynasty of China) during the years leading up to the Xinhai Revolution. He was appointed to serve as Provisional President of the Republic of China when it was founded in 1912. He later co-founded the Nationalist Party of China, serving as its first leader.

In contrast to the previous migratory flows, characterized by temporary migration, this period flows are distinguished by the intention of a permanent settlement.

This freedom of migration gave to the Chinese citizens the possibility to discover other countries and cultures travelling themselves or hearing other people stories, they got the chance to realize how wide the gap is between their country standard of living and the other countries. Despite the great development, that China is experiencing in this period the salaries and the standards of living are not equally growing and the gap with the other countries is remarkable. That is probably the reason why the most attractive factors for a Chinese migrant are the existence of a welfare system, health and education system and accommodation. However, migratory flows are, not only influenced by the departure country migration policies but is also, influenced by the arrival country immigration policies. In Europe, for example, the most common reasons to enter are family reunification, work, economical investment and political asylum, this is a way of regulation on migrants entries.

Chinese migrant tends to move to developed countries in which equal opportunities are granted.

Chinese migrants distribution in European countries - (1935-2008) (v.a.)

	1935	1955	1965	1975	1985	1995	2008
England	8.000	3.000	45.000	120.000	230.000	250.000	600.000
France	17.000	2.000	6.000	90.000	210.000	200.000	500.000
Holland	8.000	2.000	2.353	30.000	60.000	120.000	160.000
Germany	1.800	500	1.200	8.000	30.000	100.000	150.000
Belgium	500	99	565	2.000	11.400	20.000	40.000
Italy	274	330	700	1.000	5.000	60.000	300.000
Spain	273	132	336	2.000	5.000	21.000	168.000
Austria		30		1.000	6.000	12.000	40.000
Portugal	1.200	120	176	300	6.800	4.700	30.000
Denmark	900	900		1.000	3.753	6.500	18.000
Luxembourg		1	10	20	200	100	1.500

Switzerland	148	30	120	1.500	6.000	7.500	10.000	
Greece		2	16	10	130	300	12.000	
Ireland						10.000	60.000	
Sweden		2347		1.000	9.000	12.000	30.000	
Norway				500	1.000	2.000	7.450	
Finland						1.000	2.000	
Poland	139						1.500	2.000
Czech	250						10.000	4.000
Hungary							20.000	16.000
Former- USSR							20.0000	331.000
Total	38.484	11.491	56.476	258.330	384.283	1.058.600	2.481.950	

Fonte: Li Minghuan 李明欢, *Dangdai Duzhou huaren renkou goucheng fenxi* 当代欧洲华人口构成分析 (Analisi sulla composizione dei migranti cinesi in Europa contemporanea), in Hao Shiyuan 郝时远 (a cura di), *Haiwai huaren yanjiu lunji* 海外华人研究论集. *Selected Papers on Overseas Chinese*, Zhongguo Huanqiao Chubansha, Beijing, 2002; Qiu Jin 丘进, *Huaguo huaren yanjiu baogao* 华侨华人研究报告 (2011). *Annual report on overseas Chinese study*, Shehui Kexue Wenxian Chubansha, Beijing, 2011.

In modern Chinese history, we assist to the phenomenon of Chinese students going abroad to improve their studies. These students are not migrants themselves but they can decide to stay and so to become permanent migrants. In 2004 through the “Marco Polo project”, many students from Chinese universities were allowed to study in Italy and in 2005, the Italian government signed an agreement allowing the mutual recognition of the period and the titles acquired studying abroad.

Chinese students enrolled in Italian universities (v. a.)

A. Y. N.	2004 /05	2005 /06	2006 /07	2007 /08	2008 /09	2009 /10	2010 /11	2011 /12	2012 /13
N. Chinese students	388	863	1.463	2.909	4.090	4.667	5.373	6.162	6.763
N. Foreign students	32.900	38.876	44.606	50.453	55.605	60.274	63.922	66.366	65.826
N. Total of students	1.346.985	1.520.225	1.629.159	1.706.951	1.745.317	1.780.538	1.782.969	1.750.524	1.654.976

Fonte: www.anagrafe.miur.it

In China the “fever” to study abroad derives from many factors: the great competition and the great efforts, since the school age, to succeed in the access exam to superior education (高考)¹¹,

¹¹The National Higher Education Entrance Examination, is an academic examination held annually in the People's Republic of China. This examination is a prerequisite for entrance into all higher education institutions at the undergraduate level. It is taken by students in their last year of senior high school. The exams last about nine hours over a period of two days. Chinese literature, Mathematics, and English language (are required for all

the continuous increase of the university fees and the increasing difficulty of finding a good job after graduation. Furthermore, for high-income families, to send their children studying abroad is an opportunity for the future migration of the entire family.

The Annual Report on Chinese International Migration (2012) found out that China is also experiencing another great flow of migration that is referred to as “migration for investments”. The Chinese migrating through these flows are not only rich businessmen but also intellectuals and senior managers who received a high-level instruction in China and performed a high-income job. They belong to the Chinese elite who could have sustained Chinese development using their personal skills, specialized knowledge and professional experience. The reasons why they fled their country are:

- 1- To offer a better instruction to their children: have a carefree childhood and pursue a better and more qualified instruction.¹²
- 2- Avoid the political risks in order to decrease the opportunities to lose their properties.
- 3- Feel safe in a country with a consolidated welfare system.
- 4- Obtain environmental safety.
- 5- Live in an equal opportunities society.

For many businessmen, beside the political risk, the negative aspect is that in China there is no freedom of trade.

Some western scholars thought that the Chinese culture could become an impediment to the country modernization and capitalization. Recently, thanks to the development of East-Asian countries and Chinese economic successes in the world there has been a new interpretation: traditional Chinese culture, represented by Confucianism¹³, is not an obstacle anymore but is an engine for economic development. Briefly, Confucianism points out the patterns of conduct

students. In addition, students have to choose between two streams, social-science-oriented area and natural-science-oriented area.

¹² In China there is a great pressure on children. In China there are so many people that to succeed you must achieve the best objectives.

¹³ Confucianism, also known as Ruism, is described as tradition, a philosophy, a religion, a humanistic or rationalistic religion, a way of governing, or simply a way of life. Confucianism developed from what was later called the Hundred Schools of Thought from the teachings of the Chinese philosopher Confucius (551–479 BCE), who considered himself a retransmitter of the values of the Zhou dynasty golden age of several centuries before.

to achieve the economic success. These patterns are the elements that allow, from a cultural point of view, the economic success that Chinese migrants obtained in Italy:

- 1- Family relations, familiar education, familiar responsibility, habit to saving and labour.
- 2- The individual is part of the community, the community interest is more important than the individual one.
- 3- The individual accepts the power distance and is loyal to the relationship of subordination.
- 4- The interdependence and the work division.

These factors affect the Chinese migration and their success in the arrival countries. They can count on a strict cultural attitude towards work and life. They are able to manage difficult situation counting on the community, they can work wherever they choose to because of their commitment to work, and they can raise their children in any country because of their attachment to their culture.

That was just an introduction to understand the migration situation in both Italy and China. Their histories are different as well as their cultures, however they met and now I will analyse how and why this “joint venture” became so beneficial.

In the XIX century, the Chinese migratory flow has intensified assuming for the first time an extra-Asian dimension.

Until the end of the 1800 in China there was a prohibitive regime towards overseas travels and migration, considered an illegal act, it was punishable by the death penalty (Cologna, 2008).

The right to migrate has been recognized to the subjects of the imperial government only in 1894 as an answer to the developing migratory flows happening from the southern hinterland to the port cities and from Guangdong and Fujian to European colonies in Southeast Asia and overseas countries. Many Chinese people left behind their families to go to California looking for gold and for a job, hoping to be employed in the construction of the Transcontinental railway.

In the first half of 1900 migratory flows kept happening and, for this reason, the Chinese presence in the world began growing also thanks to the fact that Chinese people are more than able to build a community outside their own country.

Aware of the importance of this migratory phenomenon, now, 华侨 (huaqiao) communities are seen as a source of wealth and as a demonstration to the world of the capacity of Chinese people to be united by a strong national identity. However, Chinese government attitude towards overseas Chinese has always been linked to foreign policy issues. During the National party¹⁴ ruling period the governmental authorities were positive towards migration, whilst with the declaration of the Popular Republic on the 1st of October 1949 there has been a fracture with the past and for this reason door stayed closed for twenty years for both who wanted to migrate and who wanted to come back.

The Maoist era¹⁵ determined both the stop of migratory flows and a discrimination towards, not only the overseas residing Chinese, but towards their families still residing in China. In the 50's we can also observe an internal migration towards the cities, which led to an incredible growing of the urban population. Also for internal migration were introduced drastic policies to contain internal migratory flows, furthermore, these policies tended to sustain the Maoist idea of the centrality of the countryside¹⁶.

¹⁴ The Kuomintang of China; often translated as the Nationalist Party of China) is a major political party in the Republic of China (ROC). It is currently the largest opposition party in the country.

¹⁵ Mao Zedong Thought (simplified Chinese: 毛泽东思想; traditional Chinese: 毛澤東思想; pinyin: *Máo Zédōng Sīxiǎng*), or Maoism, is a political theory derived from the teachings of the Chinese political leader Mao Zedong (1893–1976). Its followers are known as Maoists. Developed from the 1950s until the Deng Xiaoping reforms in the 1970s, it was widely applied as the guiding political and military ideology of the Communist Party of China (CPC), and as theory guiding revolutionary movements around the world.

¹⁶ Maoism departs from conventional European-inspired Marxism in that its focus is on the agrarian countryside, rather than the industrial urban forces. This is known as agrarian socialism. Although Maoism is critical of urban industrial capitalist powers, it views urban industrialization as a prerequisite to expand economic development and socialist reorganization to the countryside, with the goal being the achievement of rural industrialization that would abolish the distinction between town and countryside.

1.4 MIGRATORY FLOWS FROM CHINA TO ITALY

In the twentieth century, the Chinese wave also came to the Old Continent, first touching England, Holland, France and then Italy, Spain and the Eastern Countries. The overseas Chinese, especially in the last twenty years, maintained a very strong bond with their home and their place of origin. Therefore, they also created bonds in the nations in which they migrated through clanic associations, groups of immigrants coming from the same locality and having the same name.

The first Chinese migrants arrived in Italy at the end of the 1920s (Wong, 1999).

Initially, arrivals in Italy were a very marginal phenomenon, both compared to the substantial exodus from the Chinese coasts and their actual numerical impact on the total Italian population. Until the end of the Second World War, the presence of Chinese citizens remained extremely small and seems to have affected northern Italy. The first immigrants arrived in the 1920s from France and decided to settle first in Milan and then in Turin; afterwards in Bologna, Florence and after the Second World War even in Rome.

In Milan the first job placement was almost and exclusively in the street sale of ties; Subsequently, some Italian labs producing these articles began to offer Chinese immigrants new job opportunities, which later led to the birth of craft enterprises in the textile and leather products manufacturing years later. This first migratory flow was composed exclusively of men, mostly young; this flow then developed with some continuity throughout the period between the two wars, while still very limited in numbers so that, in the post-war period, the Chinese resident in Milan were about thirty as well as in Turin or even less (Cologna, 2003).

The situation began to change from the 1950s, with the definitive stabilization of the present flow and the launch of a second migratory stream formed by immigrant relatives who came mostly from Popular China. Leather goods laboratories opened at the end of World War II and affirmed thanks to the highly competitive prices began to develop, offering new job opportunities. Next to the leather sector, began to develop also the catering industry.

The rise of Chinese immigration in Italy from the early 1980s must be considered on one hand as the result of the growth of intra-European migratory flows, on the other hand as a result of the application of the immigration laws, which made it possible the registration and the regularization, through the amnesties, even of those who were in semi-clandestine situations. In fact, if we observe the quantitative evolution of the phenomenon, until the nineties the

Chinese in Italy were about 15,000, while today there is a dizzying increase in compliance with regulations for the regulation of migratory flows. There is no doubt, however, that the various amnesties can be considered as an important factor of attraction since they have offered immigrants the immediate opportunity to regularize their presence.

From the second half of the eighties onwards, even Chinese communities took advantage from the opportunity to emerge from the social anonymity situation, mainly due to the absence of a regulatory body regulating their presence.

In the light of a situation that sees a new political climate in which a certain freedom is given to the realization of entrepreneurial projects, closely related to the continuous growth and development of contacts with the West, is even more evident that the motivations that push the Chinese to migrate should be sought on different level.

Desolation, the pursuit of any job to secure the indispensable minimum to survive, are no longer the reasons that drive immigrants to foreign lands, today, in addition to family reunification, which remains a constant and main reason, an increasingly number of Chinese people decides to take advantage of the job opportunities, to improve their economic conditions. The resulting improvement of the social status and the hope that these work experiences may become a kind of "springboard" will facilitate the subsequent creation of a business on its own (Trani,2005).

The most considered areas of settlement are the large urban centres, in relation to the traditional occupational activities related to catering, both in the central and immediate areas, for the new activities undertaken in the craft sector: this is a presence that prefers urban locations because of the group-based character of the settlement processes activated by Chinese. Unlike other groups of immigrants, a peculiar feature of Chinese communities, whether large or small, is the ability to create and manage companies that can work for compatriots, producing socio-economic relationships of help and assistance, support and solidarity. These ethnic-based productive units not only feature an aggregate pole function, but also support the process of identity enhancement, because they keep ties with the motherland (Ceccagno,1998).

The Parthenopean capital is an example: in fact, behind the Gianturco Metro there is China Mercato (Sacchetti,2004) that is an area of 10,000 sqm managed by sixty-five Chinese importers. An army of people who in a few years managed to open or acquire something like 3,000 between shops and laboratories (they produce, in very short time and at unbeatable prices, the most varied merchandise).

The presence of Chinese immigrants in the Vesuvius area dates back to the mid-1990s, with the opening of a Chinese network of restaurants, a phenomenon that caused much curiosity and some "alarmism". The intensification of their presence in specific sectors, such as textiles and catering, has led the community to develop a very competitive production business with that of the Vesuvius entrepreneurs. This has fuelled, immediately, perplexity, suspicion and prejudice among the local population (Schmoll, 2011).

1.5 CHINESE INTEGRATION IN ITALY (Fondazione Leone Moressa, 2013)

Environmental differences between the country of origin and the country of destination are fundamental for immigrant adaptation processes who must face detachment from the place where they grew up, the communication difficulties related to linguistic, behavioural and cultural aspects risking not to completely understanding the reality they moved into.

This, above mentioned, differences require a bidirectional integration process that includes a continuous comparison between their culture and the one of the destination country and also a relation between the citizens and the immigrants to understand each other to the point they can also consider to live in a different way. About that, the "Fondazione ISMU" defines immigrant integration as:

"Integration consists in that multidimensional process aimed to a peaceful coexistence, within a certain historical social reality, between individuals and groups culturally and / or ethnically different, founded on reciprocal respect for ethno-cultural diversity, provided that they do not damage fundamental human rights and do not endanger the democratic institutions. Integration is a process that need time; it is a goal that is not acquired once and for all but is constantly pursued."

Chinese people are the fourth immigrated population in Italy for number counting more than 300.000 presences, representing the 8,1% of the total foreign population.

We can build a profile of the Chinese migrant in Italy through various data:

Demographic profile: As far as gender is concerned, the Chinese population is fairly homogeneous, with a female component of 48.9%. The largest number of Chinese people live in the provinces of Milan (24 thousand), Florence (14 thousand), Rome and Prato (13 thousand), but the highest incidence of total foreign population is recorded in Prato (39%). In schools, Chinese students (32,000) are mainly concentrated in primary schools. Babies born in Italy

having a Chinese citizenship in 2010 are 5,154, of which 22.4% were born in Lombardy, 15.3% in Emilia Romagna, 14.9% in Veneto and 12.0% in Piedmont.

Demographic profile

Chinese resident population on 31/12/2012

	Valore assoluto	% su tot popolazione straniera	% Donne	Variazione % 2011/2012
Totale	304.768	8,1%	46,9%	+9,8%

Fonte: IDOS Dossier Statistico Immigrazione, 2013

Territorial Chinese distribution, 2011

Prime 10 province	M	F	Totale	% sul totale stranieri in provincia
Milano	12.660	12.006	24.666	6,4%
Firenze	7.380	6.682	14.062	12,6%
Roma	7.096	6.286	13.382	3,0%
Prato	6.824	6.392	13.216	39,0%
Treviso	4.250	3.756	8.006	7,8%
Torino	3.796	3.757	7.553	3,6%
Napoli	3.071	2.887	5.958	7,8%
Padova	3.029	2.806	5.835	6,4%
Reggio Emilia	2.732	2.542	5.274	7,6%
Brescia	2.667	2.504	5.171	3,0%
Totale prime 10 province	53.505	49.618	103.123	

Elaborazione Fondazione Leone Moressa su dati Istat

Chinese students for grade, A.Y. 2010/1011

Tipologia scuola	valore assoluto	% tra gli alunni cinesi	% tra ordine di scuola
Infanzia	5.673	18,0%	4,1%
Primaria	11.905	36,4%	4,7%
Sec. I grado	8.784	26,9%	5,6%
Sec. II grado	6.129	18,7%	4,0%
Totale	32.691	100,0%	4,6%

Dati Istat

Occupation: 31.8% of Chinese people are occupied (28.7% females, 36.1 males). The under framing is not widespread compared to other nationalities: in fact, 9.7% of Chinese males and 8.6% of Chinese females are framed. The Chinese are mainly sellers (22.6%), catering business (16.2%) and retailers (10.3%).

Occupied and under framed Chinese, 2011

Occupati cinesi		Sotto inquadrati cinesi
Valore assoluto	% su totale residenti cinesi	% su totale occupati cinesi
66.956	31,8%	9,2%
Maschi	37.789	36,1%
Femmine	29.167	28,7%

Elaborazione Fondazione Leone Moressa su dati Istat

Prime 10 professioni tra i cinesi, anno 2011

Principali professioni	Valore assoluto	%
Esercenti delle vendite	15.101	22,6%
Esercenti e addetti nell'attività di ristorazione	10.855	16,2%
Addetti alle vendite	6.891	10,3%
Artigiani e/o operai nel tessile e nell'abbigliamento	5.323	7,9%
Venditori ambulanti	5.297	7,9%
Operai addetti all'assemblaggio di prodotti industriali	4.178	6,2%
Operai addetti ai macchinari dell'industria tessile e delle confezioni	3.004	4,5%
Artigiani e operai specializzati nella lavorazione del cuoio, pelli e calzature	2.879	4,3%
Attrezzisti operai e artigiani nel trattamento del legno	2.041	3,0%
Operai addetti a macchinari fissi per l'industria alimentare	2.041	3,0%
Totale prime 10 professioni	57.609	86%

Elaborazione Fondazione Leone Moressa su dati Anff

Entrepreneurship: Foreign entrepreneurs are 56,000 and account for 9.5% of total foreign entrepreneurs. Wholesale and retail trade (40.0%), manufacturing (30.3%) and catering (20.4%) are the most heavily managed by Chinese companies. At the territorial level they are concentrated in Lombardy (20.9%), Tuscany (18.2%) and Veneto (12.0%).

Imprenditori cinesi, anno 2012

Imprenditori cinesi		% su imprenditori stranieri	
M	F	M	F
31.518	25.101	7,2%	16,0%
56.619		9,5%	

Elaborazione Fondazione Leone Moressa su dati Infocamerie

Settori di attività degli imprenditori cinesi, anno 2012

Primi 5 settori	Valore assoluto	%
Commercio all'ingrosso e al dettaglio	22.663	40,0%
Attività manifatturiere	17.149	30,3%
Attività di ristorazione	11.560	20,4%
Altre attività di servizi	2.656	4,7%
Attività immobiliari	522	0,9%
Totale primi 10 settori	54.550	96,3%
Totale imprenditori	56.619	

Elaborazione Fondazione Leone Moressa su dati Infocamerie

Economic aspects: The average salary of Chinese is € 959 (€ 1005 for men, € 904 for women). Revenues declared in the 2010 tax year amount to € 7,330. The paid IRPEF is € 2,010 for a total of 145,000 Chinese taxpayers. The Chinese are the population sending the largest amount in the country of origin in the form of remittances (€ 2.67 billion). Rome is the first province from which these remittances come from (€ 1.4 billion). Looking at remittances sent to China

over the past 5 years, the sum is over 10 billion euros, with an increase of 74% between 2008 and 2012.

Retribuzione, redditi dichiarati e imposte

Retribuzioni mensili nette dei dipendenti		Redditi annuali dichiarati al fisco (anno di imposta 2010)		IRPEF (anno di imposta 2010)
M	F	M	F	
€ 1.005	€ 904	€ 7.660	€ 6.920	€ 2.010
€ 959		€ 7.330		Numero contribuenti 145.104

Elaborazione Fondazione Leone Moressa su dati Infocamere

Rimesse di Cinesi residenti in Italia, periodo 2008-2012

Anno	Importo (miliardi €)	variazione 2008/2012
2008	1,54	
2009	1,97	
2010	1,82	
2011	2,54	
2012	2,67	
TOT	10,54	+74%

Elaborazione Fondazione Leone Moressa su dati Banca d'Italia

Prime 5 province da cui vengono inviate le rimesse dai cinesi, anno 2012

Prime 5 province	Rimesse (in migliaia di €)
Roma	1.407.110
Milano	445.312
Prato	187.612
Napoli	159.328
Catania	136.393
Totale prime 5 province	2.335.755
Totale Italia	2.674.453

Elaborazione Fondazione Leone Moressa su dati Banca d'Italia

CHAPTER 2: WOMEN'S ROLE IN ITALY AND CHINA

In this chapter, I will show how the role of women has changed in both these countries, Italy and China, and how they gained, after a long time, a semblance of equality, particularly in the entrepreneurial environment.

Before presenting those countries and its women's evolution, I will also present the attitude and the development of women towards travel, connected to the theme of migration I treated in the first chapter.

Women and travel, seen as migration and equality, these are the themes of this chapter oriented to let the reader have a complete picture to better understand those two countries and why women have not already reached equal rights as men and are still struggling to gain their independence.

2.1 TRAVELLING WOMEN (Tonelli, 2013)

Until recent times, travel was mainly associated with conquest, adventure, war and trade activities from which women were excluded because they only had to devote themselves to the domestic and family sphere of duty, in sharp contrast to the public sphere in which male was protagonist.

The few traveling women were related to the livelihood and protection granted by missionary work or were part of the migratory processes that took place in the various historical periods, for example, they were travelling to follow men. This last phenomenon does not have to be forgotten because there have been so many women who have left with their families or, more rarely alone, to new worlds seeking better opportunities. The travel took one important role: it was a way to reach a destination where having the opportunity to create a new life (Robinson, 1990).

Those women who were so lucky or brave to take a trip alone were not considered clever nor brave or respectable; on the contrary, they were considered imprudent and unpretentious people. This vision was shared from the West to the East of the globe. To move alone, without an official accompanist, was considered reprehensible and could compromising prospects of marriages until the mid-twentieth century. The only ones who could travel without losing their respectability were queens and aristocratic women because traveling was expensive and it took a long time so it was possible just for those women who has no duties (Rinaldi, 2012).

We can exactly describe women situation related to travel using Leed's word:

Women's immobilization is an historic feat, repeated generation after generation and is one of the main means by which human groups establish permanent relationships with the territory. In our proto industrial civilization, the journey is no longer a purely virtuous activity. However, for a long period of patriarchal civilization growth, the voyage was seen as an activity demonstrating male forces and creating an especially "male" antithesis in its mobility to "femininity" rooted in place, soil, gardens, in the same maternal nature of the earth (Leed, 1991, pp. 144-145).

During the XIX century, travelling assumed a new meaning, a value, thanks to development of the Grand Tour that gained his greatest success in this period. It used to represent the final step in the education of the young scions belonging to the great European houses. Thanks to that opportunity, they had the possibility to improve their studies admiring and studying in person the artistic, literary and natural beauties they met during their path across Europe. This kind of training was essential to the future diplomatic, political and economic activity but this Grand Tour was an opportunity just offered to males. Female were totally excluded because their education was considered much less important and above all mostly linked to domestic arts and to music. (Dell'Agnesse, 2005).

The 1800s represents a turning point in the relation between women and travel thanks to the Illuminist trust and to the great bourgeois revolution that helped women to cross the threshold to enter the public sphere, generally and historically reserved to men (Frediani, 2007).

Among women who succeeded in travelling, the ones who distinguished themselves were Victorian travellers because they explored inhospitable lands. These brave women created a new way of travelling, beyond the schemes.

Virginia Woolf¹⁷ was one of the major scholars on this subject because she focused on travels literature, on its implications, motivations and characteristics. The main aspect on which her analysis is based is the space relation, intended as a relation between the public and the private sphere: the first includes all those contexts from which women were taken away for a long time such as political, cultural and economic contexts; the domestic space is the context that belongs

¹⁷ Virginia Woolf (London 1882- Rodmell 1941) was an English writer, essayist and critic whose strong personality emerged also in her libertarian commitment and sometimes out of schemes, in favour of civil right and sex parity. Among her most important works there is "The diary of Virginia Woolf" "wrote during the Grand Tour she did before publishing her first novel.

to women. The travel dialectic is just based on this kind of bias, the relation between opposed spaces (Woolf, 1992).

The Penelope and Ulysses example is emblematic. The Odyssey myth represents the woman-space relation: Penelope waiting for her beloved husband is the symbol of female static because she is forced to live and wait in the safe and protected domestic context; Ulysses, on the contrary, is the incarnation of the figure of the impassioned, courageous and ruthless traveller. The thrust some women felt and that pushed them to go out and face the world must be sought in the conflict between their autonomous and the submissive components, a fight between the constituted order and transgression, desire to escape and autonomy from the patriarchal rigidity or from the submission to the husband.

The first great process of re-appropriation of the external space already began during the XVII century with the conquer of the cities, an urban context in which women began to create their own environment performing activities like philanthropy, education and training. The real conquer of the external world, however, happened with the discover of the entire world not just the cities in which they were protected.

The aspect that more than any other distinguish the way of travelling of men and women is that the former wanted to answer to What and Where and the latter wanted to answer to How and Why questions, these aspects are attributable to the different condition of women and to their different approach towards integration. As Mary Louise Pratt¹⁸, professor at the New York University who studied for a long time the travel literature, says women care a lot about social and familiar sphere of the peoples they get in touch and, for this reason, they can be defined as social explorers (Garcia-Ramón et.al, 2005).

¹⁸ Mary Louise Pratt is a Silver Professor and Professor of Spanish and Portuguese Languages and Literatures at New York University. She received her B.A. in Modern Languages and Literatures from the University of Toronto in 1970, her M.A. in Linguistics from the University of Illinois at Urbana in 1971, and her Ph.D. in Comparative Literature from Stanford University in 1975. Her first book, *Toward a Speech Act Theory of Literary Discourse*, made an important contribution to critical theory by demonstrating that the foundation of written literary narrative can be seen in the structure of Oral Narrative. In it, Pratt uses the research of William Labov to show that all narratives contain common structures that can be found in both literary and oral narratives.

2.2 EQUAL OPPORTUNITY

As I already wrote at the beginning of this chapter we cannot avoid mentioning equal opportunities, especially when focusing on women's entrepreneurial involvement.

The theory of equal opportunity is today extremely common and invests several spheres, from politic to economy, to social and personal relations. Is a long time debated topic but, in the last decades the sensibility and the interest are getting stronger and stronger, especially because of the world crisis that let the world reconsider the social and economic balance along with an increasing women awareness.

“Equal opportunities” are intended as a legal principle according to which there are no obstacles or barriers in the active participation or involvement of any person in the economic, political or social sphere connected to genre, religion, personal conviction, race, ethnic origin, disability, age or sexual orientation (UNWTO, 2010)¹⁹.

The 1979 Convention for the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women (CEDAW)²⁰ is legally the most important and binding international instrument related to women's rights. Taking the lead from the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, it defines discrimination as any distinction, exclusion or limitation based on sex that affects the enjoyment or exercise of human rights and freedoms in civil, economic, social, political and cultural matters (Assessorato alle pari opportunità Provincia di TN, 2005)²¹.

The second most important document on this issue approved by the Conference of Beijing in 1995 is the Action Platform in which the role of women for fairer, sustainable and developed society and economy is emphasized specifying that female discrimination is a whole society

¹⁹ UNWTO, Global Report on Women in Tourism, 2010 (<http://ethics.unwto.org/content/gender-and-tourism>)

²⁰ A document containing all the fundamental principle on women's rights to which every single country should comply. The central issue is about the protection of women in matters of labour, maternity and equality between spouses, Adopted on the 18th December 1979 by the General Assembly of the United Nations and came into force in 1981 on international basis. The Convention contains definitions of forms of gender discrimination, commits the signatory States to refrain from discriminatory actions and guides them to achieving equality in all areas, and finally, protects women in every civil field.

The Convention provides for the establishment of a Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women, which is responsible for overseeing the state of application of the Standards by the signatory States. Only women from the academic, economic and diplomatic world are involved. States have an obligation to submit to the Committee at least every four years a report illustrating the actions taken to enforce the provisions of the Convention and the difficulties that emerged. (www.retepariopportunita.it/DefaultDesktop.aspx?page=3099).

²¹ Assessorato alle pari opportunità della Provincia di Trento, Donne e sostenibilità dello sviluppo: Documenti, 2005 (www.pariopportunita.provincia.tn.it/italy/SC/9/Pubblicazioni.html)

issue. In fact gender disparity slows down the economic growth especially in the underdeveloped countries making more difficult to get out of poverty.

To this, purpose there many documents about the Gender Streaming²². In the articles 137 and 141 of the CEE Treaty²³ the focus is on the search for integrity and equality in the labour market guaranteeing the same access, treatment and remuneration options. The Maastricht Treaty of 1992²⁴ on the article 119 highlights the necessity and the duty of equal pay for men and women. The Amsterdam Treaty²⁵ of 1997 promotes gender equality opposing discriminations, including women rights as social fundamental rights and promoting the adoption of measures to facilitate professional activities started up by women.

The Lisbon Treaty²⁶ of 2007 expresses the principle of equality between women and men by placing it as a common value for the European Union, which must promote equality and fight disparities through concrete policies and actions. The Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union²⁷, officially proclaimed in 2000 along with the entry into force of the Treaty

²² The concept was formally presented at the Beijing World Conference in 1995. It can be defined as the process of assessing the implications for men and women of every planned action, including legislation, policies or programs in all areas and all levels. It is a strategy that, starting with the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programs in all political, economic and social fields, enables women and men to benefit of equality and that inequality does not perpetuate. The ultimate goal is to achieve gender equality. These objectives were also programmed by the EQUAL Community Initiative, an organization funded by the European Social Fund and Member States of the European Union, whose program aims to support transitional and innovative projects aimed at combating discrimination and inequality, including gender, in the labour market (EQUAL, 2004).

²³ The EEC Treaty was signed in Rome in 1957, bringing together France, Germany, Italy and the Benelux countries into a Community with the aim of integration through trade with a view to the economic expansion and future creation of the European Community which would extend Community competences in other non-economic fields (http://europa.eu/legislation_summaries/institutional_affairs/treaties/treaties_eec_it.htm).

²⁴ Also known as the Treaty on the European Union, it brings together the three communities of Euratom, ECSC and EEC Communities and the political cooperation previously established in the fields of foreign policy, defence, justice and police, leading to the creation of monetary union and economic and by introducing new Community policies. It entered into force in November 1993. (http://europa.eu/legislation_summaries/institutional_affairs/treaties/treaties_eec_it.htm).

²⁵ It extends the competences of the European Union by establishing a Community policy on employment, justice and home affairs matters, enabling closer cooperation between the Member States. (http://europa.eu/legislation_summaries/institutional_affairs/treaties/treaties_eec_it.htm).

²⁶ Signed in December 2007 by the Heads of State and Government of the 27 Member States, this treaty makes it possible to adapt European institutions and working methods, to enhance democratic legitimacy and to consolidate the foundations of the Union's fundamental values. (http://europa.eu/legislation_summaries/glossary/charter_fundamental_rights_it.htm).

²⁷ The Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union enshrines certain political, social, and economic rights for European Union (EU) citizens and residents into EU law. It was drafted by the European Convention and solemnly proclaimed on 7 December 2000 by the European Parliament, the Council of Ministers and the European Commission. However, its then legal status was uncertain and it did not have full legal effect^[1] until the entry into force of the Treaty of Lisbon on 1 December 2009. Under the Charter, the European Union must act and legislate consistently with the Charter and the EU's courts will strike down legislation adopted by the EU's institutions that contravenes it. The Charter applies to the Institutions of the European Union and its member states when implementing European Union law

of Lisbon in 2009, obtained a binding nature and the same legal effect of the Treaties. It is important to remember, because clearly expressed among the inspiring principle of the European Union, that gender equality as pointed out by the article 23 regards:

Equality between men and women must be ensured in all fields, including employment, labour and pay. The principle of equality does not preclude the maintenance or adoption of measures, which provide specific benefits to the under-represented sex (Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union, 2000).

2.3 ITALIAN WOMEN ROLE

Now I will start the presentation about women in Italy to show how women's role developed in Italy and, in comparison with China, to show how in these different countries women's situation developed in different ways for certain aspects and in the same ways for some other aspects.

In Italy the most important step towards gender equality has been done on the 2nd June 1946, a significant day because on this date women had for the first time the possibility to vote and express themselves in an institutional referendum. The Italian Constitution entered into force on the 1st January 1947 sanctioning on the article 3 the gender equality from a legal point of view: any sex, religion, language, personal or social conditions, all citizens has equal social dignity and are equal before the Law²⁸.

Regarding the working and economic sphere the article 37 of Italian Constitution says:

The working woman has the same rights and, for equal work, the same wages of a worker. The working conditions must enable the fulfilment of its essential family function and provide the mother and the child with a special and adequate protection [...]

We can observe that this article has largely anticipated the current situation. However, the path is still long to achieve a complete gender equality.

From 50's to 70's there have been many norms and measures created to protect women's rights. Particularly important is the Law n.66 of 1993 who allowed women to access the public offices and professions; this represented a turning point in the business landscape (Falcon, 2008).

After having framed this matter at regulatory level, it is useful to draw an overview of the women's work situation in Italy. The World Economic Forum²⁹ annually presents a number of documents including the Global Gender Gap Report³⁰, which gathers gender disparities data

²⁸ Art. 3, co.1 Cost: "All citizens have equal social dignity and are equal before the law, without distinction of sex, race, language, religion, and political opinions, personal and social conditions. It is the task of the Republic to remove the economic and social obstacles, which, by limiting in fact the freedom and equality of citizens, impede the full development of the human person and the effective participation of all workers in political, economic organization and social of the country "(Falcon, 2008).

²⁹ The World Economic Forum (WEF) is a Swiss non-profit foundation, based in Cologny, Geneva. Recognized by the Swiss authorities as an international body,^[1] its mission is cited as "committed to improving the state of the world by engaging business, political, academic, and other leaders of society to shape global, regional, and industry agendas".

³⁰ The Global Gender Gap Report was first published in 2006 by the World Economic Forum. The 2016 report covers 144 major and emerging economies. The Global Gender Gap Index is an index designed to measure gender equality.

with a specific index referring to four different categories: participation in the economy and job opportunities, participation in politics, level education and health and life expectancy.

For the 2012 survey, thanks to specific statistical criteria 135 constituent countries have been selected, more than 90% of the world's population.

The study shows that Italy is 101st by degree of participation and involvement in women's labour market and at 80th, followed by Hungary and Greece, considering all four variables that make up the index. Italy, as well as being at a very low level compared to the previous year, has even worsened its situation by losing six rankings, passed by more active emerging countries on gender equality, having one of the female employment rates among the lowest in Europe (Hausmann et al., 2012).

Despite the fact that men are the most affected by the heavy world economic crisis, in 2013 the portion of women employed is 46.5%, 12.2 points lower than the average European value. In addition, there are deep territorial gaps in the peninsula: in the Mezzogiorno the employment rate is 42% versus 59.9% in the Centre and 64.2% in the North (ISTAT, 2012).

The main disparity, in addition to the number of jobs, is linked to wages: today's women not only need equal access to the labour market but also the same wages. Both factors are part of gender equality.

The 2009 CEDEFOP³¹ survey revealed that on average the estimated time wage differential stands at around 8.75% even when the woman reaches a management level.

Among skilled workers and artisans as well as between non-skilled farmers and workers, the differential reaches even 14.7%; between intellectual, scientific and educational professions reaches 8%.

With the increase of work experience for men there is an average wage increase of 18%, for women the value is just 7.1%. Additionally, discrimination diminishes as the degree of education increases but graduates go up to a 12.1% differential.

³¹The European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (Cedefop) is an agency of the European Union. Established in 1975, Cedefop is located in Thessaloniki, Greece. Cedefop is the acronym of its French title, Centre Européen pour le Développement de la Formation Professionnelle. Cedefop supports development of European vocational education and training (VET) policies and contributes to their implementation.

The causes of such phenomena, according to the literature, are mainly two: first, employers tend to exclude women from certain sectors. This is an employment segregation, which leads to the distinction between female and male work and therefore results in a crowding of women in specific areas. This results in an increase in the supply of labour force and, consequently, a decline in wages. The second case, on the other hand, provides that women themselves prefer certain types of employment that tend to have lower remuneration but possess characteristics that compensate for the lower incomes. An example is the possibility of managing schedules so that we can reconcile work and family life (Centra et al., 2009).

Going back to the problem of access to the labour market, in the positive cases where entry barriers are overcome, the obstacles encountered by workers in their careers for achieving jobs that are more important are still significant; the increased female participation in the labour market does not guarantee an automatic increase in career opportunities for them. The two phenomena are distinct and not linked to each other. Some explanatory figures are reported: in Italy, only 1.8% of the members of the Board of Directors of private companies (which are not considered public administration) are women. This sharply contrasts with that of other European countries such as the Netherlands, the United Kingdom, Ireland and Austria where women represent on average 11.4% of the members of the BoD, followed by Spain, Greece, France, Germany, Luxembourg and Belgium with a rate around 7.3% (Casarico et al., 2010).

In addition, it is to be noted that many entrepreneurs have played a major role in companies through their membership of the founding family of the same company, demonstrating that, in many cases, women have the skills and requirements to hold positions at the top. It seems that to do that they would need some sort of “more certification” than men to gain greater access to decision-making power. Large companies are those that provide greater employment opportunities but are the ones that give less career opportunities unlike small businesses.

In Italy, there have been some changes in years and decades of equal opportunities reforms, but when compared to other European countries, there is a noticeable slowness and delay.

The crucial node of the phenomenon must first be sought in pregnancy and maternity, feminine prerogatives that make the situation of women unique and particular compared to the men's one. In many European countries mothers work less than women without children and the number of children is smaller, the less they work the more they lose their position in the world of work. In Italy, this phenomenon is even more pronounced.

A very worrying aspect is that many women abandon their work after the birth of their child or, in most cases, their losing the job is not their own choice. Fired women are 27.2% in 2012 compared to 16% in 2005, while those who drop out of the profession are 53%. With the crisis, this phenomenon has become more pronounced, in 2012 it is reported that 22.3% of women occupied at the time of pregnancy, two years after the birth of the child are no longer working. The slight improvement that had taken place over the past decade was not only a stopped but even worsened with the onset of the economic crisis (ISTAT, 2012).

The causes of this phenomenon are related to strong difficulties in reconciling family and working life mainly for the rigidity of working hours and for weekly or evening shifts. The part-time contractual form is a valid alternative but employers do not always grant a useful compromise between personal and firm needs. Although the decision to have a child is joint and intended by both parents, the problem of conciliation between work and family is still a purely feminine matter. In many cases, women are forced to choose between their family and their work.

Maternity is an obstacle since the institutions and politics have not created the favourable contexts, for example with the improvement and increase of public services for children, the granting of flexible paternity leave and a non-penalizing tax policy for families, especially for the larger ones. A strong contradiction is at the bottom of this unattractive policy, because high rates of occupation and births are an input to the economic grow. Some countries in the world show that greater economic stability for women brings to greater birth rate because the worker is not forced to choose between work and family.

According to the economist Claudia Goldin³², in the course of history two phases of female emancipation can be distinguished: an evolutionary phase characterized by the increase in the rate of women participation in the labour market and a kind of silent revolution started in Seventies characterized by emancipation through personal choices in education and work (Goldin, 2006).

Although this silent phenomenon has been going on for many decades and today's woman is much more educated and trained, as evidenced by the increase in the number of graduates,

³² Claudia Goldin (born May 14, 1946) is the Henry Lee Professor of Economics at Harvard University and director of the Development of the American Economy program at the National Bureau of Economic Research. Goldin was the president of the American Economic Association in 2013–14 and winner of the 2016 IZA Prize in Labour Economics "for her career-long work on the economic history of women in education and the labour market." In 1990, she became the first woman to be tenured at the Harvard economics department

there still is a marked division of roles within the family, a sort of very specialization that creates a large gender imbalance in the couple. This can be traced back to the education we received as children.

Society's shared values and preferences, such as woman's dedication to children, family work and family care, often have a social, but also economic role. In many businesses, it is strongly rooted in the fear that women spend more time and concentration on family and personal commitments, are less productive in the workplace, and therefore tend to prefer men's recruitment and limit careers and wages of women workers. There is a kind of "statistical discrimination" that make employers incorrectly believe that women make less profit than men do.

This form of thinking merely contributes to the creation of a gendered cultural context, which presents significant disparities from which the main wage differentials arise (Casarico et al., 2010). In addition to this, there is the widespread conviction that maternity is a high cost for businesses, apparently questionable as 80% of the benefit is covered by INPS and only the 20% by the company. It follows that, on average, the overall expenditure incurred by the firm is very small as it is around 0.016% of total turnover and corresponds to 0.023% of total staff costs. The actual cost that can be deduced from the company is represented by the organizational effort needed to manage a momentary uncertainty. However, if the relationship between a company and a worker is based on transparency and the woman is placed in suitable and favourable conditions, the costs become even more limited and there is no loss of human capital thus leading to an advantage for both parties.

Ensuring access to the world of work and the possibility of personal growth for women is a fundamental right underlying democracy and represents an opportunity for the entire economic system, as well as for the same workers as there are numerous talents that as such cannot be wasted.

2.4 CHINESE WOMEN ROLE

Chinese women lives have significantly changed thanks to the reforms during the late Qing Dynasty, the Nationalist period, the Chinese Civil War, and the rise of the People's Republic of China, which had announced publicly on the commitment toward gender equality.

The new Communist government made many efforts toward gender equality but met resistance in the historically male-dominated Chinese society, and obstacles continue to stand in the way of women looking for gender equality.

From the 11th century BCE onwards Chinese society has been predominantly patriarchal. The women's status was, like that of men, closely tied to the Chinese kinship system. In families, there has always been a preference for the son, leading to high rates of female infanticide, as well as a strong tradition of restricting their freedom of movement, manifested through the practice of foot binding. The legal and social status of women has greatly improved in the 20th century.

To understand women's situation in China we must analyse various aspect of their lives.

The first important aspect is marriage and family planning. In China, marriage was seen as a contract between families rather than between individuals, in fact these were selected marriages in which the spouse was selected according to the family needs and the socioeconomic status of the potential mate. The main duty of these selected spouses was to provide a son to continue the family name.

After the marriage the spouses lived in their husband's homes, included in the family if she was able to provide a son, if not she was excluded. After the death of the husband, the spouse became a property of her husband's family. (Johnson,2012)

In 1950 was approved the New Law on Marriage that regards civil marriage and represented a significant change from the combined marriages. The Second Marriage Law then substituted this law in 1980 focused on the interests of children and women but maintained the family planning and granted to both men and women the right to divorce.

Another issue regarding marriage is the second wives issue. In traditional China, polygamy was permitted and having concubines was a sign of wealth. With the Law on Marriage of 1950, polygamy was outlawed and allowed women to leave their husbands if they had extramarital affairs.

The second aspect of Chinese women's lives is the domestic violence aspect. In 2004, the All China Women's Federation³³ presented a survey showing that 30% of Chinese women experienced domestic violence. In 2001, the Chinese Marriage Law was modified to offer mediation and compensation to those women who suffered from this kind of violence. In 2005, domestic violence was criminalized with a 2005 amendment of the Law of Protection of Rights and Interests of Women.

A third aspect is represented by healthcare, which is also based on a patriarchal system and on Confucian ideology according to which women did not possess priority in healthcare. It was just after the Cultural Revolution (1966-1976) that the People's Republic of China began to focus on women's healthcare. This change was probably linked to work because women working were granted with healthcare.

Linked to healthcare system we can find another phenomenon in China that is the missing women of Asia phenomenon. In China, the ratio of men to women is high and gender discrimination contributed to this situation. Amartya Sen³⁴ attributed, in 1990, the deficit of women to sex-selective abortion, female infanticide and inadequate nutrition of girls.

The sex selective abortion is the preference for sons and is linked to the One Child Policy, if the parents must just have one child they preferred a boy. Mainland China has a highly masculine sex ratio, in 2000, this ratio reached 117:100 that is more than the natural baseline that ranges from 103:100 to 107:100, if this situation keeps growing this way, by 2020, there will be 30 million more men than women and this could lead to social instability. This One Child Policy not only limits the number of children to one but it also puts pressure on women who fell like a duty the fact to deliver a baby boy.

Speaking of a more economical and legal matter women in China, in theory, enjoy legal equal rights to property but practically is not so easy. In ancient China, men always inherited properties but, as Kathryn Bernhardt, a scholar of Chinese history, pointed out, from the Song dynasty women with no brothers and unmarried received from their father the property. Later in history, the Kuomintang³⁵ advocated for gender equality and with the republican Civil Code

³³ The All-China Women's Federation (Chinese: 中华全国妇女联合会, pinyin: *Zhōnghuá Quánguó Fùnǚ Liánhéhuì*), also known as the ACWF, is a women's rights organization established in China on 24 March 1949. It was originally called the All-China Democratic Women's Foundation and was renamed the All-China Women's Federation in 1957. It has acted as the official leader of the women's movement in China since its founding. It is responsible for promoting government policies on women, and protecting women's rights within the government.

³⁴ Nobel Prize winning economist

³⁵ Chinese Nationalist Party

of 1930 property rights were recognized to women, specifically this Code established that legally property belongs to the father but the inheritance, based on the bloodline, could be received by both daughters and sons equally shared.

All we have said until this point on women rights in China, if we speak about employment is reversed. We are used to measure gender equality especially on the possibility given to women to participate to the labour market. In China, the situation is quite different, if we would measure the gender equality based on labour force participation China would be the most egalitarian country in the world but equal participation does not mean equal conditions. For example, according to Chinese law, in private sector, employers have to provide maternity leave and cost of childbirth and this Law brought employers to be reluctant to hire women. However, there are some areas in which the total of women employees surpasses the total of men employees: professional and technical occupation, commerce and service occupations and industrial production.

Since China opened to international market and encouraged export industries they needed workers to move to the cities, especially women because for a man was more important to attend college while for a woman is not a fundamental thing in life, so they fled to the cities to increase their families incomes. These women were considered migrant workers not receiving healthcare, education or housing. Furthermore, they could not receive a permanent residence and so they could not benefit of the cities advantages.

To conclude this excursus on Chinese women's situation I would like to present some situations Chinese women faced. The first is the Foot Binding practice that was outlawed in 1912. This practice consisted in applying tight binding to the feet of girls to modify the shape of the foot, this was a way to display social status and was adopted as a symbol of beauty but, this practice, obviously, limited these women mobility.

The second is trafficking, young women kidnapped and sold, kept away from their houses and exploited. Mao Zedong in 1950 launched a campaign to eradicate prostitution criminalizing the act of trafficking women, he also established a rehabilitation program for those women victims of trafficking but since the economic reform in 1979 sex trafficking happened again.

In China as well as in all other countries in the world the role of women as been debated for a long time but, in China the rapid economic development increased opportunities for all.

Today, Chinese women's role is quite the same than in any other country, in theory there is plenty of opportunities but in practice, women are not as equally considered as men because of their status of mums and wives.

As we have seen in this chapter, women's role is still trying to find his own path but as we will see next there are women who have the courage to leave their families behind to find a better job, a better opportunity and are able to build something no one could have imagined. (Ocko, 1991)

CHAPTER 3: ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Entrepreneurship is a theme that has always dominated the public debate in the last 20 years and that, especially in Italy, acquired a legitimation that never had before.

Entrepreneurship can be expressed in different ways and dimensions, from a large corporation manager to a walker who picked the right place to sell his products.

The term entrepreneurship, from an etymological point of view, derives from the Latin verb “prehendere” that means “take on themselves”. From the economical point of view, entrepreneurship is a multidimensional territory where different approaches are confronted.

The first definition of entrepreneurship was given by the economist and philosopher Jean-Baptiste Say³⁶ (1767-1832), who in 1816 defined entrepreneurship as the capacity to “allocate resources from a low profit economic activity to a high profit economic activity. In this perspective the entrepreneurship concept was strictly linked to two characteristics: owning a capital and being able to invest it in a productive way, instead of turning it in a purely landowner’s rent.

The Austrian Economy School at the beginning of the 1900s has engaged in this concept and added a further characteristic to entrepreneurship: the capacity of enterprise administrative management. In this definition the entrepreneur is not the one who owns the enterprise but the one who manages it. At the point, the entrepreneur is identified as the manager able to satisfy the market needs bringing a balance between offer and demand.

Entrepreneurship is essentially conceived as a mental attitude that does not depend from the working position nor from the ownership of firms or funds. The entrepreneurial attitude can be rather identified in the capacity to see and plan the future and the desire to take the responsibility of the necessary risk to realize that vision. The sense of responsibility, the desire to “take charge” and the desire to realize a dream are the factors that move an entrepreneur.

A society with a high rate of entrepreneurship is a society in which people think strategically. A world permeated by entrepreneurial spirit is not a world of dreamer, is a world oriented to the innovation of the future. To turn an entrepreneur vision into a project is essential to combine

³⁶ Jean-Baptiste Say (Lyon, 1767-Paris, 1832), was a French economist, journalist and entrepreneur. He is famous for his liberal views and his arguments in favour of competition and free trade.

creativity and innovation, good management and a mental attitude to plan strategy and create long term relations.

In the last years entrepreneurship is becoming an always more important theme in the scientific and social research. Thanks to the growing number of international studies, especially since the 80', entrepreneurship has been recognized as an important vector of economic development through the creation of new jobs, innovation and the ability to produce wealth and well-being. (The European House Ambrosetti cinquanta, Power2Innovate, 2015)

3.1 THE ENTREPRENEUR

There are many and very different definitions for the figure and the role of the entrepreneur due to the historic period in which they developed. Nowadays everybody agrees in giving him a prominent position in the economic system.

The many definitions proposed in the literature reveal the dynamic nature of the entrepreneurial phenomenon. It is retained that the term entrepreneur is a changing concept and there is not an exhaustive definition, but every definition has a value and contributes to increase the comprehension of such complex phenomenon.

The first definition of entrepreneur can be traced back to Richard Cantillon³⁷ (1680-1734), who identified the entrepreneur in every person who does not have a safe income and who acquires resources at fixed prices and combines them to create products to sell at a non-fixed price (Cantillon,1755).

The entrepreneur is characterized by a strong desire of transformation, he does not just meet the market demands, he anticipate the needs and create economic opportunities giving dynamics to the system and allowing is expansion (Morlacchi, 2007).

The most important characteristic for an entrepreneur is the entrepreneurial spirit identified by Shumpeter³⁸(1883-1950) as “the set of creative inclinations, abilities and skills of the individual, isolated or within an organization, that give him the ability to notice an economic opportunity, to exploit it modifying a certain status quo introducing constant changings and managing the business with good chances of success”.

The entrepreneur has a key social function, as the doctor, the teacher etc. His role is to pursue “selfishly” the design he choose for his and his enterprise benefit, contributing to realize the common wealth.

A society characterized by a highly entrepreneurial attitude is future-oriented, is able to strategically plan his objectives, is innovative, dynamic, competitive and enhances who assumes the responsibility of his own risks.

³⁷ Richard Cantillon was an Irish-French economist, banker and merchant. His success derived from his entrepreneurial and political connections. His masterpiece “Essay on the nature of trade in general” is considered the first complete treatise on economics including the concept of entrepreneur as a risk-bearer.

³⁸ Joseph Schumpeter was an American economist and political scientist. He was one of the first scholars who theorized about entrepreneurship and its contributions.

3.2 ITALIAN ENTREPRENEURSHIP

To measure the entrepreneurial capacity of a territory has always been one of the policy makers and of the national and international institutions challenges regarding innovation.

Trying to understand, in Italy, what is the degree of innovation and of economic talent we will look at the Global Entrepreneurship Index.

The Global Entrepreneurship Development Institute (GEDI)³⁹, a non-profit association founded by some of the best universities in the world (London School of Economics, Imperial College, George Mason University and University of Pécs), has published the Global Entrepreneurship Index 2018, a ranking that measures the quality of innovation and the entrepreneurial dynamics of 130 countries in the world. The index is elaborated through the weighting of fourteen pillars that measure the ability, the aspirations and the entrepreneurial attitude of different ecosystems, according to a mix of “individual” and “institutional” variables. The individual ones describe, among the other things, the entrepreneurial environment in which enterprises operate, the innovative climate and the risks and opportunities perception registered in a country or in a territory. The institutional ones report the statistics measuring the population percentage attending universities, the use of internet or the ability to develop products and innovation from research and development activities (technology transfer). The methodology used to calculate the final score, on a scale from 0 to 90, has been validated by strict academic peer-reviewed journals and used by the European Commission as a reference to allocate the Structural and Cohesion European Funds⁴⁰.

Speaking of innovative and entrepreneurial output the Italian poor performance is due to a series of endogenous factors rooted in the private sector, in the policy and in the administrative system. The general perception is that in Italy there is a lack of a pro-business culture.

The regulatory climate and the bureaucracy, in fact, are indicated as negative factors for the birth and growth of businesses, for the innovative ability and more in general for the country entrepreneurship.

One of the more discussed topics is the slowness of the justice system: for the complete definition of a civil procedure, in Italy, it takes almost eight years against an average in the

³⁹ The GEDI methodology is based on collecting data on entrepreneurial attitudes, abilities and inspirations of a country weighting these characteristics against prevailing social and economic infrastructures.

⁴⁰ The Structural and Cohesion Funds are funds given to reduce regional income, wealth and opportunities disparities.

OECD⁴¹ countries of two years and two months. A slow and inefficient justice is also related to a marked under-sizing of enterprises: according to some researches reported by the World Bank, halve the times the fast definition of a civil procedure brings to the growth of the average size of an enterprise between the 8% and the 12%.

To these factors, we can also add that in Italy there is a poor propensity to risk and an exasperated stigmatization of failure; meritocracy is not rewarded, regulation is excessive and endless bureaucratic laces persist hindering growth.

Another aspect worthy of being reported is taxation. Italian enterprises identify in taxes an element that can explain partly the competitiveness differential observed in the comparison with other European countries: compared to an average of 40% of taxes in EU countries, Italian enterprises pay on average more than 64,8% of profits.

If Italy wants to keep up with other more dynamics and competitive European countries has to improve its ability of innovate. It is therefore necessary a further quali-quantitative step for public policies and a further prioritization of interventions that have to focus on local specificities.

(The European House Ambrosetti cinquanta, Power2Innovate, 2015).

⁴¹ Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development is an intergovernmental economic organisation with 35-member state having as objective the promotion of economic progress and the world trade.

3.3 IMMIGRANT ENTREPRENEURSHIP

The number of enterprises established in developed countries by immigrants has increased in the last decades because of various changes: political-institutional, social, economic and technological. This phenomenon invested Italy too, in fact, we can find throughout Italy enterprises run by immigrants operating in various sectors.

Immigrant enterprises are small and medium sized enterprises concentrated in the major urban and manufacturing areas.

Immigrant entrepreneurship is a theme theoretically discussed since the 1980s in the United States. The American scholars Light and Bonacich (1988) are some of the first defining immigrant entrepreneurship as “typical of those groups in which the rate of independent workers far exceeds the average of the group members”. To this definition, they associate the definition of ethnic entrepreneurship “specialization of an ethnic minority in managing independent activities [...] immigrant entrepreneurship became ethnic entrepreneurship when a second generation keep on specializing in the independent work of his parents”.

Immigrant entrepreneurship, as a possibility for a migratory group to develop economically, can be observed from various points of view, and the most effective is that of the migratory networks. The theory of migratory networks is, in fact, one of the most considered theory in the migratory studies.

Massey defined the “migratory network” as “complex interpersonal bonds that link migrants, previous migrants and non-migrants in the origin and destination areas, through kinship ties, friendship and common origins”. Migratory networks are such important because they develop in entrepreneurial networks; migrants create a community that sustains the individual in his choices, in this case entrepreneurial choices. This migrant networks, for example the kinship ties, represent also a strong motivation to build successful enterprises in order to be reunited to their families left behind.

Through networks, we can analyze the connection between these and the labor market. To support and facilitate migrants entering the labor market networks provide an important resource that is the social capital: the contacts and interpersonal relationships used by individuals to pursue integration and promotion strategies in order to realize their own migratory and working project (Waldinger,2007).

Since 1970s American scholars observed that entrepreneurial activities were linked to ethnic networks. Light (1972) highlighted that Chinese entrepreneurship is linked to the system of rotating credit associations: it is a form of mutual aid based on a monthly deposit of money from which each member can benefit to develop his entrepreneurial initiatives.

However, not all the networks equally support entrepreneurship; this depends on various factor such as internal cohesion, reciprocal trust and the obligation to convey information and resources. Thanks to these networks, the migrant enterprises establish with employers relations of mutual trust, up to the point to allow flexibility and many advantages (Aldrich, Waldinger and Ward, 1990). Therefore, these networks do not just offer jobs it also offers the opportunity to be entrepreneur that will acquire knowledge to transmit to the next generation creating a strong human capital.

Beyond the networks, another reason pushing migrants to look for a participation in independent work is the “disadvantage theory”. According to this theory, the groups with a minor knowledge of the language of the country of origin, a limited education and who are discriminated when entering the labor market tend to develop independent activities. According to this theory, they live a real disadvantage in entering the labor market so, their choice to develop an enterprise is dictated by a real difficulty (Ambrosini, 2004).

These activities are based on poor resources, technologies and capitals and for this reason they are unprofitable, marginal and unstable.

That is the reason why Jones and McEvoy (1992) sustained that these structurally weak activities lead to the formation of the so called “lumpenbourgeoisie”⁴², that is the concentration in marginal economy sector of activities employing intensive work hours and working conditions. The immigrant entrepreneurship is so an advantage born from a disadvantage that creates his own capitalism being unable to penetrate the capitalist economy mainstream (Kwok Bun and Jin Hui, 1995).

Immigrant entrepreneurship is, as previously pointed out, the result of various elements, on one hand the group characteristics (social, cultural and given by the migratory experience), considered in relation to the opportunities structure, characterized by structural elements (access to the market and hi growth potential) and to historical external elements. On the other hand is also the result of the present conditions of the economic sector in which immigrants

⁴² Lumpenbourgeoisie is a term used to define the lowest stratum of the bourgeoisie, sometimes associated with illegal business.

operate, as well as the market regulation, the enterprises localization, the process of harmonization of entrepreneurial opportunities.

The model of mix-embeddedness takes into account the possibility that being an entrepreneur is not only due to the match of group characteristics with market and institutions openings, but is also due to socio-economic, cultural and political real opportunities accessible to migrants to realize their own independent activity ⁴³(Codagnone, 2003).

Speaking of immigrated entrepreneurship it is relevant to note that migrants employed particular kinds of capital in the initial phases of his migratory project and of his integration in the economic context of the destination countries. These are the social, human and financial capitals.

Portes defines the social capital as "the ability of the actors to obtain benefits through the membership to a network or other social structures" (1998: 6). According to the author, the social capital is referred to the ability of individuals to manage scarce resources thanks to the advantage of being part of a network especially regarding job opportunities. Social capital is connected to the familiar support and to the benefits obtained through the extra-familiar networks used to access the labor market, the occupational mobility and the entrepreneurial success.

Portes and Sensenbrenner (1993) sustained that the social capital is based on four types⁴⁴ among which we cite the "bound solidarity" followed by the "constrictive trust". Bound solidarity and constrictive trust contribute to generate a "community" giving a strong internal cohesion because, the members are aware that they have more opportunities for the future if they sustain each other. However, according to Portes and Sensenbrenner (1993:1332) this bound solidarity and constrictive trust tend to exclude all the migrants that are not part of their community

⁴³ According to Kloosterman and colleagues (1999) at the low end of the opportunity structure, it is necessary to develop two types of openings that intersect with the local dimension. The first is the demand for ethnic products and the second is the increase of ethnic entrepreneurship in the neighbourhood areas. For the authors, at the first level of the opportunity structure the entry into the entrepreneurial world, caused by exclusion from the local market, is easier. Companies operating at this level compete thanks to price flexibility, more than quality, cutting labour costs and applying an "intensive labour" model. The latter is given, as explained by Becucci (2006), by companies that survive on the market by employing de-skilled and low-cost labour. Moreover, for Kloosterman and colleagues (1999), these companies make use of the social capital resource given by family networks and members of the same ethnic group, which, allow them, to have access to capital, low labour costs and information flow. Thus, the use of social capital within the opportunity structure provides ethnic entrepreneurs with benefits both in formal and informal economies.

⁴⁴ The other two types of social capital are "the internalisation of values" inherent to socialization that takes place thanks to benefits established in a consensual way; and "exchanges of reciprocity", that are, the rules of reciprocity that underlie interactions (Portes and Sensenbrenner, 1993).

because of the excessive claims, the restriction of individual freedom and the reduction of the importance of the norms.

The other relevant capital for migrants is the financial one. The monetary availability is fundamental to start a migration project. Light and Gold (2000) underline how the financial capital is relevant to access the labor market and to start an independent entrepreneurial activity.

The last kind is the human capital that refers to the talent, the education and the experience of workers. The human capital represents all the knowledge, the experiences and the abilities acquired by a worker and sold in exchange for future remuneration (Praussello and Marengo, 1996). However, migrants are unable to transfer all the human capital they acquired in the country of origin to the country of destination and, for this reason, we can talk of “international transferability of abilities” that is based on the needs of the labor market.

To sum up we can say that immigrant entrepreneurship has developed in the cities’ industrial districts in which migrants revealed themselves as a useful workforce and because of their contribution, they became able to expand their productivity. The advancement of foreign entrepreneurship highlights the entrepreneurial ability of certain migrant groups.

The attitude of migrants towards undertaking an economic activity is substantially based on the economic environment at the national and local contexts. This environment influences the small-business in particular which are the businesses preferred by migrants. These influences are clearly not the same for all groups of migrant, based on their culture, traditions etc. they are influenced in different ways and that’s the reason why in different countries there is a particular group of migrant that surpasses in number and business success the others (Razin and Light, 1998).

3.4 CHINESE MIGRANTS ENTREPRENEURSHIP

The term “ethnic entrepreneur” perfectly defines the great number of Chinese managing enterprises in which all the employers are Chinese people (Light and Gold,2000)

The first Chinese entrepreneurs arrived in Italy in the eighty's and were called pioneer ethnic entrepreneurs because they were the first who find their entrepreneurial collocation in Italy before the Italian law blocked for ten years the access for migrant to the entrepreneurial activities.

These pioneers' entrepreneurs were the ones who started the import-export activity between China and Italy; they are now definitely detached by the small Chinese entrepreneurs.

When we talk about Chinese diaspora is immediately evident their strong propulsion toward entrepreneurship and the great tension towards gaining a strong social and economic status in whatever society and community they live in.

In Italy Prato is one of the centers with the greatest concentration of Chinese people. In the Prato area in the last few years has been established about 1220 new small enterprises mainly occupied in the manufacturing sector. Even before their arrival, this sector was not developed as it is now.

Chines entrepreneurs have their own labor model; their production is mainly based on an ethnic economy where the Chinese enterprises tend to just employ Chinese people. In other words, the forms that the Chinese presence has assumed in some Italian industrial districts are a summary of reference values that the Chinese immigrants bring with them (and that characterized their settlement in other countries), on the one hand, and the requirements of the local market on the other hand (Dei Ottati, 2014)

In the Chinese migratory model acts a diffused aspiration to entrepreneurship, a propulsion to family business launching families as the competitive economic unit whose members are perceived as “the cheapest, most reliable and readily available working asset”; the availability to hard work and self-exploiment are Chinese migrant instruments for a rapid economic affirmation.

On the other side, there also are many small Italian entrepreneurs who provides an always-growing number of orders to the Chinese entrepreneurs asking for: availability to work for third parties allowing them to download some costs on small Chinese entrepreneur's shoulders,

flexibility, acceptance of all the orders of which the majority are urgent, availability to work obtaining low remunerations.

It is certain that Chinese migrants have successfully penetrated Italian economic system but, how much space there is in Italy for their business and, how big are their hopes to move from small to big size enterprises?

In the last few years, Chinese small size enterprises have faced many difficulties: the internal competitors that reduced the incomes, the frauds from the ones who provided the orders and the seasonality of working.

In this context emerges the issue of the irregular work that characterizes the integration in the economic system of various Chinese enterprises in Italy. It has to be said that also many Italian enterprises suffer the problem of irregular work, so, we can conclude that this culture of illegality, in Italy, represents a fertile ground for irregular work.

The irregularity of Chinese companies is multifaceted; in short we can say that starting from '98 - when the immigration law decree canceled the ban on access to self-employment to immigrants who had not settled before 1990 - the two main reasons for irregularities are the use of clandestine labor and non-payment (or partial payment) of state taxes. Before going into detail about these irregularities, it should be kept in mind that the Chinese perceive these two types of irregularities in a very different way. When they speak of “heigong” 黑工, that is, irregular work, the Chinese generally intend to refer only to the presence of illegal immigrants within Chinese companies, and do not in any case include non-payment of taxes.

In conclusion we can remember that the path to economic mobility and the entrepreneurial affirmation of the Chinese in Italy has a less than twenty years history, and has already experienced illusions, obstacles, environmental limits and irresistible thrusts of the market that will continue to face in the future.

3.5 WOMEN ENTREPRENEURSHIP STUDIES

Now that I presented entrepreneurship and immigrant entrepreneurship, I will focus in the following paragraphs on the main theme of my thesis regarding women and their entrepreneurial activity.

We can find the first studies on female entrepreneurs in the United States since the '70s, although the approach on the subject is neutral because the studies had been carried out from the male point of view and therefore, did not raise differences between men and woman in doing business. However, the first studies found a lack of education on the part of women and this affected the credibility towards third parties, especially when women required funding. The lack of credibility was linked to culture, because a woman, a mother more precisely, was not designed to do business, but had only the task of looking after the house and the family (David, 2006).

Most of the studies carried out, especially in Italy; deal with the subject of subordinate work. Despite the lack of studies on female entrepreneurship, results have been obtained highlighting the prevalence of women in small companies, especially in family-run businesses where women have a directional style oriented towards communication to all the components of the organization (David, 2006). In the same period, studies are concentrated in the managerial and administrative field, identifying entrepreneurship as an economic and neutral approach towards the subjects operating in that sector of activity. These studies do not represent the gender differences between men and women in companies, as the female component was not considered due to the women scarce presence in the entrepreneurial environment.

Maria Pia May and Lorenza Zanuso (1980) carried out research on forty women entrepreneurs and business executives in the Milan area and obtained the main female models of entrepreneurs.

- the self-employed entrepreneurs are those who have followed the path of entrepreneurship driven by passion and enthusiasm to put their personal project to good use;
- the daughters or wives or widows who have replaced the husband or the father in the company or who are part of it as workers or collaborators, approach the work in a much more detached way than the self-employed entrepreneurs, because this type of

businesswomen have been forced to clash with the male gender and then with all the stereotypes that derive from it.

The studies carried out later underlined both the differences between the two sexes and the negative characteristics of female-run businesses, as well as the difficulties faced by women in undertaking the opening of a new business. Furthermore, the issues are faced from the point of view of interpersonal relations in entrepreneurship to obtain personal satisfaction. (Donne e Carriera: le dirigenti e le imprenditrici, 1980)

3.6 WOMEN'S ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Career women are those who are part of a process of professional development of a company or an institution or are self-employed women. When women want to start a new activity are driven by an entrepreneurial spirit characterized by their own personal expectations, being able to independently manage their work, being able to separate the working life from private life and, including all components in the conduct of one's own company without considering too much the various hierarchical levels (Faleri, 2009).

Over the last twenty years, we have witnessed a significant commitment by the European Union to actively promote the principle of gender equality in various countries. Therefore, both national measures and recommendations were supported, as did the development of gender studies in the field of companies. The recorded data, however, continued to identify the female gender as the underrepresented one, even in the exercise of business activity.

Studies on women entrepreneurship indicate that they possess the typical feminine characteristics: different style of leadership, sharper attention to her collaborators, different spirit of observation, attention towards employees and motivations in setting up their own business. These just mentioned characteristics are some of the distinctive variables that lead the analysis to pay special attention to the differences between entrepreneurs of different sexes.

The first studies that are part of the WIE (Women in Entrepreneurship) strand developed in the USA and later in Great Britain and then in the European States, in order to highlight the gender affinities and the differences present in the enterprises created by a male subject and a female subject. The table (Notaragnello, Ponticelli, Migale, 1996) below shows the evolution of the strand of studies on women entrepreneurs, in particular:

1. Years '70 - '80 - The Equalitarian Model;
2. Years '80 - '90 - The Gender Differences Model;
3. Years '90 - 2000 -The Integrated Prospective

The first highlights the man-women parity with women more discriminated in the acquisition of resources phase and less trained.

The second highlights the development of women's enterprises that are more advanced in terms of relations, insight, double role. They have a different way of managing an enterprise and this difference is their resource.

The third highlights the continuous evolution of the social and economic reality, the social differences.

In recent years, the development of women's businesses has become more and more established worldwide. In particular, this phenomenon was demonstrated in 2013 with the introduction of an index created by the Dell⁴⁵ multinational with the aim of measuring the level of female entrepreneurship. The index was called "Gender - GEDI"⁴⁶ in which the goal is to highlight the high potential for development and the growth of female entrepreneurs considering these factors:

- the high potential possessed by women entrepreneurs and their characteristics;
- The culture of entrepreneurship;
- The distinct subjects among the female and male figures who have access to resources;
- The distinct subjects among the female and male figures that are part of the institutions;
- Institutions and foundations.

The index was obtained by comparing the data derived from other indices representing the business environment, the entrepreneurial ecosystem⁴⁷ and entrepreneurial aspirations.

The survey used 17 countries as reference targets, the top three classified have good institutional foundations and a good environment for developing the business, and are the following: the United States, the Australia, Germany, France and Mexico. Through this research, it has been noted that institutions and cultures, which create barriers to entry and obstacles of growth for female figures that face the business world, represent a major obstacle. The barriers relate to legislative regulations with a reflection also for women's activities that are carried outside their country of origin. The problems that women are forced to face in the business limit their growth; specifically they are verifiable especially in countries such as Turkey, Egypt and Morocco.

⁴⁵ Dell Inc. is a multinational computer technology company.

⁴⁶ Female Entrepreneurship Index that measures the potential female entrepreneur worldwide.

⁴⁷ "Entrepreneurial ecosystem" concept: a set of interconnected business actors (both existing and potential), business organizations (enterprises, venture capitalists, business angels, banks), institutions (universities, public sector bodies, financial institutions), and entrepreneurial processes such as the growth rate of business, the level of growing companies, the levels of "corporate giants", the ambition levels of entrepreneurs, who formally or informally want to cooperate with each other, mediate and govern performance at internal business environment.

In first analysis using sub-indices (entrepreneurial environment, entrepreneurial ecosystem and entrepreneurial aspirations) and comparing them to the Gender - GEDI, we find the causes and consequences that women face in entering the business world in various analyzed countries:

- it is not a single factor that determines the promotion of female businesses: various factors must be combined, in particular the Top Five countries, even if they are successful in terms of business development and at an institutional level, are deficient compared to other factors;

- there is an institutional gap in the launching of women's businesses in many countries: for example, the recognition of opportunities is not facilitated by the institutions, causing a limited perception of them;

- economic development is not enough to encourage the empowerment of women's businesses: the access to legal rights, education and credit does not automatically determine success, as having good basis for entrepreneurial development does not determine women participation. Economic development is linked to technological development considered a crucial variable for the promotion and growth of companies for both men and women. Research and development is considered a component that does not guarantee the growth of success, since a systematic search is required to obtain new products, and it is a process that cannot be implemented by countries that are deprived of material resources and intellectual resources;

- there is a need to improve access to credit: in countries such as Egypt, Uganda, India and Morocco, very few women have a bank account.

- the possibility of freedom of business is considered a necessary condition fighting legal and regulatory obstacles: it is crucial to have an effective and stable network among the countries, as for example having internet access is easier to create opportunities for women entrepreneurs.

- social norms constitute a hidden barrier that disadvantages growth and development and therefore limits women entrepreneurial participation: the USA, the United Kingdom and Japan are high income countries, but nevertheless in Japan there are only 9% of women manager against 43% in the USA. Moreover, on this point technology is important because it makes it more convenient to undertake a business enterprise but it is a good deterrent to break down the social barriers that women face in order to start an activity and recover resources;

- the problem of education: it is more frequent in developing countries, blocking the growth of female businesses and the possibility for them to shift their skills to other countries.

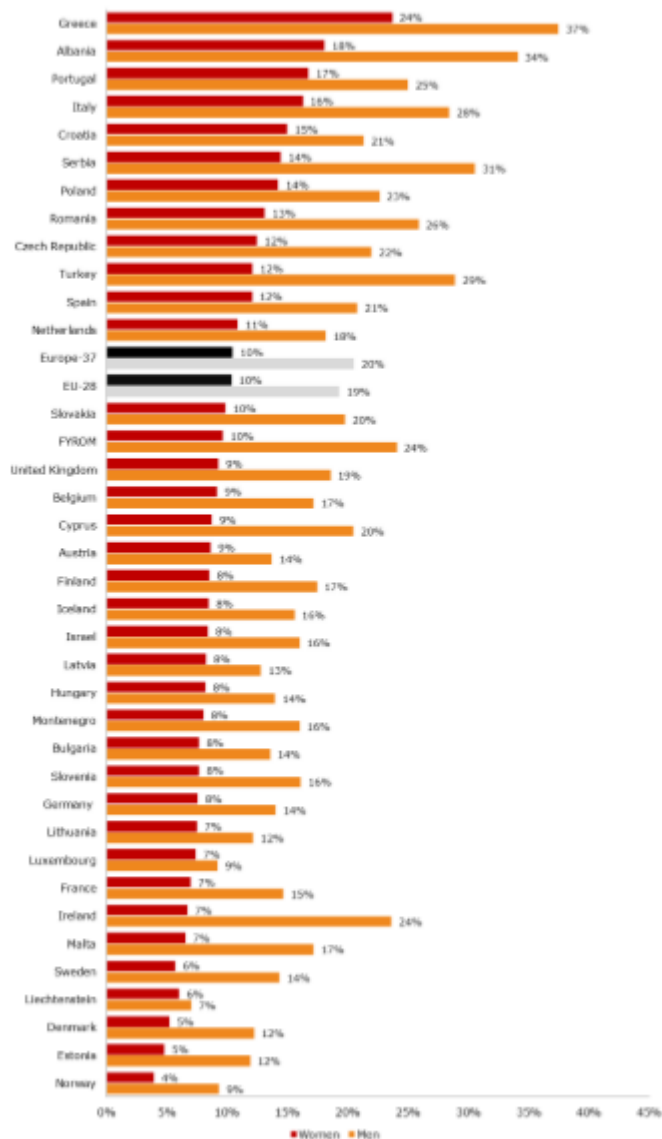
The countries that have obtained the best results from the analysis must still work on many factors to achieve equality in all sectors and thus make the business world accessible to women without any problem.

In Europe, the female presence at the top of companies in the last decade is growing thanks to cultural, technological and regulatory changes. Women in particular are affirming themselves albeit with difficulty in the business landscape, especially with medium / small companies. The women who give life to new organizations have the ability to generate a culture oriented change and innovation and therefore, constitute an important element in the territory development (Pezzini, Di Cesare, 2003).

The European Commission in September 2014 published a statistical document covering the period 2008 - 2012 on the study of the rates of male and female entrepreneurs. Data were collected in 37 States, including Eurozone States plus Albania, Croatia, Macedonia, Yugoslavia,

Iceland, Israel, Turkey, Liechtenstein, Montenegro, Norway and Serbia.

Figura 2 - Grafico che rappresenta il tasso degli imprenditori in 37 paesi europei distinti tra uomini e donne

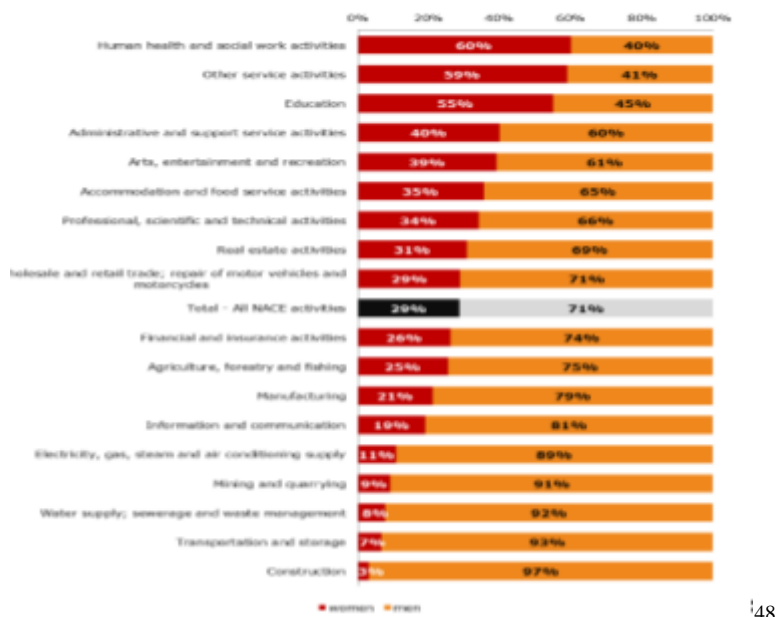


Fonte: Eurostat, UNICE, ILOSTAT and national statistics, 2012

The graph shows the percentages of female and male entrepreneurs active in the different States. It can be seen that in 2012 the rate of women entrepreneurs registered throughout Europe is equal to 29%, while in the European Union the rate is equal to 31%. The difference seen from 2008 is very slight. The country with the highest percentage of women entrepreneurs is Liechtenstein with 43%, followed by Latvia and Lithuania with 40% and Luxembourg with 39%. On the other hand, the lowest percentage is in Turkey with only 15%, preceded by Malta with 18% and Ireland with a rate of 20%. Observing the period between 2003 and 2012, on the other hand, the rate of female active enterprises grew from 10% to 10.4%; the highest growth is recorded in Slovakia, Serbia and the Netherlands.

In the 37 European countries, it was found that the percentage of women and men's individual businesses is present with a rather high percentage: in 2012 women entrepreneurs are 78% compared to 22% of women and 30% of men as employees.

Figura 3 - Suddivisione degli imprenditori maschili e femminili per settore



Source: EUROSTAT, UNICE, ILOSTAT and National statistics, 2012

The chart above shows the sectors in which male and female entrepreneurs are present.

In 2008 - 2012 it can be noted that in the 37 countries examined in this study the presence of women stands out in the health sector, in social assistance both equal to 60%, other services equal to 59% and education equal to 55%. Instead, the male presence stands out in the construction sector, transport, information, communication, and manufacturing.

The European Commission also wanted to analyze the factors influencing women entrepreneurs. The data⁴⁹ are shown from the table below:

⁴⁸ The data collected do not include Spain, Italy and Poland - "Statistical Data Women Entrepreneur Report", European Commission, September 2014, p. 14;

⁴⁹ The data represented are based on the statistical indicator Bivariate Pearson Correlation, in this analysis it was used to measure the strength and direction of the linear relationship between the two variables, ie the covariance of the variables divided by the product of their standard deviations. For more data referring to the database component, the reference is the "Statistical Data Women Entrepreneur Report" study, European Commission, September 2014, Appendix 1, from p. 85 - 90;

Tabella 2 - Variabili che influenzano le imprese femminili

Variable 1	Variable 2	Pearson Correlation	N (countries)
Percentage of women entrepreneurs of women in the active labour force, 2012	Percentage of necessity driven start-ups in total women start-ups	0.365*	24
Unemployment rate women	Percentage of necessity driven start-ups in total women start-ups	0.585***	25
Percentage of women entrepreneurs of women in the active labour force, 2012	Unemployment rate women	0.668***	34
Social benefits per unemployed (PPP), 2011	Percentage of necessity driven start-ups in total women start-ups	-0.393**	24
Percentage of women entrepreneurs of women in the active labour force, 2012	Trust in people	-0.586***	23
Percentage of women entrepreneurs of women in the active labour force, 2012	GDP per capita	-0.345*	30
Percentage of necessity start-ups in total women start-ups	GDP per capita	-0.489**	23
Percentage of women entrepreneurs of women in the active labour force, 2012	Barriers to finance: percentage applied for bank loans but rejected	0.151	30
Percentage of women entrepreneurs of women in the active labour force, 2012	Allowed to decide how daily work is organised	-0.311	23
Percentage of women entrepreneurs 2012	Gender inequality index 2012	-0.246	35

Fonte: Panteia, based on Eurostat, National Statistics, OECD, GEM and ESS

Summarizing the table reported these results:

- unemployment rate - there is a strong positive relationship between the level of female unemployment and women entrepreneurs. It is noted that in countries where the unemployment rate is high, on average there are more women entrepreneurs who are active, therefore it follows that if there is a high unemployment rate this leads women to start up business activities;
- social benefits for unemployed workers: there is a negative relationship between the level of social benefits for unemployed workers and the percentage of women entrepreneurs;
- welfare: based on the correlation coefficient, it is weak and has a negative relationship between the average level of well-being (GDP / per capita) and the female entrepreneurial level;
- trust in people: there was a negative relationship between the level of trust placed in people and the rate of female entrepreneurship. A motivation to this result could be that the less trust in other people can stimulate entrepreneurial development thanks to the greater autonomy and control that derives from this;
- finance: no significant relationship was found between the barriers to obtaining funding and the rate of active entrepreneurs;

- the level of autonomy in work: no significant relationship was found between the level of autonomy in work and the rate of female entrepreneurship;
- gender inequality: no significant relationship was found between the level of gender inequality (UNDP index) and the rate of women entrepreneurs.

(Statistical Data Women Entrepreneur, European Commission)

The European Union considers as a fundamental objective to find equal treatment between men and women, based on the principle of gender equality, being in a democratic landscape where respect for the individual is in force. Even today, however, there is still a strong disparity in treatment between women and men due to prejudices deriving mainly from culture (Policy final report, 2011).

In particular, since the female role at the top of the companies is important, it is believed that the increase in these figures should be directed towards these aspects:

- develop reliable statistics to deepen the understanding of the role of women;
- implement the use of legal, financial and social policies and programs;
- to widen the training field not only to diffuse competences concerning the company management but also to promote and encourage women in the entrepreneurial role;
- recognize the role of women as a fundamental in companies (Pezzini, Di Cesare, 2003)

Since the 1980s, the EU decided to take action on this situation by launching specific programs, first of all with the Amsterdam Treaty in 1997, introducing equal opportunities policies to promote female entrepreneurship. The Lisbon strategy introduced reforms in 2000 and aimed at increasing the competitiveness and economic dynamism of knowledge by 2010, so as to guarantee equal employment opportunities for women and achieve a female employment rate of around 60%. The "road map" for achieving equality between men and women was used in the period 2006 - 2010, addressing these issues:

- the elimination of gender stereotypes;
- the same economic independence between men and women;
- reconciliation between work and private life;
- the equal participation of men and women in the economic and political decision-making process;
- elimination of violence against women;
- the promotion of equality between women and men even outside the European Union.

In addition to these regulatory measures at European Union level, at the European level there is "The Eurochambres Women Network", a network of female entrepreneurs promoting the development of female businesses with the objective of facilitating the exchange of information by offering support to new entrepreneurs. , thus favoring the recognition of equal rights also trying to improve the balance between private and professional life.

3.7 ITALIAN WOMEN ENTREPRENEURSHIP

In Italy, the situation of women in positions of responsibility in 2014 was 23.3% in listed companies. In just one year from 2013-14, we have gone from 88 to 119 female managers in companies such as Enel, Eni and Telecom Italia. The expected trend is to reach in 2015 a female presence of 33%. In Italy there has been a high concentration of women in family-owned companies, moreover, women are also affirming themselves in public companies. A research carried out by Credit Suisse Gender 3000 has found that a greater presence of women in management leads companies to obtain higher ROE⁵⁰ and better market performance.

In Italy, women are holding top positions in finance and pharmaceutical companies. The scholar Chanavat noted that in Italy there is a lack of transparency in the communication of the various data. Looking at the high - tech sector, the percentage of women in 2005 was equal to 30%, while in 2010 the female managers fell by half. In an empirical verification always carried out by Chanavat, he highlighted that the equity securities of companies that have a gender balance between men and women in managerial positions have been able to better cope with market crisis trends. Furthermore, 87 out of 107 companies with 30% of women holding managerial positions have been much more stable than other companies that have a lower female component at the top. Chanavat finally argued that the key for achieving a stable society in the market is to have a team with homogeneous skills and a gender balance between women and men.

The participation of women in the entrepreneurial system can transfer to the company and to the economic system in general, a specific expertise, capable of enriching and stimulating the productive structure. Just to capture these aspects, the Banca Popolare di Milano has created a study that also involved its own clients.

From Unioncamere's statistics, women's businesses as at 30 June 2015 amounted to over 1.3 million, a share of 21.6% of the total number of companies registered in the Chamber of

⁵⁰ Return on Equity

Commerce register. These data show a positive change of 0.45% compared to the end of 2014, a positive data after the drop of over 100,000 companies in the last two years.

The sector in which most of women's companies operate (65%) is the tertiary sector, in which some sectors register an important feminization rate (in the "travel agencies, holiday accommodation, libraries and archives" the female presence is over 40% while in "assistance to people" it is about 38%).

With regard to the legal nature of women's businesses, individual companies occupy a predominant position at the end of 2014, representing 65% of the total, followed by joint-stock companies (18.6%), partnerships (13.6%) and other companies. corporate forms (2.8%).

It also emerges a positive correlation between the level of education and women entrepreneurship. From OECD data on Italian education of 2013, it was found that 62% of university graduates are women, who have achieved significant results in subjects traditionally considered masculine, such as, engineering (representing 40% of new engineers). Furthermore, in our country emerges a greater propensity of women to continue their studies, more than 54% of women having obtained a diploma in 2013 / 2014 decided to attend university courses, compared with 44% of men. Nevertheless, the unemployment rate among women is higher than that of men, and this could, explain why in Italy in 2011 the entrepreneurs and self-employed workers accounted for 16% of women, compared with a European average of 10%.

Also in the newest entrepreneurial activities there is a certain interest showed by women, in 2013 a woman started the 28.6% of start-ups.

To conclude, even today, the percentage distribution of firms between genders is far from equal.

In Italy, women are the most educated of the country with a share of young graduates of about 60% and more than 50% in economic disciplines. Furthermore, we can assume that the current women's businesses, smaller, with younger leading entrepreneurs and characterized by greater creativity, in the future will develop and achieve significant results. A contribution may well come from foreign women, which currently account for over 8% of our entrepreneurs and for which the enterprise could represent a way for integration.

Women's entrepreneurship is, therefore, as a developing sector full of opportunities for the economic system. The lower propensity to risk and the determination that, in addition to creativity, seem to characterize our women entrepreneurs could explain, at least in part, a more prudent management of credit and lower rates of deterioration. If we also consider that

women's style of management seems to pay more attention to social and environmental issues, the growth of female entrepreneurship could make an important contribution to achieve inclusive and sustainable economic development.

3.8 CHINESE WOMEN ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Under the Chinese Communist Party in 1949 the private sector was banned until the 1978 when, with the “open door” policy private business started to revive. In September 2009 registered private enterprises number reached 7.9 million providing the 90% of all urban new employment (China Daily, 2010).

Women entrepreneurs in China are more than 29 million making up the 20% of all entrepreneurs and representing the 41% of the private sector (Yu, 2010; Tang, 2002).

From feudalism Chinese women fought to gain emancipation, they had not social or legal rights. It is just with the foundation of the People’s Republic of China that women were encouraged to work outside their families participating in full time jobs.

It is reported that the majority of women’s business was started between the 1980s 1990s (Tang, 2002). Although the always growing recognition given to women entrepreneurship, China is a transition economy and there is a limited research about the nature and practice of women entrepreneurship.

For this reason, Zhu and Chu (Zhu and Chu, 2010) researched through a questionnaire the main difficulties in running a business in China by women. They selected one hundred and eighty women Entrepreneurs in Beijing identified through the Chamber of Commerce focusing on small and micro-enterprises. The women entrepreneurs part of the research were 70% married and 30% single, they were highly educated and their average age was forty-one.

According to this research, the dominant type of business managed by women is concentrated in the service sector since the service industry requires a little initial investment. This sector also requires long hours work leading to a conflict with women family linked responsibilities, in fact, the women examined in this research either don’t have children or they have more than eighteen years old.

Table 1 Sample Characteristics of Women Entrepreneurs in China

	Frequency	Percent
Marital status		
Married	126	70
Single	54	30
Education level achieved		
No formal education	0	0.0
Some grade school	0	0.0
Completed grade school	3	1.7
Some high school	6	3.3
Completed high school	52	28.9
Some college	29	16.1
Completed college	77	42.8
Some graduate work	5	2.8
A graduate degree	2	1.1
Not mentioned	6	3.3
Type of business ownership		
Established by you	118	65.6
Bought from another owner	15	8.3
Inherited	3	1.7
Independently owned	17	9.4
Franchise business	3	1.7
Owned in partnership	31	17.2
Incorporated	26	14.4
Type of business		
Retailing	53	29.4
Wholesaling	41	22.8
Service	101	56.1
Manufacturing	8	4.4
Agriculture	3	1.7
Other	15	8.3
Mean age of entrepreneur	40.88 years	
Avg. working hrs per week	53.85	

Source: Zhu and Chu, 2010

Chinese women entrepreneurs included in the research were asked to evaluate the importance of eleven motivations to start their business.

Their motivation is not only a monetary reward, they want to be in control of their lives, they are expected to be in charge of family responsibilities but also, they can do both because of their abilities and because of education. When women are employed, they risk to be fired or to never achieve an important position and that is one of the reasons why they look for a self-employed job in which they can better manage their lives and can be completely independent.

Table 2. Mean Score for Motivation

(5= extremely important, 4= very important, 3= mildly important, 2= not very important, 1= unimportant)

Motivation Factors	Mean	Std. Dev.
To increase my income	3.95	0.961
To prove I can do it	3.75	0.988
To be my own boss	3.71	1.191
To be able to use my past experience and training	3.70	1.147
To gain public recognition	3.51	1.137
To protect my job security	3.39	1.209
For my own satisfaction and growth	3.22	1.109
To provide jobs for family members	2.70	1.100
To maintain my personal freedom	2.54	1.293
To be closer to my family	2.46	1.296
To build a business to pass on	2.44	1.269

Source: Zhu and Chu, 2010

Chinese women achieved a great success in their businesses, just the 1,5% of business run by women results in deficit (Tan, 2009). Chinese women identify in honesty the most significant element for success; this is also because honesty is one of China's core values. If a business communicates, the truth it will be possible to build a relation based on trust between entrepreneurs and customers and it will be possible for this relation to be a long-term one.

Table 5. Mean Score for Factors Contributing to Business Success

(5= extremely important, 4= very important, 3= mildly important, 2= not very important, 1= unimportant)

Success Factors	Mean	Std. Dev.
Reputation for honesty	4.53	0.664
Hard-work	4.35	0.759
Good general management skills	4.26	0.837
Charisma; friendliness to customers	4.12	0.910
Satisfactory government support	4.05	0.881
Access to capital	4.00	1.023
Maintenance of accurate records of sales/expenses	3.95	0.961
Ability to manage personnel	3.88	1.007
Good customer service	3.88	1.166
Good Location	3.74	0.826
Previous business experience	3.70	1.022
Good product at a competitive price	3.67	1.257
Support of family and friends	3.64	1.072
Marketing factors such as sales promotion	3.55	1.117
Appropriate training	3.53	0.951
Community involvement	3.47	0.921
Political involvement	3.17	1.022

Source: Zhu and Chu, 2010

In this picture there also are many problems linked to competition and barriers.

The incapacity to retain employees, the lack of financial capital, limited resources for small enterprises compared to state owned or foreign enterprises and the high risk of failure or the

lack of opportunities to develop. These are just the most significant obstacles encountered by women running their own small private enterprise and for this reason is surprising the way they can keep running successful businesses.

Table 8. Mean Score for Each Problem Faced by Entrepreneur
(5= extremely important, 4= very important, 3= mildly important, 2= not very important, 1= unimportant)

Problems	Mean	Std. Dev.
Unreliable and undependable employees	3.85	1.006
Too much competition	3.84	0.893
Not having enough financial capital	3.74	0.996
Weak economy	3.46	1.115
Too much government regulation/bureaucracy	3.34	1.082
Inability to maintain accurate and informative accounting records	3.33	1.343
Complex and confusing tax structure	3.14	1.083
Lack of management training	3.12	1.145
Long business registration process	3.09	1.133
Lack of marketing training	3.04	1.152
Unsafe location	2.93	1.190
Limited parking	2.76	1.180
Poor roads/transportation	2.51	1.241
Electricity problems	2.40	1.124
Foreign exchange limitations	2.34	1.147

Source: Zhu and Chu, 2010

It could be said that these obstacles are common to men entrepreneurs, but we always have to remember that women have also an additional obstacle that is linked to the patriarchal values and this happens particularly in China.

So Chinese women entrepreneurs have to deal with a great pressure coming from the family and the society, the family support is particularly important to the success of a business because it influences the stress level, the more women entrepreneurs are supported by families, the more they are satisfied, the more their business is successful.

These three chapters represent a contextualization and an introduction to the argument of my research that will be presented in the following part of my work of thesis.

My research will consider young Chinese women students, to see what are their projects for the future, if this projects include entrepreneurship and migration and last but not least in this migratory entrepreneurial project involves Italy and why.

It is important to be aware of the context of origin and of arrival to understand the motivations and the situations bringing to this kind of questions and answers.

I decided to consider women that still have not decided to migrate because in Italy there is a massive presence of Chinese people perfectly integrated in Italian economic system with a great women participation. This situation is not true for other migrants group and that is because Chinese have a community, have a network they help each other and are provided with a constant support.

I want to investigate in the following part, using open question interviews, what is the most important trigger to decide to migrate, to start a business. What is such attractive about Italy and what it is not.

As I previously said I decided to target young Chinese women student because, in this period of their lives, they are still free of responsibilities and above all are free to decide what to do in their future. They are young women I have met during my experience in China, they are a lot more open-minded than I thought and they want to be emancipated and to realize their own projects.

SECOND PART: THE RESEARCH, DATA PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION

CHAPTER 4: THE RESEARCH

4.1 METHODOLOGY

In this first part of my work of thesis, I provided a context on migration, entrepreneurship and women's role in those two phenomenon.

The context is important to create the conditions for the reader to locate the empirical part of the thesis. The main purpose of this last part is to understand the attitude of young Chinese women towards migration and entrepreneurship and to see if their attitude corresponds with the information provided by literature.

Before presenting the findings, I have illustrate the particular context in which I conducted my research.

From September 2017 to January 2018, I had the great opportunity to spend five months in China, to study mainly, but this experience has been much more than that. During my permanence at the Jilin Huaqiao University of foreign languages in Changchun, a city in the north of China, I also conducted the interviews for my thesis with 10 young women, aged between 19 and 20 years old, attending University, and in most cases, studying Italian.

I met these young women, studying Italian that from the beginning helped me and all the Italian people integrate in this new culture. Together we studied and we went out together with the purpose to know China on all its manifestations and mainly because we became friends.

I expected Chinese people to be generous without the claim to be paid back, but they exceeded all my expectations.

Obviously in China live billion of people and there are good and mean as in any other country but these girls where good and generous and their answers in my interview should be analysed in this light. My 10 interviewees are by no means representative of Chinese young women. However, they do say something about Chinese culture, for example it emerged that Chinese people are all really linked to their families, and whatever expectations they have they all include their families.

The HuaQiao University is much different from our universities. There is an American style campus with strict Chinese rules, it offers every kind of service from the supermarket to the pharmacy to the post office and the hospital but there is curfew and a lot of pressure on students that have to maintain a certain level. They do not have bathrooms in their dorms and are forced to go outside to have a shower with a minus thirty degrees temperature. For international students like me the situation is a little bit different but, this helped being focused on exams and classes, and also getting closer to the way of living of my Chinese peers and better understand them.

To gather information about my question of thesis I have used personal interviews with open questions giving freedom to the interviewed to answer without boundaries.

The questions have been asked in Chinese language to facilitate the interviewees' answer. In this thesis they will be presented in English.

I already know all the interviewees, because, they study Italian and at the beginning of my experience in China they organize a party for Italian people studying Chinese in which I had the opportunity to meet all of them.

When I proposed the interview, they all were willing to help me, even if some of them asked me to maintain anonymity. Some of them gave me more explicative answers; some of them just gave me the answer without any argument. The thing that I noted is that they were more than happy to help even if unwilling to talk about their private life.

4.2 DATA PRESENTATION

I will now present the results of my research. I decided to present these results through macro-themes based on the main interview topics. I will present the characteristics and background of the interviewees, their expectations and future plans, their thoughts about migration and about entrepreneurship and last but not least if they have an interest for Italy and why.

Characteristics and background

To be able to understand these women's point of view I tried to understand their background asking them their parents' occupation and it resulted that 6 in 10 have parents involved in state owned enterprises employed as state employees. The rest of them, has parents involved in private enterprises working as white-collar workers, so, I can assume that they all have similar background and that they do not live in a situation of hardship.

The majority of them is specializing in Italian language or in teaching Chinese to foreign students going to China to learn the language, and for that reason, I can conclude that they could be oriented towards international careers.

Despite the previous assumption, they all have very different plans or expectations for their future and to be clearer I have to present them individually because, obviously, there is for some of these women a coincidence of intents but they all have their own vision of their future.

There is also one other thing to specify and is that I gave them the freedom to interpret the question on their future expectations as all the other questions as they wanted because also the way of interpreting says something on their attitude toward their future.

The first answered telling me what is her ideal job connected with her studies but even more with her passions, and this job is translator or e-business operator.

Two of them want to become professors inspired by their teachers and pushed by the experiences they had with foreign students in helping them with studying Chinese.

Other two of these young women want to sustain an exam after graduation called 考研 that is an exam to have access to a graduate program, so, they want to keep studying.

The fourth, is the only one who has completely different dreams than from college mates, because she wants to move to Italy to study art and then stay in our country to work in a museum and put into practice what she studied.

The fifth, wants to move abroad but just to better learn foreign languages and then go back to China to work in a foreign enterprise while the sixth also wants to study abroad but she has not a clear idea about a future job.

There is just one of them who has no idea at all, on what will be her future because now is focused on studying and graduating and has not yet thought about a future.

Seeing all these different answers, we can say that the majority of them have something in common and is the desire to improve their skills and to take care of their families.

One of the interviewees when asked if they were willing to go live or work outside China answered this way:

“恋家”- to be reluctant to leave the family

As we can see from this kind of answer most these young women do not want to leave China because, as a factor of their culture, they want to take care of their families. They would leave family just before settling down to improve their studies and foreign languages abroad. However, if these women would have the opportunity to work or live in another country to have a better work or life they would think to move in a foreign country even if this means to leave family behind, for example, we have the answer of one of them who says:.

“如果有国外的发展机会也可以考虑”

“If there will be the opportunity to work abroad I would think about it”

“想在大学时去意大利，更好的学习意大利语，毕业后想在自己城市工作”

“I would like to go to Italy studying Italian while I am still attending university, after graduation I would like to stay in my city working”

There is just one exception to this common thought and is a 19 years old girl who would rather move to other countries to keep studying and working abroad.

One thing that I would like to highlight before keep going with the results of my analysis is that all this young women could not imagine a long-term future, they all focused on the short-term future like keep studying or going to Italy to improve language, no one who spoke about a family or a stable work. All they know about long-term plan is that they do not want to leave their families.

Migration, but not for good

The answer that shows better this topic is this:

“自己是一个十分恋家的人，不想要离父母太远，如果有可能去意大利工作，最多会在意大利待两年”

“I am a person who is one hundred percent reluctant to leave my family, I do not want to live too far from my parents, and if there is the possibility I would go to Italy working but maximum for two years”

All of these women want to experience studying abroad but just to improve languages and to visit and discover new places, cultures and traditions. Just one on them wants to move and live to another country as we have already seen and will see better in the next answers.

Obviously, most of them want to go to Italy because of the language they are studying but they also want to travel to various other countries, such as, Australia and all over Europe especially France and England.

The majority of these women, we know, would like to stay in China after graduation, but, the majority of them would also be willing to move to Italy if they had the opportunity of a good work. There are various reasons for that; some of them think in Italy there are better salaries, but most of them would live or work in Italy because of culture, people and because of improving language, for example, we have a representative answer:

“在意大利应该可以找到一份工资还不错的工作”

In Italy, I could find a good job with a good salary

There is just one who would not live or work in Italy because is too expensive.

All these 10 women think Italy is an amazing country with its history, culture and views. They all wish to come visit our country and from all their comments, I can assume that they would also be happy of having the opportunity to live in Italy for a period. They know that beyond all its problems Italy is a country that can offer them opportunities, if not to work, to learn a lot about the language they are studying, art and architecture.

There are also some of them who look at Italy as a culturally developed country that can help them to open their mind to other points of view different from the one, almost imposed, in China. They think Italy can offer a choice, a possibility to decide on their own what to do with their future.

Chinese knowledge about Chinese in Italy

They know that in Italy there are many Chinese but is not really clear to them what do they do and why did they move to Italy. There is 1/10 who thinks that they are in Italy to teach Chinese in schools, which is true but just for a few, 4/10, thinks that they run commercial enterprises like restaurant or various kind of shops, 4/10 don't know what can they do and just 1/10 thinks they are entrepreneur.

Work and entrepreneurship

If they would have the chance or would be forced to work in Italy, they would be involved in two different kind of activities. On one hand, a half of them would like to open independent activities like shops of various kind such as supermarkets, flowers shops or jewellery shops and restaurants cooking typical Chinese dishes.

On the other hand, another half of them would like to work in an area linked with Italian art, tradition and language being tourist guides or working in museums.

There is one who wants to teach Chinese to Italian students and one who wants to be employed in an enterprise.

If they could have an independent job, they all would like to run small-size activities like shops or restaurants. Just one would choose to become an artist and two others interpreted this questions as I wanted to know the conditions in which they would independently work and answered saying they want high salaries, free time and freedom to make decisions on their own.

If they would have an employed job, the majority of them would like to work as employee in an enterprise better if being employed as managers. They also would like work as translators, e-commerce operators and designers. Two of them also specify that they would not work more than eight hours and far from home.

Of all the women I interviewed just one would like to become entrepreneur because she thinks to have economical bases to do this kind of job and this is showed by this kind of answer:

“没有经济头脑”

“I do not have an economical mind”

One thinks that if she studies in order to obtain all the knowledge to be entrepreneur she could consider this kind of job.

All the others do not want to be entrepreneur because they think not to have the abilities and the knowledge and besides they do not want to have everyday problems to solve or to be worried about as pointed out by this answer:

“觉得那样的工作日理万机不适合我”

“I think that in this kind of job you have to deal with many affairs every day and this does not adapt to me”

On the thought that these women have on the opportunity for women to be entrepreneur and on the equality of ability that women have compared to men in an entrepreneurial environment, they are divided on two opposed fronts. On one front, we have the ones who think that women have many difficulties in succeeding in entrepreneurship because, compared to men, women have to struggle to gain consideration, integration and equality. Most of them are also convinced that women do not have an economic oriented mind to compete with man in running a business. On the other hand, we have the ones who think that women can, without extra troubles, become whatever they want, and can, even better, do what men do in the entrepreneurial environment. Their thought is that women are better at organizing work and have a better decision-making ability as showed by these answers:

“男女平等，努力人人有可能成为企业家”

Men and women are equal; if they work hard, they both can be entrepreneur.

“我觉得很多女人更细心，更有决断力”

“I think many women are more attentive, they have a better decision-making ability”

CONCLUSIONS

The reason why I began this work of thesis was to discover how and why Chinese migrants were integrated in Italian economic system giving a particular attention to women's situation. While working at this topic I decided to redirect my focus from women who have already settled in Italy to women that who are potential migrants and entrepreneur but who have not yet migrated. This redirection has happened because, according to me, before seeing the development of women's entrepreneurship after migration it was even more important to understand why these women choose to migrate and what is their attitude towards migration and entrepreneurship.

The first part of the thesis was dedicated to a literature review of the Italian-Chinese immigration context, women's role and entrepreneurship in a typically male dominated environment.

If I rely on the literature presented in the first part of my thesis, I can conclude that, the workwise inequalities and unbalances between men and women are declining. There is a strong presence of women entrepreneurs in China and all over the world and a strong presence of migrated Chinese people trying to build a business outside China, particularly in Italy. These phenomena should also be placed in the framework of the feminization of migration: the increasing primary role played by women in migration flows.

In the second part of my thesis, I wanted to understand if the attitude towards migration among young Chinese women corresponded with the image of increasing gender equality and disposition to entrepreneurship and migration. In order to do so I interviewed ten Chinese women I met at the Jilin Huaqiao University during my overseas experience trying to catch their thoughts about migration, women's role and women's entrepreneurship.

Even if my sample is small and not representative, it encompass educated young women that should reflect the most "advanced" gender emancipation perspective in Chinese context. Against this background, it is rather to find out that most of my interviewees not only do not see in their future an entrepreneurial possibility, but they also think that women do not have the right economic oriented mind to undertake a business.

On the one hand, they did not have the least intention of undertaking an entrepreneurial career themselves. On the other hand, they do express interest in travelling the world, but not in term of a pre-defined migration trajectory. It was not their desire and expectation, they prefer to be

close to their families, certainly to find a job related with their studies but that would allow them not to leave their parents.

I saw a flicker of desire to leave just when they answered the question about having the opportunity to work or live abroad; almost all of them answered that if there would be a good job opportunity they would think to move but not for a lifetime.

It may well be that the interviewees were too young to be able to concretely foresee their employment and life perspectives. However, these results indicate family-oriented, traditional attitudes as opposed to a business-oriented one.

This small research points to the importance of further research on female Chinese migration and entrepreneurship in the light of gender emancipation.

I hope my work can be inspiring for others to keep researching on this theme and clarify, first the phenomenon of feminization of migratory flows on which we have few and fragmented information, and then the phenomenon of women entrepreneurship both in the country of origin and in a foreign country as migrants.

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Annex 1= Interview guide

These are the questions I asked during the interviews:

大家好！我是诗雅，一个留学生在华侨学习。我需要你们回答这些问题为了写我的论文。谢谢大家！

未来打算

名字

年龄

一、 你父母的工作是什么？

二、 你的大学专业是什么？

三、 你对未来有什么打算？

四、 毕业以后你想留在中国吗？如果不想，为什么？

五、 你想出国吗？如果你想，为什么？

六、 你想去哪个国家？

七、 意大利是一个国家你想去工作或者住在吗？为什么？

八、 意大利有什么吸引人的地方？

九、 你认为意大利能给你提供什么样的可能性？

十、 你知道在意大利有很多中国人吗？

十一、你知道他们做什么工作吗？

十二、你在意大利想做什么样的工作？

十三、如果你想做一个独立的工作，什么样的？

十四、如果你想要一个员工的工作，什么样的？

十五、你想成为一名企业家吗？为什么？

十六、你认为对女人很难成为一名企业家吗？为什么？

Hi! I am 诗雅 (my chinese name) an exchange student studying at HuaQiao University. I need you answers to write my thesis. Thank you!

Future expectations

Name

Age

1- What is your parents occupation?

2- What is your specialization?

3- What are your expectations for the future?

4- Do you want to stay in China after graduation? If you don't why?

5- Do you want to go in a foreign country? If you do, why?

6- In what country would you like to go?

7- Italy is a country in which you could choose to live or work? Why?

8- What are Italian attraction factors?

9- What possibilities do you think Italy can provide for your future?

10- Do you know that in Italy there are many Chinese?

11- Do you know in what kind of job are they involved?

12- In Italy, what kind of job would you like to do?

13- If you could have an independent job, what would it be?

14- If you have an employed job. What would it be?

15- Do you want to become entrepreneur?

16- Do you think women have difficulties in becoming entrepreneurs? Why?

