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REMINDER

ROLE OF EUROPEAN MOBILITY AND ITS IMPACTS
IN NARRATIVES, DEBATES AND EU REFORMS

Relevant Data to Understand Migration in the EU

REPORT

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Main report

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List of Abbreviations

AVR	Assisted Voluntary
DESTATIS	Germany's Federal Statistical Office
DRCM	Global Migrant Origin Database
EEA	European Economic Association
EFTA	European Free Trade Association
EIMSS	European Internal Movers Social Survey
ESS	European Social Survey
EU	European Union
EURES	European Employment Services
Eurodac	European Asylum Dactyloscopy Database
EU-SILC	European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions
GESIS	Leibniz Institute for the Social Sciences
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IOM	International Organisation of Migration, the UN Migration Agency
IPUMS	Integrated Public Use Microdata Series
IPS	International Passenger Survey (UK)
KCMD	Knowledge Centre on Migration and Demography
LFS	Labour Force Survey
MPI	Migration Policy Institute
NSI	National Statistical Institutes
OECD	The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
SOEP	German Socioeconomic Panel
TCN	Third Country National
UN DESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affair
UNECE	United Nations Economic Commission for Europe
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund

1. Introduction

For all the scrutiny of external immigration into the European Union (EU), the monitoring of movements happening *within* the EU is surprisingly rudimentary. Yet, the consequences of the right to free movement in the EU for countries of origin and destination and their respective societies, labour markets, and social systems cannot be effectively discussed without having a good understanding of the patterns and dynamics of intra-EU migration in the first place. This report aims to assess the extent to which this is possible based on existing data. It provides a review of presently-existing data sources on migration between Member States and aims to map the main patterns and dynamics of migration within the EU28.

As a consequence of events and trends related to the expansion of the EU, the transition agreements, and the economic crisis in 2008, the attention paid to intra-EU migration has grown considerably in the last decade.[1] In addition, studies on selected, often singular, migration corridors enrich the evidence that exists on mobility within the EU28 region.[2] Overall, however, these studies are not able to expand the knowledge base on the migration trajectories within the EU28 of EU citizens and TCNs. Therefore, developing a more nuanced understanding of the scale and nature of intra-European migration patterns is a crucial first step in achieving an informed policy debate concerning the impacts and management of migration within the EU. The complexities of migratory movements within the European Union can only be grasped with rich and accurate data, which tracks the trajectories and the characteristics of movers, ideally over time.

[1] For example, Frigyes Ferdinand Heinz and Melanie Ward-Warmedinger, 'Cross-Border Labour Mobility within an Enlarged EU', ECB Occasional Paper (Frankfurt: European Central Bank, 2006); Meghan Benton and Milica Petrovic, 'How Free Is Free Movement? Dynamics and Drivers of Mobility within the European Union' (Brussels: Migration Policy Institute Europe, 2013); Dawn Holland et al., 'Labour Mobility within the EU - The Impact of Enlargement and the Functioning of the Transitional Arrangements' (London: National Institute of Economic and Social Research, 2011); Mikkel Barslund et al., 'Labour Mobility in the EU: Dynamics, Patterns and Policies', *Intereconomics* 49, no. 3 (2014): 116–58.

[2] For example, Tim Elrick and Oana Ciobanu, 'Migration Networks and Policy Impacts: Insights from Romanian–Spanish Migrations', *Global Networks* 9, no. 1 (2009): 100–116; Torben Krings et al., 'Polish Migration to Ireland:"Free Movers" in the New European Mobility Space', *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies* 39, no. 1 (2013): 87–103.

The importance of a regulated EU-level framework to produce reliable statistics on the Union's (resident) population – including its movements – was recognised in the early 2000s. Subsequently, a growing number of agreements has been concluded, aiming to establish a system of harmonised statistics at the European level, which is based on cooperation between all Member States. As a result, the availability of basic indicators on stocks and flows of migrants in the EU has improved vastly since the implementation of the milestone 2007 Regulation on Community Statistics on Migration and International Protection (Regulation (EC) No 862/2007).

Nevertheless, considerable shortcomings remain concerning the depth of the available figures. For instance, the aggregated nature of most available large-scale data, such as Eurostat statistics, allows for little nuance to be observed. Therefore, a comprehensive review of existing data sources driven specifically by the objective of exploring the complexities of intra-EU migration may serve not only as a practical guide for research on intra-EU migration, but also as a call for action to policy-makers to further improve the collection and publication of statistics related to migration within the EU.

In this report, we evaluate the degree to which the currently available body of data enables a comprehensive picture of the phenomenon of intra-European migration. Moreover, it brings together data in a structured way which, to the knowledge of the authors, has not been done before. It does not aim to provide any answers to what the potential of intra-EU migration may be in relation to, for example, demographic change. It rather aims to serve as a starting point for more research on intra-EU migration. The report is the final report for Work Package 2 of the REMINDER project and as such brings together the work conducted previously as part of the work package into this one document.[3] It aims to serve as a reference document for those interested in intra-EU migration, whether for research or practice.

[3] The previous work for Work Package 2 includes three working papers and a Database of Databases. The latter will be available later in 2019. The working papers are entitled "Preliminary Report: Relevant Datasets to Understand Migration in the EU", "Patterns of Migration in the EU", and "Monitoring and Mapping Migration in the EU with Existing Data" and are available on the project website (https://www.reminder-project.eu/).

It is important to mention that the conducted desk review of databases has a deliberate focus on larger, cross-country data collections as the main sources of interest due to their high representativeness and comparability at the EU level. Since the paper is not a classic inventory of data sources, the logic behind the strategy applied during our database mapping exercise is presented in *Section 2.2.*

In providing these insights into the patterns of migration in the EU, three definitions of migration are considered to analyse the different trends: citizenship (EU28 citizens versus TCNs), country of birth (migrants born in the EU28 versus migrants born in third countries), and country of previous or next residence depending on whether immigration or emigration is the focus. Trends captured by the different measures differ in some instances, which is important when it comes to further research and policy-making on intra-EU migration. All of the descriptive analysis conducted for this paper is based on existing data that allows the mapping of patterns and dynamics of geographical mobility within the EU among both EU citizens and TCNs.

The rest of this report is structured as follows. The next section provides a note on defining intra-EU migration as well as the methodological notes for both the mapping and analysis of data sources. Following this, *Section 3* briefly outlines the evolution of the regulatory framework behind European statistics to provide insights into the larger context influencing the availability and quality of this data. The data sources themselves are discussed in a twofold approach: first, different types of data on intra-EU migration are discussed in *Section 4,* before each main source is presented, including its strengths and weaknesses (*Section 5*); subsequently, the availability and quality of data is discussed by theme (*Section 6 - 11*). The themes presented include stocks, flows, reasons for migration (including labour and student migration), irregular migration, lifetime/multiple migrations, as well as short-term migration, circular migration, cross-border commuting, and return migration. Finally, the concluding section presents the authors' conclusions regarding the overall state of intra-European migration statistics and the main identified patterns and trends of intra-EU migration, along with recommendations for improvements and implications for research and policy.

2. Methodology

As discussed in the introduction, this report brings together the two components of the work package, focused on mapping data sources and presenting patterns and dynamics of intra-EU migration, respectively. Joining both components together is important as it provides one access point to the overall work for other researchers, practitioners, and policy-makers working on or interested in intra-EU migration. A challenge to highlight for anyone working on intra-EU migration is the question of how to define intra-EU migration in the first place. The different options and how they may overlap are therefore discussed first in *Section 2.1*. Following that, the strategy employed to map the existing data sources on intra-EU migration, including key stakeholder interviews, will be described in *Section 2.2* and the methodology used in the work with the data in *Section 2.3*.

2.1 Defining Intra-European Migration

At the outset of any discussion of intra-EU migration, it should be clear who is actually considered to be such a migrant. There are three characteristics, which are crucial to define who we consider to be an *intra-EU* migrant. Do we only want to look at the EU's own citizens (including naturalised residents)? Do we want to distinguish by origin as defined by country of birth? Or do we also consider those who changed their residence from one EU country to another (regardless of their citizenship and country of birth)?

The size and characteristics of the measured population may vary substantially depending on what constitutes 'intra-EU'. Ideally, all three variables would be available for the same individual – or at least, the figure for each definition could be disaggregated by the other two. This would allow identifying relevant subgroups; for instance, the share of third-country nationals versus EU nationals within a specific country-to-country flow of migrants. While the differences in numbers between the three definitions may turn out to be relatively small (e.g., due to a low prevalence of secondary movements), the scale of the discrepancy cannot be known until these figures are available for all EU countries. For a visual illustration of this issue see *Box 1: The complexity of definitions in migration statistics*.

Box 1: The complexity of definitions in migration statistics

Different definitions used in migration statistics and the groups they delineate -

Why does the availability of double/triple disaggregation by different definitions in migration statistics matter?

The Venn diagram below illustrates how the different groups implicated in EU migration statistics relate to each other, including overlaps. Each of the three main definitions (black text) implicates four groups of migrants, depending on how they overlap with the other two definitions. The categories in white text indicate mutually exclusive groups.

Strictly speaking, statistics on 'intra-EU movers' should include the groups encompassed by the yellow circle: people moving from one EU country to another, including both EU nationals and non-EU nationals, born in the EU and not (II, III, V, VI). When we simply look at statistics of immigrants to an EU country who are EU citizens, we risk including EU nationals who are in fact moving from a third country at that point (I), and excluding non-EU citizens who are moving from another EU-country (V, VI); the same argument applies to the EU-born definition. However, the size of the different subgroups (i.e., how non-overlapping areas and different overlaps compare to each other) can only be assessed if we can disaggregate the same data by two (ideally, three) definitions at the same time.

Examples for each group

Imagine an immigrant to the Netherlands who:

(I) A person holding Italian citizenship, who is moving from Argentina, the country in which she was born.

(II) A person born in Turkey who has since acquired German citizenship and now decides to move to the Netherlands.

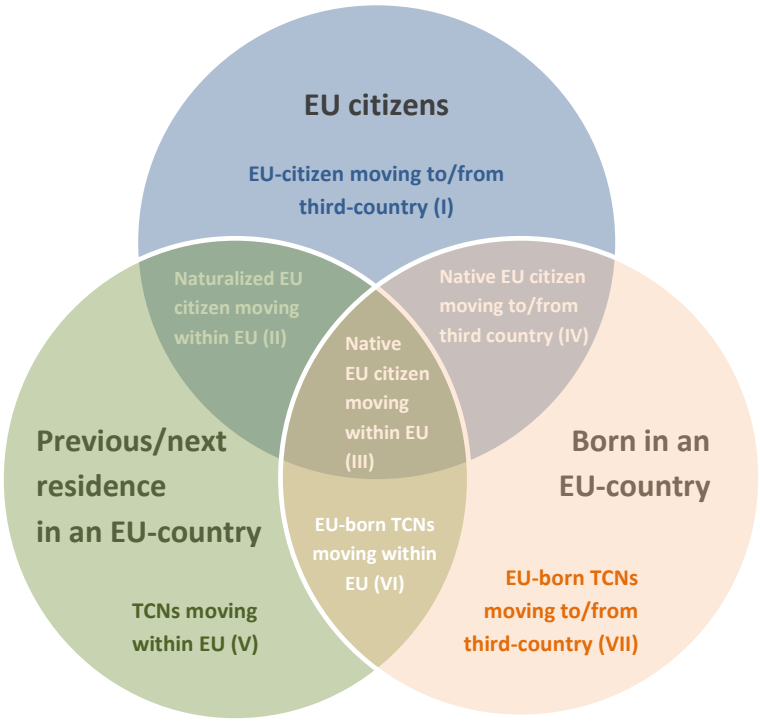
(III) A native Italian citizen moving from Italy to the Netherlands.

(IV) A native Italian citizen who has been living in the United States and now decides to move to the Netherlands.

(V) A native Mexican citizen who has been living in Spain and now decides to move to the Netherlands.

(VI) A son of Iraqi immigrants who was born in Hungary, has not been naturalized, and now decides to move from Hungary to the Netherlands.

(VII) A son of Iraqi immigrants who was born in Hungary, has since moved to Iraq, and now decides to move to the Netherlands.



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In this report, the three definitions of migration are, where available, considered to analyse the different trends: citizenship (EU28 citizens versus TCNs), country of birth (migrants born in the EU28 versus migrants born in third countries), and country of previous or next residence depending on whether immigration or emigration is the focus. As the report will show, these three metrics used to measure intra-EU migration often tell different stories. Using the country of birth metric gives a consistently higher count of intra-EU migrants than that given by the citizenship metric. It is therefore important to consider such differences when it comes to further research and policy-making on intra-EU migration.

2.2 Mapping Data Sources on Intra-European Migration[4]

The goal of the mapping was to identify relevant databases and to assess the degree to which they inform on intra-European migration. An important first step in this mapping exercise was to define what information to look for in these data sources. As mentioned above, an in-depth understanding of migration patterns demands more than just loosely defined basic migration figures. In order to accurately map the scale and characteristics of intra-EU migration a need for the following was identified:

- **Information on the individual migrant's citizenship, country of birth, and country of previous/next residence.** As explained in the previous section, these three characteristics are crucial to define who we consider to be an *intra-EU* migrant. Ideally, all three variables would be available for the same individual – or at least, the figure for each definition could be disaggregated by the other two. This would allow identifying relevant subgroups; for instance, the share of third-country nationals versus EU nationals within a specific country-to-country flow of migrants. While the differences in numbers between the three definitions may turn out to be relatively small (e.g., due to a low prevalence of secondary movements), the scale of the discrepancy cannot be known until these figures are available for all EU countries.
- **Aggregated values of flows for EU and non-EU groups** (considering the definitions introduced above). Aside from simplicity in accessing EU-level migration values at a

[4] See: Fajth, V., Marchand, K., and Siegel, M. (2019). *Monitoring and Mapping Migration in the EU with Existing Data.* REMINDER Working paper D2.6.

glance, data on the aggregate level is needed because country-to-country level data is often imperfect, due to missing values for some or even most countries of origin and/or destination. As above, the simultaneous availability of figures disaggregated by all three definitions (citizenship, birth, previous/next residence) would be ideal.

- **Migration history of the individual.** Information on multiple moves undertaken by the same individual within the EU – or better yet, their migration trajectories over the entire lifetime – can shed light on a number of useful factors for better understanding intra-EU migration. With such information, researchers could observe patterns of migration involving sub-sequent movements. This could help assess whether and how certain first destinations are associated with specific second destinations or predict migratory behaviour by assessing whether people who have once migrated are more likely to move again in their lifetime. Extending the period of observation can also help uncover long-term migration strategies within the lifetime (for example, emigration during working-age years followed by return migration at retirement age), circular migration patterns, and information on the length of residence(s).
- **Background characteristics of movers.** This may include demographic (i.e., age, sex, marital status) and socio-economic (employment, income, education/skills) information about migrant individuals as well as their motivation for migrating (work, education, family, lifestyle, etc.). Knowing these characteristics would help to develop a better understanding of the underlying factors influencing migration patterns – factors which are at risk of being oversimplified when seen as merely a function of the general sending versus receiving environment. Understanding the composition of the intra-EU migrant population in terms of these variables can help identify push and pull factors as well as preferred destinations of specific subgroups of migrants (defined, for example, by age and education level). In fact, it is possible that subgroups defined by such individual characteristics may show more coherent patterns of migration than groups defined by country of origin. Further, combining this information with data on sending and receiving countries can help identify the profiles of the typical movers for specific migration corridors.

- **Information on short-term, repeated movements.** Migration data typically focuses on movements that last at least one year and/or involve changes of residence. This tends to exclude circular movements, including seasonal migration and cross-border commuting. Given the freedom of movement within the EU – together with other agreements and regulations facilitating the migration of workers, students and others – these short-term, regular international movements have become a key aspect of everyday life in the EU. It is therefore a phenomenon that would be important to capture in data and analyses.

The above criteria set the basis for our review of migration databases in so far that they were used to examine the degree to which existing data sources are able to meet these requirements. In doing so, it identifies the most important sources and discusses their utility for research on intra-EU migration, additionally pointing out remaining data gaps. We would like to stress that providing an exhaustive inventory of all datasets containing some information on European migration (primary *or* secondary) is beyond the scope of this project.[5] Instead, the work for this Work Package was shaped by the REMINDER project's aim to create a practical, goal-oriented "database of databases" for individuals interested in the research objectives identified above. We seek to identify the best available data for each objective, while minimising overlap.

To achieve this, a macro-to-micro approach was taken. First, we developed a wide-ranging overview of existing sources of data based on well-known platforms (e.g. Eurostat, the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)) and previous inventories of European migration data (e.g. PROMINSTAT, THESIM); including a number of national level sources. Next, we identified the most efficient types of sources to include in our database and selected the main sources accordingly. After a detailed review of the availability and characteristics of the data available in our main – mostly macro – data

[5] For this purpose, we recommend consulting completed, migration data-gathering projects with an all-encompassing scope such as the PROMINSTAT project (Promoting Comparative Quantitative Research in the Field of Migration and Integration in Europe), conducted by Kraler and Reichel (see Kraler and Reichel, "Statistics on Migration, Integration and Discrimination in Europe. PROMINSTAT Final Report".) or the THESIM project (see Poulain, Perrin, and Singleton, "THESIM: Towards Harmonised European Statistics on International Migration").

sources, we identified remaining gaps, looked for and, where possible, selected additional – typically more micro – data sources to fill these gaps.

Our criteria for choosing the "best" datasets were as follows: if multiple sources covering the same population, event, or phenomenon were available, we included the most reliable and representative one. Additional sources were only included if they contained complementary relevant information and therefore filled a gap in the coverage of time, geographic areas, or variables of interest. Following this logic, databases sharing similar data that originates from the same sources – e.g. international databases publishing data from the same national administrative offices – were considered overlapping and therefore only the most informative database was included (unless the databases somehow complemented each other). Furthermore, we aimed for up-to-date statistics, preferably not older than ten years, but ideally available for the past decade to allow for trend observations over time. Comparability across countries was also a key aspect, which put cross-country databases at an advantage. Given our focus, we targeted data on intra-EU movements in particular, but included more general EU migration data (including external movements) when data for the former was not available. Besides content, ease of use and accessibility were major considerations when deciding whether to include a dataset.

Overall, this strategy allowed us to create a comprehensive, but efficient, collection of the available data relevant to the research objectives listed at the start of this section.[6] To further set up the basis for the mapping of datasets, the following section (Section 3: The Institutional Framework and Evolution of European Migration Data Collection) provides a short overview of the institutional context in which much of the discussed data is being collected.

In addition to the desk review process described above, we conducted five in-depth interviews with experts in migration data, including practitioners from key international organisations, involved in the collection and sharing of data on migration, and academics involved in previous European migration data mapping exercises. Potential interviewees

[6] The rationale for including certain datasets and excluding others from our inventory is further elaborated in Section 5: Most Suitable Datasets for Researching Intra-European Migration.

were selected based on their expertise and involvement in relevant organisations and/or research projects and contacted via email. Five out of ten contacted stakeholders agreed to being interviewed. These five interviews – which included experts from Eurostat, UN DESA (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affair), IOM (International Organisation of Migration), DESTATIS (Germany's Federal Statistical Office), and an author of the THESIM and PROMINSTAT projects – fully answered our questions and provided us with highly useful additional insights. During these interviews, the main relevant organisations, data source, projects, and topics were covered. The goal of the interview component was effectively met, as we started receiving overlapping answers. Sensing data saturation, further consultations were not pursued. A list of interviewed experts and the interview guide are shared in Annex I and II of this report, respectively.

The conducted interviews proved highly useful in complementing the findings of the desk review by confirming or correcting our findings, answering questions that arose during the review process (such as reasons for gaps), and pointing out further possible sources. Due to their positions, some experts also informed us on on-going high-level discussions and upcoming developments in migration data. The interviewed experts also shared their top recommendations for policy-makers and the broader statistical community in order to improve statistics on intra-EU migration in the future, which are reflected in the remainder of this report.

2.3 Mapping the Patterns and Dynamics of Intra-European Migration[7]

The analysis on patterns of intra-EU migration conducted for this work package is based on the existing data sources identified during the mapping. Based on this exercise, informed choices were made on the data that was used to provide the information in this report considering the respective strengths and weaknesses of different sources and their complementarities. This section provides an overview of the used sources and discusses how this document is intended to be used.

[7] See: Marchand, K., Fajth, V., strain, Z., Mahe, C. and Siegel, M. (2019). *Patterns of Migration in the European Union.* REMINDER Working paper D2.6. REMINDE Working Paper D2.3. Available at https://www.reminder-project.eu/wp-content/uploads/2019/03/REMINDER-D2.3.pdf

Generally, a majority of the data used to calculate and report indicators on intra-EU migration is based on statistics available from Eurostat, which ensures coherence and comparability. Specifically, Eurostat data on migration stocks and flows for the EU28 countries is used in Sections 6 and 7 of this report (numbers are most recent as of January 2019). When presenting data on migrant stocks from this source, it is always referring to 2017. In addition, data for the last four years (2014 to 2017) was included to identify any changes over this time period. In the case of migration flows, on the other hand, the most recent available statistics are for 2016. Again, trends over time are also considered; here for the time period 2013 through 2016.[8]

This data does, however, have some shortfalls[9] and, as such, there are also gaps in what is presented throughout this report. There were some instances where it was possible to effectively fill gaps with other well-known sources of data on migration by UNDESA and the OECD. This was possible in two cases for migration corridors, where a country-to-country level breakdown of information was often missing. Firstly, the 2017 UNDESA migration stock data was used to fill in 2017 bilateral stocks defined by country of birth, and all countries for which this was used had country-of-birth based data in UNDESA. Discrepancy of definitions should therefore not be a major issue in this case. OECD data on the inflow of foreign nationals (2013-2015) was used for citizenship-based flow corridors for 2013 through 2015. This data is consistently citizenship-based and, as such, a good compliment to the Eurostat data. One issue with it is, however, that this data only captures *foreign* nationals; return migration is therefore missing. Still, it filled some significant gaps in the Eurostat data; in particular the case of Germany as a receiving country.

Another case of mixed sources within one table was applied where residence-based emigration data was obtained by mirroring residence-based immigration data. In this case, all data still comes from Eurostat. This method was mostly used for residence-based flow

[8] The data used in these sections has also been compiled in data annexes, which are available on the REMINDER project website at: https://www.reminder-project.eu/publications/working-papers/patterns-of-migration-in-the-european-union/

[9] For example, data on immigration flows by country of birth is lacking for several countries.

corridor data. Similarly, aggregated emigration data, which was missing for stocks in particular, was obtained by aggregating bilateral country-to-country level immigrant stocks.

The following table details the sources used in the thematic sections (Sections 6-11) of the report, which are also elaborated further in Section 5.

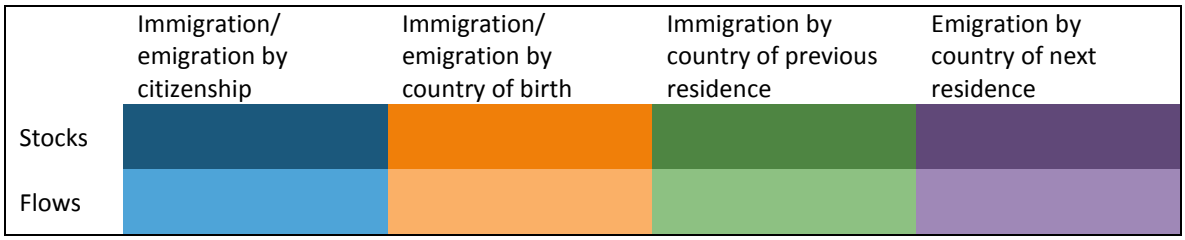
Table 1: Data Sources

Type of Data		Source	Name of database	Reference in this report
Stock data	Citizenship-based data	Eurostat	Population on 1 January by age group, sex and citizenship (migr_pop1ctz)	Eurostat_migr_pop1ctz
	Country of birth-based data	Eurostat	Population on 1 January by age group, sex and country of birth (migr_pop3ctb)	Eurostat_migr_pop3ctb
		UNDESA	International migrant stock (by destination and origin), 2017 revision	UNDESA_migr_stocks
Flow data	Citizenship-based data	Eurostat	Immigration by age group, sex and citizenship (migr_imm1ctz)	Eurostat_migr_imm1ctz
		Eurostat	Emigration by age group, sex and citizenship (migr_emi1ctz)	Eurostat_migr_emi1ctz
		OECD	Permanent immigrant inflows (of foreigners) (years used: 2013, 2014, 2015)	OECD_ctz
	Country of birth-based data	Eurostat	Immigration by age group, sex and country of birth (migr_imm3ctb)	Eurostat_migr_imm3ctb
		Eurostat	Emigration by age group, sex and country of birth (migr_emi4ctb)	Eurostat_migr_emi4ctb
	Residence-based data	Eurostat	Immigration by age group, sex and country of previous residence (migr_imm5prv)	Eurostat_migr_imm5prv
			Emigration by age group, sex and country of next usual residence (migr_emi3nxt)	Eurostat_migr_emi3nxt
Survey	Labour force survey	Eurostat	Labour Force Survey ad-hoc module 2014 "Labour market situation of migrants and their immediate descendants"	LFS_adhoc2014

	Longitudinal survey	Deutsches Institut für Wirtschafts-forschung	German – Socio-Economic Panel (GSOEP)	GSOEP
	Passenger survey	UK Office of National Statistics	Short-term international migration, estimates from the International Passenger Survey, 2014 - 2017	UKIPS
Student migration	Flow data	Eurostat	Mobile students from abroad enrolled by education level, sex and country of origin (educ_uoe_mobs02)	Eurostat_educ_uoe_mobs02
	Erasmus mobility statistics	EU Open Data Portal	Erasmus mobility for students (study exchanges and work placements) in 2013-14	Erasmus_mobility
Irregular migration	Dublin Statistics	Eurostat	Incoming 'Dublin' transfers by submitting country (PARTNER), legal provision and duration of transfer	Eurostat_migr_dubti
	Dublin Statistics	Eurostat	Outgoing 'Dublin' transfers by receiving country (PARTNER), legal provision and duration of transfer	Eurostat_migr_dubto

Throughout the report a colour-coding system is applied to indicate the type of data used in any figures and tables. The purpose of this is firstly that it ensures consistency across the report. Data presenting the different definitions will always be the same colour, so when multiple metrics are included in the same graph, it is clear which observation is showing what metric. Secondly, it will ease browsing through the report and the many figures included to find the type of data one is looking for.

The colour code uses the following logic:



3. The Institutional Framework and Evolution of European Migration Data Collection

During the past decade, the EU has exhibited an increasing commitment to collecting comprehensive migration-related data aimed towards effective, evidence-based migration policies. As a result, significant measures have been taken to improve data collection practices and to harmonise statistics at the European level.[10]

One of the most important steps in this regard was the establishment of the European Migration Network (EMN) in 2002, which had the aim of evaluating the quality of migration statistics across the EU. Similarly important was the Communication of the Commission regarding the 2003 Action Plan for the collection and analysis of migration statistics; it stressed the importance of data collection in areas such as non-natural resident population, naturalisation, emigration and immigration, international protection, illegal entry and illegal stay, and residence permits of third country nationals. Until the late 2000s, however, much of the mentioned data was still being collected on a voluntary basis. In addition, data collection was inconsistent and the level of harmonisation among different Member States was low.[11]

An increasing recognition for the need for more reliable EU-wide data led to the adoption of Regulation (EC) No 862/2007 on Community Statistics on Migration and International Protection in 2007. This was a major milestone for the collection of migration-related statistics across the EU. While this regulation mainly focused on the compilation of statistics on foreign workers, it set the basis for following initiatives promoting the coherence across European population and immigrant statistics. Regulation (EU) No 351/2010 and Regulation (EU) 1260/2013 further harmonised the definitions used in population statistics. As a result of these agreements, the following statistics currently fall under unified demographic data collection:

[10] Kraler and Reichel, "Statistics on Migration, Integration and Discrimination in Europe. PROMINSTAT Final Report".
[11] Poulain, Perrin, and Singleton, "THESIM".

- Immigrants by age, sex, and:
    a. Country of citizenship;
    b. Country of birth;
    c. Country of previous residence.
- Immigrants by country of citizenship *and* country of birth
- Emigrants by age, sex, and:
    a. Country of citizenship;
    b. Country of birth;
    c. Country of next residence.

It is important to note, however, that not all of these indicators are mandatory to be collected and shared with Eurostat, which strongly affects their availability. Specifically, the following data is collected on a *voluntary* basis:

- *Before reference year 2008:*
    - Immigration and emigration data by age, sex, and country of citizenship, country of previous/next residence;
- *Since reference year 2008:*
    - Immigration by age, sex, and single country of citizenship/country of birth/country of previous residence;
    - Immigration by country of citizenship *and* country of birth;
    - Emigration by age and sex;
    - Emigration by age, sex, and single country of citizenship/country of birth/country of next residence.[12]

Other harmonised migration-related data shared with Eurostat include:

- Asylum applications, decisions granting or withdrawing different forms of international protection status, asylum applications by unaccompanied minors, disaggregated by citizenship; and statistics on the operation of the Dublin III Regulation;

[12] Eurostat, "International Migration Statistics Reference Metadata in Euro SDMX Metadata Structure (ESMS)".

- Third country nationals that were refused entry to the Member State at the external border, and third country nationals found to be illegally present under national immigration legislation, disaggregated by citizenship;
- Residence permits issued to third country nationals, length of permit validity and the reason (immigration category) for the permit being issued disaggregated by citizenship; and
- Third-country nationals subject to an order to leave the territory of the Member State under immigration legislation, and third-country nationals recorded as departing after the issue of such an order, disaggregated by citizenship.

According to Regulation 862/2007, the statistics should be based on sources such as records of administrative/judicial actions, registers of the population or relating to administrative actions, censuses, surveys, etc., depending on their availability in respective Member States.[13]

Within the current institutional framework of migration data collection, the main providers of data are national statistical institutes (NSI) and relevant ministries of Member States. These organisations are responsible for supplying data to Eurostat, the statistical agency of the European Commission (EC). More specifically, statistics on migration flows, population stocks, and acquisition of citizenship are provided by NSIs. Statistics on asylum and on residence permits are provided by Ministries of Interior or related immigration agencies. Finally, statistics on the enforcement of immigration legislation are supplied by Ministries of Interior, immigration offices or the Border Police. The Commission relies on this data for the analysis of policies and the drafting of reports and proposals.

In line with the Regulation, reports on its implementation are published by the European Commission (EC) once every three years, starting with the first report in 2012. Since the

[13] Council of the European Union and European Parliament, "Regulation (EC) No 862/2007 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 11 July 2007 on Community Statistics on Migration and International Protection and Repealing Council Regulation (EEC) No 311/76 on the Compilation of Statistics on Foreign Workers (Text with EEA Relevance)", 23–29.

publication of the first report on the implementation of Regulation No 862/2007[14], several other legislative acts have been adopted to improve the consistency of statistics within the EU.[15,16] The second and third report on the implementation of said Regulation, published in 2015 and 2018 respectively, note that data collection in all areas has significantly improved in terms of availability, relevance, accuracy, timeliness, punctuality and accessibility.[17] Another important improvement relates to consistency; prior to the adoption of the Regulation, inconsistency among statistical definitions used by different Member States was a major problem, leading to complications concerning comparative analysis. Addressing this issue, the Regulation provides harmonised definitions, based on the statistical recommendations of the United Nations and relevant European legislation. According to the EC reports, common definitions have contributed to an increased comparability of the data.

[14] European Commission, "Report from the Commission to the European Parliament and the Council on the Implementation of Regulation (EC) No 862/2007 on Community Statistics on Migration and International Protection" (2012).

[15] Regulation (EU) No 1260/2013 of the European Parliament aims at the harmonisation of population-related data and sets out detailed characteristics of the required data, quality criteria, deadlines, etc., whereas Commission Implementing Regulation (EU) No 205/2014 of 4 March 2014 sets uniformed conditions for the implementation of Regulation (EU) No 1260/2013, specifically concerning international migration flows and population stocks disaggregated by citizenship and country of birth under Article 3 of the Regulation No 862/2007 [Council of the European Union and European Parliament, "Regulation (EU) No 1260/2013 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 20 November 2013 on European Demographic Statistics Text with EEA Relevance", Council of the European Union and European Parliament, "Commission Implementing Regulation (EU) No 205/2014 of 4 March 2014 Laying down Uniformed Conditions for the Implementation of Regulation (EU) No 1260/2013 of the European Parliament and the Council on European Demographic Statistics, as Regards Breakdowns of Data, Deadlines and Data Revisions Text with EEA Relevance", 10–26].

[16] In addition, five new legislative acts, relevant for the compilation of statistics on residence permits under Article 6 of the Regulation No 862/2007 have been adopted [European Commission, "Report from the Commission to the European Parliament and the Council on the Implementation of Regulation (EC) No 862/2007 on Community Statistics on Migration and International Protection". (2015 and 2018)]:

- Council Directive 2009/50/EC on the conditions of entry and residence of third-country nationals for the purposes of highly qualified employment;
- Directive 2011/98/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council on a single application procedure for a permit for third-country nationals to reside and work in a Member State and on a common set of right for third-country workers legally residing in a Member State;
- Directive 2014/36/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council on the conditions of entry and stay of third-country nationals for the purpose of employment as seasonal workers;
- Directive 2014/66/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council on the conditions of entry and residence of third-country nationals in the framework of an intra-corporate transfer;
- Directive 2016/801/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council on the conditions of entry and residence of third-country nationals for the purpose of research, studies, training, voluntary service, pupil exchange schemes or educational projects and au pairing.

[17] European Commission, "Report from the Commission to the European Parliament and the Council on the Implementation of Regulation (EC) No 862/2007 on Community Statistics on Migration and International Protection" COM (2015) 374 and COM(2018) 594.

Overall, Regulation (EC) No 862/2007 has led to substantial developments in terms of migration data collection and analysis in the EU. In addition, more sophisticated data collection methods on the part of Member States, such as the growing use of e-government systems, have led to improvements in data availability and quality in recent years, as noted by one interviewed expert (Interview 3).

In the future, regular monitoring of the implementation of the Regulation can be expected to further refine the data collection system. In addition, the Commission regularly observes compliance with the Regulation and takes follow-up steps to address non-compliance by Member States. Overall, it is a system under continuous development; some of its current and future initiatives for improvement are discussed in the final section of this report.

Following this brief overview of the EU-level system of migration data collection, the next section discusses the different sources of data we identified as most useful for analysing migration within the European Union.

4. The Main Types of Data on Intra-European Migration

As has already been elaborated, it is a challenge to generate a comprehensive picture of intra-EU migration based on the currently available body of data. However, the mapping of data sources revealed the complementarities between data collected through different channels. An important distinction regarding different sources of data on intra-EU migration has to be made between information originating from administrative records and sample surveys, which are may be compiled for statistical or research purposes. Both kinds of sources have different strengths and limitations and therefore both are important when it comes to analysing intra-EU migration. The characteristics of administrative data and surveys will be discussed in the following sub-sections respectively, before moving on to the analysis of specific data sources and the patterns and trends of intra-EU migration.

4.1 Administrative Data

Administrative data aims to record the entire population (e.g. foreign-born nationals) or all events (e.g. naturalisations) of interest. As a result, it tends to be more representative than sample based designs, which is the main advantage of this type of data. Furthermore, as pointed out by one of the experts interviewed (Interview 3), administrative data collection typically benefits from the support of national legislation incentivising or obliging the participation of the measured population.

However, it is also important to recognise that despite being the primary source of many statistics, administrative systems are not typically designed to serve statistical purposes.[18] For instance, states might choose not to collect certain information about their residents and/or citizens, or at least not record all personal information in one place. This may be because there is no need for it or, more deliberately, due to privacy or political concerns. Therefore, only a limited range of variables is generally available through individual data sources, which restricts the information available on migrants. In addition, it limits the options for disaggregating the data by multiple factors at once, which would, for example,

[18] See also Kraler and Reichel, "Statistics on Migration, Integration and Discrimination in Europe. PROMINSTAT Final Report".

allow an in-depth look at the different demographic or socio-economic groups within a specific migration corridor.

Political interests may also be in conflict with the goal of accurately capturing emigration or immigration. This is due to their effect on the reported population size, which is relevant, for example, in relation to the redistribution of members of the European Parliament or budgeting. Another important limitation of administrative data sources is the fact that they tend to exclude residents with an irregular status. As will be discussed in the respective section, surveys that apply a sampling method not based on official records of inhabitants may be able to capture migrants who are 'legally invisible', which is one reason that makes them a good compliment to administrative data.

4.1.1 Population Registers

Population registers are typically considered the most reliable source of data on migrant stocks and flows, as – at least in theory – they register each incoming and outgoing resident.[19] Their main limitation is their imperfect availability, as not all European countries keep such registers. As of 2019, only 18 out of 28 Member States provided register-based data as a source for Eurostat's migration statistics.[20] Moreover, even when implemented, population registers do not necessarily cover the entire foreign population. For example, when foreigners are expected to present a residence and/or work permit valid for at least as long as the minimum registration period to be recorded in the registry, non-complying (undocumented) immigrants are excluded.[21]

Moreover, deficiencies in registrations can pose a major challenge in tracking migration through population registers even among *regular* migrants. Generally speaking, the willingness of inhabitants to report their movements depends on the advantages and disadvantages of being or not being registered, as well as the existence and the rigour of

[19] Poulain, Perrin, and Singleton, "THESIM".
[20] Eurostat, "International Migration Statistics Reference Metadata in Euro SDMX Metadata Structure (ESMS)".
[21] OECD, "Statistical Annex".

registration requirements. Arrivals tend to be more thoroughly recorded than departures for these reasons.[22]

Overall, the lack of administrative hurdles due to the concept of the free movement of persons within the EU poses a challenge for statisticians. In addition, differences in registration criteria and practices across countries have impeded cross-country comparisons of migration statistics in Europe in the past. In recent years, however, the implementation of Regulation (EC) No 862/2007, joint with a push for improvements articulated in the 2012 EC report on the same regulation and the subsequent redevelopments of administrative systems, have achieved greater homogeneity – or at least systematically documented deviations – in register-based migration data, as well as in migration statistics overall.[23]

4.1.2 Censuses

Population censuses are another vastly comprehensive, and therefore highly representative, source of information on immigration across Europe. In addition, while it was not recommended in the past, census are now increasingly gaining acceptance as a source for emigration data (Interview 1). A key advantage of censuses is that they may be able to capture a portion of the population residing irregularly in the country, which is excluded from population registers and residence permit records.[24] Yet, similarly to registers, censuses are most useful for basic immigration statistics since they only accommodate a few questions.

Their main limitation as a source of migration data is, however, that they are generally conducted only every five to ten years, leaving a gap in data for the time periods between censuses (also called *intercensal* years). A number of countries therefore use census data in combination with other sources (e.g. registers or surveys); for example, complementing

[22] Kraler and Reichel, "Statistics on Migration, Integration and Discrimination in Europe. PROMINSTAT Final Report".
[23] European Commission, "Report from the Commission to the European Parliament and the Council on the Implementation of Regulation (EC) No 862/2007 on Community Statistics on Migration and International Protection", July 30, 2015.
[24] Poulain, Perrin, and Singleton, "THESIM".

census data with other data in intercensal years or using census data to periodically revise data collected in other ways.

In terms of coherence and accessibility, the EU-wide 2011 Population and Housing Census marked a remarkable step forward. For the first time, data from censuses conducted in the Member States was produced following European legislation.[25] This served to ensure quality as well as uniform, comparable outputs. EU-wide census rounds were also conducted in 2001 and 1991, but these were merely based on an agreement, which was not legally binding. The harmonised Census 2011 data is available on Eurostat's general database as well as through the Census Hub, a new transmission system developed specifically to disseminate the 2011 Census. [26]

4.1.3 Administrative Records

In addition to population registers and censuses, administrative records targeting specific subsets of the population comprise an important source of data on migration within Europe. Statistics related to naturalisations, asylum, residence permits, and the enforcement of immigrant legislation, for instance, are often produced through administrative records collected by specialised agencies within the Ministries of Interior, related immigration agencies, or the Border Police. Moreover, the use of data from specific registers such as health insurance registers or tax registers has been noted as a key step in improving European migration statistics in the Commission's 2015 Report.[27]

Some typically rich sources of information for migration data are, however, less informative when solely focusing on intra-European movements. Residence permit records, for instance, are generally a useful source because they contain information on migrants' (declared, planned) length of stay and reason for migrating. However, this data is of limited use regarding the subject of intra-European movements as it does not track the previous

[25] Regulation (EC) No 763/2008, Regulation (EC) No 1201/2009, Regulation (EU) No 519/2010, Regulation (EU) No 1151/2010.

[26] Eurostat, "Census 2011 Round (Cens_11r) Reference Metadata in Euro SDMX Metadata Structure (ESMS)', 2014.

[27] European Commission, "Report from the Commission to the European Parliament and the Council on the Implementation of Regulation (EC) No 862/2007 on Community Statistics on Migration and International Protection", July 30, 2015.

country of residence. As such, the only "origin" country recorded is the country of citizenship. This means that TCNs migrating between EU countries are not captured in residence permit records as intra-EU migrants. At the same time, EU citizens moving from a third country to an EU country other than that of citizenship may well be considered intra-EU migrants based on this data.

A focus on migration from external borders is also evident in asylum-related data. Since the country considered responsible for the asylum procedure under the Dublin regulation is usually the country through which the asylum-seeker first entered the EU, most of the asylum-related data tracks arrivals from outside the borders of Europe. A relevant exception regarding intra-European movements is data on *Dublin transfers*, which refers to asylum-seekers whose asylum procedure is being transferred from one Member State to another following a request for either one country to *take charge* of the application instead of the original country assigned, or to *take back* the asylum-seeker from another country to the original country assigned. Nevertheless, these statistics are hardly representative of the overall picture: asylum-seekers' secondary movements only comprise a subset of overall secondary movements, and these statistics merely indicate the legally visible part of this subset.[28]

4.2 Surveys

In contrast to administrative records, survey efforts work with samples and estimations by nature. As the review in the following sections of this report will show further, it should be noted that in some cases a sophisticated sampling design may lead to a more exact estimation than a poorly implemented administrative recording system. Surveys are therefore an important second source for data in intra-EU migration.

Specifically, a key advantage of sample-based surveys is that they allow for the inclusion of a wider range of variables, tailored to help produce evidence on specific topics. For instance, when looking at reasons for migration, the 'reason' indicated in administrative records – usually residence permits – will really be the legal pathway through which the migrant

[28] Eurostat, ""Dublin" Statistics (Migr_dub) Reference Metadata in Euro SDMX Metadata Structure (ESMS)".

received permission to enter or stay in the country (e.g. family or work). The *real* reason, however, might be different: something more complex (often including multiple factors), mutable over time, and/or not the legally most viable option (e.g. lifestyle preference). An anonymous survey has a better chance of capturing the latter (Interview 4) and the complexities of migration decision-making.

An additional benefit of surveys is their relative flexibility compared to administrative data collection systems: changing the list of variables from one round of a survey to the next (e.g. to include questions on migration) has a relatively low cost. Similarly, it is comparatively easier to implement a cross-country survey using uniform methods than to convince countries to change their administrative systems in order to achieve harmonisation in regional statistics. Furthermore, even when definitions are harmonised, administrative data collection systems can vary significantly across countries, affecting comparability (Interview 4). Finally, panel surveys can provide a unique insight into trends and/or changes in migration-relevant variables over time, instead of a single snapshot.

Focusing on intra-EU migration data, cross-national and national surveys can be distinguished. National gaps in administrative data collection are typically filled through the use of national surveys (e.g. UK International Passenger Survey for the UK's migrant flows statistics). When the goal is to provide nuanced data for research spanning across multiple European countries, however, cross-national surveys are more practical tools than national surveys. A cross-national set-up ensures similar sampling procedures, definitions, and overall homogenous surveying methods, which in turn allows for the data from different countries to be used as one coherent dataset. The benefit of national surveys, besides being the only available option in some cases, is that they are more likely to offer panel data than cross-national surveys and that they can target questions relevant to the specific country context. This makes them a useful (additional) source even when cross-country surveys are available.

Both at the national and cross-national level, a critical limitation of existing European migration data is the lack of migration-specific surveys. As indicated by an interviewee, the decision of the European Statistical System in this regard has been to privilege the inclusion

of migration-specific variables in regular surveys (*migration mainstreaming*), rather than to set up a specific migration survey. This is largely due to the challenge associated with establishing a reliable sampling frame when conducting a survey specifically targeting migrants. Even though questions enabling the identification of individuals with a migration experience are often included (e.g. country of birth versus country of residence) in existing surveys, the lack of an oversample of migrants often makes their subsample too small for analysis. Furthermore, *migration-specific* surveys usually target the topic of integration, focusing on current socio-economic indicators of the migrant and overlooking questions related to the act of migration itself, such as previous movements, motivations for migrating, plans to return, characteristics at the time of migration, and others.

In sum, administrative data provides a key basis for figures on intra-EU migration. However, not all administrative data meets the same standards and data sources such as countries' registers, censuses, permits, and enumerations of events (e.g. naturalisations) have different benefits and limitations in informing researchers and policy-makers about regional migration within Europe. Therefore, the basic data provided by the Member States needs to be complemented with sample-based survey data for more specific and detailed information.

5. Most Suitable Datasets for Researching Intra-European Migration

5.1 Databases Based on Administrative Information

5.1.1 International Online (Administrative) Databases

We find that the most practical way to access large-scale administrative data on intra-EU migration today is through the online international databases which collect data directly from Member States' national statistical institutes (NSIs) and share that data on an online platform in a uniform system. International databases have multiple advantages for researchers, particularly for those with an international focus: these platforms provide open access to a comprehensive collection of European migration-relevant data in English, organised in a manner that allows for cross-country comparisons; they conveniently present multiple Member States' data all in one place in the same format, broken down by topics, years, and other available disaggregation options. The metadata included with the datasets typically contains information on the primary sources of the data and notes differences in methodology which further supports comparability.

Such databases are thus generally the most user-friendly and efficient source for comparative European migration statistics, especially when trying to gather cross-country administrative data. It is important to note, however, that the presented data is typically in aggregated form and has a limited variable list. In case of in-depth country studies, it is therefore advisable to also consult the NSIs directly, as they might be able to provide further datasets or more detailed versions of the data, including additional indicators.

Eurostat database

Eurostat offers the most comprehensive database of European statistics overall, including data on migration within the region. Senior migration data experts across different organisations interviewed for this report seemed to agree on Eurostat's population database being the number one source for European migration statistics, particularly in light of the massive improvements achieved in this area over the past 10 to 20 years (Interviews 1, 2, 3, 4). As explained in detail in *Section 3*, Eurostat regularly collects a variety of migration-related statistics directly from the NSIs and presents them within a harmonised

framework.[29] This data is then shared on a freely accessible online database on Eurostat's website, which presents the information categorised by themes. Under each theme, a number of interactive tables present subsets of the data including all Member States plus EFTA (European Free Trade Association) countries. The thematic data is often split into sub-themes and different options for disaggregation (e.g. citizenship, age, sex) across a list of tables.[30] This system allows for a practical overview of figures for all countries, with a manageable amount of data per table.

In line with the list of mandated indicators outlined in *Section 3*, this database provides statistics on immigrant and emigrant flows disaggregated by age, sex and citizenship, country of birth or previous/next country of residence. In addition, for some countries, a cross-tabulation of inflows by citizenship and broad group of country of birth (and vice versa) is available, split into EU vs non-EU categories. Information on migrant stocks is also provided through population data, which can be disaggregated by age, sex, and citizenship or country of birth.

While this is an immensely useful body of data that is structured and presented in a clear way, the availability of the listed indicators varies significantly across countries, particularly in the case of data that is not mandatory to share. In other words, the data presented on this platform reflects the list of indicators included in the relevant regulations.

From the perspective of migration research, a drawback of this system is that further potentially useful indicators – such as inflows disaggregated by previous residence and citizenship of immigrants – that are not specifically outlined in the regulation are not provided by Member States and are therefore not available on the platform.[31] Furthermore, given that the data originates primarily from administrative records, the overall list of

[29] Besides the mobility-related datasets mentioned in Section I (categorized under the *Population* and the *Asylum and Managed migration* themes in the Eurostat database), under the *Education and training* theme, Eurostat's online database also publishes the joint UNESCO-OECD-Eurostat (UOE) database on education which includes key data on student mobility within Europe (for more details, see Section III).

[30] Also worth noting is the previously mentioned Census Hub within Eurostat, an online platform specifically designed to allow national statistical institutes to share census data directly with users.

[31] Specific availability issues are further discussed in *Section 6 and 7*.

available background variables of individuals is limited (typically to age/age group, sex, country of birth, and citizenship).

The quality of produced statistics is ensured through technical guidelines (e.g. harmonization of definitions and preferred data sources) and validation checks. The fact that Eurostat's collection process is backed by EU regulations greatly helps to ensure the provision of these statistics by Member States (Interview 3). The benefits of this regulated data gathering process are reflected in the relatively high availability and quality of Eurostat migration statistics, which cover most European countries for the past decade[32] – with some exceptions. Existing gaps are notable, especially regarding the more detailed data for specific countries. For instance, total immigration flow figures are available for almost all countries for the past the ten years; however, a sub-selection of immigrants with a previous residence in an EU-28 country is only available from 2013, while data specific to individual countries of previous residence continues to be missing for nearly half of the Member States.

Another important advantage is the availability of metadata for each dataset, even if the quality of these documents varies. A fairly common issue is the lack of indication of exact data sources for individual countries. Sometimes sources are missing altogether; in other cases blanket terms such as *administrative sources* are used. It would also be helpful to know why data is missing for specific countries and/or years within certain themes, i.e. whether the country systemically did/does not collect the data, did not collect it for a specific period, chose not to share the data, or whether there was a problem with the quality of the data. In general, knowing in which cases the data is collected but not shared versus it not being collected altogether could help estimate chances for future (or conditional) availability of data. On a positive note, precise definitions (including occasional differences in definitions) are always specified in the metadata, which is a great aid for cross-country research.

[32] Some data is available even further back: total migrant flow and stock data, for example, are available starting 1998 and 1999, respectively.

An additional tool that makes Eurostat databases fit for cross-country research is the availability of variables coded following international classifications (e.g. broad citizenship groups, occupation, or education). Finally, a key benefit of the Eurostat database is its publicly accessible online *bulk download facility*, which enables users to easily download multiple datasets at once; multiple formats are available, allowing researchers to work with the data in different types of data analysis software.[33]

All in all, while Eurostat is the most practical first source for a comprehensive overview of EU-focused migration statistics, due to remaining gaps in the availability of data for particular countries – further explored in *Sections* ***Error! Reference source not found.*** – and the limited number of indicators, there is still considerable room for improvement. For more details, researchers may need to resort to other sources, including UN DESA, OECD, and the relevant NSIs, or, depending on the topic, surveys such as the Labour Force Survey (LFS) or the Eurobarometer.

United Nations Global Migration Database (UN DESA)

The migration figures produced by the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UN DESA) are perhaps the most widely used, on a global level. Although the main asset of UN DESA data is its global (or at least multi-continental) scope rather than its depth, it comprises a valuable back-up to Eurostat data in this case. The latest revisions for both international migrant flows and stocks are directly available online (2015 and 2017, respectively). A key advantage of both is that they cover all 28 Member States (providing comparable data in a comprehensive collection), aim to capture all bi-lateral (country-to-country) migration, and are accompanied by good quality metadata. It is important to note that, while UN DESA flow data is unique in that it includes residence-based immigration data, its gaps are similar to those of Eurostat. A conversation with an expert from the organisation (Interview 2) confirmed that this is due to the fact that this data comes directly from Eurostat.

[33] The bulk download facility contains files in XML (Extensible Markup Language) or TSV. Further formats, including XLS, CSV, SPSS, or PDF, are available for download in the data explorer tool.

We find that the stock data, although only available for 5-year-periods (e.g. 2010, 2015…) and 2017, does contain some of the detailed data (age and sex) that is missing from Eurostat's population stocks. Drawbacks of the UN DESA data in general include a lack of aggregated EU-level figures (although *Europe* as a region may be present), the format of the data (Excel tables), and missing data. Finally, it is important to note that, like Eurostat, UN DESA relies on the information recorded and shared by individual countries – to a large degree, its supply is therefore a function of country-level decisions (Interview 2). Advantages and disadvantages of the two UN DESA databases are discussed in more detail in Section IV.

OECD Migration Data

The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)'s International Migration Database is another major source of migration-relevant information obtained directly from national correspondents. Covered topics include inflows and outflows of foreign population, inflows of asylum-seekers, stocks of foreign and foreign-born populations and labour, and acquisitions of citizenship. From an intra-EU migration perspective, however, this platform is of limited use. Firstly, OECD migration data in general excludes the six non-OECD member European Union states (Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, Lithuania, Malta, and Romania). Secondly, disaggregation is only possible by country of nationality or country of birth and sex.

The coverage is therefore limited compared to Eurostat (and UN DESA) in terms of geography, themes, and background variables. Nevertheless, within the covered areas, the OECD's database occasionally contains data that it is noted as missing in Eurostat and/or UN DESA databases, which makes it a potentially useful complementary source.[34] As in the case of UN DESA, an additional benefit of the OECD database is the detailed metadata available for each type of migration statistic, which is often more thorough in reporting the respective sources of data for each country than that of Eurostat. Also worth noting is the yearly

[34] It should be noted that differences in the availability of certain indicators may be due to differences in definitions compared to other sources, e.g. Eurostat (Interview 1, 5). Double-checking definitions used and being aware of potential comparability issues is key when merging data from different sources.

International Migration Outlook's Statistical Annex (latest edition: 2018[35]), which provides an overview of recent OECD migration statistics by theme and country (including rich metadata).

Other international databases

Multiple other popular international databases collect large-scale (mostly) administrative data relevant to migration. When it comes to intra-EU migration in recent years, however, we find that these datasets hold little to no additional value compared to Eurostat (especially once complemented with UN DESA and/or OECD data).

That being said, one particularly relevant data re-publishing platform is the Migration Dynamic Data Hub provided by the European Commission's (Joint Research Centre) Knowledge Centre on Migration and Demography (KCMD). Part of the effort includes a Data Catalogue, a wide-ranging metadata catalogue providing a short description and online links to relevant data sources by area of EU migration data.[36] One of these areas is *Internal migration*, which is also this report's area of focus. Yet, the KCMD's catalogue follows a broader inclusion logic for sources and is less analytical in the presentation given its wider scope. It is, nonetheless, a highly relevant and practical metadata collection, which we greatly recommend as a complement to data mapping effort concerning intra-EU migration.

The Dynamic Data Hub is an interactive mapping tool, sharing statistics provided by largely the same major sources we identify (Eurostat, UN DESA, and OECD). Its focus is not specifically on internal movements, but it does present aggregated values of total EU28 migrant flows and stocks in individual Member States, illustrated on a heat map.

Moving on to other major secondary databases, both the Global Migrant Origin Database (DRCM) and Integrated Public Use Microdata Series (IPUMS) are impressive global census data collection efforts, but face limitations: data from the former is from around the year 2000, while the latter only contains half of EU countries. Overall, Eurostat provides better

[35] OECD, "Statistical Annex".
[36] European Commission, "KCMD Data Catalogue: Internal Migration".

access to EU countries' census data (up-to-date and for all Member States), either through its general database or the Census Hub.

A number of other popular migration databases, such as the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (UNICEF) Data or the Migration Policy Institute's (MPI) data hub, essentially reproduce data from one or both of two sources: UN DESA and the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR). For our purposes, UN DESA data is best accessed directly; UNHCR provides wide-ranging data on asylum-related migration and could in fact be useful for complementing migration data for countries where asylum-seekers are not included in immigrant stocks or flows. When focusing on intra-EU movements, however, Dublin transfers and returns are the only relevant portion of official asylum-seeker data. These are, however, already made available by Eurostat.

Further popular sources for migration statistics in general include the International Labour Organisation (ILO) and the World Bank, but again, these are not informative sources for recent data on intra-EU movements. This is due to the fact that ILO statistics do not include EU countries. The World Bank migration data includes net migration indicators (already available through Eurostat) and the Databank on Global Bilateral Migration could be a very useful tool if continued, but currently stops at the year 2000.[37]

5.1.2 National Statistical Institutes as Complementary Data Sources

Moving on to national statistical institutes (NSIs) as complementary sources of statistics, we find that, while the data provided by individual NSIs might be richer than that found in international compilations, the NSI approach is often less efficient – especially when trying to collect comparable data on multiple countries. One of the main drawbacks of obtaining data from the NSIs is that it often involves a slower, multiple-step process. Access might be limited to nationals or to on-site use, and datasets may only be available in the local language. Furthermore, the researcher may not benefit from the homogeneity (in

[37] The World Bank also publishes information on remittance flows (and how they compare to migrant flows), which falls outside the focus of this project, but is noteworthy for migration research in general. In addition, data on workers' remittances and personal transfers are available in the Eurostat database.

methodology, definitions, variables) of the data that countries are required to provide when the information is collected within a single overarching framework.

This sub-section explores how the data disseminated by the individual national statistical institutes compares to those available via the Eurostat database, noting some regional trends in the quality and accessibility of data. Information is based upon a content analysis of each website of the various statistical institutes of the EU Member States.

With a few exceptions, migration data at the national level is generally less accessible and more scattered compared to Eurostat. While most states have information on the country of origin and citizenship of migrants, data on country of previous residence is publicly available in only 13 Member States (note: this is comparable to Eurostat). At the national level, there is a tendency to aggregate immigration data by macro-area of origin (EU, non-EU), which constrains the full potential of those statistics. This trend is particularly visible in Eastern European countries such as Hungary, Poland, Estonia, Croatia, and Lithuania, but also in smaller states such as Malta and Portugal. In addition, these countries, as well as Southern European countries, France, Belgium, and Luxembourg, only translate partial information to English, limiting the international accessibility of their data.

As mentioned above, we note a tendency among most Eastern European countries, small countries, and countries characterized by lower economic performance to provide less exhaustive migration data compared to their larger and/or wealthier peers. This group includes **Croatia, Slovenia, Hungary, the Czech Republic, Slovakia, Poland, Lithuania, Estonia, Luxembourg, Portugal, Cyprus, Malta, Romania, and Bulgaria**. Migration statistics provided by these countries are, generally speaking, less available at the national level than at the supranational level (Eurostat, OECD, and UN DESA have more information), as data is not always reported and/or openly accessible.

Despite this shared trait, this set of countries remains a highly heterogeneous group. Some countries,[38] such as Slovakia, have no migration section on their website, nor migration

[38] Note: by *countries* here we refer to the respective countries' national statistical institutes (more specifically, the information available on their websites). NSIs were also contacted individually via email for more

data. Croatia provides information on country of birth and place of residence in Croatia, but no information on age or sex. Similarly, Luxembourg only shares the aggregated number of immigrants. Other countries, such as Romania, Belgium, and Poland, also have an aggregated figure for immigrants (or *foreigners*), but this can be disaggregated by age and sex. Finally, some countries indicate countries of origin as well as age and sex of migrants (e.g. Estonia). Other countries provide information on migration, but it is partial: Luxembourg, for instance, only shares aggregated figure of immigrants; Croatia provides information on country of birth, but not age or sex; Romania, Belgium, and Poland also aggregate immigrants by a single definition without differentiating by origin countries, but include and age and sex disaggregation; finally, some countries indicate all three – country of origin, sex, and age – but this information is still poorer than that found in the Eurostat database.

A suggestion for these countries would be to follow the example of the Maltese National Statistical Office. On their website, they have a section dedicated to EU statistics, in which they link the user to international databases in which more information can be found. This kind of outsourcing mechanism could be easily implemented by other offices, and it would result in a complete picture of the available statistics of a given country.

Austria, Finland, France, Greece, Italy, Latvia, Netherlands, and **Spain** represent a second group of countries. In this group, migration statistics at the national level are very similar, if not equal, in terms of available data to the statistics that can be retrieved from supranational databases. Almost all of these countries' NSIs provide statistics on the country of birth, country of citizenship, country of previous residence, age, sex, education, occupation, and marital status of the immigrant population. These statistics are generally available from early 2000 until 2016. The main limitation of the statistics provided and disseminated by those countries – except for the Netherlands and Finland – is that yearbooks, reports, and articles are only partially retrievable in English. Statistics in Latvia and Greece are largely based on the 2011 Population and Housing Census, so most of them are only available since 2011. In Spain and Italy, microdata from administrative sources

accurate information, but not all contacted institutes have responded; the information learnt as a result of this effort has helped complement the findings presented in this section.

integrate information on migration and sometimes represent unique information that is not reported on Eurostat. In Greece, by looking at output tables and reports of the Hellenic Statistical Authority, it stands out that with the full census data, it will be possible to cross-tabulate between country of origin, citizenship, and country of previous residence. This is also possible with Austrian statistics. Cross-tabulation represents a unique feature, which is not captured by Eurostat statistics, yet it is crucial to understand intra-EU migration.

The last group of countries is composed of **Denmark, Germany, Ireland, Sweden,** and **the United Kingdom**. These countries have more exhaustive migration statistics at the national level than at the international one. Statistics are, by large, open access and translated into English. In what might be considered 'good practice', statistics of the United Kingdom include information on occupation prior to migration, reasons for migration, and previous reasons for migration – it should be noted, however, that these statistics are largely survey-based (UK International Passenger Survey), and therefore limited in accuracy. In Germany, the Research Data Centre (FDZ) of the German Federal Employment Agency (BA), has a variety of microdata originating from administrative registers and surveys with very accurate and vast information on migration and labour market history variables. This data is highly valuable, since in-depth German migration data is at times missing from the Eurostat database, mostly due to definitional differences (Interview 5). Ireland has information on the level of English, religion, level of education, ethnicity, and field of study of migrants. Swedish data is available dating back to 1968, and has information on seasonal and circular migration. In the United Kingdom, Ireland, and Denmark it is also possible to cross-tabulate between the country of origin, citizenship, and country of previous residence.

All in all, the degree to which the administrative data available through NSIs can be used to complement Eurostat data is highly dependent on the individual country: as presented above, cases vary from missing entirely to presenting very rich data.

5.2 Survey-Based Data

5.2.1 Cross-National Surveys

As previously mentioned, for the purpose of studying intra-EU migration, we find larger, international surveys to be preferable to smaller-scale, national surveys, given their advantage in representativeness and comparability of cross-country results. An overall larger sample size is beneficial because surveys that would otherwise address relevant topics often lack a significant oversample of migrants. The *ideal* intra-EU migration survey would in fact have an EU-wide coverage with a migrant oversample – or exclusively migrant sample – in each country, with questions addressed specifically at migratory behaviour (including migration history) and relevant background variables capturing (also) individual characteristics at the time of migration. This would help see EU migration decisions in the personal context of individuals, enabling a better understanding of the drivers behind observed patterns.

At the time of this report, such a survey had not been created. We therefore discuss the existing surveys that best approximate the set of features outlined above: most notably, the Labour Force Survey, the European Internal Movers Social Survey (a one-time survey from 2004), and selected waves of the Eurobarometer.

Labour Force Survey (LFS)

The LFS is widely considered the most useful on-going survey for data on intra-European migration (Interviews 3, 4). The LFS is the largest European household sample survey, producing comparable data across all 28 Member States (plus two candidate countries and three countries of the EFTA).[39]

The core questionnaire of the LFS collects quarterly data on labour participation of Europeans aged 15 and over. It allows for the identification of migrants through their country of birth and nationality, but with limitations: countries of nationality and birth are aggregated into the following groups: national/native; EU15; 2004-accession countries (10

[39] The quarterly LFS sample size across the EU was about 1.6 millions of individuals in 2015 [Eurostat, "European Union Labour Force Survey: Description of the Dataset"].

in total); 2007 and 2013 accession countries (3 in total); EFTA; other Europe; and groups for other main regions of the world outside Europe. This limitation prevents researchers from using LFS data to identify bilateral country corridors and the obviously useful analysis of migrants with specific countries of origin. Nevertheless, given that the EU accession timeline followed some regional patterns, the grouping does at least distinguish between some main regions within Europe. Years of residence in the surveyed country are also included, which is fairly rare information for migrants who are EU nationals. Besides a number of labour and socio-economic characteristics, migration-relevant variables include the country of place of work (which enables identification of cross-country commuters), the year when the highest education was obtained (which may be cross-referenced with years of residence to see if it was obtained in the host country), and the country of residence one year before the survey, which could shed light on the trajectory of (likely) the most recent migration. However, despite the large size of the overall sample, the relatively small size of the migrant subsample limits the benefits of the LFS.[40]

Two of the experts interviewed highlighted that the aggregated nature of origin-country variables in LFS microdata is likely due to the fact that for many participating countries the migrant sample sizes are fairly small to begin with. Disaggregating that for not just aggregated origin groups, but specific origin countries, would result in samples so small that the estimates would become unreliable (Interviews 3, 4). Besides quality criteria, small-sample observations in the microdata may also be merged to protect confidentiality and data protection criteria (for instance, a sample size of fewer than 50 individuals would not only result in a large margin of error, but might also make it possible to identify individuals representing a very small subset of the population and thereby breach confidentiality of data) (Interview 3). However, national quality and confidentiality criteria may in some cases be more lenient than Eurostat criteria. This means that, in some cases, more detailed or a larger amount of country-level data from LFS is shared on national platforms compared to the joint microdata files available via Eurostat. For in-depth country studies, it may therefore be advisable to consult the relevant NSI(s) for LFS microdata.

[40] Eurofound, "Analysis of the Socioeconomic Situation of Migrants – Gathering Comparable Data on Their Living Conditions".

In 2008, the annual ad-hoc module focused on the labour market situation of migrants and their descendants, oversampling migrants, for a total sample of approximately 1.44 million observations. [41] A similar module was carried out in 2014 and is planned again for 2021. The ad-hoc modules cover most EU-28 countries, with the exception of Croatia and Finland in the 2008 round, as well as Denmark, Ireland, and the Netherlands in the 2014 round; furthermore, access to microdata is not available for Germany.[42]

Regarding information on intra-European migration, two variables stand out from the 2014 ad-hoc questionnaire: reason for migration and the last country of work abroad. The former targets a key gap in knowledge regarding the drivers of intra-EU migration, which is especially difficult to track for those who can move freely within Europe (residence permit data typically includes the nature of migration). Information on the last country of work abroad can be used to track potential multiple movements across Europe.

The core of the thematic ad-hoc modules of the LFS are therefore useful additional sources for information on European migration, but with room for improvement. Assuming that an oversample of migrant respondents is unlikely to be implemented in the core survey – although this would be most helpful – improvements in migration measurement could be achieved with the addition of the following variables to the upcoming ad-hoc modules: reason for migration, planned length of stay, future migration/return plans, previous countries of residence in Europe (incl. years), and labour and education characteristics at time of migration. At the time of writing this report (mid-2018), we were informed by one interviewed expert that some of the variables from the ad-hoc modules, such as reason for migration, are indeed likely to be included in the future regular waves of the survey (Interview 3).

From a practical point of view, difficulty of access is an issue when it comes to migration-relevant data within LFS. The aggregated data available through the Eurostat online database does not include those variables that are the most useful sources of additional

[41] Lien and Toleikyte, "The Labour Market Situation of Migrants and Their Immediate Descendants Evaluation of the 2014 Labour Force Survey Ad Hoc Module".

[42] As explained during an interview with experts from DESTATIS (Interview 5), this gap is due to Germany not having implemented a relevant directive.

information compared to administrative data (in terms of years of residence, prior migrations, reasons for migration and cross-country commuting). Microdata including all variables is accessible for researchers, but subject to a fairly complex and lengthy (8-10 weeks) application process. In addition, Germany does not provide access to its LFS microdata – a considerable impediment to our type of research, given that the country is both a major receiver and sender of EU movers.

European Internal Movers Social Survey (EIMSS)

The European Internal Movers Social Survey, carried out in 2004, was the first – and, to our knowledge, only – large-scale systematic survey-based study of intra-EU migrants. EIMSS was carried out as part of the PIONEUR project, which aimed to fill the gap in knowledge about the socio-demographic profile and, in particular, the motivation, life patterns, and personal consequences of migration for European citizens who have migrated from one Member State to another. The sample contained 5,000 European citizens residing as foreigners in France, Germany, the United Kingdom, Italy, and Spain.[43]

The dataset is highly informative since it is one of the very few sources containing detailed information on lifetime migration within Europe (giving information on every other country the respondent has lived in, prior migration to the current destination country, reasons for settlement, and future moving aspirations including retirement), among other relevant variables. The main drawback of the survey is that it was carried out over a decade ago; a follow-up round (ideally extended to include more European countries) could provide invaluable information on the patterns and drivers of intra-EU migration. Access is extremely easy, immediate and at no cost: the primary data is available to download online for researchers via the GESIS (Leibniz Institute for the Social Sciences) database.[44]

Eurobarometer

The Eurobarometer is primarily known as the EU's main public opinion survey, but some of its waves have actually targeted key questions related to understanding European

[43] Recchi et al., "Geographical and Job Mobility in the EU (Final Report)", "Empirical Evidence on Job and Geographical Mobility in the European Union" Tender No. VT/2005/0107 DG Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities.

[44] Database available at https://dbk.gesis.org/dbksearch/sdesc2.asp?no=4512

migration. Specifically, the 2005 Eurobarometer survey on *Geographical and labour market mobility* (wave 64.1), the 2007 Eurobarometer on the *Geographical mobility of citizens*, and the 2009 follow-up to the former (*Geographical and labour market mobility,* wave 72.5) addressed topics including Europeans' migration experiences and intentions, as well as reasons encouraging or discouraging people from moving. For instance, topics covered in the 2009 Eurobarometer include:

- Respondents' opinions about the impact of people moving across regions or countries within the EU on individuals, families, the economy, the labour market, and European integration;
- Respondents' experiences of living, working, and/or studying abroad;
- Respondents' plans to work abroad in the future;
- Positive and negative experiences of those who have already worked abroad;
- Motivations and disincentives for working abroad;
- Perceived issues to be faced when working abroad;
- Ways respondents think they would find work abroad; and
- Respondents' knowledge of EURES (European Employment Services), and the services they would look for in an employment service.[45]

Given the sample size of 1,000 interviews, it should be noted this data serves not so much as a source for exact figures on migration flows within the EU, but rather as an insight into migration tendencies and intentions, as well as the influencing factors that shape these attitudes and decisions.[46] Additionally, the 2009 data is becoming relatively old: a new – post-financial crisis – wave of the special survey on migration would be highly useful. Like EIMSS, primary data from the Eurobarometer surveys is very easy to access via the GESIS online database, where users can freely download the data in formats compatible with multiple types of data analysis software.[47]

[45] European Commission, "Geographical and Labour Market Mobility" (Special Eurobarometer 337), 5–6.
[46] Interviews with experts provided further confirmation that the smaller scale of the survey, paired with the fact that is it only carried out in the local language and it does not aim to accurately sample migrant minorities, is likely to lead to major bias in the migrant population represented (Interview 3, 4).
[47] https://www.gesis.org/eurobarometer-data-service/search-data-access/data-access/

Other international surveys

Besides LFS, Eurostat's other major survey gathering information on the socio-economic situation of Europeans is the European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC). It is similar to the LFS in terms of design and implementation, but focuses more on income and issues related to social inclusion and poverty. It also allows identification of migrants by country of birth, citizenship, and years of residence (latter two not included for all countries), and provides information on the socio-economic background of individuals. However, it works with a significantly smaller sample than the LFS[48] – making the absence of a migrant oversample a more severe problem – and lacks some of the useful additional migration-related variables included in the LFS (e.g. information on commuters, country of residence one year prior to the survey). In summary, given EU-SILC's similarities but lack of additional value, we consider LFS a preferable source of survey data to EU-SILC for researching intra-EU migration.

Similarly to the Eurobarometer, the European Social Survey (ESS) is a major cross-country survey focusing on attitudes and opinions of Europeans. However, contrary to the Eurobarometer, for the ESS no waves targeting EU migration have been implemented; the latest wave focusing on attitudes towards immigrants was carried out in 2014, but contained only one question concerning EU migrants, asking respondents to what degree they would allow immigrants from poorer European countries into their country.[49] Thus, we do not consider the ESS a very useful source for understanding the facts of European migration.

One interviewed expert has highlighted the European Health Interview Survey as a further useful source on intra-EU migrant populations (Interview 3). While only two waves of this survey have been carried out so far (2006-2009 and 2013-2015), it may contain helpful information for intra-EU migration research given its relatively large sample size (nearly 200,000 respondents across EU Member States in its latest wave) and inclusion of country

[48] EU-SILC's minimum effective sample size is below 300,000 individuals in total [Eurostat, "EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC) Methodology – Sampling"].

[49] European Social Survey, "Attitudes towards Immigration and Their Antecedents - Question Design Final Module in Template".

of birth (aggregated into 3 categories: natives, EU citizens, and others) and basic demographic information on respondents.[50]

International student or graduate surveys can be relevant even if they do not specifically focus on migration because they provide additional insight into a specific (and young) cluster of the population. The OECD's Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) is a triennial survey testing the skills and knowledge of 15-year-old students worldwide, including all EU countries in its latest (2015) round. The list of migration-related variables is limited (country of birth, years of residence), but PISA nonetheless can be a helpful additional source of data on the adolescent (15-year-old) cohort within migrants across the EU. PISA data is freely available through its online database.[51]

REFLEX and its extension for Eastern Europe, HEGESCO, are two large-scale European surveys for higher education graduates. Altogether the two projects cover 18 European (16 EU-28) countries.[52] The surveys did not oversample migrants and the data is somewhat old (from 2005 and 2007, respectively, targeting graduates from 5 years earlier); it is, nevertheless, highly valuable since it can provide rare insights on extended migration trajectories of graduates by specifying their country of birth as well as the country of residence at age 16, during higher education studies, when first starting employment, and at the time of the survey. The datasets are freely available for research purposes via request by email.[53]

5.2.2 National Surveys

In addition to the above, we find few national surveys that provide useful additional nuances on intra-EU migration considering the information available through Eurostat and LFS. Three national surveys that do stand out are the German Socioeconomic Panel (SOEP)

[50] Eurostat, "European Health Interview Survey (EHIS Wave 2) Methodological Manual".
[51] PISA database available at https://www.oecd.org/pisa/data/
[52] Austria, Finland, France, Germany, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, Spain, UK, Belgium-Flanders, Czech Republic, Portugal, Switzerland, Estonia, Lithuania, Poland, Hungary, Slovenia (plus some non-European countries).
[53] More information on REFLEX and HEGESCO is available at http://roa.sbe.maastrichtuniversity.nl/?portfolio=reflex-international-survey-higher-education-graduates

and the United Kingdom's (UK) Understanding Society Survey and International Passenger Survey.[54]

While its sample size is a fraction of those of national Labour Force Surveys, SOEP remains a remarkably rich source of data, as it looks into lifetime migration with detailed questions regarding past and future migrations; the panel nature of the data further helps to track migration trajectories. The data available through SOEP is particularly important given the lack of access to microdata for Germany in the LFS and gaps in the data shared by the country via Eurostat. SOEP microdata is freely available to researchers (upon request via email).

Datasets derived from both the Understanding Society Survey and IPS are available through the website of the UK Data Service portal (upon registration).[55] Selected waves of the UK's Understanding Society survey comprise a similarly valuable – and rare – source of data on migration history: wave 1 (2008) asks both natives and immigrants detailed information on the countries they have lived in prior to the time of the survey. These include the number of countries and the location (up to 5), questions on moves before and after having first moved to the UK, and age when migrating to the UK. Additionally, it includes questions on internal migration. Wave 3 in 2010 only had two questions on future plans to migrate (similar to those in Eurostat). Wave 7 (2014), on the other hand, repeated not only all variables from wave 1, but also added a question about the reason for migration and current migration intentions (yes or no) to the variable list.

Lastly, the UK's International Passenger Survey (IPS) includes information on the reason for migration, country of previous residence, usual occupation prior to migration, and immigrants' previous stay in the UK, in addition to tracking short-term and tourism-related migration. However, it should be noted that in general passenger surveys may produce data with low levels of quality (Interview 1).

[54] Ireland's Quarterly National Household Survey is also a rich source of national data, but for the purpose of this paper we regard it as a part of the Labour Force Survey and therefore do not discuss it separately.
[55] UK Data Service Portal available at https://ukdataservice.ac.uk/

Following this review of the main sources on data relevant for understanding intra-European migration, the next section discusses the quality and availability of statistics by thematic areas and outlines remaining gaps in the currently available body of data.

6. Stocks of Intra-EU Migrants

6.1 Available Statistics and Remaining Challenges

Data on stocks of intra-European migrants is easily available through administrative records of migrants. Stocks of people who migrated from within the EU are reported alongside migrants from third-countries in Eurostat's database as reported by NSIs. It is possible to disaggregate the stock data on foreign nationals and population born abroad by age and sex, but disaggregation by nationality and country of birth simultaneously is only available if one of the two is categorised in a broad group (such as EU28 countries except reporting countries).

Statistics on the numbers of valid residence permits (and long-term residents) at a point in time also provide an additional insight into stocks of TCNs residing in Member States, with additional information on the reason of migration and the length of stay. When focusing on stocks resulting from intra-European movements, however, we again must keep in mind that this refers not only to – and not to all – movements of EU nationals but rather EU nationals and TCNs' migrations from one Member State to another. In the case of stock data, this challenge is made more daunting by the fact that the countries of previous residence are not reported in Eurostat population data; Regulation 862/2007 requires Member States to record countries of previous residence for flow but not stock statistics.

Data from the Census 2011 (and consecutive) data should be more useful in this regard: Regulation 763/2008 on population and housing censuses requires Member States' census data to include inhabitants' previous place of usual residence and date of arrival in the current place; or place of usual residence one year prior to the census. Without exploring exactly what data was collected by each individual country, we rely on the ESS' Census Hub database (the platform built do collect and distribute Census 2011 data across Europe), which includes variables for respondents' years of arrival and for their 'residence one year before'. The latter, however, only distinguishes between internal and international movements (or no movements) and therefore cannot be used to determine the previous country of residence. Furthermore, the usefulness of the platform is greatly hindered by the

limited options of variables that can be chosen jointly. For this reason, in our research we found it easier to download the data through the standard Eurostat data explorer platform. Including information identifying the countries of previous residence in the census (or any other collection of other migration stock characteristics) would help researchers access a key tool to comprehensively monitor intra-European movements of both EU nationals and TCNs.

To our knowledge, the most useful complementary source for Eurostat migrant stock data is provided by UN DESA's database on Trends in International Migrant Stocks. The database provides global bi-lateral stocks disaggregated by sex for every 5 years between 1990 and 2015, and additionally, 2017. Most of the data is obtained from population censuses. The database has a global scope, but EU countries are easy to filter out among receiving countries, which are listed by region. Origin of immigrants is defined as either country of birth (predominantly) or citizenship, where these are used inconsistently across countries. In addition, there are discrepancies regarding the inclusion of refugees. This inconsistency of definitions, in particular, significantly harms the precision of this data as a source for European migrant stocks.

Another complementary source is found in OECD's International Migration Database. This data faces the same geographical limitations as mentioned in the case of flows (6 EU countries are excluded). For the 22 countries that are included, however, OECD reliably reports stocks of foreign-born and foreign population – distinguishing between definitions, unlike UN DESA's stock data. Disaggregation by sex is also possible.

Given these limitations of current administrative data collections, an alternative way to identify intra-EU movers among migrant stocks is through surveys – keeping in mind the evident drawback of limited representativeness. Starting with the largest-scale survey, the core module of the LFS records the imperfect, but still useful, variable Country of residence one year before survey (possible to combine with the years of residence variable for the current country); however, the limited information contained in the LFS regarding country of nationality and country of birth should be kept in mind. EIMSS asked for all previous countries of residence; SOEP (Germany) also looks into past migrations in detail, as does

wave 7 of the Understanding Society survey (UK). REFLEX and HEGESCO asked for the country of residence at age 16. An added benefit of these surveys is that they also allow for disaggregation by various demographic and socio-economic characteristics. The obvious drawback is the lack of a migrant oversample (for the standard LFS, REFLEX, and HEGESCO) and the resulting very limited – and hardly representative – migrant stocks that can be identified through these surveys.

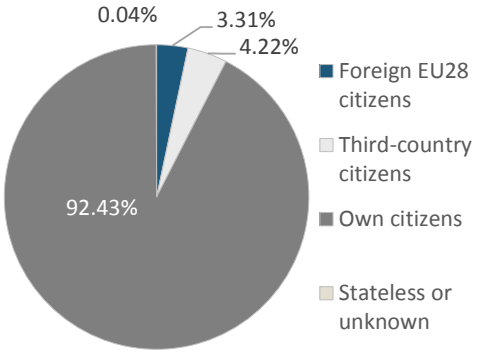
Overall, the data provided by Eurostat allows to get quite a comprehensive picture of total intra-EU migrant stocks, using both the citizenship and the country of birth metric respectively. Ideally, there should be **disaggregation options** available for information regarding origin of the migrants in terms of both of these characteristics at the same time.

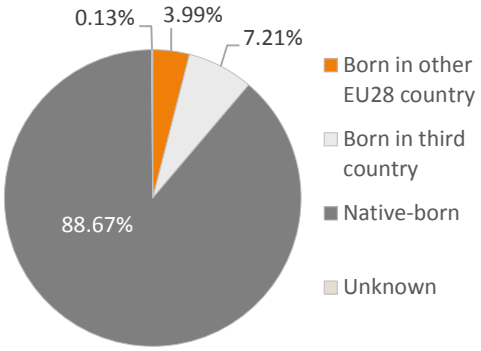
6.2 Identified Patterns

6.2.1 Total Stocks of Intra-EU Migrants

Figure 1 shows the share of intra-EU migrants among the total resident population in the EU28 based on citizenship on the left and country of birth on the right. The vast majority of residents in the EU28 countries are citizens of the country in which they live. Foreign national residents made up 7.5% of the residents in the EU in 2017. More specifically, about 3.3% of residents held the citizenship of another EU28 country (16.9 million); while 4.2% held that of a third country (21.6 million).

Figure 1: Residents in EU28 Countries by Origin (broad groups, aggregated at EU28 level), 2017



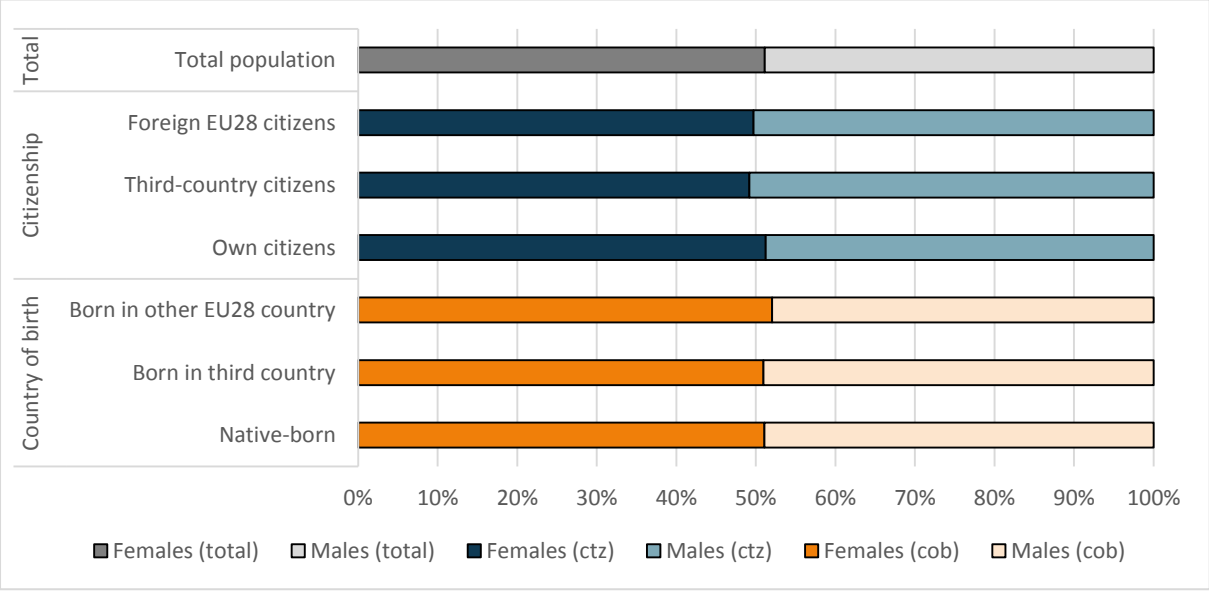


Data source: Eurostat_migr_pop1ctz and Eurostat_migr_pop3ctb.

When considering the country of birth, the trends look similar. While the majority of residents was born in the country in which they live now, the share of individuals born in another EU28 country is at 4.0% (20.4 million). The share of residents born outside of the EU28 (36.9 million), on the other hand, is 7.2%; indicating that using this measure for migrants results in higher absolute numbers of migrants from both within and outside of the EU as well as a higher relative share of migrants among the total population.

The available data further allows disaggregation of the stocks by sex and age group. Looking at the gender of immigrants defined by their citizenship, the data shows that males are slightly overrepresented among both foreign EU28 and third country residents. Men represent 48.9% of the total population, but 50.3% among those with another EU28 nationality and 50.8% among TCNs. In contrast, the share of females among the total population is 51.1%, and 49.7%, and 49.2% respectively for these two immigrant groups. Looking at the sex composition of the migrant stock, defined by country of birth, the data shows a slightly different picture. There is no overrepresentation of men in this case. The share of males among the total population is 48.9% and 48.0% and 49.0% for those born in another EU28 or a third country respectively. In contrast, the share of females is higher among those born in other EU28 countries (52.0%) than it is among the total population (51.1%).

Figure 2: Residents in EU28 Countries by Sex (broad groups, aggregated at EU28 level), 2017



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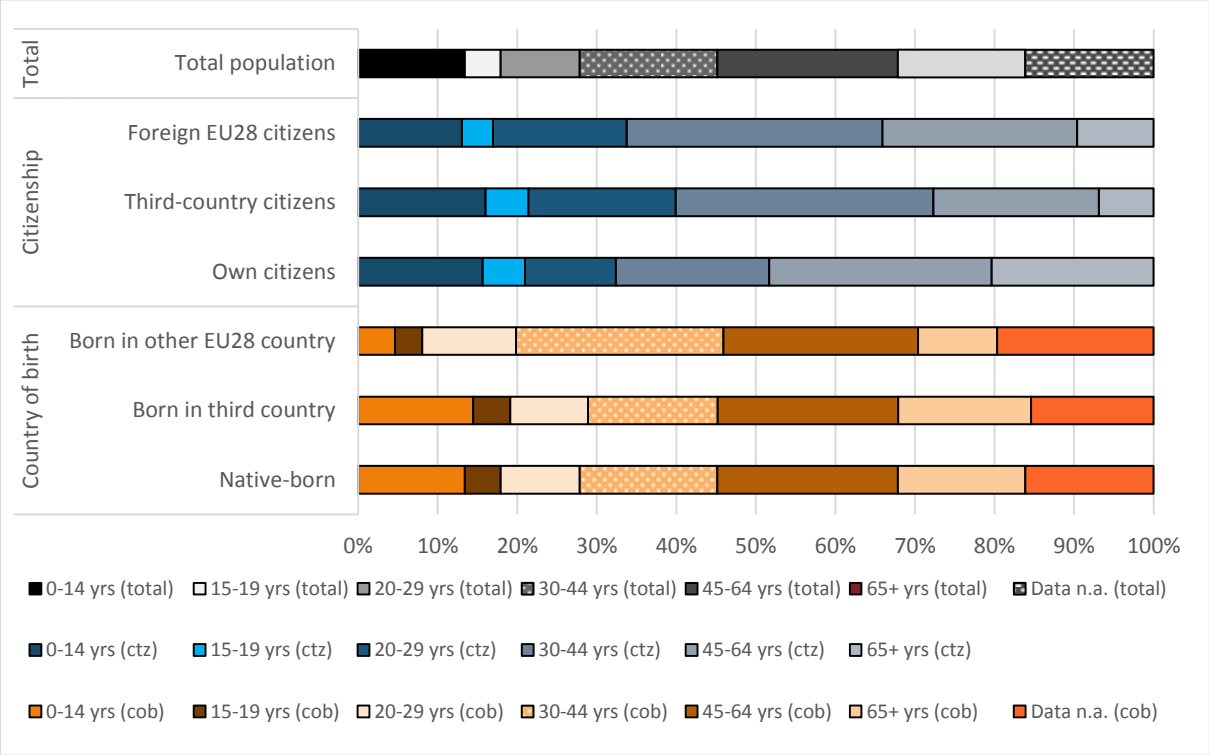
Data source: Eurostat_migr_pop1ctz and Eurostat_migr_pop3ctb.

In terms of the age distribution, the data indicates that a large share of the migrant stocks are of working age. For example, the share of 30 to 44 years old among the total EU28 population is 20.2% and among the countries' own citizens it is 19.3%. Among nationals of other EU28 countries, on the other hand, it is 32.2% and among TCNs even 32.4%; the largest age group respectively. In contrast, the share of the group 65 and older among the total population is 19.4% and only 9.6% among foreign EU28 citizens and 6.9% among TCNs. And the largest age group among the natives is that between 45 and 64 years.

Figure 3: Residents in EU28 Countries by Age Group (broad groups, aggregated at EU28 level), 2017



Data source: Eurostat_migr_pop1ctz and Eurostat_migr_pop3ctb.

The data furthermore shows that the profile of the migrant stock, defined by country of birth, is different than that according to citizenship. There are significantly fewer children between 0 and 14 years among those born in other EU28 countries (6.7%) and third countries (4.6%) than among those born in the respective country (14.5%). The same is true for the age group of 65 years and above, where the shares are 12.0%, 9.9% and 16.7% respectively. For the core working age cohort (30 to 44 years), on the other hand, the share

is much higher among the foreign-EU28 country born (23.3%) and those born in a non-EU country (26.1%) than among the native-born (16.3%). Again, this is the largest age cohort among both those born in other EU28 countries and those born in non-EU countries. Like with the citizenship metric, the 45-64 years age cohort is the largest for natives.

Finally, looking at migrant stocks in the EU over time, Table 2 shows that in absolute and relative terms both groups - EU28 nationals and TCNs residing in EU28 countries - have slowly been growing, mirroring overall total population growth in the EU during the period 2014 through 2017. In 2014, the shares were at 2.8% and 3.8% for EU28 nationals and TCNs, respectively, slowly but steadily increasing to the 3.3% and 4.2% shares in 2017. Equally, the share of residents with different countries of birth, both within and outside of the EU28, has been increasing steadily over the last years, again mirroring overall total population growth in the EU28. The shares for residents born in other EU28 countries and in third countries in 2014 was 3.6% and 6.6% respectively; they have risen steadily over the last four years to shares 4.0% and 7.2% in 2017.

Table 2: Residents in EU28 Countries (broad groups, aggregated at EU28 level), 2014-2017

Year	Total population	Resident foreign EU28 citizens	Resident third-country citizens	Residents born in other EU28 country	Residents born in third country
2014	507,011,330	14,423,789	19,468,483	18,042,175	33,464,726
	100.0%	2.8%	3.8%	3.6%	6.6%
2015	508,540,103	15,305,335	19,762,664	18,664,241	34,140,958
	100.0%	3.0%	3.9%	3.7%	6.7%
2016	510,277,177	16,090,172	20,746,568	19,353,610	35,04,628
	100.0%	3.2%	4.1%	3.8%	6.9%
2017	511,522,671	16,944,884	21,583,107	20,404,566	36,869,366
	100.0%	3.3%	4.2%	4.0%	7.2%

Data source: Eurostat_migr_pop1ctz and Eurostat_migr_pop3ctb.

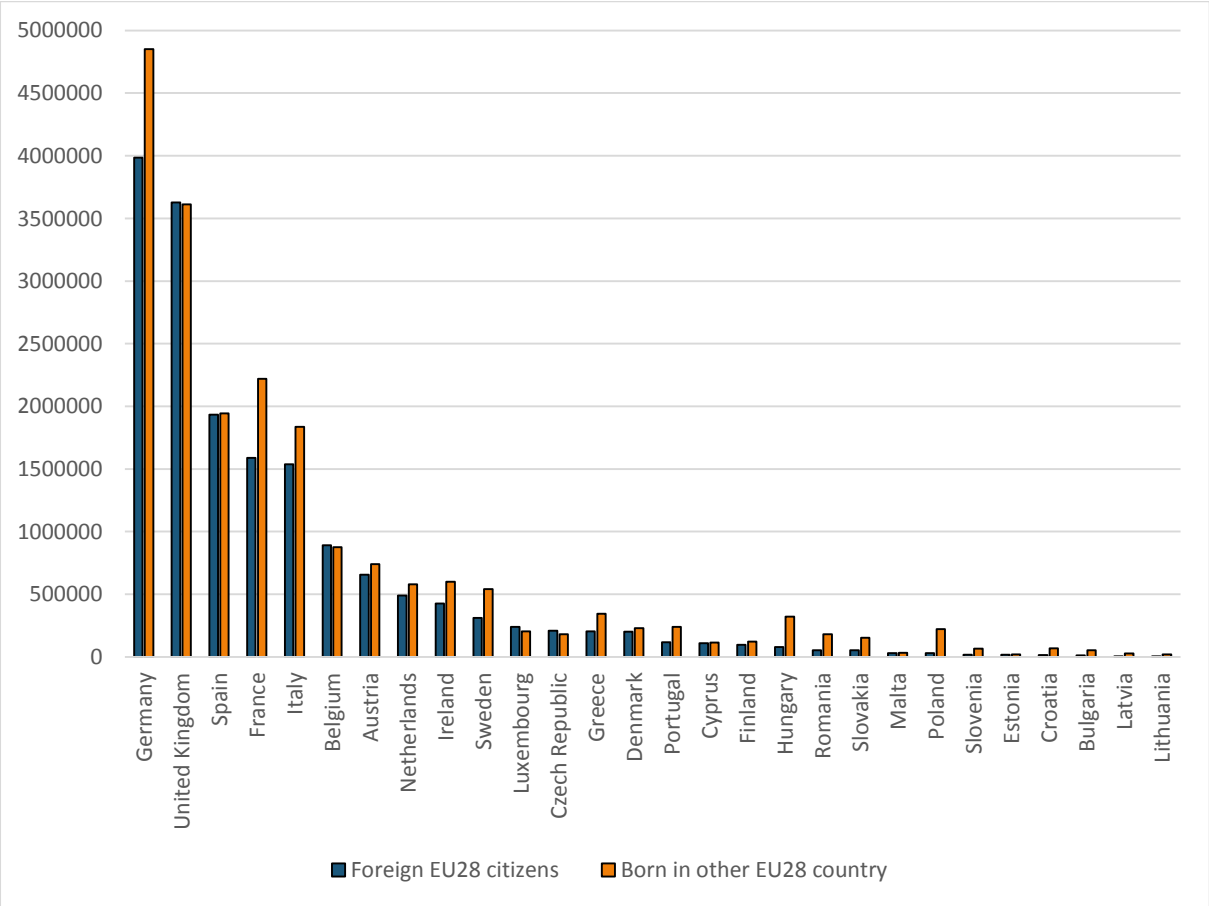
Overall, the data presented in this section, which provides the macro perspective on the migrant stocks in the EU28 countries, underlines the importance of looking at the different migrant definitions. In this case, it has been shown that the overall number of resident foreigners is greater when using the country of birth metric rather than considering citizenship, especially for those with third-country backgrounds according to citizenship

and/or country of birth. Furthermore, the trends in this section have shown that, generally, third country migrant stocks are larger than intra-EU migrant stocks. Nonetheless, the focus of this report is on the latter group. The following section takes a closer look at the EU28 immigrant stocks in the EU28 countries at the national level rather than the regional level.

6.2.2 Intra-EU Immigrant Stocks for Individual EU28 Countries

Reflecting what was observed at the aggregate EU28 level, the absolute number of immigrants from other EU28 countries is larger in most Member States when using the birth metric than when migrants are defined based on their citizenship (see Figure 4). There are four exceptions to this: Belgium, the Czech Republic, Luxembourg, and the UK. The latter is, however, the country hosting the second largest stock of intra-EU migrants using either definition.

Figure 4: Stocks of Intra-EU Migrants Across EU28 Countries, 2017



Data source: Eurostat_migr_pop1ctz and Eurostat_migr_pop3ctb.

Germany, whether by measure of citizenship or country of birth, hosts the largest stock of intra-EU migrants. Interestingly, when looking at, for example, Spain and France, the definition used impacts significantly upon their rank among the top-hosting Member States. When using the country of citizenship metric, Spain hosts the third largest stock of intra-EU migrants, and France the fourth largest. The order flips when using the country of birth indicator. There are several other examples of this portrayed in Figure 4, again highlighting the importance of being clear in intra-EU migration research about which definition is being applied.

Considering only the citizenship metric, the data shows that the large majority of the nearly 17 million EU28 nationals living in a Member State other than that of which they hold citizenship reside in Western European countries, namely Germany, the UK, Spain, France, and Italy. Given the size of these countries, both geographically and in terms of population, their status as the hosts of the largest stocks of intra-EU migrants is not surprising. The data further shows that these five countries are also the countries hosting the largest stocks of TCNs. In this case, Germany also hosts the largest stock, followed by Italy, France, Spain, and the UK.

The data furthermore shows that, in absolute terms, the main host countries of residents born in another EU28 country are essentially the same countries as is the case when using the citizenship metric: Germany, the UK, France, Spain, and Italy. While using the citizenship metric, Spain was host to the third and France to the fourth largest stock of intra-EU migrants; the order changes slightly, however, when using the country of birth definition. These five countries are also those that host the largest stocks of migrants born in third countries. In this case, Germany hosts the largest stock, followed by France, the UK, Italy, and Spain.

While absolute stocks are key to understanding intra-EU migration, it is also important to consider the size of migrant stocks relative to the total population of a country. As said above, the Member States hosting the largest stocks of migrants in absolute terms are also some of the largest EU countries. The story is, however, strikingly different when migration is measured in relative terms at the country level. Table 3 highlights the sharp contrast

between the top five hosts of foreign resident EU28 nationals by absolute versus relative measures. Luxembourg, Cyprus, Ireland, Belgium, and Austria host the most foreign resident EU nationals relative to total population, with Luxembourg as an outlier at 40.7%. As such, it is a vastly different group than the main countries identified as hosting migrants in absolute terms. The same is also the case when considering the relative share of TCNs among the total population in EU28 countries. Latvia (14.0%), Estonia (13.7%), Austria (7.7%), Luxembourg (6.9%), and Germany (6.3%) host the largest number of TCNs relative to the country's total population respectively.

Table 3 reiterates that the top five hosts in relative terms are different from those of the absolute measure, also using the country of birth definition. However, as is the case in absolute terms, the five top hosting countries (Luxembourg, Cyprus, Ireland, Austria, and Belgium) in relative terms are the same using both metrics. In this case, Austria and Belgium switch places as the country hosting the fourth and fifth largest relative shares of EU28-born immigrants among the total population. When considering the relative share of migrants born outside the EU among the total population, Estonia (13.1%), Sweden (12.4%), Latvia (11.5%), Croatia (11.3%), and Luxembourg (11.0%) are the main receiving countries.

Table 3: Top 5 Hosts of Intra-EU Migrant Stocks (absolute and relative values), 2017

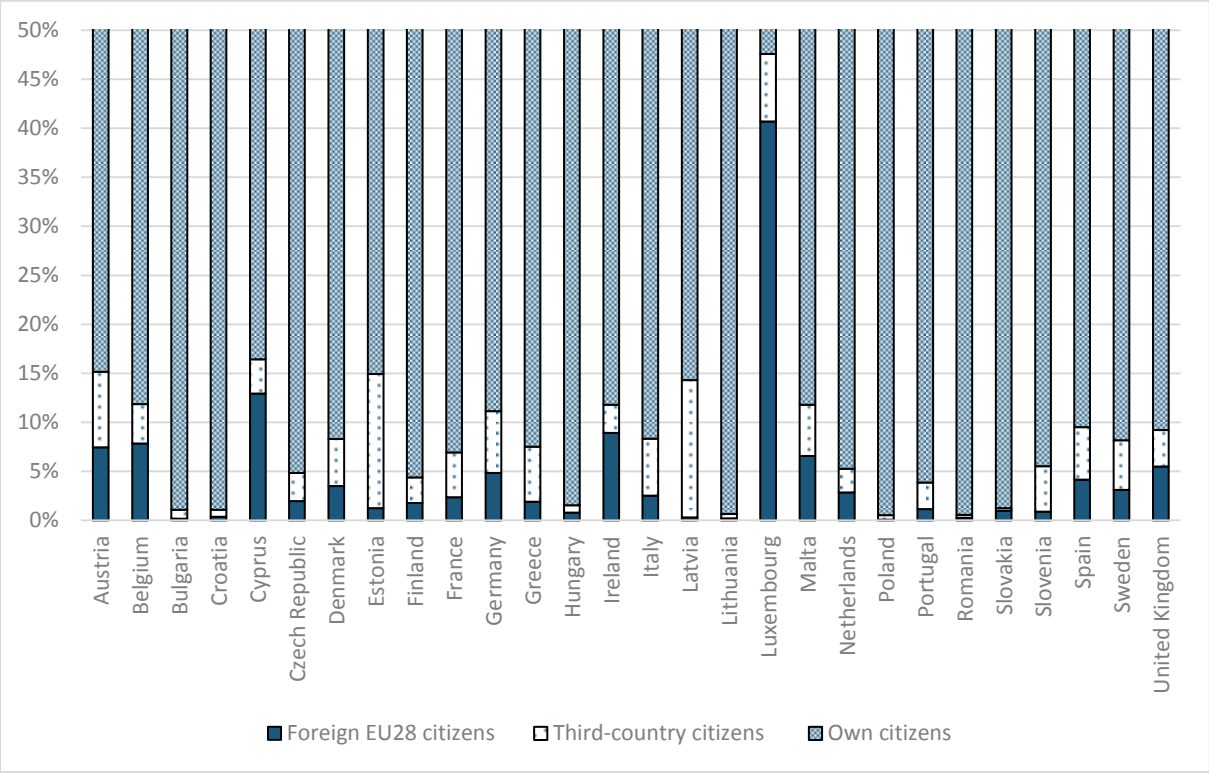
	Citizenship				Country of birth			
	Absolute stock		Relative to total population		Absolute stock		Relative to total population	
Rank								
1	Germany	3,985,165	Luxembourg	40.7%	Germany	4,849,902	Luxembourg	34.7%
2	UK	3,626,538	Cyprus	12.9%	UK	3,612,899	Cyprus	13.3%
3	Spain	1,932,817	Ireland	8.9%	France	2,220,667	Ireland	12.6%
4	France	1,587,672	Belgium	7.8%	Spain	1,943,453	Austria	8.4%
5	Italy	1,537,224	Austria	7.5%	Italy	1,837,630	Belgium	7.7%

Data source: Eurostat_migr_pop1ctz and Eurostat_migr_pop3ctb.

Looking further at the shares of migrants among the total population in the EU28 countries, Figure 5 illustrates the relative size of foreign resident EU28 nationals and TCNs respectively. In this view, the significance of Luxembourg is clearly visible. Close to 50% of its total population are foreign nationals, with 40.7% of EU28 citizens and a further 6.9% of third country citizens. No other country hosts a population of foreign nationals greater than 16.4% (Cyprus) of the country's total population.

Interestingly, Figure 5 not only shows this overall difference in the relative share of migrants among the total population, but also that the relative importance of the kinds of migrants defined by their citizenship varies between Member States as well. For example, the foreign citizens in Estonia and Latvia in 2017 were nearly all third-country nationals. Conversely, the foreign citizens in Belgium, Cyprus, and Ireland (all three of which were in the top 5 for the relative stock of foreign EU28 citizens) are relatively more often nationals of other EU28 Member States.

Figure 5: EU Citizen and TCN Stocks as a Share of the Total Population, 2017



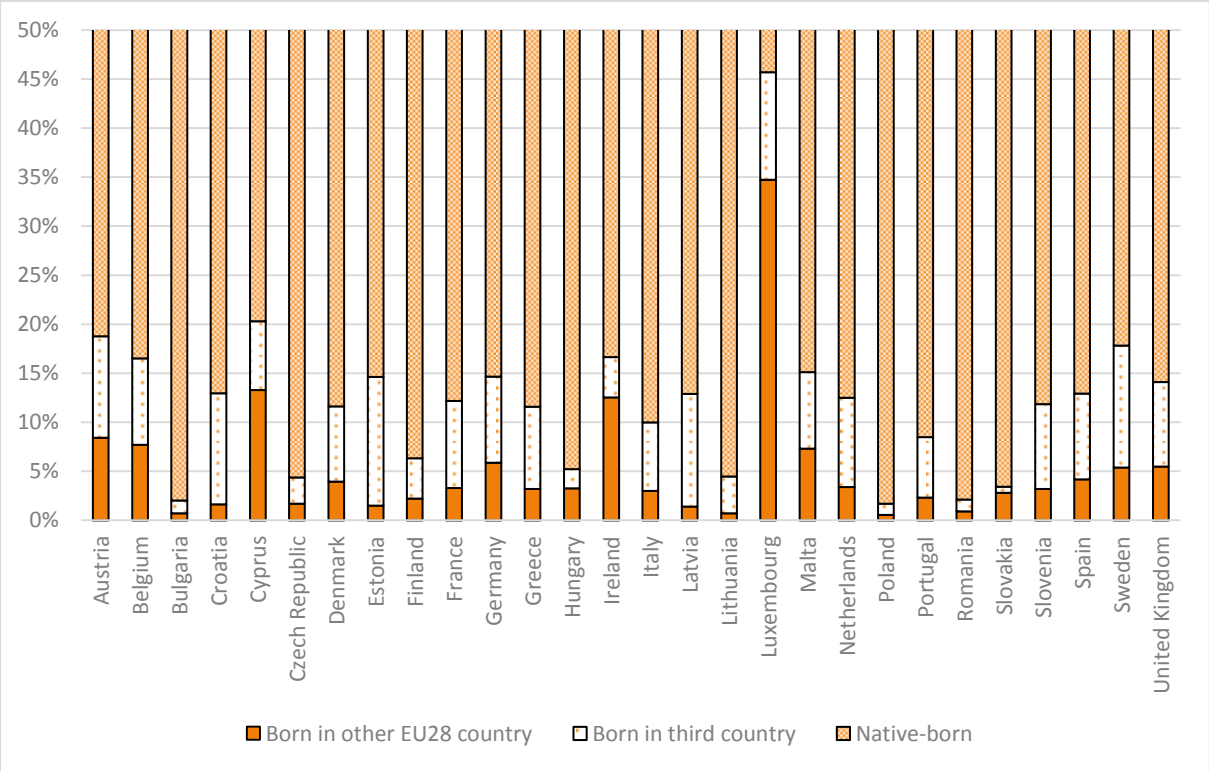
Data source: Eurostat_migr_pop1ctz.
Note: The presented data shows the composition of 50% of each countries' resident population respectively; the remaining 50% are own citizens in all countries.

Figure 6 provides an overview of the composition of the total population of the EU28 countries in terms of where they were born, distinguishing between those born in the country itself (also including unclear cases), those born in another EU28 country, and those born in a third country. As is the case using the citizenship metric, the relative significance of immigrants among the population of Luxembourg is clearly visible. Like above, close to 50%

of the population are immigrants, with the majority having been born in another EU28 country (34.7%) and an additional 11.0% born outside the EU28.

Also, similarly to the citizenship metric, using the country of birth metric shows that there are some countries in which a much larger relative share of migrants comes from a third country versus another EU28 country. This is particularly the case in the Baltic States Estonia, Latvia, and—though it overall has a smaller share of migrants among the population—Lithuania. Interestingly, using the citizenship metric showed that a significantly larger share of immigrants in Belgium were EU28 citizens than TCNs. Using the country of birth reveals an overall higher share of migrants among the total population and a much more equal distribution between those born within and outside of the EU. In the cases of Cyprus and Ireland, on the other hand, the situation is similar for both metrics and the larger share of immigrants in both cases was born within the EU28.

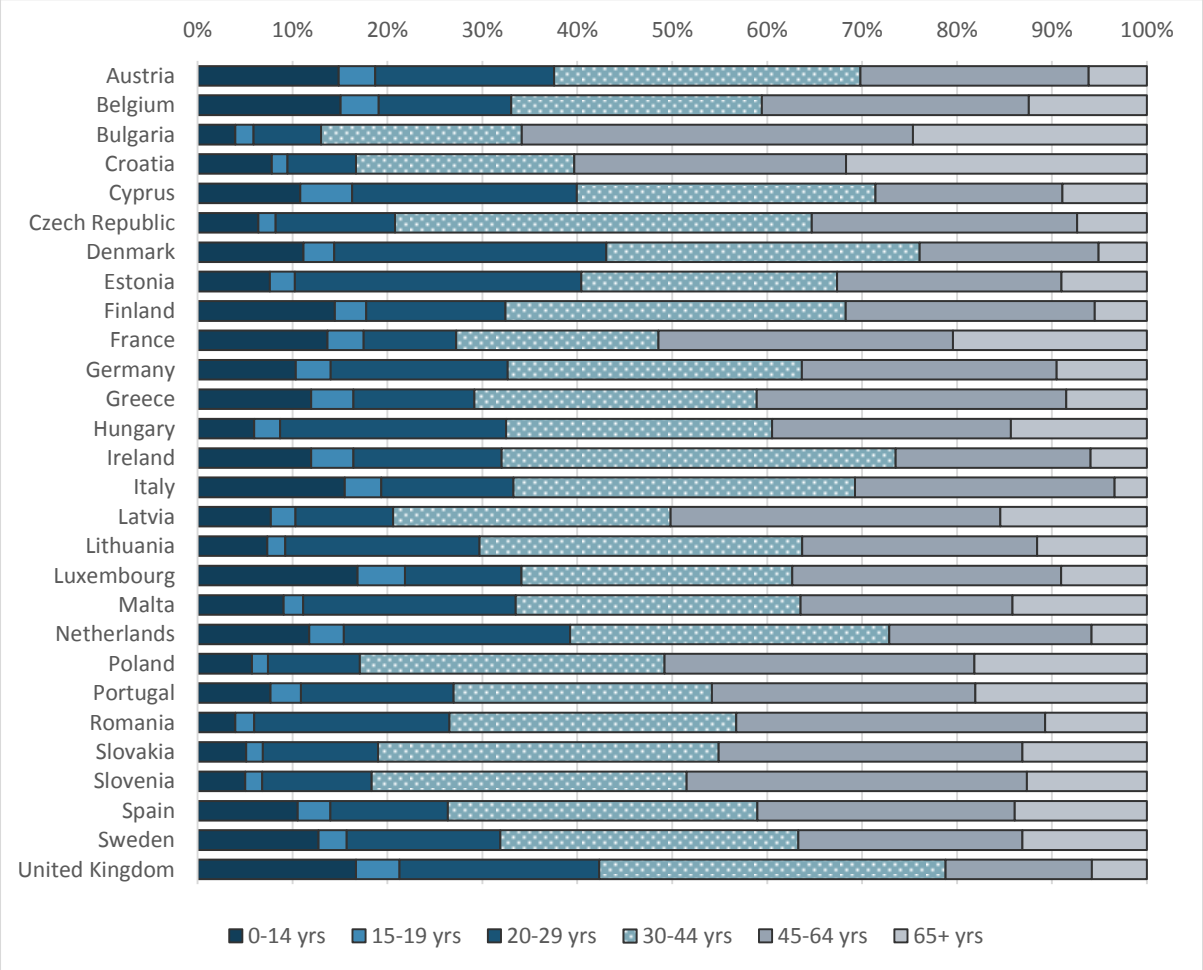
Figure 6: EU- and Non-EU-born Migrant Stocks as a Share of the Total Population, 2017



Data source: Eurostat_migr_pop3ctb.
Note: The presented data shows the composition of 50% of each countries' resident population respectively; the remaining 50% are individuals born in the country in all countries.

In terms of the sex breakdown of resident foreign EU28 nationals, the data shows that most countries have a relatively even split. Notable outliers include Greece, with almost 65% female resident foreign EU28 nationals, and Romania, with approximately a 75% share of males. Other Eastern European countries, including Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia, and Slovenia, have relatively high shares, more than 60%, of male foreign EU-28 nationals as well. Examining the sex breakdown of intra-EU migrants as defined by country of birth paints an even more balanced picture. Only Greece and Italy have female shares greater than 60%. The Czech Republic is the only reporting country with a share of females below 40%. In the case of the other countries, the composition of the migrant stocks born in another EU28 country is around 50% for both females and males, with slight differences between them.

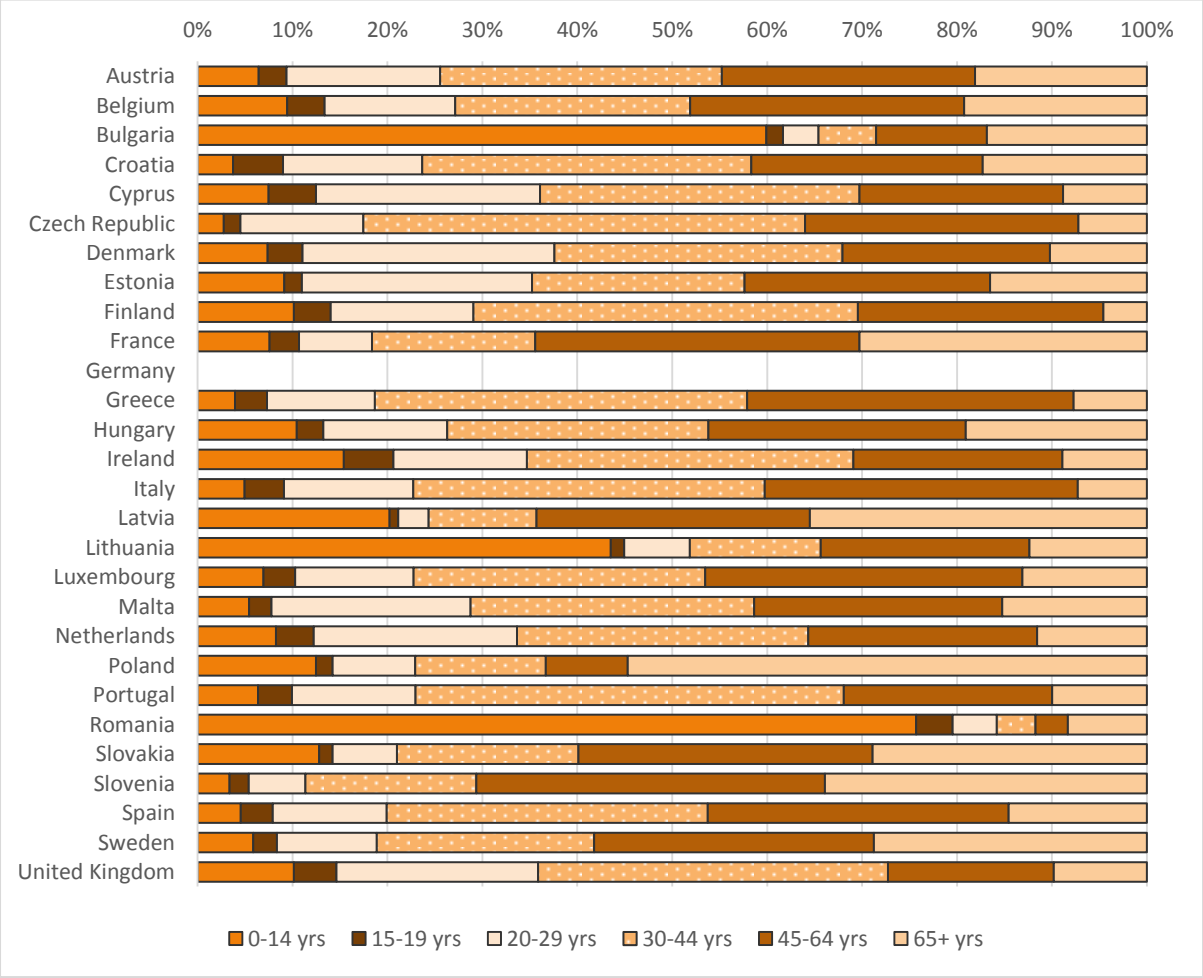
Figure 7: Age Breakdown of Resident Foreign EU28 Nationals by Reporting Country, 2017



Data source: Eurostat_migr_pop1ctz.

Figure 7 illustrates the age breakdown of foreign resident EU28 nationals by reporting country as of the start of 2017. This perspective on analysing intra-EU migration highlights a lack of standardization in terms of national-level population statistics reporting. The reported age cohorts range from 5 to 20+ years of coverage. This limits the depth of any possible analysis. Unsurprisingly, the vast majority of resident foreign EU28 nationals are of working age (between 20 and 64 years). What stands out here are the stories at the margins: more than 30% of Croatia's resident foreign EU28 nationals are 65 years or older, as are approximately 25% of those in Bulgaria, and more than 20% of those in France. At the other end of the age spectrum, more than 20% of Luxembourg's and the UK's populations of foreign resident EU28 nationals are under the age of 20.

Figure 8: Age Breakdown of Residents Born in Another EU28 Country by Reporting Country, 2017



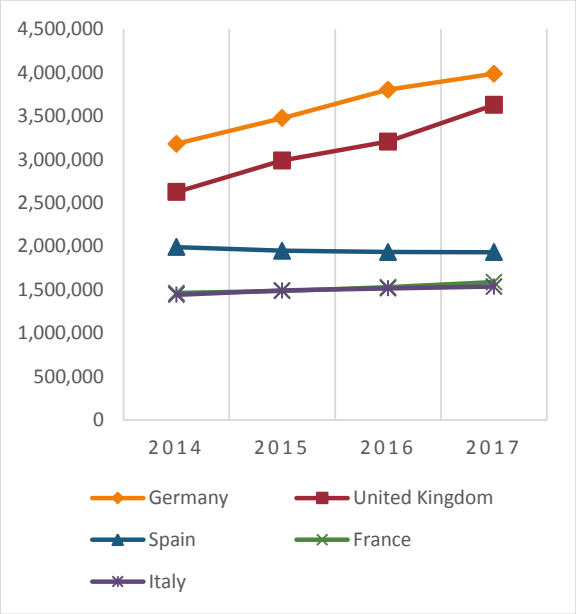
Data source: Eurostat_migr_pop3ctb.

In contrast to that of resident EU28 nationals, the age breakdown for residents born in another EU28 country offers further complexity, besides the lack of standardization of age cohorts described above, to what the available data tells about intra-EU migrants. As seen in Figure 8, this data is not available for Germany, meaning that there is a significant knowledge gap concerning what is, in absolute terms, the largest cohort of intra-EU migrants. In general, the working age cohort (20 to 64 years) is also, in relative terms, the largest in most EU28 countries when using the country of birth metric. However, Bulgaria, Lithuania, and Romania stand out as having significantly higher reported respective shares of the 0-14 age cohort. Conversely, France, Latvia, Slovakia, Slovenia, and Sweden all have significant respective shares of the 65+ age cohort, around 30% each. Poland stands alone at nearly 55% for the 65+ age cohort among those born in another EU28 country.

Going back to looking at the absolute number of intra-EU migrants (as defined by citizenship), Figure 9 shows the trends of the stock figures in the top five host countries for the years 2014 through 2017. The general trend is one of little change, except for Germany and the United Kingdom. The latter saw an increase of more than one million in its stock of foreign resident nationals during the period. Again, it is clear that most intra-EU migrants (as defined by citizenship) reside in western and northern European countries and that this has not changed in the last four years. Figure 10 confirms this at a relative level as well; western and northern European countries have had the highest shares of intra-EU migrants (as defined by citizenship) relative to the respective total population, though they are different ones than for the absolute values. Cyprus is the exception to this in the top five of this measure

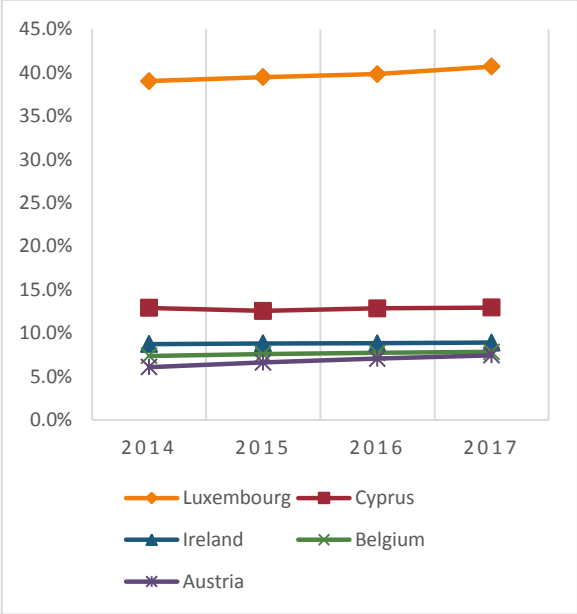
Figure 11 shows the development of the migrant stock in the top five hosting countries in absolute terms for the country of birth measure for 2014 through 2017. The illustrated trends are similar to when discussing the same using the citizenship metric. As was the case above, figures for Germany and the United Kingdom rose considerably during this period, the former increasing by more than one million in these four years and nearly reaching five million in 2017. The stocks in other countries in the top five, on the other hand, changed very little.

Figure 9: Top 5 Host Countries of Intra-EU Migrants (citizenship, absolute values), 2014-2017



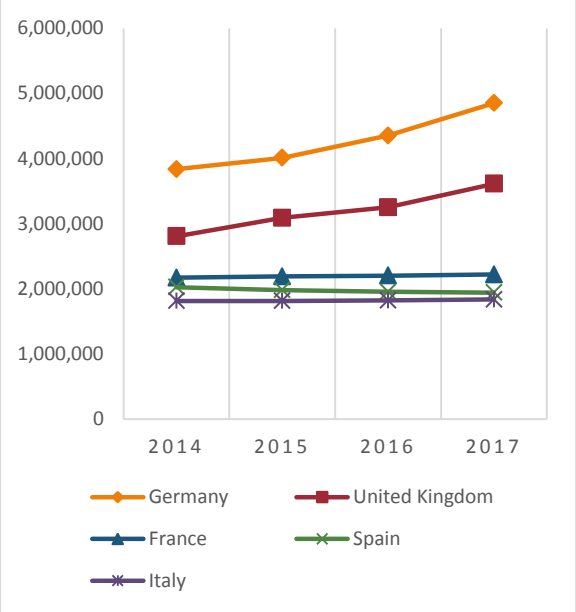
Data source: Eurostat_migr_pop1ctz.

Figure 10: Top 5 Host Countries of Intra-EU Migrants (citizenship, relative to total population), 2014-2017



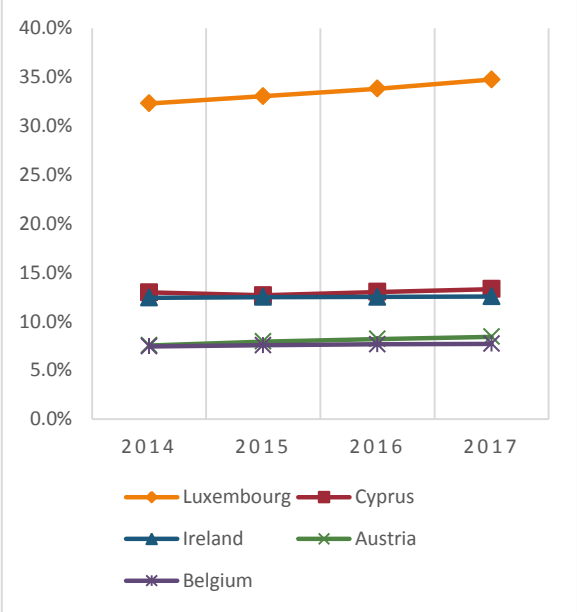
Data source: Eurostat_migr_pop1ctz.

Figure 11: Top 5 Host Countries of Intra-EU Migrants (country of birth, absolute values), 2014-2017



Data source: Eurostat_migr_pop3ctb.

Figure 12: Top 5 Host Countries of Intra-EU Migrants (country of birth, relative to total population), 2014-2017



Data source: Eurostat_migr_pop3ctb.

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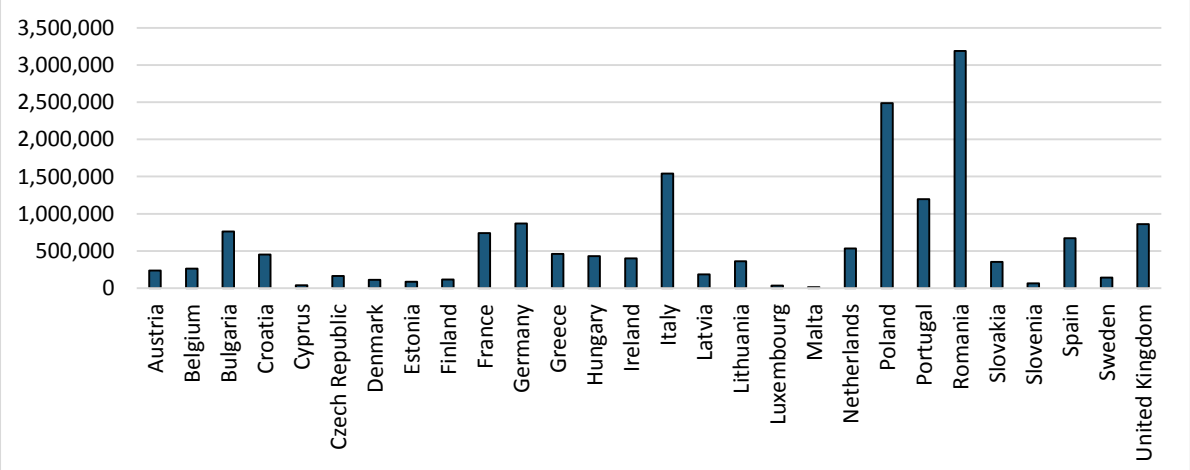
Looking at the relative numbers, Figure 12 also shows similar results to those seen when using the citizenship metric. Again, Luxembourg stands out as the country with the highest share of intra-EU migrants and is one of the few countries where significant growth during the period can be noticed. In addition, the relative shares grew by more than two percentage points in Ireland, while the other countries show relatively steady share levels from 2014 to 2017.

6.2.3 Intra-EU Emigrant Stocks for Individual EU28 Countries

While the previous two sections focused on immigration, this section now turns to look at intra-EU emigrant stocks. As discussed in the methodology section (*Section 2.3*), the data used in this section has been calculated by mirroring and summarizing the bilateral migration stock data used in the previous section. As in the previous sections, the stocks will be presented using the citizenship and country of birth metrics.

Considering the citizenship metric, Figure 13 reveals the countries with the largest stocks of nationals residing in another EU28 country. While Germany and the United Kingdom were the top host countries of intra-EU migrants, Romania and Poland take the top two spots for origin countries in the EU28. More than three million Romanian citizens and close to 2.5 million Polish nationals were intra-EU migrants according to the citizenship as of January 1, 2017. Further major countries of origin are Italy, Portugal, and Germany.

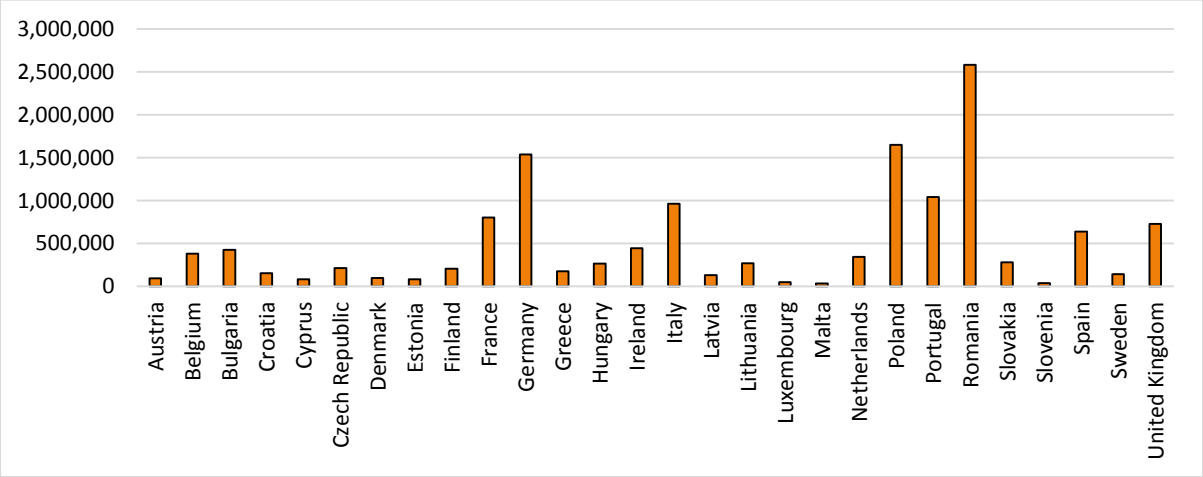
Figure 13: Stock of EU-Nationals Residing in Another EU28 Country, 2017



Data source: Eurostat_migr_pop1ctz.

Using the country of birth metric, Figure 14 shows the countries with the largest stocks of people born in that country and currently living in another EU28 country. As was the case using the citizenship metric, Romania and Poland are the two main countries of origin. However, the numbers are comparatively smaller, indicating that significant shares of the stocks by citizenship were in fact born abroad. While the data shows that there were more than 3 million Romanian and close to 2.5 million Polish citizens living in another EU28 country, the numbers are 2.5 million and 1.7 million respectively when using the country of birth metric. The same is true for Italy and Portugal, which are again among the top five. In the case of Germany, on the other hand, the emigrant stock is larger when using the country of birth metric (1.5 million) compared to the citizenship one (0.9 million).

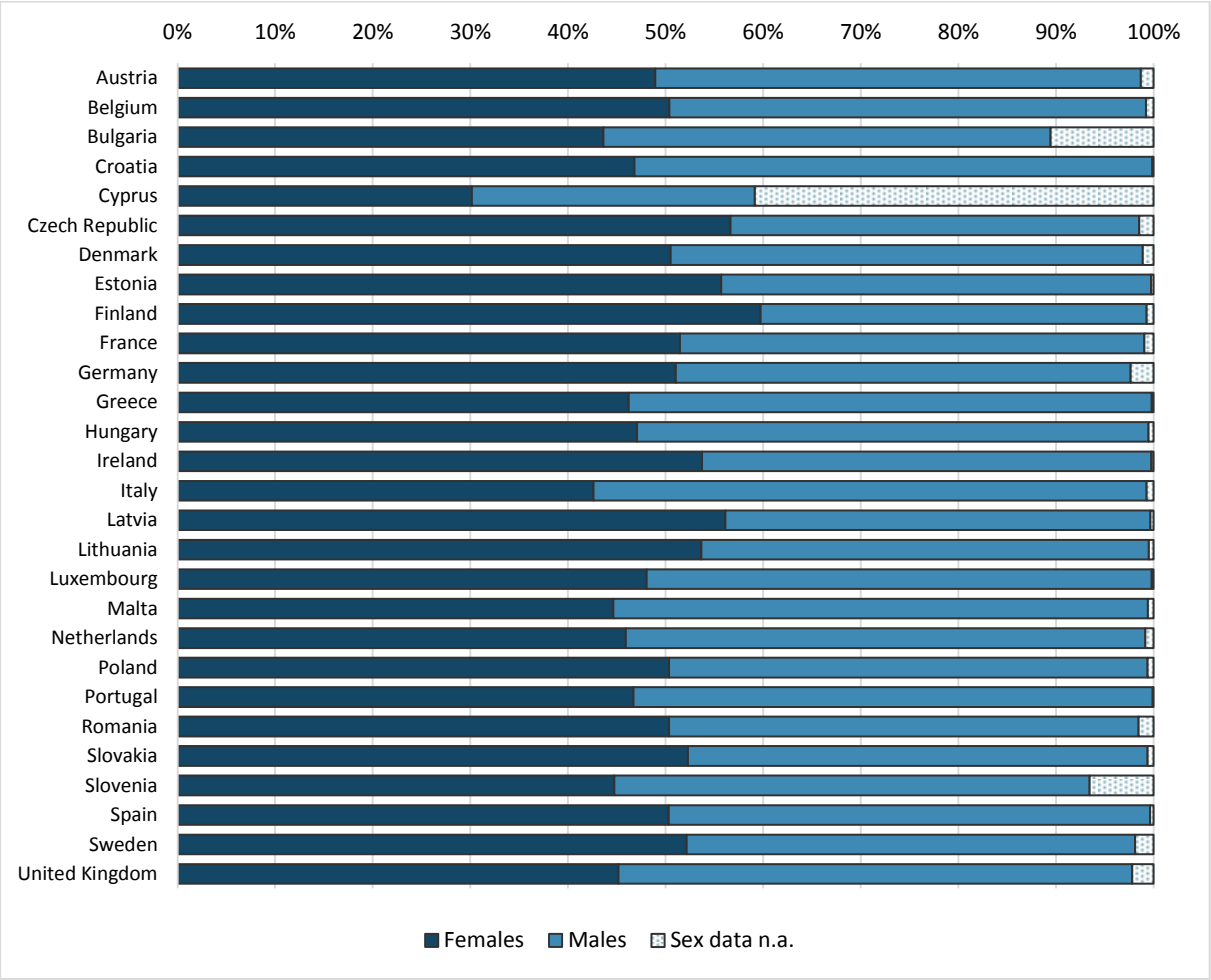
Figure 14: Stock of EU-Natives Residing in Another EU28 Country, 2017



Data source: Eurostat_migr_pop3ctb.

Turning to the composition in terms of sex of intra-EU emigrant stocks, Figure 15 shows that there is some missing data. This is despite the fact that data on sex of migrants is also collected and shared on a voluntary basis. Yet, the gap in the data is a significant issue only in the case of Cyprus and, to a lesser extent, Slovenia and Bulgaria. In the other countries, the data largely mirrors what was observed in terms of immigrants. For most countries the stock of intra-EU emigrants is split relatively equally between females and males.

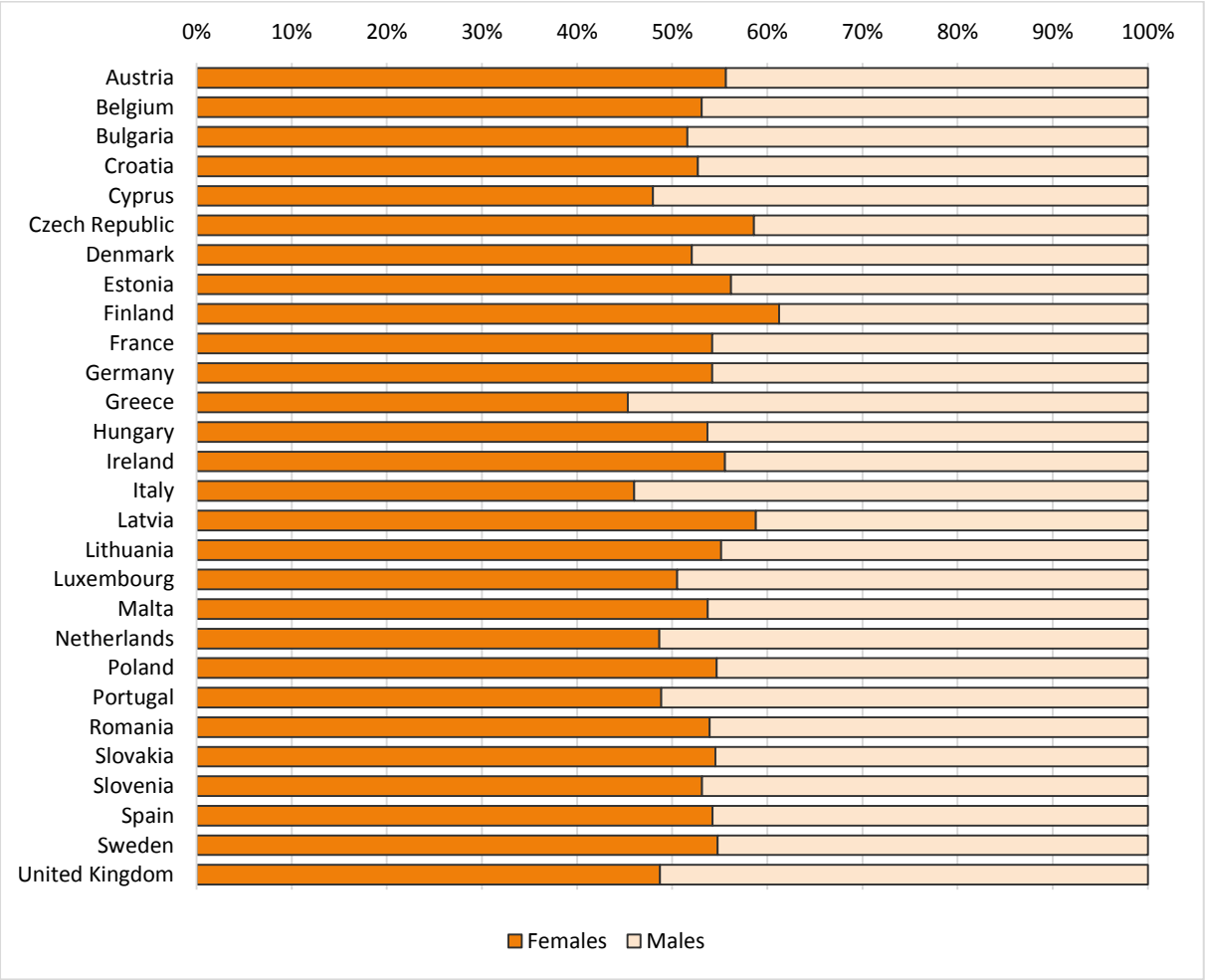
Figure 15: Sex Breakdown of EU28 Emigrant Stocks (citizenship), 2017



Data source: Eurostat_migr_pop1ctz.

Interestingly, the data regarding the composition of intra-EU emigrant stocks in terms of sex is less problematic when using the country of birth metric than when considering the citizenship one. The data is complete for the emigrant stock of each of the EU28 countries, as can be seen in Figure 16. The data largely mirrors what was observed in terms of the sex composition of intra-EU immigrant stocks. For most countries, the stock of intra-EU emigrants is split relatively equal between females and males, varying around 5 percentage points on either side of the 50% mark.

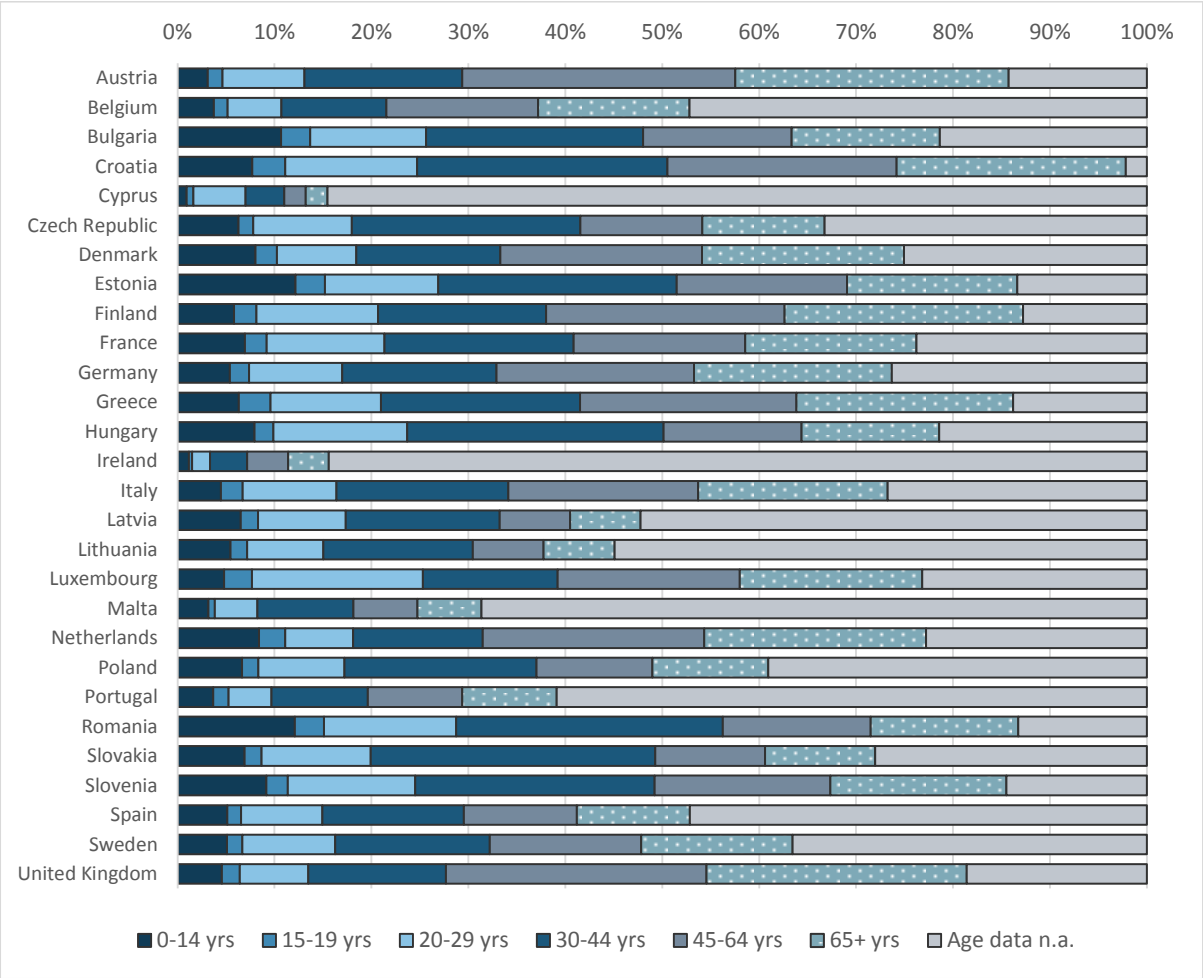
Figure 16: Sex Breakdown of EU28 Emigrant Stocks (country of birth), 2017



Data source: Eurostat_migr_pop3ctb.

Figure 17 illustrates the age breakdown of intra-EU emigrants for the EU28 countries at the start of 2017. What is most striking here is the lack of data. Collecting and sharing statistics on age with Eurostat is not mandatory, which significantly impacts the quality of the available data. The gaps in the data for many countries severely hampers comparability between the EU28. The data is especially limited in the case of Cyprus, Ireland, and Malta. Looking at what data is available, however, does confirm what was observed in Section 6.2.2 regarding the importance of the working age population among intra-EU migrants. For all countries, those aged between 20 and 64 years make up the majority of individuals who migrated to another EU28 country, when considering the citizenship metric.

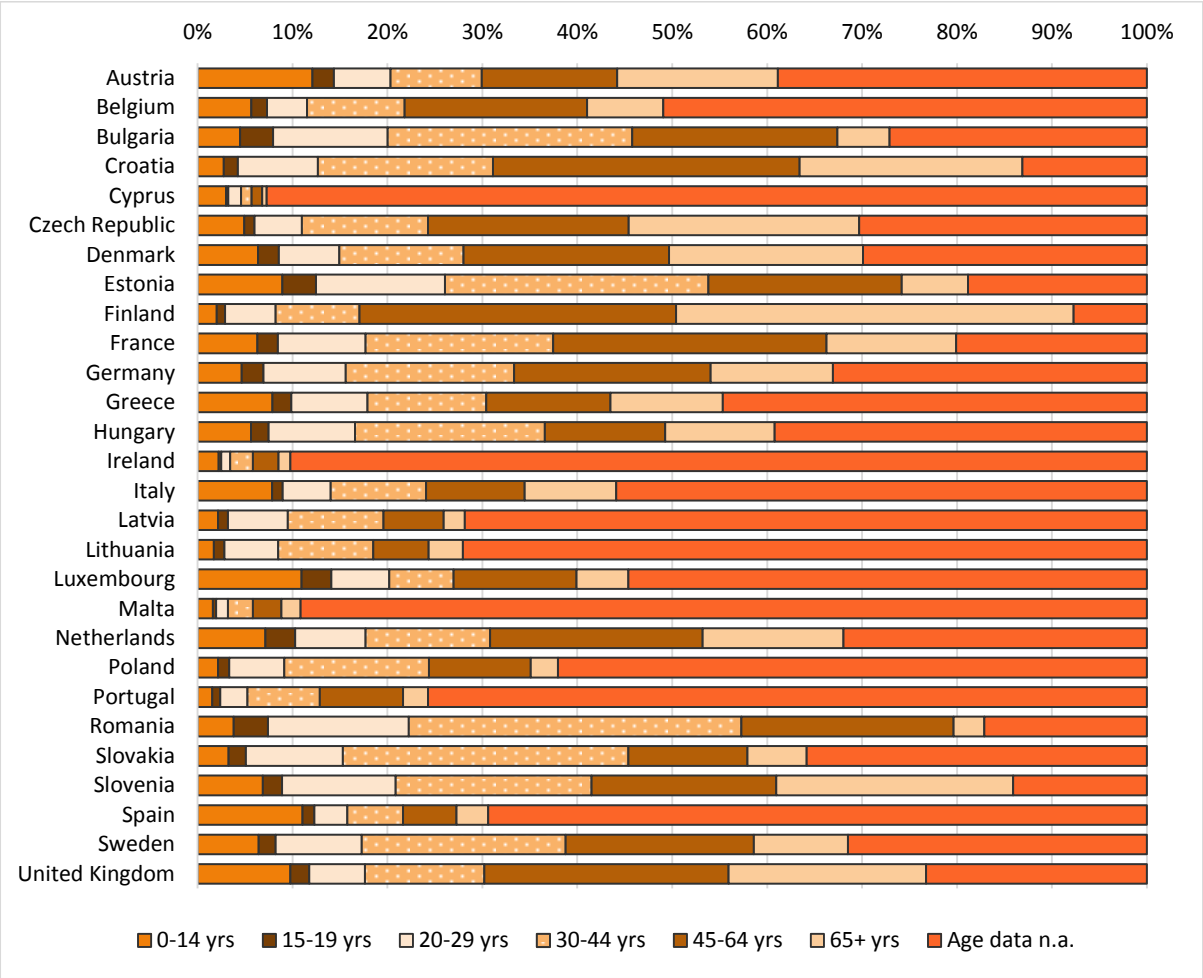
Figure 17: Age Breakdown of EU28 Emigrant Stocks (citizenship), 2017



Data source: Eurostat_migr_pop1ctz.

Figure 18 shows the age breakdown of intra-EU emigrants for the EU28 countries, using the country of birth metric. As was the case for the citizenship metric, missing data is a significant issue for this specific statistic. In fact, there are a number of countries, such as Latvia, Spain, or Belgium, for which the age data is even more limited when using the country of birth definition for intra-EU migrants. When considering the data that is available, the trend seems consistent with what was described above in terms of the working age (20 to 64 years) population being the main group of intra-EU migrants.

Figure 18: Age Breakdown of EU28 Emigrant Stocks (country of birth), 2017

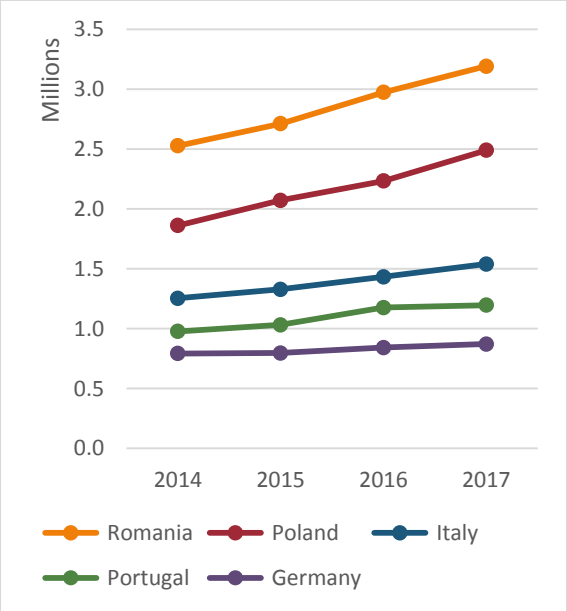


Data source: Eurostat_migr_pop3ctb.

Recalling that total immigration in the EU28 was gradually rising between 2014 and 2017, it is also important to look at trends in emigration for the same period. As described above, most of the increase in intra-EU migration was absorbed by Germany and the United Kingdom. On the other end, Figure 19 shows that the countries that drove this overall rise in numbers are more varied. Based on the citizenship metric, the data shows that there are several countries from which emigration increased quite significantly over the four-year period. While it may be expected that Romania and Poland were the main drivers, countries like Italy, Portugal, and Germany also experienced significant increases in numbers of intra-EU emigrants during this time. It is also interesting to consider the stock of intra-EU emigrants relative to the total population of the country of origin. Figure 20 highlights a significant increase in the relative number of citizens living abroad in the five countries where the share has been the highest over the past four years. In the case of Romania, this

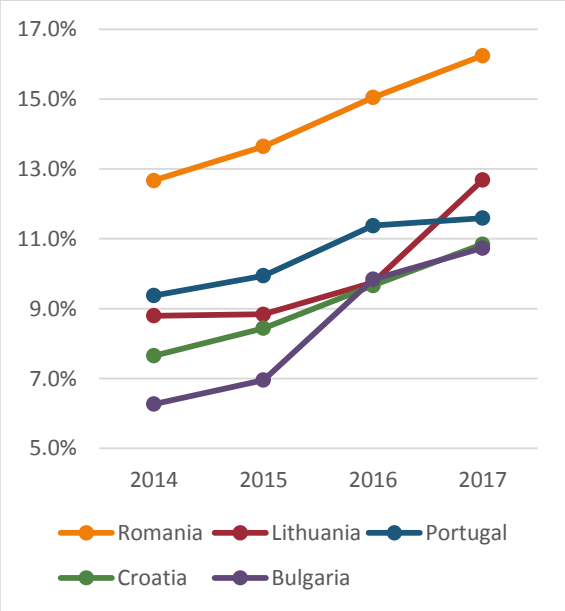
share increased from around 13% in 2014 to 16.2% in 2017. While the shares are lower in Lithuania, Portugal, Croatia, and Bulgaria, they have also increased, by between 2.2% and 3.9%.

Figure 19: Top 5 Origin Countries of Intra-EU Migrants (citizenship, absolute values), 2014-2017



Data source: Eurostat_migr_pop1ctz.

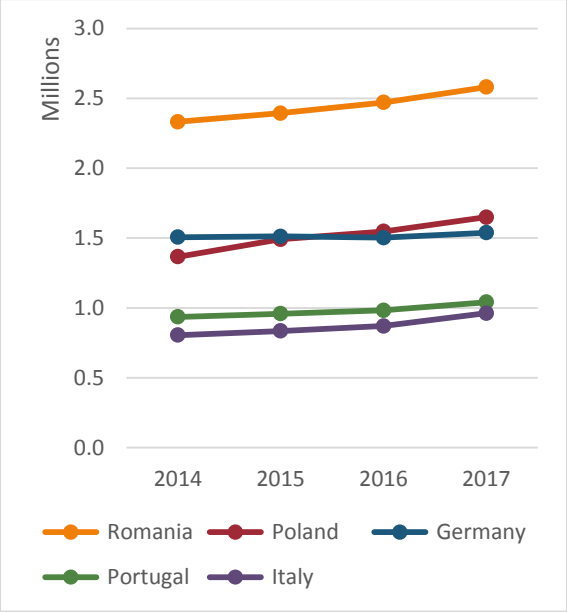
Figure 20: Top 5 Origin Countries of Intra-EU Migrants (citizenship, relative to total population), 2014-2017



Data source: Eurostat_migr_pop1ctz.

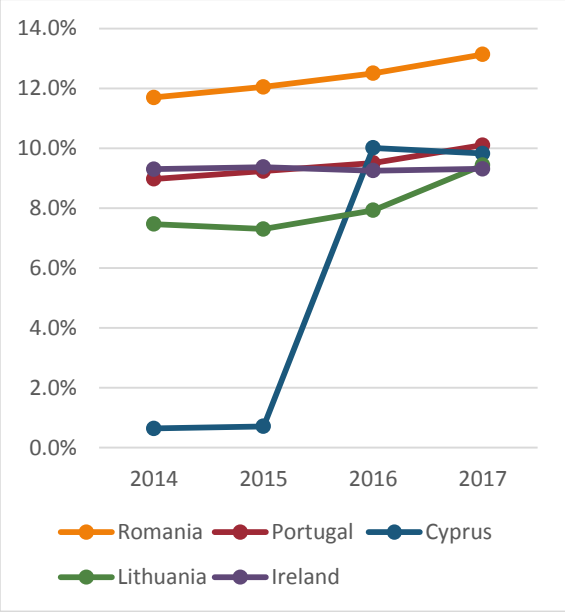
The data further shows that emigration countries are a lot more diverse than immigration countries during the 2014-2017 period also when considering the country of birth. As Figure 21 shows, Romania and Poland are still showing steady increases of emigrant stocks, but there are other countries for which these increases were similarly or even more significant throughout the four-year period. Also notable is the fact that, while Germany was one of the countries absorbing a majority of intra-EU migrant stocks, there was also a significant increase in intra-EU emigrant stocks of people born in Germany. Figure 22 presents the number of intra-EU emigrants, by country of birth, relative to the total population.

Figure 21: Top 5 Origin Countries of Intra-EU Migrants (country of birth, absolute values), 2014-2017



Data source: Eurostat_migr_pop3ctb.

Figure 22: Top 5 Origin Countries of Intra-EU Migrants (country of birth, relative to total population), 2014-2017



Data source: Eurostat_migr_pop3ctb.

6.2.4 Bilateral Stocks of Intra-EU Migrants

This final section on intra-EU migrant stocks looks at some of the bilateral stocks that were identified throughout the research process as most significant. The following paragraphs will discuss these in turn and highlight why they are specifically interesting. The data, which is available as part of Annex A, contains a variety of other interesting trends. The trends discussed here serve to highlight the complexities of intra-EU migration, and leave room for further investigation of other bilateral stocks.

This is also a timely point in this report to once again highlight the differences between using the country of citizenship or birth definitions to analyse intra-EU migration. The challenges involved in using both metrics become especially obvious in cases where data is missing for specific countries and/or corridors. As was already seen in the previous section, the data on the sex of resident foreign EU28 nationals is more complete than that of resident foreign EU28 natives. Furthermore, stock data on the age of intra-EU migrants is even less complete, especially for residents born in other EU28 countries. Germany's not reporting country of birth data for residents also provides some additional challenges when

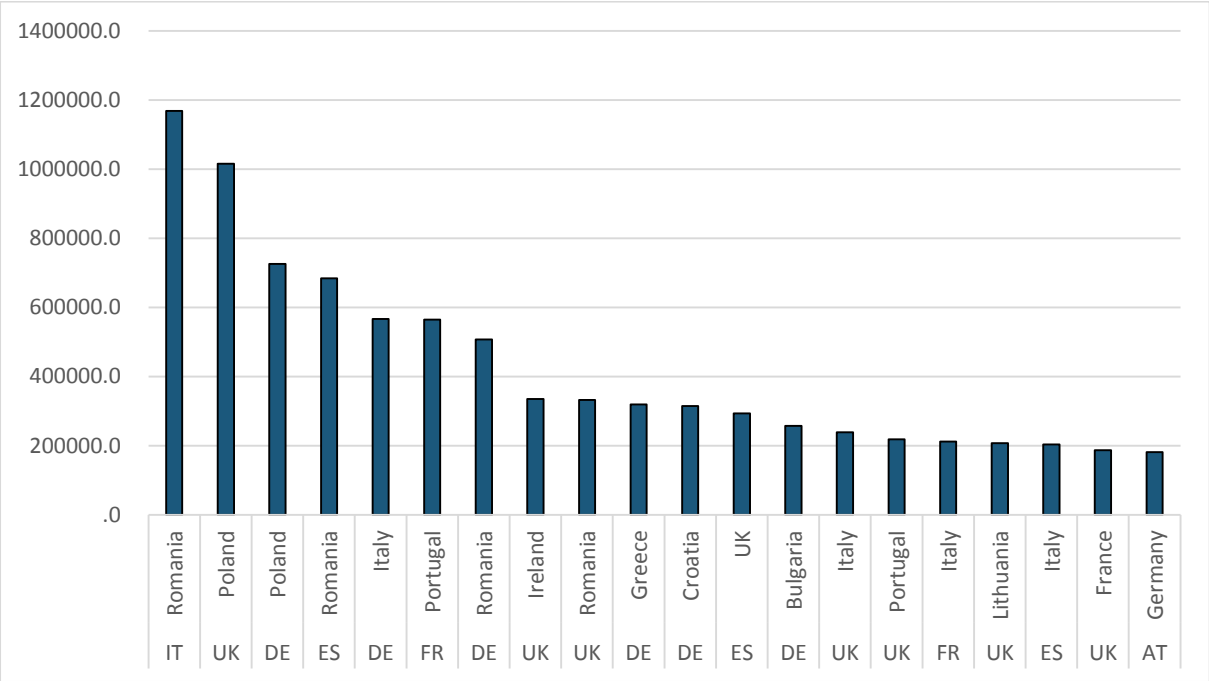
analysing the corridors due to its importance as a host country of migrants born in other EU28 countries. In the case of the top 20 corridors, it was possible to compliment the Eurostat data with UNDESA bilateral migrant stock data; however, information on age and sex of the important stock corridors between Germany and Poland, Romania, the Czech Republic, Italy, Austria, Greece, and Croatia is still not available.

As was shown in the previous section, the largest stock of migrants from one country in other EU28 countries is from Romania, using both citizenship and country of birth metrics. When further investigating intra-EU migration by Romanians, the data on the stock corridors reveals a high number of Romanian nationals in four particular countries. Italy, Spain, Germany, and the UK account for nearly 85% of Romania's EU28 emigrant stock using the citizenship metric. In the case of Poland, the second most prevalent origin country of intra-EU migrants, the bilateral stocks by citizenship also reveal an interesting trend. In this case, the UK and Germany alone host close to 70 % of the country's EU28 emigrant stock.

Figure 23 provides a visual representation of the top 20 bilateral EU28 migrant stocks, defined by citizenship. The figure shows that Germany and the UK are not only the top hosts of foreign resident EU28 nationals, but also account for 13 of the top 20 stock corridors. Also notable is that most of the corridors originate in Mediterranean or Eastern European countries. Furthermore, the data shows that there is more heterogeneity in the countries of citizenship than in the host countries amongst the top 20 nationality corridor stocks; in other words, intra-EU migrants in these corridors come from many countries but only go to a few.

Analysing the bilateral stock corridors using the country of birth definition paints a similar story to that of the citizenship metric. As seen in Figure 24, Germany or the UK is the host country in 11 of the top 20 corridors, and individuals born in Poland or Romania represent a high percentage of migrants in the top 20 stock corridors. Using this metric, however, other countries also appear as origins in some of these important corridors. For example, people born in the Czech Republic and living in Germany comprise the seventh, and Irish-born individuals in the UK the ninth, biggest bilateral intra-EU migrant stocks. Both corridors did not appear among the top 20 when the citizenship metric was used.

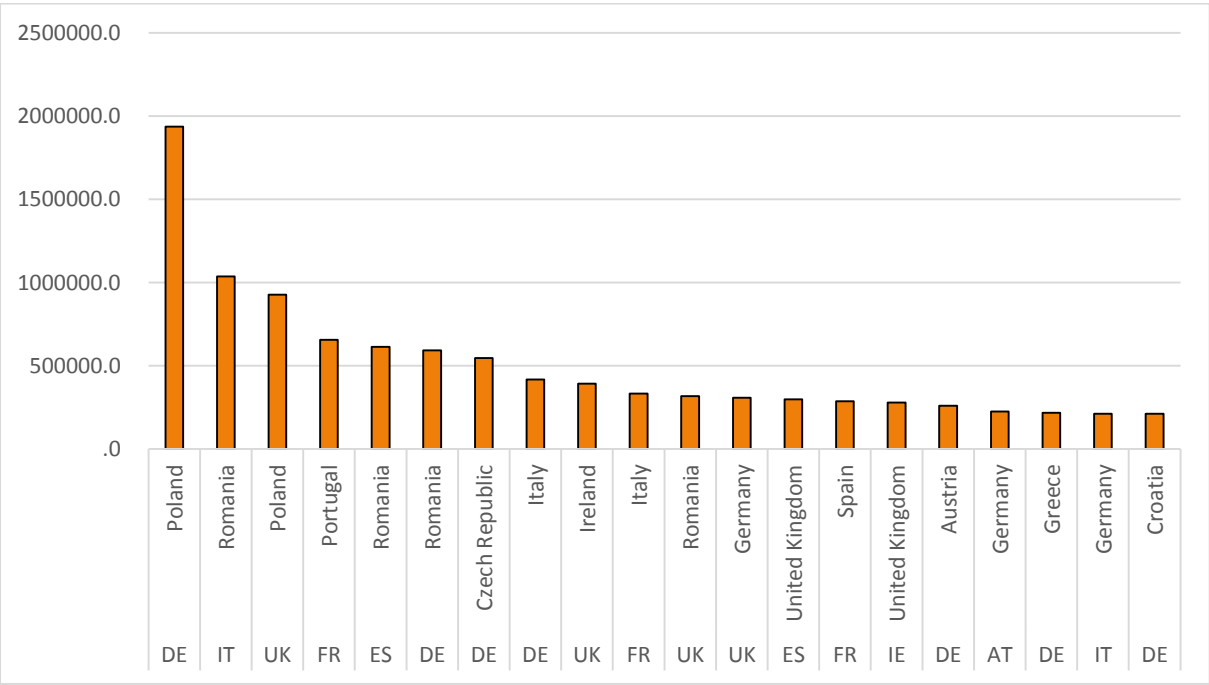
Figure 23: Top 20 Intra-EU Migrant Stock Corridors (citizenship), 2017



Data source: Eurostat_migr_pop1ctz.

Note: The abbreviations at the bottom indicate the country of citizenship while the full names indicate the respective residence country.

Figure 24: Top 20 Intra-EU Migrant Stock Corridors (country of birth), 2017



Data source: Eurostat_migr_pop3ctb and UNDESA_stocks.

Note: The abbreviations at the bottom indicate the country of birth while the full names indicate the respective residence country.

In terms of the composition of the top 20 bilateral intra-EU stock corridors, the data reveals some interesting differences. In terms of sex, for example, the stocks of Romanian citizens in main destination countries show different characteristics. The majority of Romanian nationals living in Italy are female (57.4%), while the opposite is the case in Germany, where 56.1% of resident Romanian nationals are male. In the case of the stocks in the UK and Spain, the sex composition is more balanced at around 50%. In the case of Italian nationals, on the other hand, males dominate the migrant stocks in Germany (57.9%), the UK (55.3%), and Spain (56.9%), all of which are among the top 20 stock corridors identified using the citizenship metric. Using the country of birth definition, intra-EU migrants from Romania in Italy are also more often female (59.7%) than male. In contrast, there is no corridor, when considering country of birth, that is dominated by males. Only in the case of Portuguese in France (50.6%) and Romanians in the UK (52.1%) are there more males than females in the respective stock corridors.

While the data on the age composition of the top 20 bilateral EU28 migrant stocks is unfortunately not as complete as that on sex, the available data still shows some interesting trends. Perhaps most significant is the age composition of the migrant stock of UK nationals in Spain, of which about 40% are 65 or older. In the other corridors for which data is available, the dominance of the working group age, which was also described in previous sections, is visible again. However, there is still some variance in this. For example, 82.2% of Polish citizens but only 71.1% of Greek citizens residing in Germany are between 20 and 64. On the other hand, there are relatively few older Polish citizens (3.0%) in contrast to Greek ones (15.8%). Looking lastly at children among the migrant stocks, the case of the main stocks in Spain is an interesting example. The share of children among foreign EU28 citizens varies between 7.4% in the case of those from the UK and 11.9% among those from Italy, to 19.9% in the case of Romanian citizens.

The gaps in the data on age composition severely limit the opportunities to analyse this data when considering the country of birth. Like Germany, France, Ireland, and the UK do not report this data. However, the data that is available shows similar trends, confirming that the oldest age group is represented by the UK-born residents in Spain, and that working age individuals dominate the most important intra-EU migrant stock corridors.

Looking at the data for the period between 2014 and 2016, the data shows that the top corridors have remained stable during this time. The corridor of Romanian citizens in Italy has been the largest throughout this time, and steadily increased throughout the three years. The same is true for the second-largest corridor, Polish nationals in the UK. Both of these are the same when using the country of birth metric. Differences between the metrics appear in the further top corridors. Romanian nationals in Spain and Polish in Germany varied between third and fourth largest between 2015 and 2016. While the number of Romanians in Spain decreased over the three years, the stock of Polish nationals in Germany increased, growing to be the third largest stock of intra-EU migrants in 2016. At the same time, the number of individuals born in Portugal and residing in France increased to be the third single-largest stock from 2015 and 2016, while Portuguese citizens in France only made up the sixth largest stock when using the citizenship metric.

7. Migration Flows within the European Union

7.1 Available Statistics and Remaining Challenges

Data on intra-European migration flows is, in theory, easily available through administrative records of migrants' (de-)registrations (or other form of documentation) when they change their residency. Eurostat publishes this data (as forwarded by NSIs) in a comprehensive database with fairly well comparable numbers.[56] However, the accuracy of these figures can be challenged for both EU citizens and third-country nationals.

Concerning EU nationals, the problem is that a number of intra-EU movements of EU citizens are undetected by administrative records. Registrations and de-registrations are often voluntary in nature, and EU citizens do not require permits to reside in another Member State. Some Member States – e.g. the UK and France – do not keep population registries to begin with. Emigrations in particular tend to be underreported because there are neither strict regulations nor benefits encouraging emigrants to de-register – as opposed to registering in a new country, which can be a prerequisite for opening a bank account, renting a house, or other basic aspects of settling in that country (Interview 3).[57] This weakness of emigration statistics can somewhat be solved using mirror statistics, the quality of which depends then on the receiving countries. Differences in how the two types of flows are defined can further weaken the coherence of immigration and emigration flow data within and across Member States (Interview 1); this explains some of the availability gaps and highlights potential comparability problems when simple mirroring-based techniques are used to fill those gaps. For example, some countries may use the standard

[56] In Eurostat data, the definition of immigration is consistently based on change of usual residence for at least 12 months (although minor differences continue to exist in whether this refers to the actual or the intended stay). A persisting source of heterogeneity regards the inclusion of asylum-seekers in migrant flow statistics (12 of the EU-28 countries include them, 16 do not) [Eurostat, "International Migration Statistics Reference Metadata in Euro SDMX Metadata Structure (ESMS)"]. Most countries base their data on registers and/or other administrative sources (e.g. censuses, residence permits), while a handful of countries rely on survey-based methods (often combined with census data) [ibid.]. Overall, the comparability of European data is still imperfect; however, the fact that these remaining differences and gaps are now fairly well documented can enable researchers to deal with them. For more details on Eurostat's database, see the previous section (III).

[57] OECD, "Statistical Annex".

12-month stay requirement for someone to be defined an immigrant in the new country, but simply measure emigration based on counts of de-registrations.[58]

In the case of third-country nationals (TCNs), entry into the EU – through regular channels – is well-documented through residence permits (in addition to registers). The problem is differentiating between these *external* movements into the EU and subsequent *internal* movements that happen across Member States. The most efficient way to capture intra-EU migrations of TCNs would be through their country of previous residence, which is in fact recorded – for most countries – in Eurostat flow data (discussed further below). When this information is lacking, however, there is a risk of incorrectly assuming that the country of birth or citizenship is the starting point of the studied migration flow for TCNs. This can lead to an underestimation of TNC migration within the borders of the EU.[59]

Reversed, this challenge in monitoring intra-EU flows also applies to EU nationals: being an EU citizen (or being born in a Member State) does not necessarily mean that the starting point of a person's most recent move to the Member State was from within the EU. By categorising all arrivals of EU nationals to a Member State as intra-European flows, we run the risk of overestimating the number of EU-origin internal movers. Still, when information on the previous country of residence is missing, our best guess is that the migrant is moving from their country of citizenship (or birth).

Keeping the above limitations in mind, the total numbers of inflows and outflows are thoroughly reported on the Eurostat database dating back to 2008, with only a few exceptions (e.g. data for one or a few years missing for specific countries). Besides total numbers, flows reported by Eurostat generally include the option to disaggregate by single country of birth, citizenship, and country of previous/next residence of immigrants and emigrants. However, as mentioned in *Section 3*, while aggregated figures are mandatory and therefore widely available (starting 2013),[60] single-country breakdowns (for all three

[58] As a side note, the (Eurostat) standard 12-month criterion is the reason why immigration flow statistics are published with a one-year "delay" compared to stocks (resulting, e.g., in 2016 flow data being available in 2018 (Interview 1)).

[59] For this reason, flow data based on issued residence permits – despite it including valuable information on reason for migration and length of validity – is of limited use when focusing on intra-EU movements.

[60] For reference years prior to 2013, it is difficult to aggregate values even manually because of missing country-level data for multiple countries.

definitions) are voluntary, and therefore not generally available. That said, the single country of citizenship breakdown is usually obtainable, as is the breakdown by country of birth. The most sparsely available definition seems to be that of previous residence: single-country breakdown is missing for nearly half of the 28 Member States. [61] Conversations with experts have highlighted that this is likely due to the fact that several countries do not collect residence-based information (Interview 4).

As touched upon earlier, the lack of residence-based migration data is a severe limitation in tracking secondary movements within Europe. Furthermore, even in cases where the country of previous residence is available, it is not possible to further disaggregate this data by citizenship or country of birth, which prevents us from observing the composition of the migration corridors highlighted (e.g. share of third-country nationals vs. EU citizens). It should be acknowledged that, for most people, country of birth, citizenship, and/or country of previous residence are likely to coincide (Interview 2). Yet, until these options to disaggregate are available, it is difficult to make reliable assumptions about the relative relevance (or lack thereof) of subgroups of migrants based on the three definitions. A double disaggregation by nationality and country of birth simultaneously is available – but only for some countries, as it is also a voluntary indicator – if one of the two is categorised in a 'broad group' (such as 'EU28 countries except reporting countries'). As explained before, including at least this kind of option for disaggregation of flows between nationality and country of previous residence would be extremely useful in the future.

For some of the reference years/countries for which the above Eurostat data is missing, the OECD's database on international migration contains complimentary data. While it does not include data for all Member States, partly due the fact that it operates with different definitions,[62] it is able to provide single-country (citizenship or country of birth) disaggregation data for some of key reference countries missing from the Eurostat database, such as Germany. It is therefore a useful source to fill in key knowledge gaps. However, users should be aware of potential comparability issues (OECD's detailed

[61] As of 2018, breakdowns by single country of citizenship or country of birth are missing for 8 Member States: Germany, Ireland, Greece, Cyprus, Latvia, Malta, Poland, and Portugal; breakdown by single country of previous residence is missing for Czech Republic, Germany, Greece, Ireland, France, Cyprus, Latvia, Luxembourg, Hungary, Malta, Poland, Portugal, and Romania.

[62] i.e., not adhering to the 12-month stay criterion to define migrants.

metadata files help with this). Flows are available by nationality (only foreign) or country of birth, including a disaggregation by sex (specifying women and total values). An added advantage of OECD data is that it is downloadable in both Excel and comma separated values format, helping large-scale analysis.

In some cases, individual countries' national statistical institutes (NSIs) also provide good complementary – or even overall better – statistics (e.g. Germany, United Kingdom – see *Section 5* for more details).

Another noteworthy source for intra-EU migration flows is Abel and Sander's 2014 paper and resulting interactive website,[63] an impressive effort to estimate global migration flows between and within regions for five-year periods, from 1990 to 2010, using UN stock data.[64]

A disaggregation of flows by age and sex is typically available in Eurostat data. In this dataset, a breakdown by sex is also available for all countries and years for which total flow figures are available. The availability of disaggregation by age, however, varies: it is entirely missing for Austria, Greece, Ireland, Romania, Slovenia, and the UK, and only available since 2013 for Croatia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, and Slovakia. In some cases, e.g. Austria, Ireland, individual NSIs provide this data.

Further useful variables would include, for example, the reason for migration and the education and occupation background of incoming (and outgoing) individuals. Reason for migration is typically recorded in residence permits, but, as mentioned above, this source of data is not applicable for EU citizens. According to our review, the one major EU-wide dataset that does contains this information is the Labour Force Survey's (LFS) 2014 (and 2008) ad-hoc module on labour migration. Although LFS provides stock data, it includes years of residence and the information can therefore be transformed into flow data for the calculated years of arrival. The availability of this variable is discussed in more detail in the next sub-section on migrant stocks.

Information on the education and labour market participation of migrants is available both in the core module of LFS and in Eurostat, but this data is generally collected to measure

[63] http://www.global-migration.info
[64] Abel and Sander, "Quantifying Global International Migration Flows", 1520–22.

integration and thus refers to these characteristics at the time of the data collection, not at the time of migration. The same applies to a number of national databases as well. For example, the French and German NSIs record level of qualification and occupation, but again, at the time of data collection. Since these characteristics often change during the time spent in the host country, they cannot be accurately traced back using stock data and time of arrival.

One indirect way to calculate the education level of incoming (past) migrants – but this might only be applicable to a small number of observations – could be to use the variable *Year when the highest education was obtained* in the core module of LFS, which, cross-referenced the years of residence for migrant respondents, can reveal if the education was obtained before or after moving to the host country – and in the former case, was likely the level of education at the time of migration.

The one national-level survey that we found that includes information on migrants' usual occupation prior to migration is the UK's International Passenger Survey (IPS). The inclusion of questions regarding education and labour characteristics prior to migration in future migration-related EU-wide surveys would be a key step to identifying how bilateral migration patterns in Europe differ by skills and occupational status, including self-employment status.

7.2 Identified Patterns

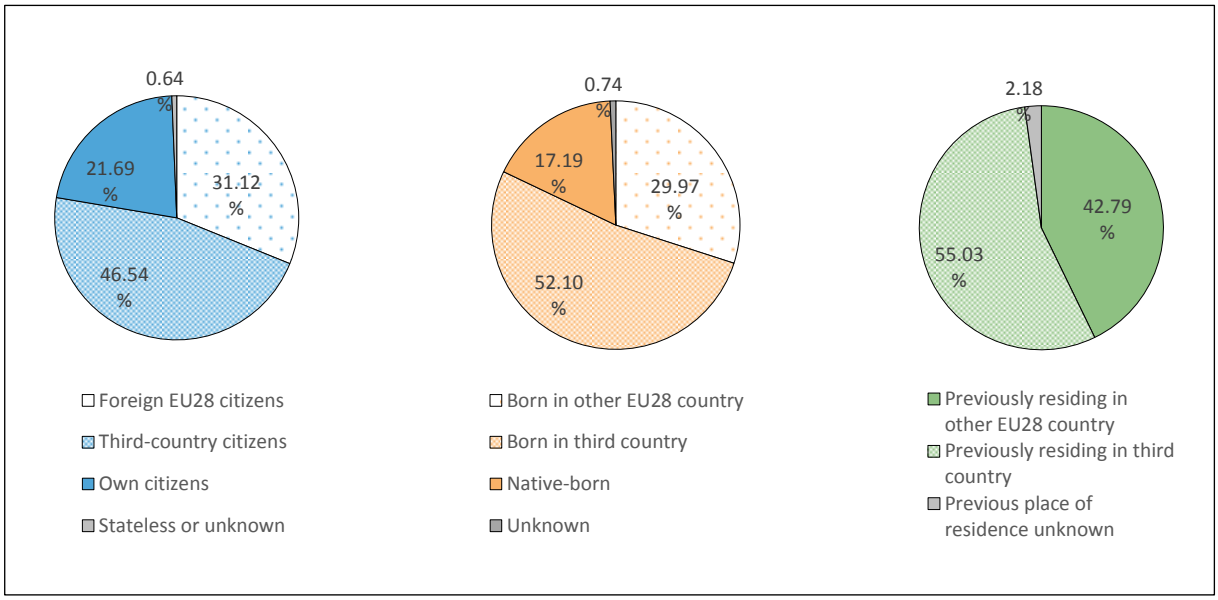
7.2.1 Total Flows of Intra-EU Migrants

Figure 25 shows inflows of migrants at the aggregate EU28 level using the three different metrics presented in Section 2.1. Using the citizenship definition of migration, the figure distinguishes citizens of the respective country itself, of other EU28 countries, and of third countries. As can be seen, close to half (46.5%) of the flows to the EU28 countries are made up of TCNs. The majority, however, are movements of EU28 citizens, where 21.7% are citizens of the country they are moving to and 31.1% are the citizen of another country in the EU28.

As was the case for the stock figures, using the country of birth migrant definition reveals a slightly different picture. When using the alternative definition, more than half of total immigrants in 2016 were born in a third country (52.1%). Only 17.2% were native to the country to which they moved, and the remaining 30.0% were born in another EU28 country.

Finally, with respect to the country of previous residence, a distinction can be made between those who moved to an EU28 country either from another country within the EU28 or from a third country. Figure 25 shows that 43.7% of total immigration was intra-EU migration, while 56.3% was external movements into the EU28.

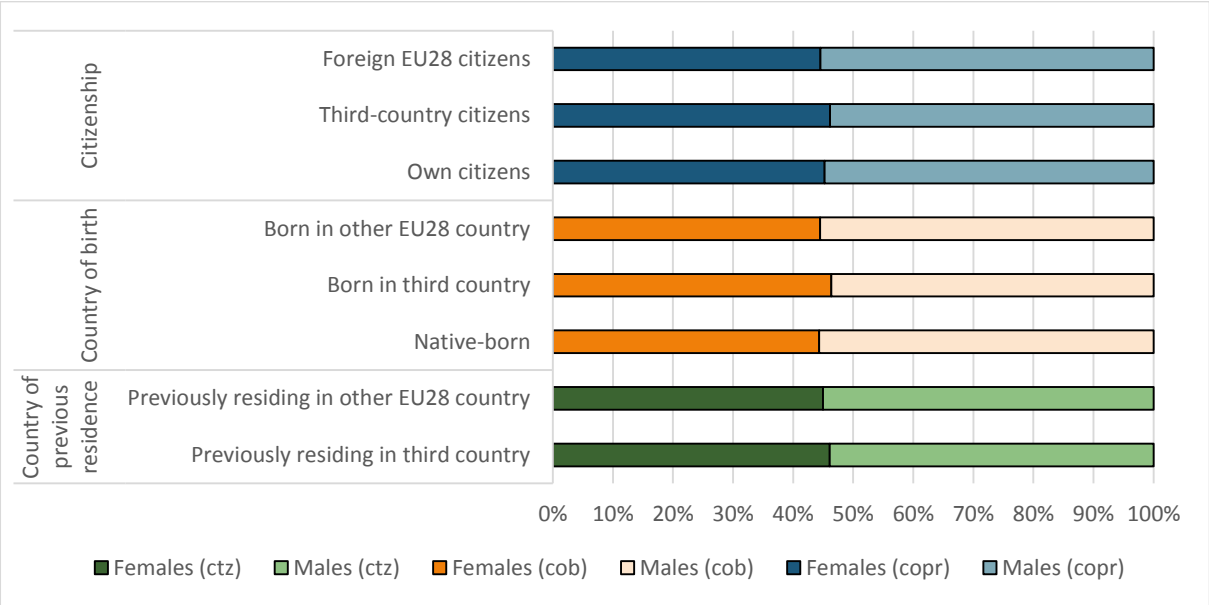
Figure 25: Total Inflows Into EU28 Countries (broad groups, aggregated at EU28 level), 2016



Data source: Eurostat_migr_imm1ctz, Eurostat_migr_imm3ctb and Eurostat_migr_imm5prv.

Looking at the composition of the aggregated migration inflows, Figure 26 shows that, in general, migration inflows in the EU28 are slightly dominated by males. Overall, males made up 54.6% of the total immigration flows in the EU28 in 2016. The share is slightly lower than this average for TCNs (53.9%) and higher for own citizens (54.8%) and foreign EU28 citizens (55.4%). There is no significant difference in the relative shares of males and females when using the country of birth definition versus using the citizenship one. The data further shows that, in terms of sex, both intra-EU migrants and those coming from third countries are slightly more often male than female. Among those who migrated from other EU28 countries, 55.1% were males in 2016, compared to 53.9% among those that came from third countries.

Figure 26: Sex Breakdown of Total Inflows Into EU28 Countries (broad groups, aggregated at EU28 level), 2016

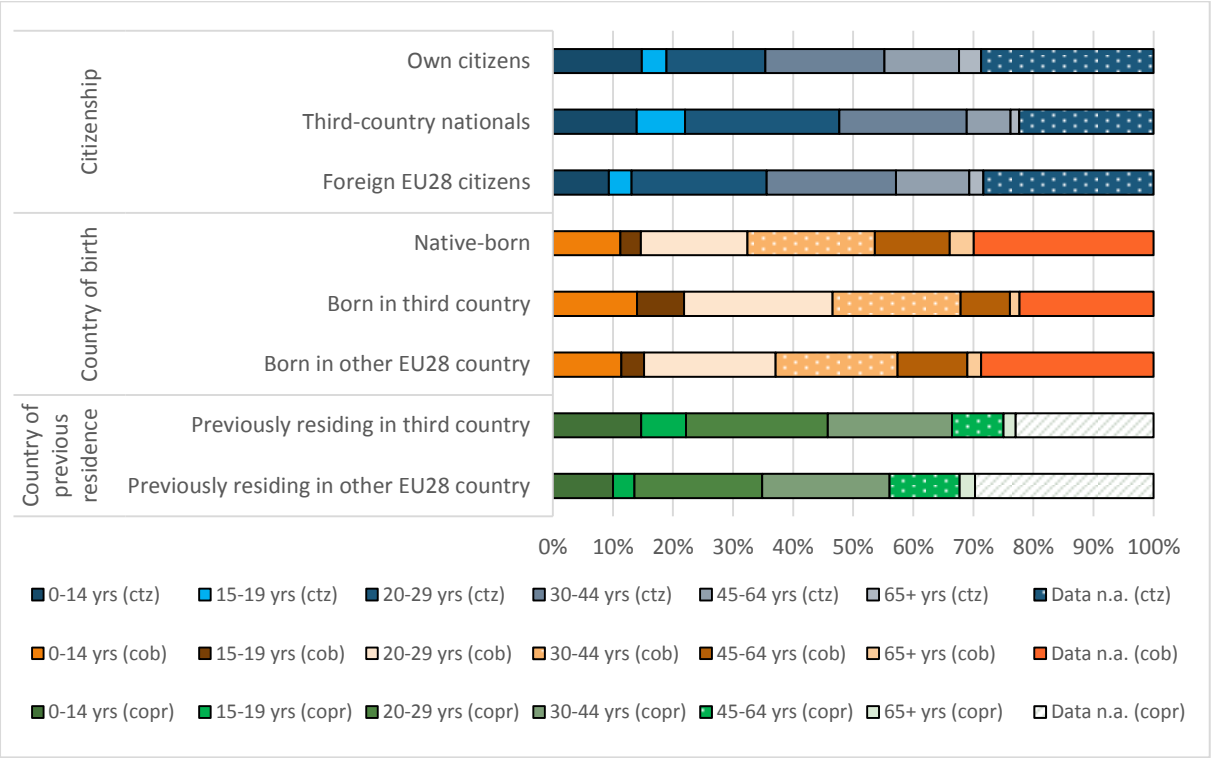


Data source: Eurostat_migr_imm1ctz, Eurostat_migr_imm3ctb and Eurostat_migr_imm5prv.

In terms of age,[65] Figure 27 shows that the smallest share of those moving between EU28 countries are those aged 65 or older. Overall, this applies to 2.2% of the migrants, with the share being the relatively highest among citizens moving back to their country (3.7%). Children, on the other hand, made up 18.7% of the immigration inflows in 2016, with a share of 22.0% among TCNs and 13.1% among foreign EU28 citizens. As expected, the majority of those mobile within the EU are of working age, 53.6% overall. The share is highest among foreign EU28 citizens (56.3%) and lowest among own citizens (48.7%). The share of individuals 65 or older is the highest among citizens moving back to their country of birth (4.0%). Children, on the other hand, made up a share of 21.8% among those born in third countries and 15.2% among those born in another EU28 country. Considering those of working age mobile, the share is highest among those born in third countries (54.3%) and lowest among natives (51.4%). When considering the country of previous residence, the data shows that the internal movers were on average older than the external ones (in the countries that report this data). Among the latter, 22.2% were below the age of 18, while this was the case for only 13.6% of intra-EU migrants. The working age population makes up 54.2% of intra-EU movers and 52.9% of those coming into the EU from third countries.

[65] As indicated in Figure 27, several countries do not report data on the age of immigrants.

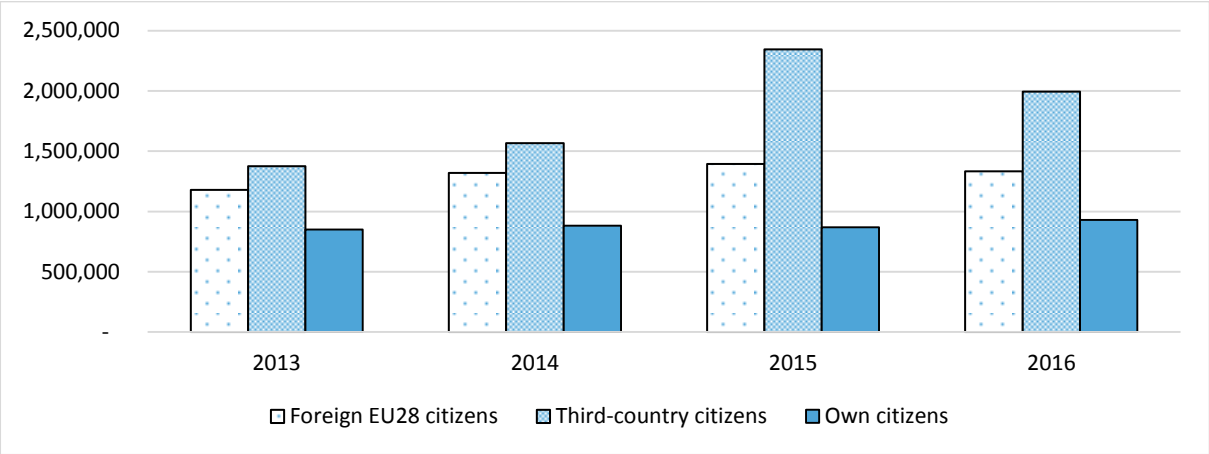
Figure 27: Age Breakdown of Total Inflows Into EU28 Countries (broad groups, aggregated at EU28 level), 2016



Data source: Eurostat_migr_imm1ctz, Eurostat_migr_imm3ctb and Eurostat_migr_imm5prv.

Looking at immigration to the EU28 over time, the data shows that the annual numbers increased between 2013 and 2015, from 3.4 million to 4.7 million, but then decreased to 4.3 million in 2016. The immigration of countries' own citizens is the only one that showed a rise in numbers between 2015 and 2016. Migration of foreign EU28 citizens and TCNs, on the other hand, reflects overall trends, and immigration of TCNs in particular decreased significantly in 2016, though not quite to the level of 2014. The changes in the annual immigration numbers were much smaller for EU citizens than they were for TCNs.

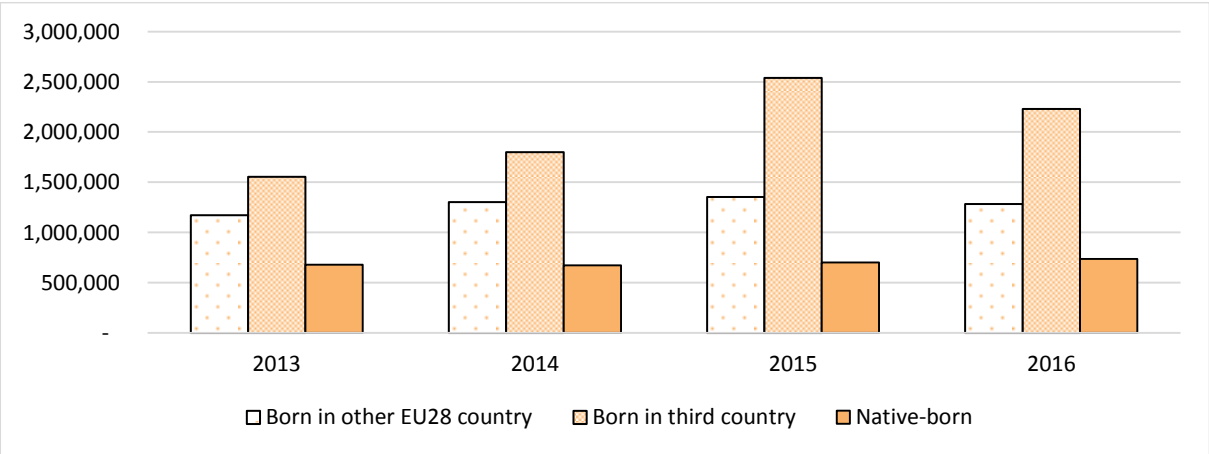
Figure 28: Total Inflows Into EU28 Countries (citizenship, broad groups, aggregated at EU28 level), 2013-2016



Data source: Eurostat_migr_imm1ctz.

The trends of inflows over time for people born in other EU28 countries or outside of the EU are similar to those seen when using the citizenship metric. The annual number of inflows increased for both groups between 2013 and 2015, but then decreased in 2016. At the same time, the number of people moving within the EU28 who were born in third countries was much higher than those born within the EU. The number of people born in the respective country and moving back is overall the lowest, and shows only slight variation during the 2013 to 2016 period, decreasingly slightly between 2013 and 2014 and then increasing in subsequent years.

Figure 29: Total Inflows Into EU28 Countries (country of birth, broad groups, aggregated at EU28 level), 2013-2016

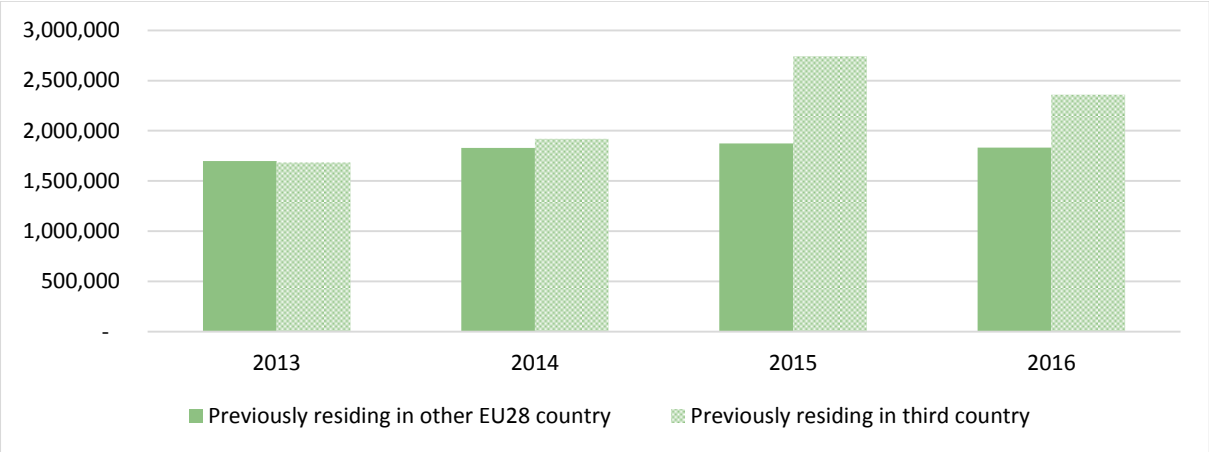


Data source: Eurostat_migr_imm3ctb.

Finally, the number of inflows from outside the EU28 per year varied much more than that of intra-EU inflows between 2013 and 2016. Inflows of both groups increased between 2013 and 2015, and then decreased in 2016. However, the increase for external flows was much more significant than that for internal ones. While intra-EU movements increased by 45,088 people that year, inflows into the EU28 from third countries grew by 820,161. It is also notable that in 2013 there were, in fact, slightly more (90,780) intra-EU flows than inflows into the EU, a trend that is not observed in the following years.

Between 2013 and 2016, the number of inflows from outside the EU28 per year varied much more than that of intra-EU inflows. Inflows of both groups increased between 2013 and 2015, and then decreased in 2016. However, the increase for external flows was much more significant than that for internal ones. While intra-EU movements increased by 45,088 people that year, inflows into the EU28 from third countries grew by 820,161. It is also notable that in 2013 there were, in fact, slightly more (90,780) intra-EU flows than inflows into the EU, a trend that is not observed in the following years.

Figure 30: Total Inflows Into EU28 Countries (country of previous residence, broad groups, aggregated at EU28 level), 2013-2016



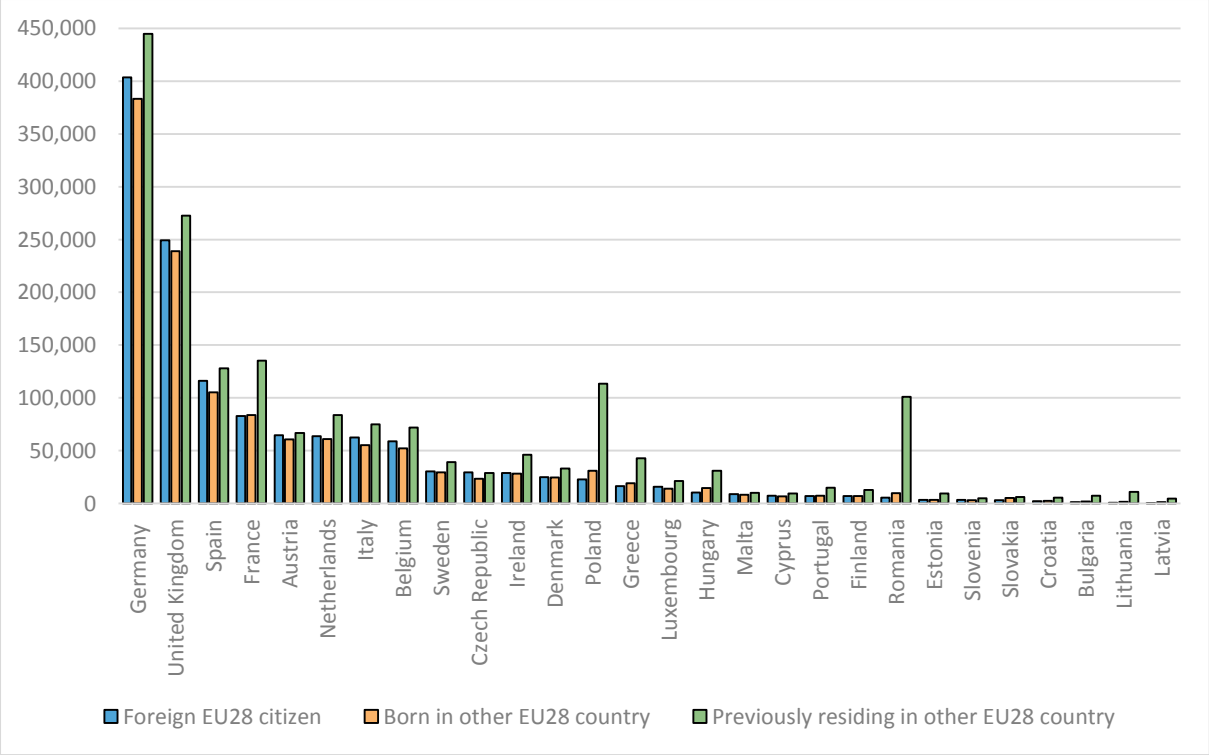
Data source: Eurostat_migr_imm5prv.

7.2.2 Intra-EU Inflows for Individual EU28 Countries

This section looks at immigration at the national level across the EU28 countries, again using the different metrics. Figure 31 shows the inflows into each of the countries using the three possible intra-EU migrant definitions. As can be seen, the number of inflows is generally

highest when considering the previous residence definition, likely due to the fact that in these flows return migration is also most likely to be captured in contrast to the other two measures, in which citizens and natives are excluded respectively in this figure. Germany received by far the largest number of immigrants in 2016, using all three metrics, followed by the UK. As was seen in Section A, these two countries are also those hosting the largest stocks of migrants. In the case of Poland and Romania, much more than in other countries, the data shows that immigration is significantly higher when the previous residence definition is used. This indicates that both countries receive large numbers of returning migrants compared to intra-EU migrants from other countries.

Figure 31: Inflows by Different Definitions: EU28 Country Values, 2016



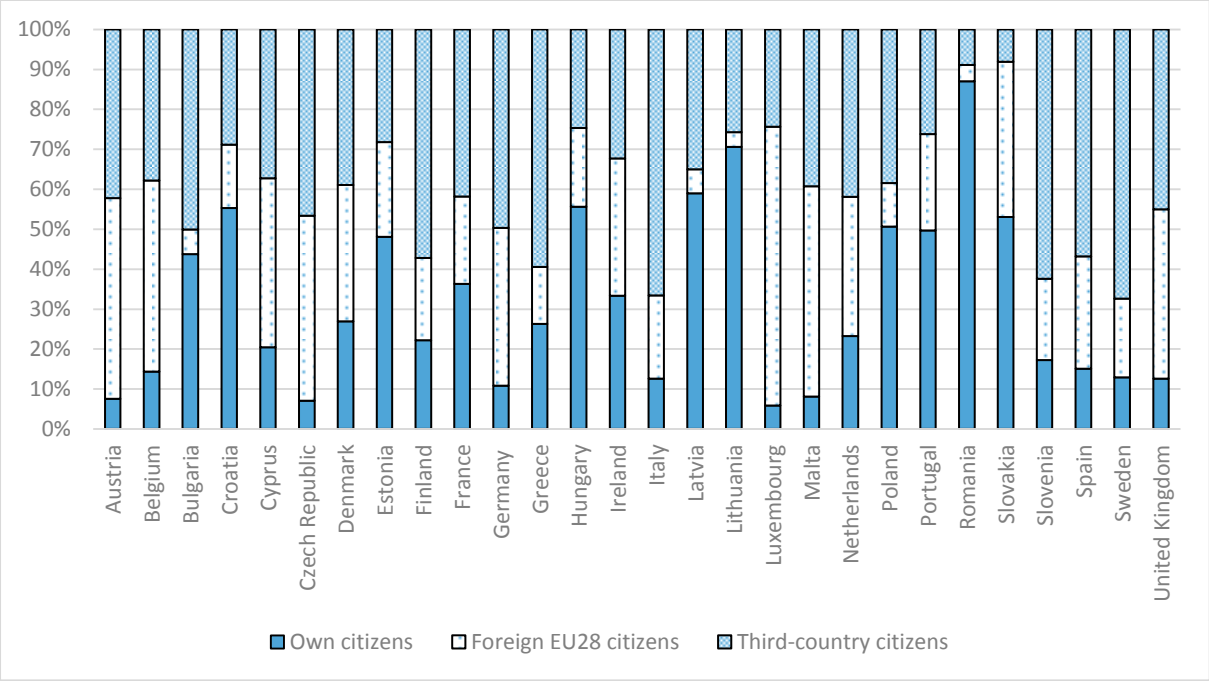
Data source: Eurostat_migr_imm1ctz, Eurostat_migr_imm3ctb and Eurostat_migr_imm5prv.

Note: The data for EU28 citizens and EU28 countries of birth are excluding the reporting country citizens or natives respectively.

Looking at inflows using the citizenship metric, Figure 32 shows that there indeed significant differences in the composition of the migrant inflows across different EU28 countries. As indicated above, migration to Romania and Poland, but also to countries such as Croatia, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Portugal, and Slovakia, is mostly return migration by these countries' own citizens. In the case of Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland,

France, Germany, Greece, Italy, the Netherlands, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, and the UK, on the other hand, most migrants are TCNs. Austria, Belgium, Cyprus, Luxembourg, and Malta are the countries where the majority of immigrants are citizens of other EU28 countries. In the case of Ireland, immigration is split almost equally between the three different groups.

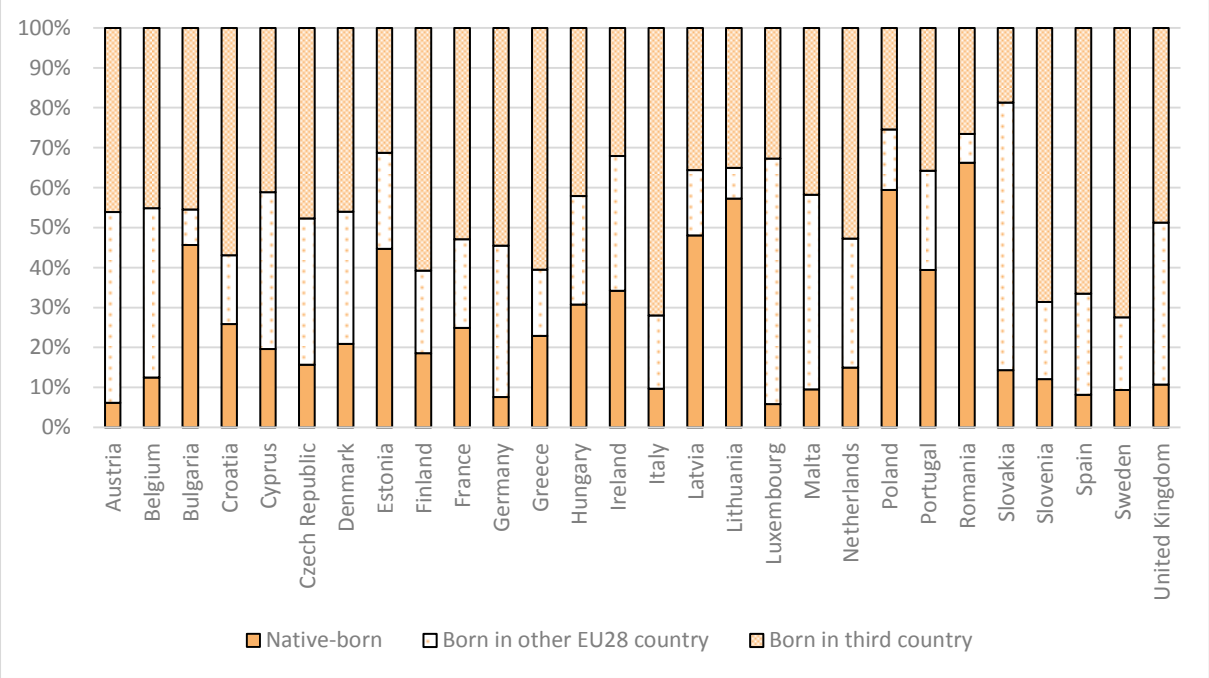
Figure 32: Composition of Inflows to EU28 Countries (citizenship), 2016



Data source: Eurostat_migr_imm1ctz.

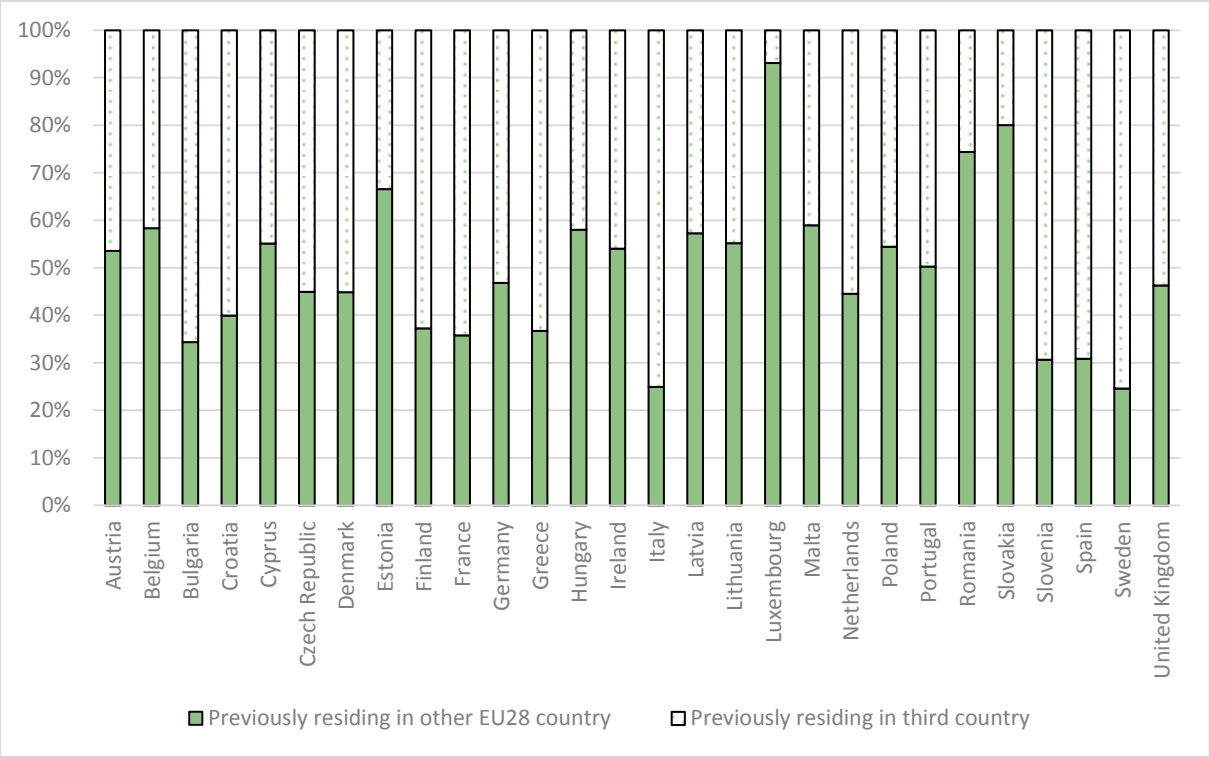
Using the country of birth metric, Figure 33 shows the composition of immigration flows to the EU28 countries dividing between those that were born in the respective country, in another EU28 country, or outside of the EU28. Luxembourg (61.1%) and Slovakia (67.0%) are the only two countries in which an absolute majority of immigrants in 2016 was born in another EU28 country. In Lithuania (57.3%), Poland (58.3%), and Romania (65.5%), the majority of immigrants were born in the respective country; in other words, there were significant numbers of returning migrants. For the majority of countries (including Croatia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Italy, the Netherlands, Slovenia, Spain, and Sweden), the absolute majority of immigrants in 2016 came from outside of the EU28.

Figure 33: Composition of Inflows to EU28 Countries (country of birth), 2016



Data source: Eurostat_migr_imm3ctb.

Figure 34: Composition of Inflows to EU28 Countries (country of previous residence), 2016

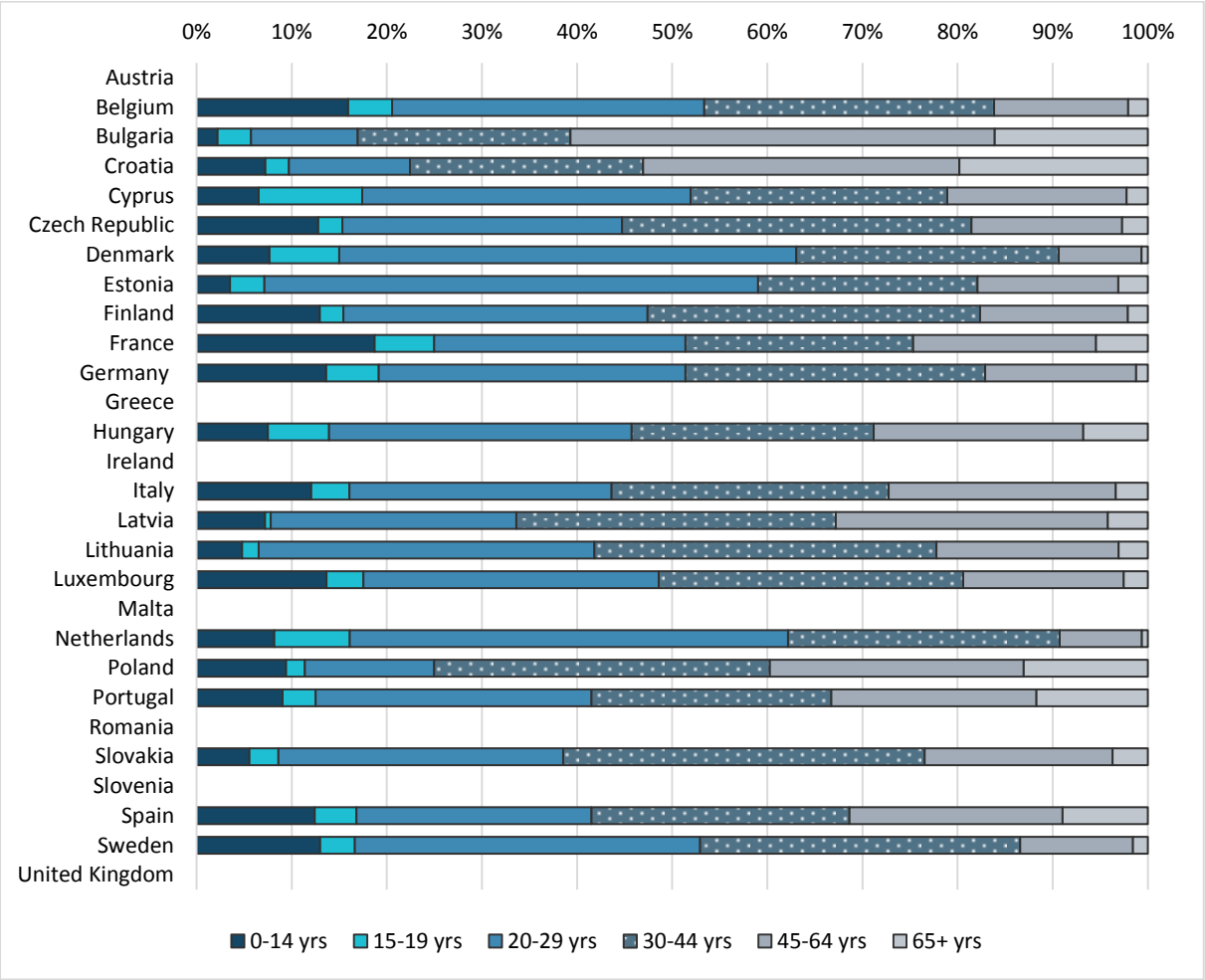


Data source: Eurostat_migr_imm5prv.

Taking into consideration that migration to EU28 countries can take place from either other EU28 countries or from third countries, the data shows that, intra-EU migration is more common in half the countries, while in the other the majority of movement was from countries outside the EU (see Figure 34). The countries that stand out as destinations for intra-EU migrants are Luxembourg, Slovakia, and Romania: 93.1%, 80.0%, and 73.6% of the immigrants arriving in these countries respectively came from other EU28 countries. In other countries, migration from third countries is more common; examples of this are Italy (75.0%), Sweden (73.6%), and Spain (69.1%).

In terms of the sex composition of migration inflows in the EU28, the data at the aggregate level shows a slight majority of males. Looking at this on the country level shows that there are some differences across the individual countries. There are a few countries where immigration of women is in fact more common when considering the citizenship metric. These are Italy, Portugal, and Greece. In several other countries (Austria, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Estonia, Finland, Romania, and Slovenia), on the other hand, males make up at least 60% of the immigration flows. In Poland, Lithuania, and Latvia it is more than 70%. When defining intra-EU migrants by country of birth, there are more females than males among those that came to the countries in 2016 only in the case of Italy (61.6%), Portugal (55.8%), and Greece (53.2%). The share of males was especially high in Slovakia (64.9%), Poland (64.7%), Bulgaria (64.6%), Finland (61.0%), and the Czech Republic (60.7%). In other countries, the flows were more evenly split between women and men. Finally, looking at all of those that previously resided in another EU28 country, there are only two instances where females make up the majority of migrants: Italy (57.7%) and France (51.8%). In all other countries males make up more than half of those moving within the EU28. The share of males is especially high in Slovenia (63.8%), indicated by the dark orange colour. In the remaining countries males represented either between 50 and 54% of all intra-EU migrants arriving in 2016 (Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Greece, Ireland, Latvia, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Portugal, and Spain) or between 55 and 59% (Croatia, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Germany, Hungary, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, Sweden, and the UK).

Figure 35: Age Breakdown of Inflows of Foreign EU28 Nationals, 2016



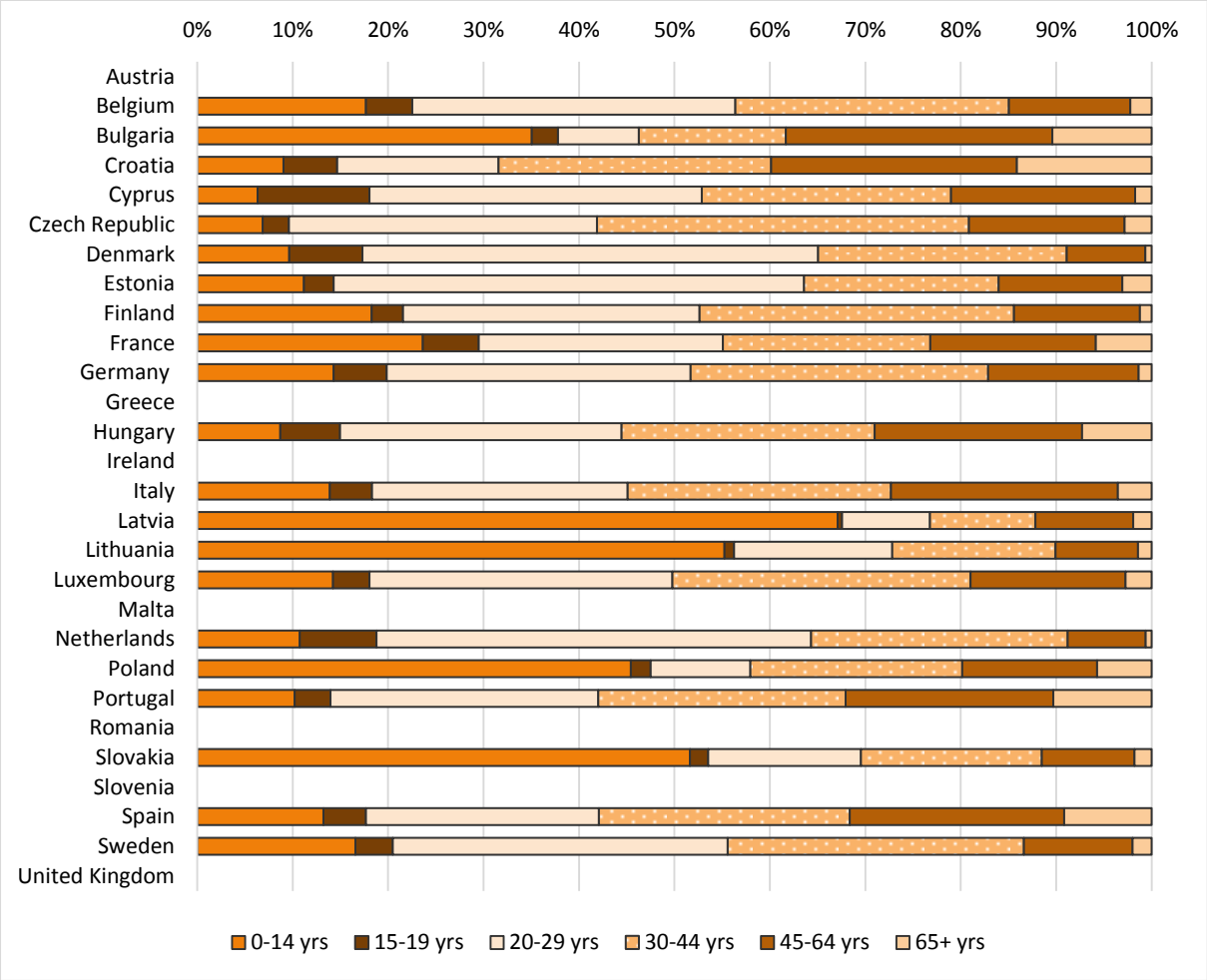
Data source: Eurostat_migr_imm1ctz.

In terms of the age composition, there are also some differences across those countries that report this data. Firstly, looking at EU28 citizens, there are a few countries where immigration of children between 0 and 19 is relatively more common than on average. These are Belgium, France, and Germany. Immigration of individuals aged 65 or older, on the other hand, is relatively more common in Bulgaria, Croatia, Poland, and Portugal. The majority of immigrants are, however, of working age in all of the EU28 countries for which the data is available. The share of working age population is highest among immigrants in Lithuania (90.4%) and lowest in the case of Croatia (70.5%).

When looking at the country of birth metric, there are three countries among those that report data —Latvia, Lithuania, and Slovakia—where the majority of immigrants in 2016 was between 0 and 19 years old. Bulgaria and Poland also have relatively high shares of children

and youth among migrants to their countries. On the other hand, Bulgaria, Croatia, and Portugal have the relatively highest shares of immigrants 65 and older. In each of these countries the oldest age cohort makes up more than 10% of all immigrants. In the majority of EU28 countries, however, immigrants in 2016 were of working age.

Figure 36: Age Breakdown of Inflows of Foreign EU28 Natives, 2016

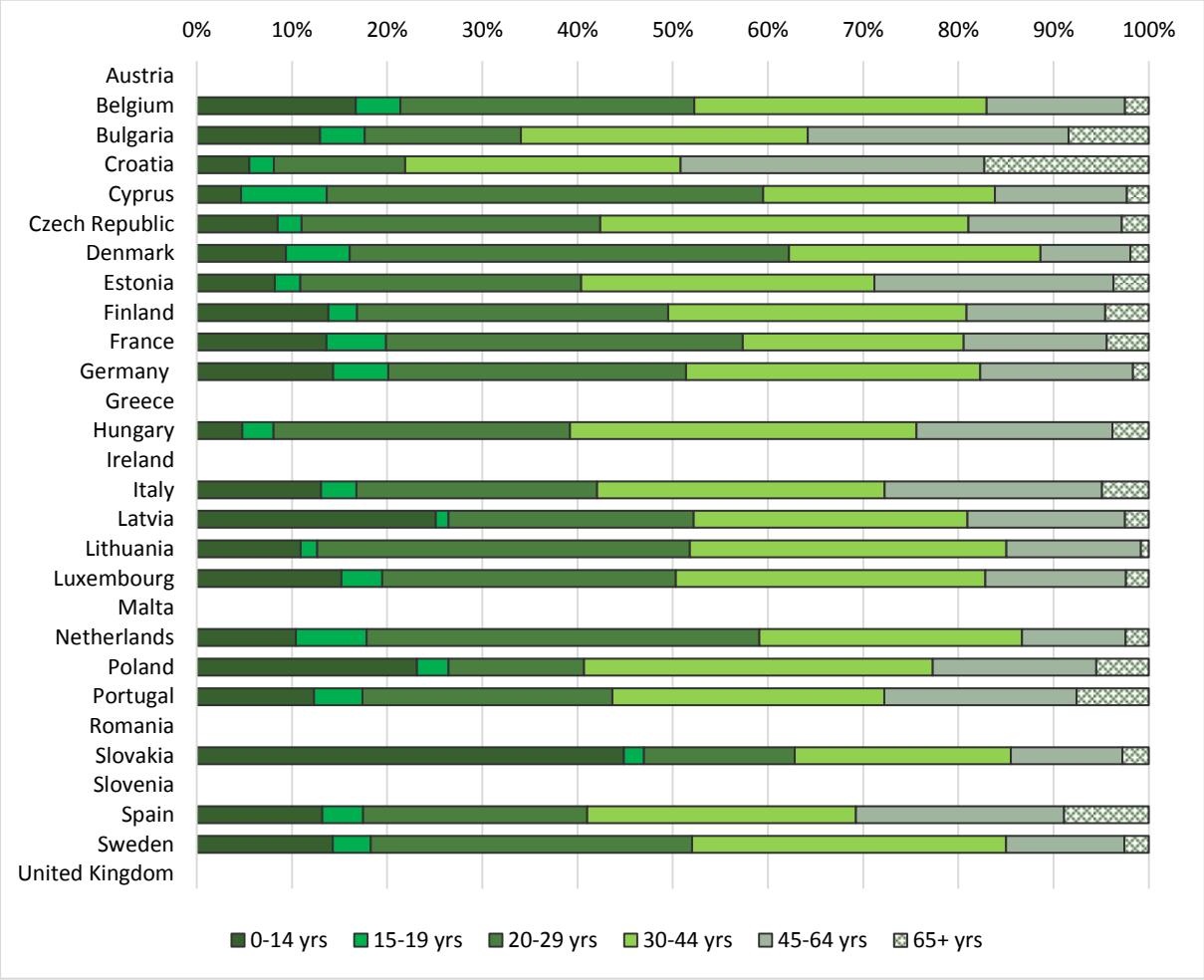


Data source: Eurostat_migr_imm3ctb.

In terms of previous EU28 residence, Figure 37 shows that there are also some interesting differences across the countries that reported this information for the immigrants that came to their country in 2016 respectively. What stands out is the comparatively high share of children and youth (0-19 years old) that migrated from other countries in the EU28 to Slovakia; 47.0% of all immigrants that year belonged to this group. Croatia, on the other hand, received the largest relative share of intra-EU migrants that were 65 or older (17.3%).

Nonetheless, in all countries that reported this data, at least 50% of the immigrants were of working age. The share of working age individuals was the highest in Hungary (88.1%).

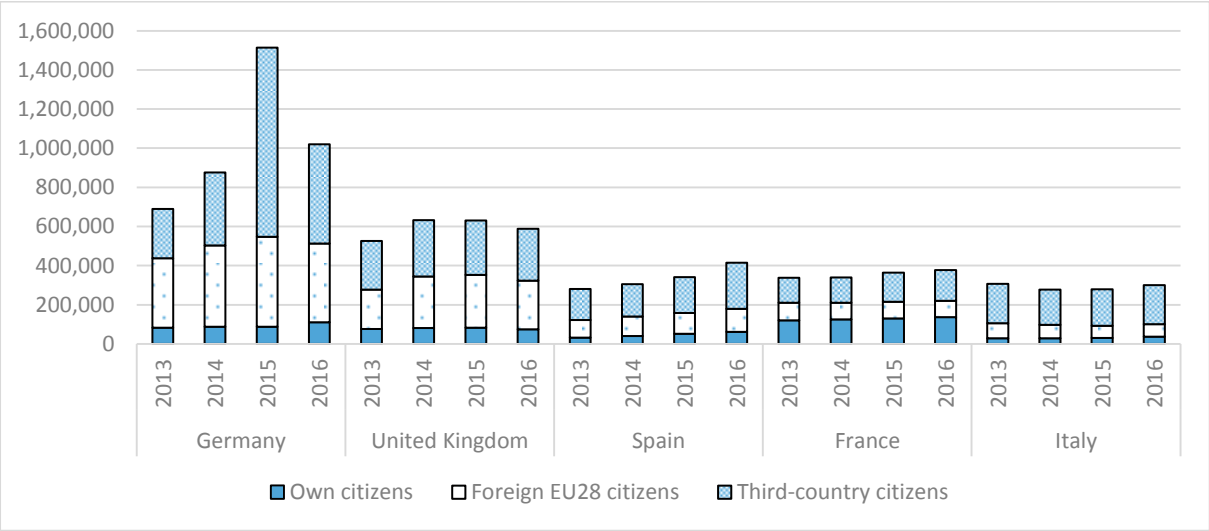
Figure 37: Age Breakdown for Inflows of People Previously Living in an EU28 Country, 2016



Data source: Eurostat_migr_imm5prv.

Figure 38 shows the trends in immigration flows by citizenship to the top five destination countries between 2013 and 2016. The trends in Germany and the UK accord with those at the EU28 aggregated level, as immigration increased between 2013 and 2015, but then decreased in 2016. In Spain and France, on the other hand, immigration increased over the whole period, albeit at lower levels. In Italy, immigration decreased between 2013 and 2014 and then slowly increased until 2016. The data also shows that the increase of migration in Germany was mainly of TCNs and only slightly of intra-EU migrants.

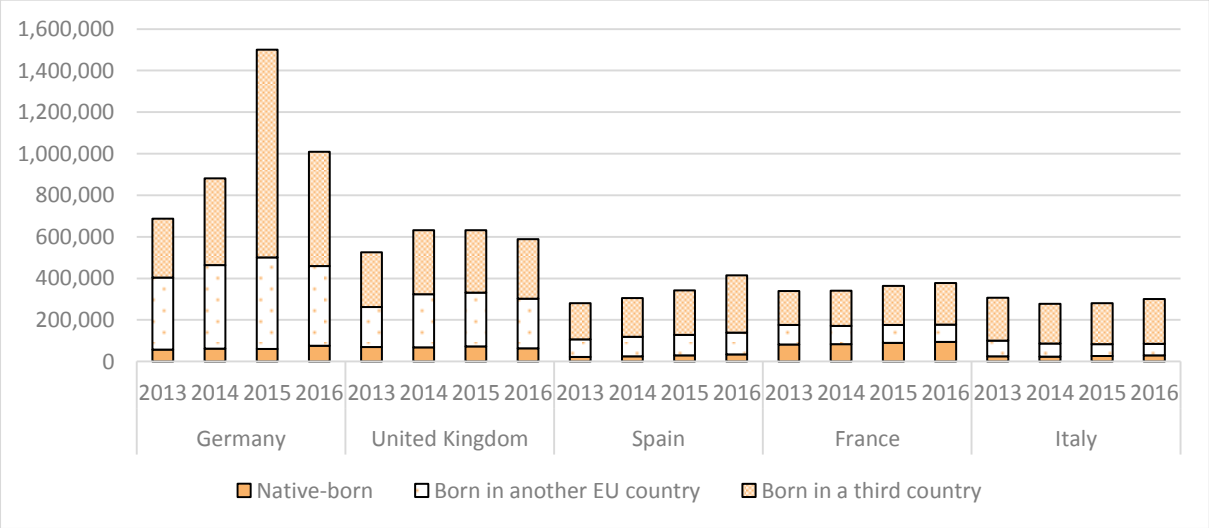
Figure 38: Top 5 Countries with the Largest Inflows (citizenship), 2013-2016



Data source: Eurostat_migr_imm1ctz.

Figure 39 shows the immigration flows to the top five destination countries considering the country of birth. Again, the trends in Germany and the UK are accord with those at the EU28 aggregated level. Immigration to these countries increased between 2013 and 2015, but then decreased in 2016. In Spain and France immigration increased over the whole period, though overall levels of immigration are much lower. In Italy, immigration decreased between 2013 and 2014 and then slowly increased until 2016. The data also shows that the increase in migration to Germany was mainly by people born in third countries, and only slightly by intra-EU migrants.

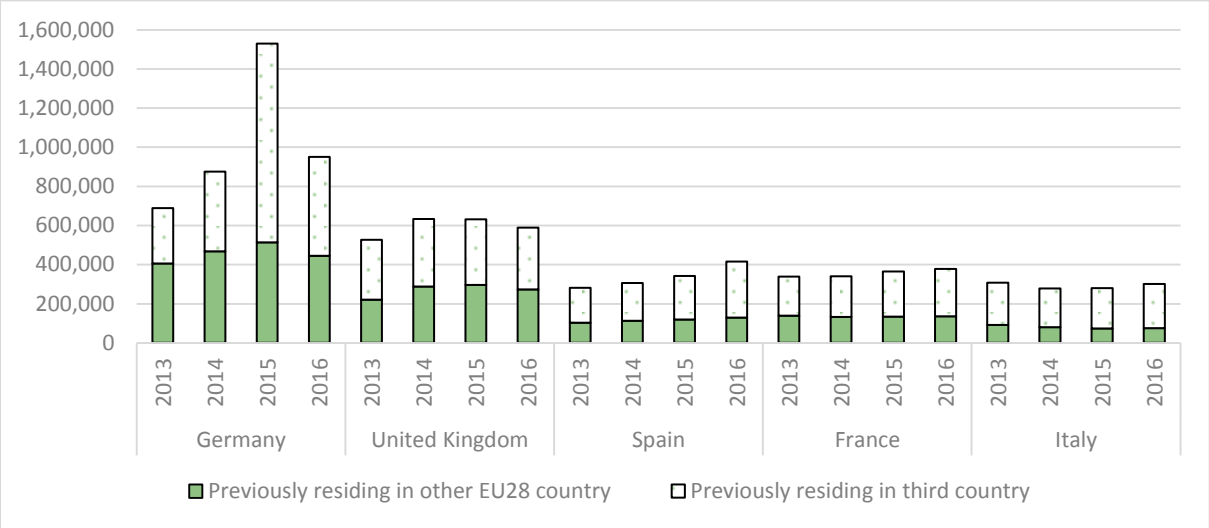
Figure 39: Top 5 Countries with the Largest Inflows (country of birth), 2013-2016



Data source: Eurostat_migr_imm3ctb.

Looking at immigration flows by country of previous residence from 2013 to 2016, Figure 40 shows changes in the top five countries of destination. Overall, the trends are in line with those observed using the other two measures.

Figure 40: Top 5 Countries with the Largest Inflows (country of previous residence), 2013-2016



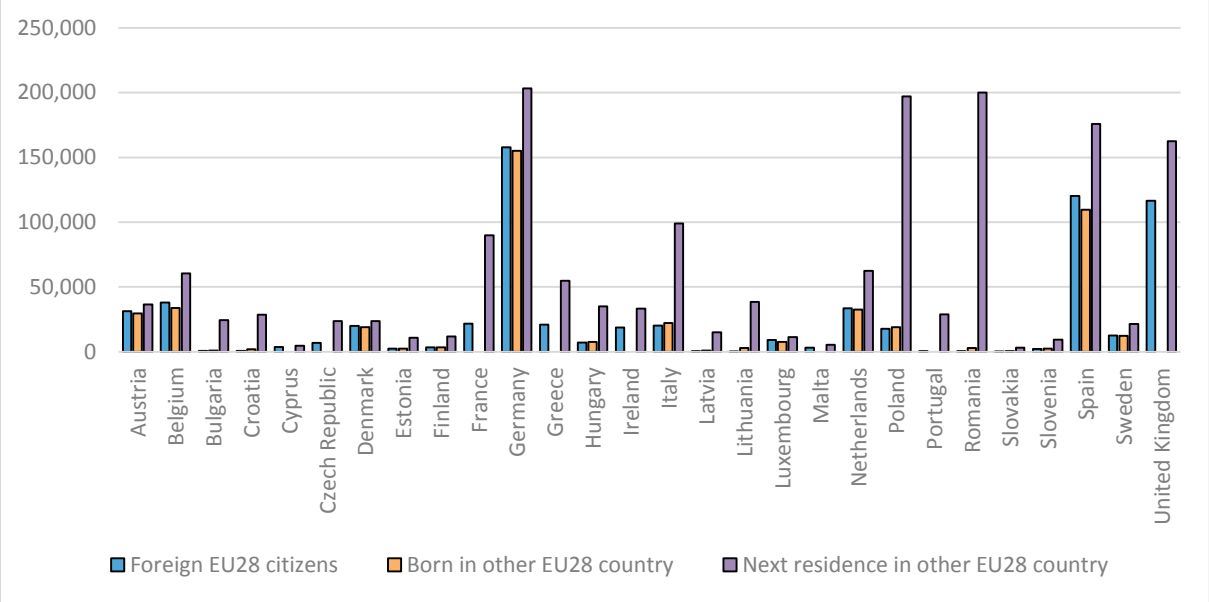
Data source: Eurostat_migr_imm5prv.

What is notable is that movements from other countries and from third countries often increase and decrease in the same time period. In the case of Germany, for example, both kinds of movements increased in 2013 and then decreased in 2016. The changes in movements from third countries are just larger. In the case of Spain, the steady increase applies to both kind of flows for all four years. It is also interesting to see that, in the case of Germany, in 2013 and 2014 intra-EU movements were in fact more common than those from other countries. This was not the case in any of the other major countries of destination.

7.2.3 Intra-EU Outflows for Individual EU28 Countries

Data on outflows from countries in the EU28 is, unfortunately, not as readily available as some of the other statistics. In particular, data regarding the country of birth of emigrants is not available for several countries. In addition, characteristics of emigrants such as sex and age is only available when looking at the country of next residence, but not for flows by citizenship or country of birth. The data that is available for each of the three metrics is presented in Figure 41.

Figure 41: Outflows by Different Definitions: EU28 Country Values, 2016



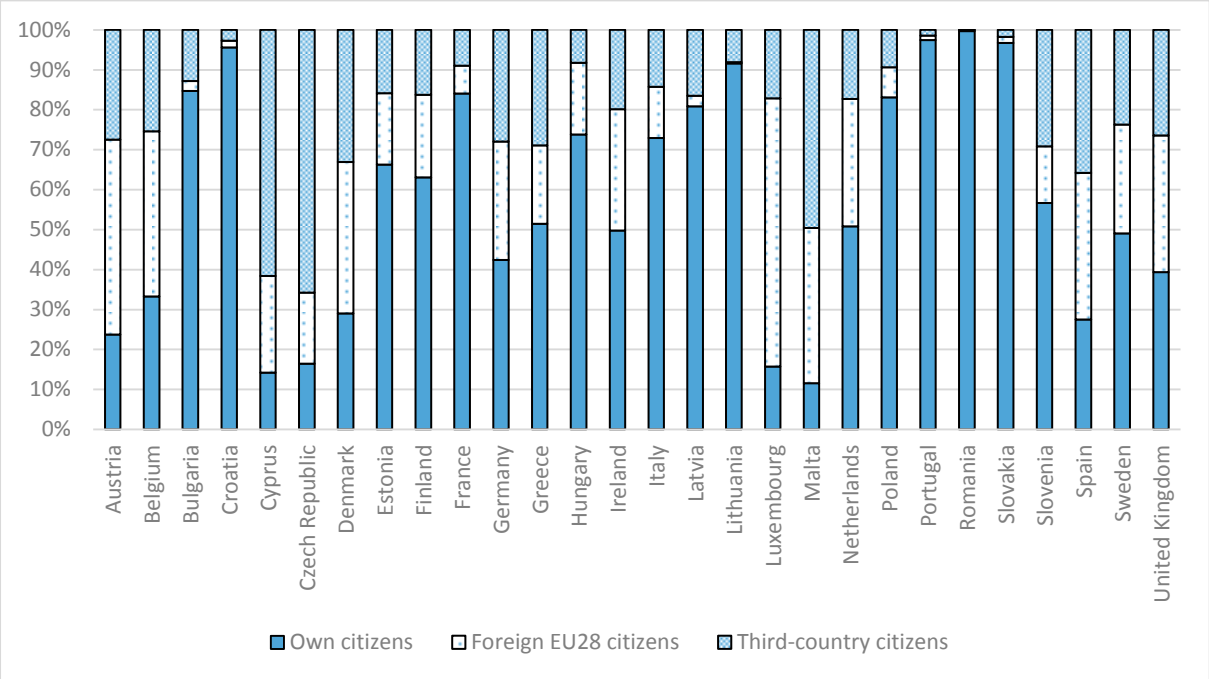
Data source: Eurostat_migr_emi1ctz, Eurostat_migr_emi4ctb and Eurostat_migr_emi3nxt.

As can be seen, there is occasional variance in the total outflows from Member States when using the three different metrics (citizenship, country of birth, and country of next residence). Just as when measuring inflows, the citizenship and country of birth metrics fall short of the third metric, in this case, the country of next residence. Again, this is because the latter metric fails to distinguish own citizens from foreign ones, and natives from non-natives. This suggests that outflows of intra-EU migrants are either dominated by natives/own citizens or foreign natives/citizens. Nonetheless, Germany stands out as the country with the highest number of emigrants having left the country in 2016; independent of the chosen metric. In the case of Poland and Romania, the differences between the next residence and the other two metrics is especially big, indicating that most of the migration from these countries is indeed of own citizens/natives.

Focusing on the breakdown of outflows through the lens of citizenship, Figure 42 illustrates that for most cases, a country's outflows are dominate by the departure of its own citizens. This is the case in twenty of the countries, while the opposite is less often true. Still, even amongst the countries where own citizens are the main group that left the relevant country in 2016, there are significant differences between the relative shares that such groups made up of total flows. In the case of Romania, for example, only own citizens were recorded to

have left the country that year. As such, their share among all emigrants was 99.6%. It was only slightly lower in the case of Portugal and Slovakia with 97.2% and 96.7% respectively and in Croatia (95.6%).

Figure 42: Composition of Outflows from EU28 Countries (citizenship), 2016



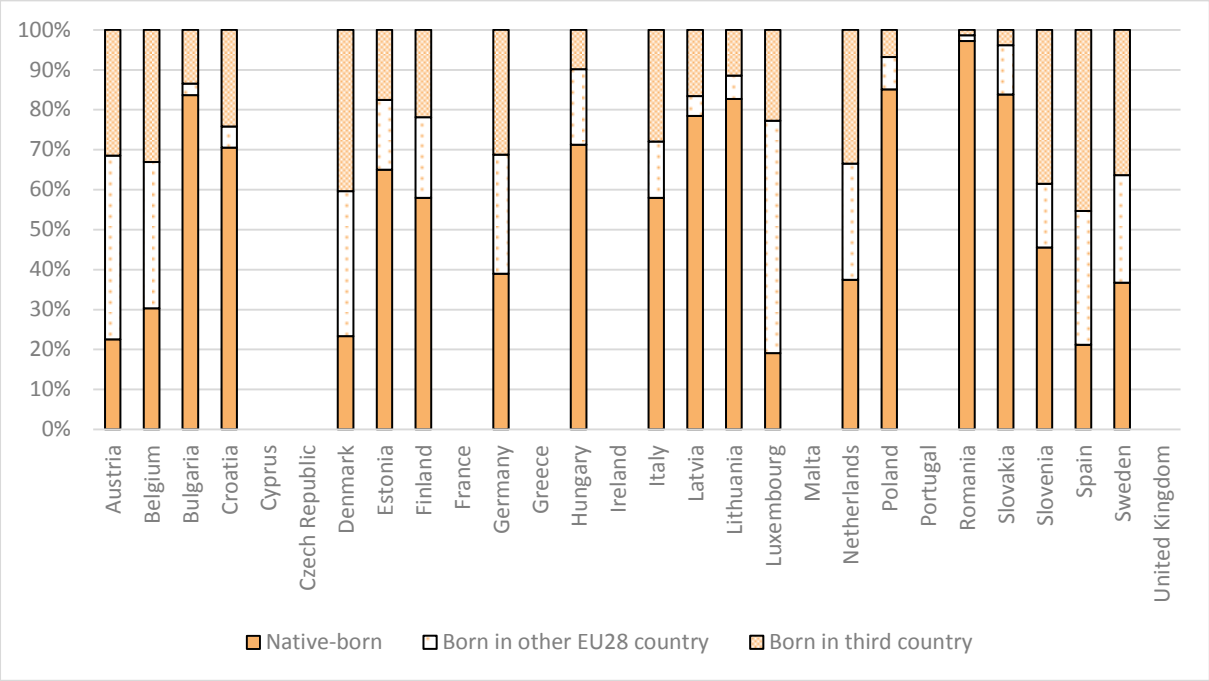
Data source: Eurostat_migr_emi1ctz.

On the lower end, own citizens made up 39.4% of the migrants that left the UK in 2016 and 42.2% of those migrating from Germany. There are also a few countries from which the largest relative group of emigrants in 2016 were citizens of other EU28 countries. This was the case in Austria (48.7%), Belgium (41.2%), Denmark (37.8%), Luxembourg (67.0%), and Spain (36.7%). Finally, TCNs were the main group leaving Cyprus (61.6%), the Czech Republic (65.8%), and Malta (49.6%) in 2016.

Breaking down outflows using the country of birth metric, a similar story plays out as seen in Figure 43. More often than not, a country's outflows are dominated by the departure of its own natives. This is especially true for Bulgaria (83.7%), Croatia (70.5%), Latvia (78.4%), Lithuania (82.7%), Poland (84.5%), Romania (95.8%), and Slovakia (83.8%). In three countries out of the twenty for which this data is available, those born in other EU28 countries made up the highest share of emigrants in 2016: Austria (45.9%), Belgium (36.5%),

and Luxembourg (57.6%). In Denmark and Spain, on the other hand, migrants born outside of the EU28 were the main emigrant group, accounting for 40.4% and 45.4% of all emigrants from the respective country that year.

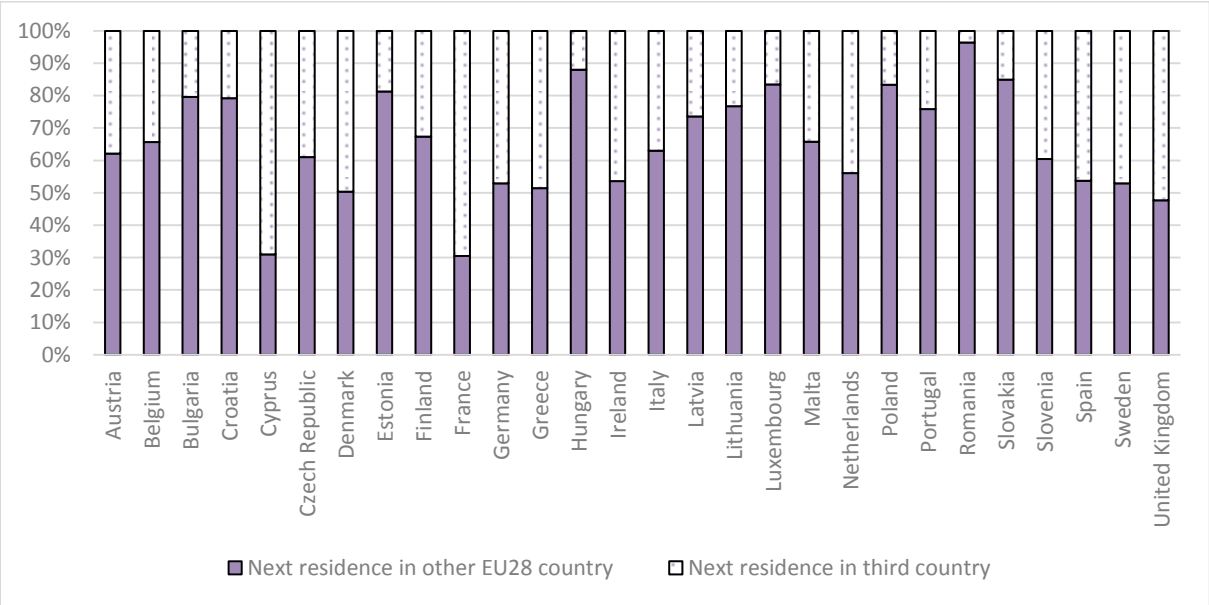
Figure 43: Composition of Outflows from EU28 countries (country of birth), 2016



Data source: Eurostat_migr_emi4ctb.

Finally, Figure 44 shows outflows in terms of country of next residence. As the data shows, these flows were usually toward other EU28 countries. Shares for the intra-EU flows among total outflows from individual EU28 countries varied from 51.4% in the case of Greece to 96.4% in the case of Romania. Conversely, only flows from Cyprus (69.0%), France (66.0%), and the UK (52.3%) went to non-EU28 countries more often.

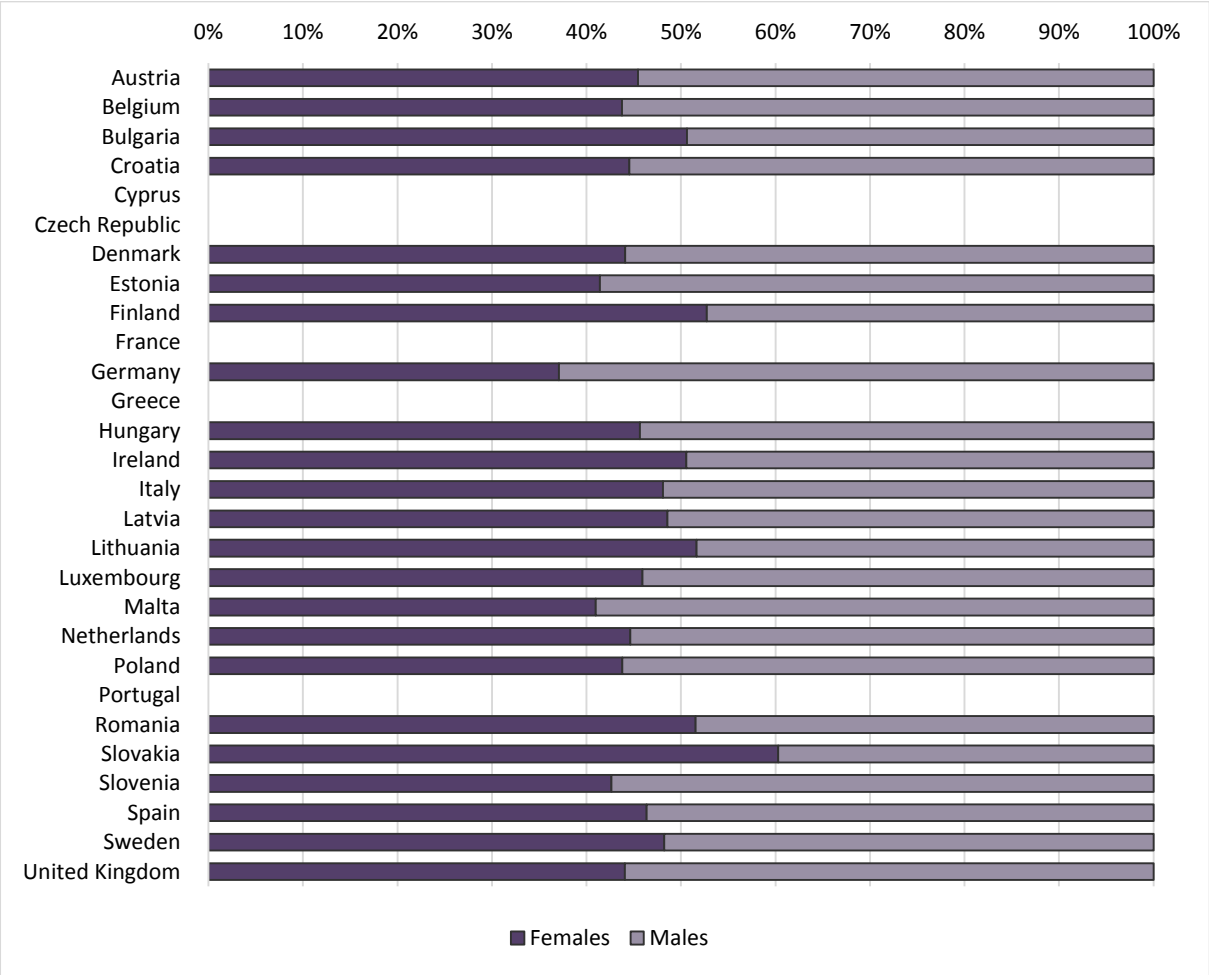
Figure 44: Composition of outflows from EU28 countries (country of next residence), 2016



Data source: Eurostat_migr_emi3nxt.

As indicated before, the country of next residence metric is the only one for which data on the characteristics of outflows in terms of sex and age could be obtained; although, as the following two figures indicate, data is not available for all countries. Where it is available, however, the data on flows to other EU28 countries shows some interesting trends. Reflecting the overall immigration flows in EU 28 countries, outflows from EU28 countries are dominated by males. The share of females is, however, slightly higher in the cases of Bulgaria (50.6%), Ireland (50.6%), Lithuania (51.6%), and Romania (51.5%), and is significantly higher among migrants leaving Slovakia, at 60.3%. On the other hand, migration from Germany to other EU28 countries was male in 62.9% of cases in 2016.

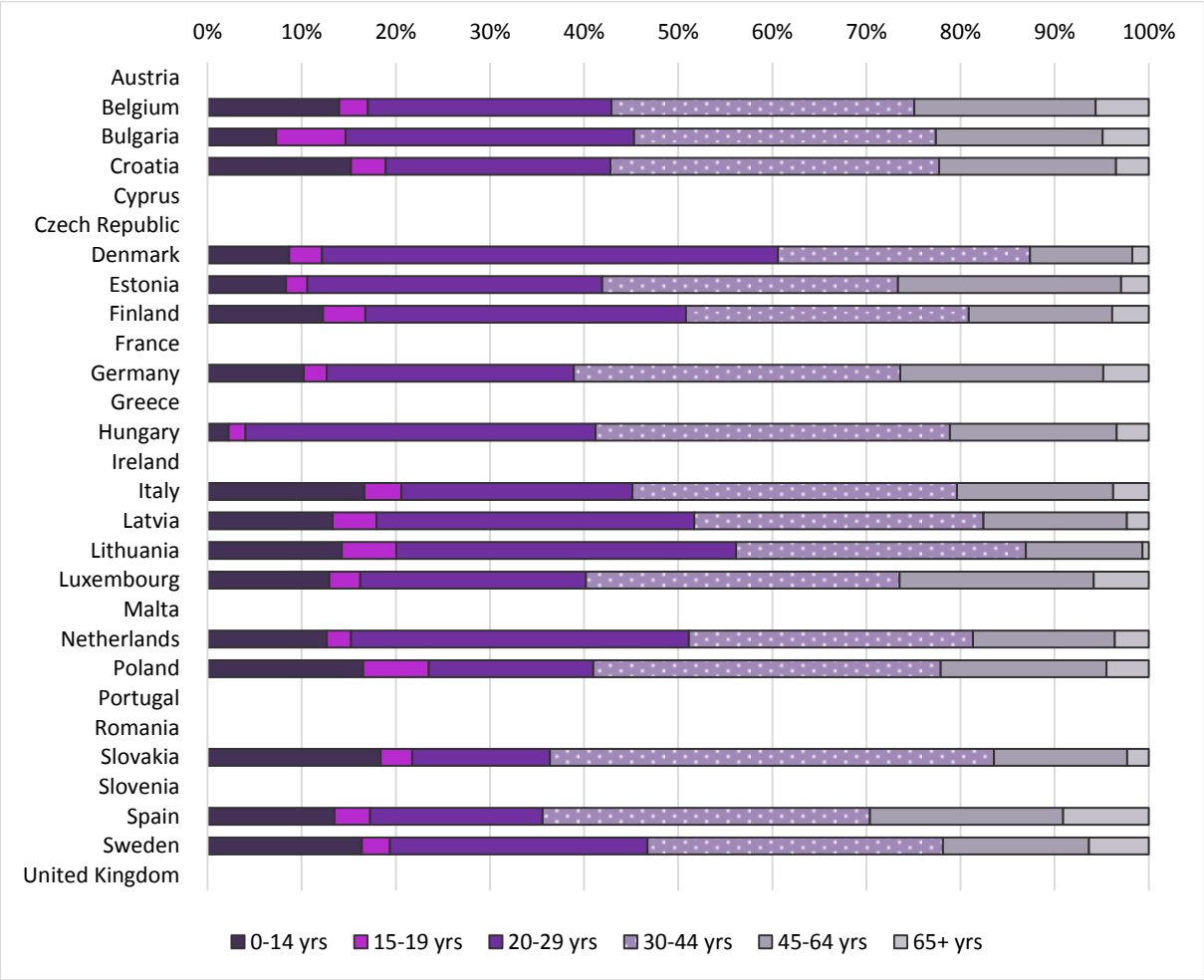
Figure 45: Sex Breakdown of Outflows to other EU28 countries: EU28 Country Values (country of next residence), 2016



Data source: Eurostat_migr_emi3nxt.

Data on the age of intra-EU emigrants also shows some interesting trends (see Figure 46). As has been discussed, intra-EU migrants are largely of working age (20-64). The data does, however, show that this applied to emigrants from some countries more than from others in 2016. The share of working age individuals was particularly high in the cases of Denmark (86.1%), Estonia (86.5%), and Hungary (92.6%). On the other end of the spectrum, those of working age accounted for 72.0% in the case of Poland, 73.6% in the case of Spain, and 74.3% in the case of Sweden. Spain is also the country with the highest relative share of elderly among emigration flows to other EU28 countries; 9.1% of all emigrants were 65 or older. Countries with the highest proportion of emigrants aged between 0 and 19 years were Italy (20.6%), Poland (23.5%), and Slovakia (21.7%).

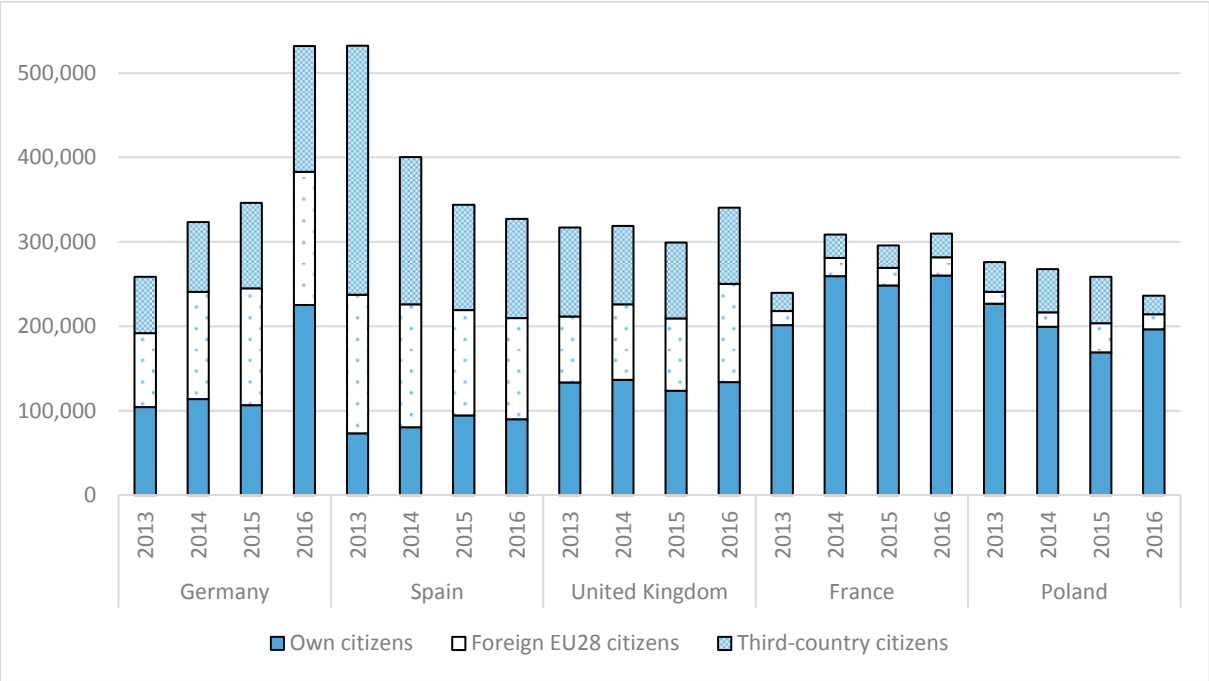
Figure 46: Age Breakdown of Outflows to other EU28 Countries: EU28 Country Level (country of next residence), 2016



Data source: Eurostat_migr_emi3nxt.

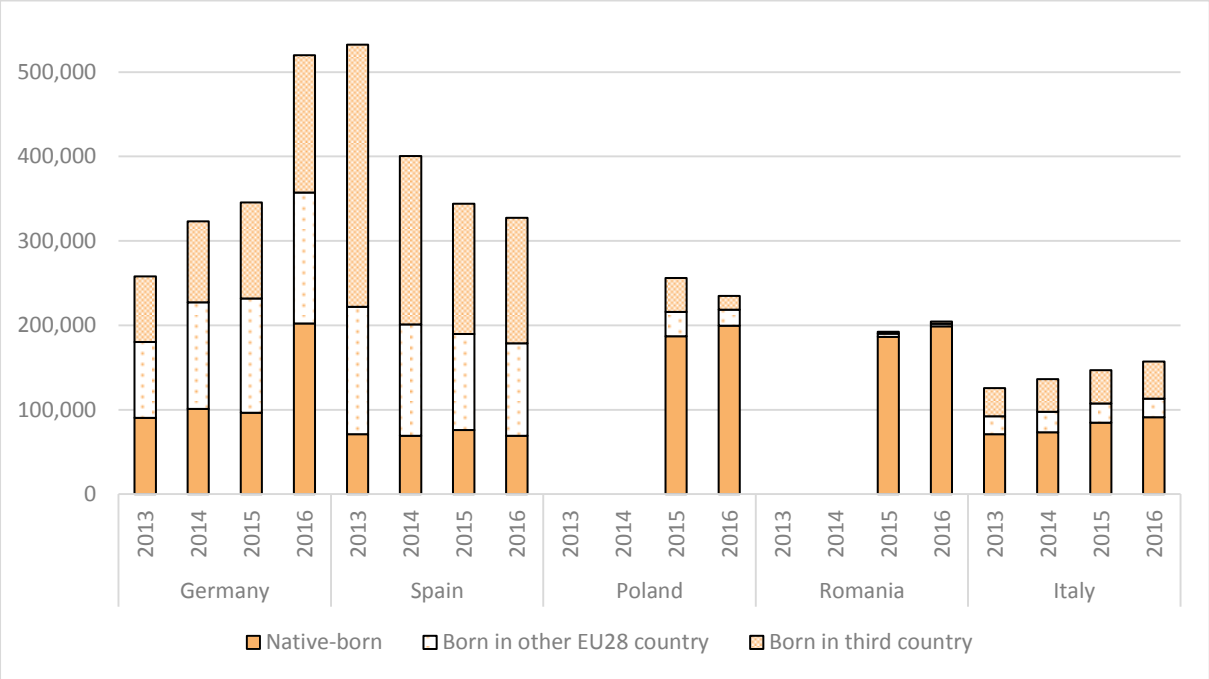
Figure 47 presents the data on outflows from the main countries of origin for the period 2013 through 2016, using the citizenship metric. The five countries with the largest volume of outflows are Germany, Spain, the UK, France, and Poland. In the case of Germany, the data shows that the number of emigrants increased annually over the four years, with a significant rise between 2015 and 2016. Interestingly, this increase was primarily due to a larger number of German citizens leaving the country than was the case in the previous three years. In Spain, on the other hand, the volume of outflows decreased each year over the investigated time period. In this case, the trend is largely driven by changes in the number of TCNs leaving the country. In comparison to these two countries, emigration from the UK, France, and Poland remained relatively stable over the period of 2013 to 2016, with small fluctuations each year.

Figure 47: Top 5 Countries with the Largest Outflows (citizenship), 2013-2016



Data source: Eurostat_migr_emi1ctz.

Figure 48: Top 5 Countries with the Largest Outflows (country of birth), 2013-2016

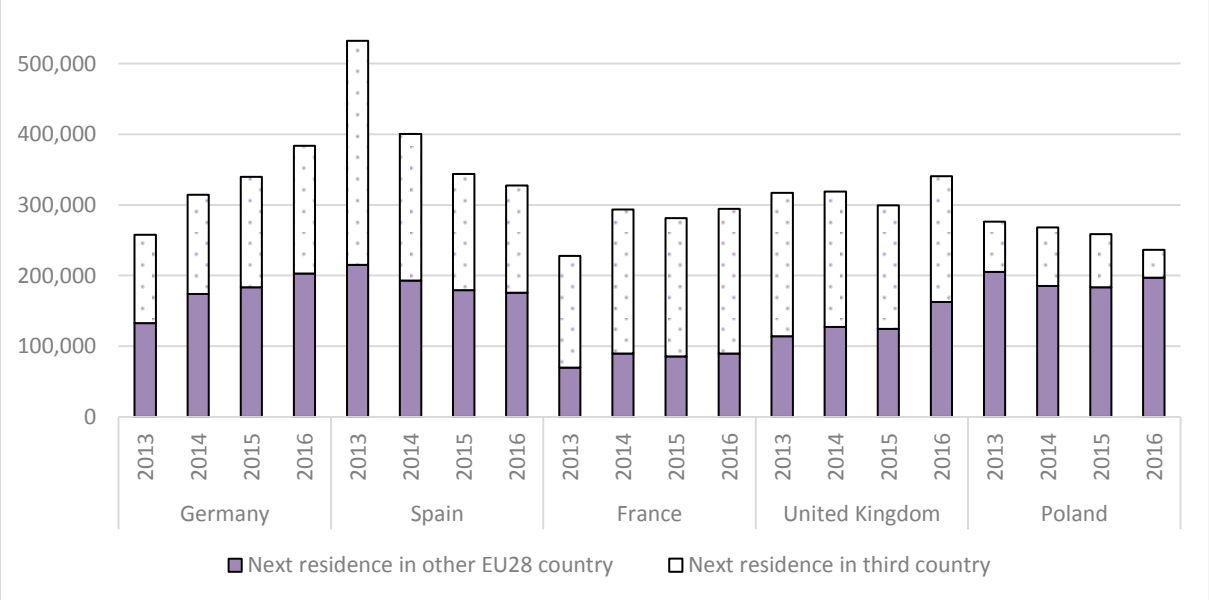


Data source: Eurostat_migr_emi4ctb.

Considering the country of birth metric, Figure 48 again shows the trends between 2013 and 2016 in the main countries of origin, in this case Germany, Spain, Poland, Romania, and Italy. The trends for Germany and Spain that can be seen in Figure 48 are similar to those observed above. Furthermore, the data shows that in the case of Poland and Romania emigration is almost exclusively of people born in the respective country, and that this number increased slightly from 2015 to 2016 (unfortunately, data for 2013 and 2014 is not available). Emigration from Italy also grew slightly each year from 2013 to 2016, with the number of people born in the country making up the majority of this increase.

Finally, Figure 49 presents the trends in outflows over time using the country of next residence metric. The top five countries in this case are again Germany, Spain, France, the UK, and Poland. As can be seen, emigration from Germany to other EU28 countries increased steadily over the four years, while it decreased from Spain. In both countries, the trends in emigration of people to non-EU countries follow the same direction. In the case of France, there is also a general increase in both overall migration and intra-EU migration, with a minor decrease from 2014 to 2015. The same is true for the UK. Poland, on the other hand, observed the overall largest share of intra-EU migration from the country in all four years.

Figure 49: Top 5 Countries with the Largest Outflows (country of next residence), 2013-2016



Data source: Eurostat_migr_emi3nxt.

7.2.4 Intra-EU Migration Corridors (Bilateral Flows)

This final section on intra-EU migration flows discusses some of the bilateral flows that were identified throughout the research process as some of the most significant. The following paragraphs will discuss these in turn and highlight why they are of interest. The data contained in Appendix B contains the full tables on bilateral flows and, as such, details a variety of other interesting trends. As in *Section 6.2.4* above, the trends presented here serve to highlight the complexities of intra-EU migration and leave room for further investigation of other bilateral flows.

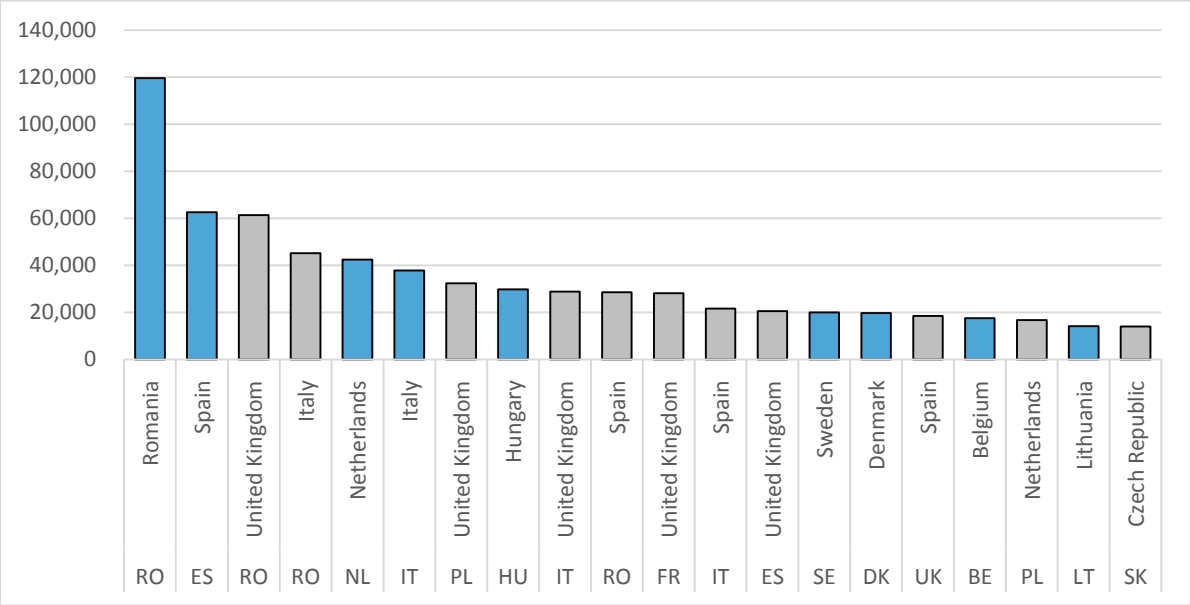
Firstly, the most important bilateral migration corridors within the EU28 are analysed using the citizenship metric. It is important to mention that several countries do not report data on the citizenship of immigrants in a way that would allow investigation of bilateral flows. This includes Germany, which represents a major gap in existing data on intra-EU migration flows, considering its importance as a destination country.

Figure 50 presents the top twenty flows for which data is available graphically. The destination country is listed below the respective column and the citizenship of the respective migrant group is indicated at the bottom. One of the most interesting findings when analysing these bilateral intra-EU migration flows is the fact that many of the more popular corridors are in fact return migration movements. In the figure such movements are highlighted in blue. Migration of Romanian citizens to Romania was by far the most frequented corridor of intra-EU migration in 2016. Close to 120,000 individuals made this move that year alone. The second most frequented route was Spanish citizens moving to Spain—again, return migration in terms of the citizenship metric. Other return migration flows among the top 20 corridors are Dutch, Italians, Hungarian, Swedish, Danish, Belgian, and Lithuanian citizens all moving to their respective country of citizenship.

Other migration flows within the EU28 that were among the most populous in 2016 are largely limited to a few countries of citizenship and of destination. Romania is the country of citizenship in three of the top twenty bilateral flows (besides that to Romania itself); countries of destination in these flows were the UK, Italy, and Spain. Polish citizens moving to the UK and the Netherlands, as well as Italian citizens moving to the UK and Spain, are

other major corridors of intra-EU migration. On the receiving end, the UK is the country of destination in the largest number of bilateral flows. Romanian, Polish, Italian, French, and Spanish citizens moving to the UK was also among the top twenty corridors of intra-EU migration in 2016 captured in the data. Maybe the least expected corridor among the top twenty is the final one, citizens of Slovakia moving to the Czech Republic.

Figure 50: Largest Country-to-Country Flows (origin defined by citizenship), 2016



Data source: Eurostat_migr_immi1ctz.

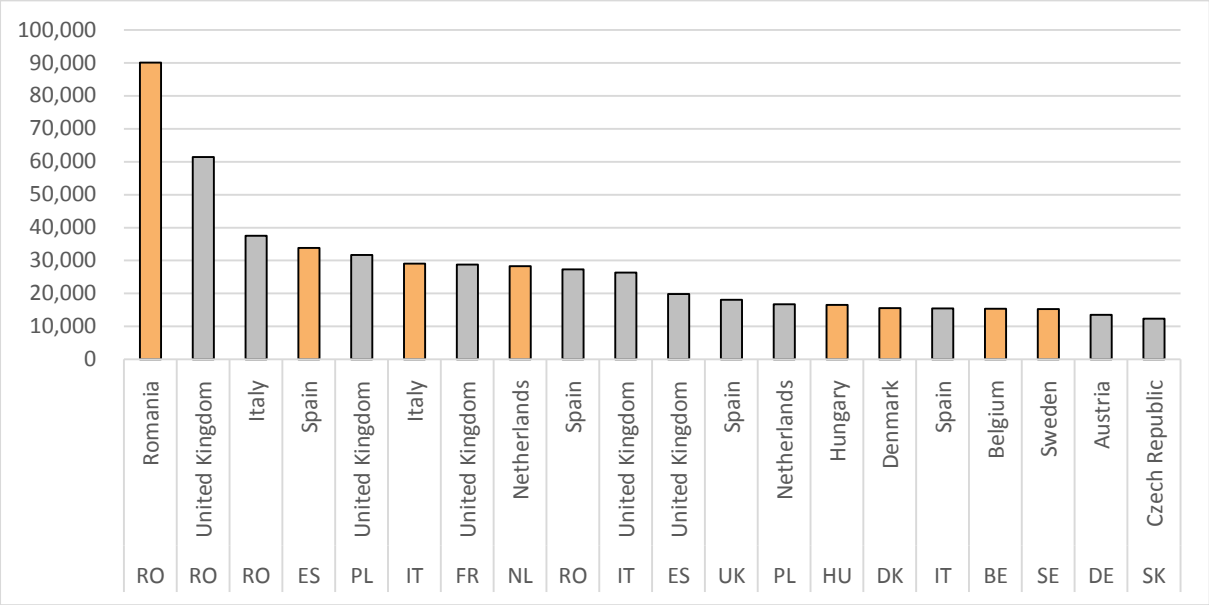
Note: The abbreviations at the bottom indicate the country of citizenship while the full names indicate the respective receiving country; the instances where columns are blue indicate return migration flows.

The top twenty corridors (for which data is available) look slightly different when considering the country of birth metric instead of the citizenship metric. In this case, individuals that were born in Romania and moving back to Romania was also the largest flow, but the second largest was that of Romanian natives moving to the UK. Interestingly, the third flow is also of Romanian-born migrants, in this case to Italy, and the flow of Romanian natives to Spain is also among the top twenty. This highlights the importance of Romania as a source country of intra-EU migration, and shows the diversity of Romanians' main destination countries. Among destination countries, the UK stands out as receiving high numbers of people in 2016 who were born in Romania, Poland, France, Italy, and Spain.

Figure 51 also highlights that, when applying the country of birth metric, there are again several return migration movements among the top twenty intra-EU migration corridors. As

already mentioned, the largest one is that of individuals born in Romania returning there. The top corridors also include movements of people born in Spain, Italy, the Netherlands, Hungary, Denmark, Belgium, and Sweden back to their respective countries of origin.

Figure 51: Largest Country-to-Country Flows (origin defined by country of birth), 2016

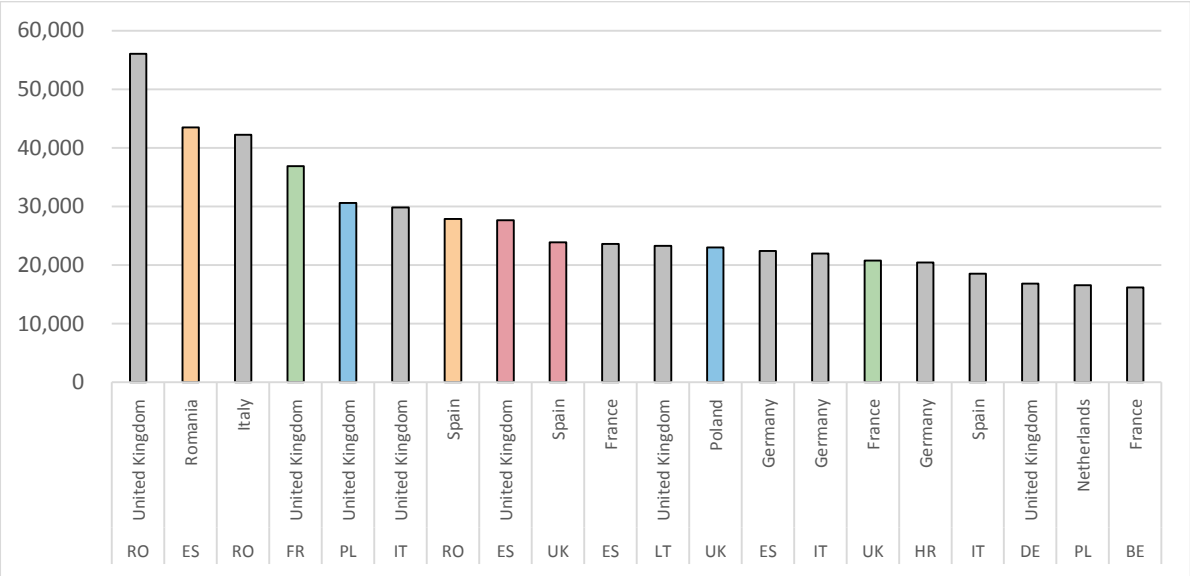


Data source: Eurostat_migr_immi3ctb.

Note: The abbreviations at the bottom indicate the country of birth while the full names indicate the respective receiving country; the instances where columns are orange indicate return migration flows.

Finally, the top twenty intra-EU migration corridors using the country of previous residence definition are shown in Figure 52. This definition allows for investigation of flows that may be going in both directions between countries. As Figure 52 shows, there are four such bilateral flows among the top twenty corridors overall. The first of these corridors is the one between Romania and Spain, where in 2016 movements towards Romania were larger in volume than those to Spain. Secondly, there were bilateral movements between France and the UK. Here the number of individuals moving from France to the UK was higher than those migrating the other way. The same is the case in the third corridor, between Poland and the UK: movements from Poland to the UK were larger in volume than those from the UK to Poland. In the case of the fifth bilateral flow, between the UK and Spain, movements to the UK from Spain were more frequent in 2016 than those from Spain to the UK.

Figure 52: Largest Country-to-Country Flows (origin defined by country of previous residence), 2016

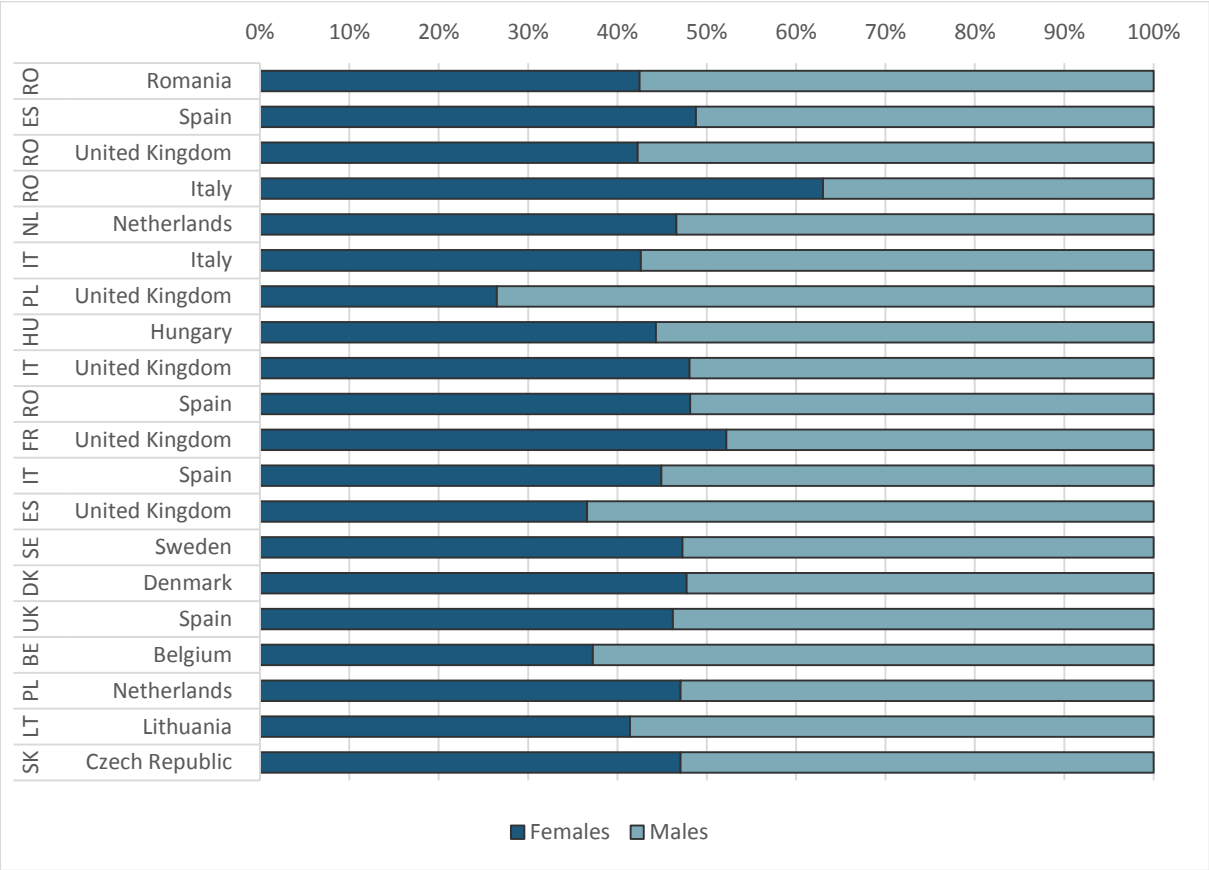


Data source: Eurostat_mgir_imm5prv and Eurostat_mgir_emi3nxt.

Note: The abbreviations at the bottom indicate the country of previous residence while the full names indicate the respective receiving country; the colour pairs highlight bilateral flows.

In terms of the composition of these main bilateral migration corridors, Figure 53 shows the distribution of females and males in each of the top twenty corridors using the citizenship metric. In line with overall migration flow trends in the EU28, the majority of migrants in each of the corridors were male. This dominance was especially pronounced in the flows of Polish citizens to the UK (73.5% male), Spanish citizens to the UK (63.4%), and Belgian citizens moving to Belgium (62.8%). The opposite is the case for Romanian citizens moving to Italy, 63.0% of whom were females. In the remaining corridors the sex composition is generally more balanced, with a small majority of males. The exception in this regard is the corridor of French citizens moving to the UK; among those that made this move in 2016, 52.2% were female.

Figure 53: Sex Breakdown of Largest Country-to-Country Flows (origin defined by citizenship), 2016

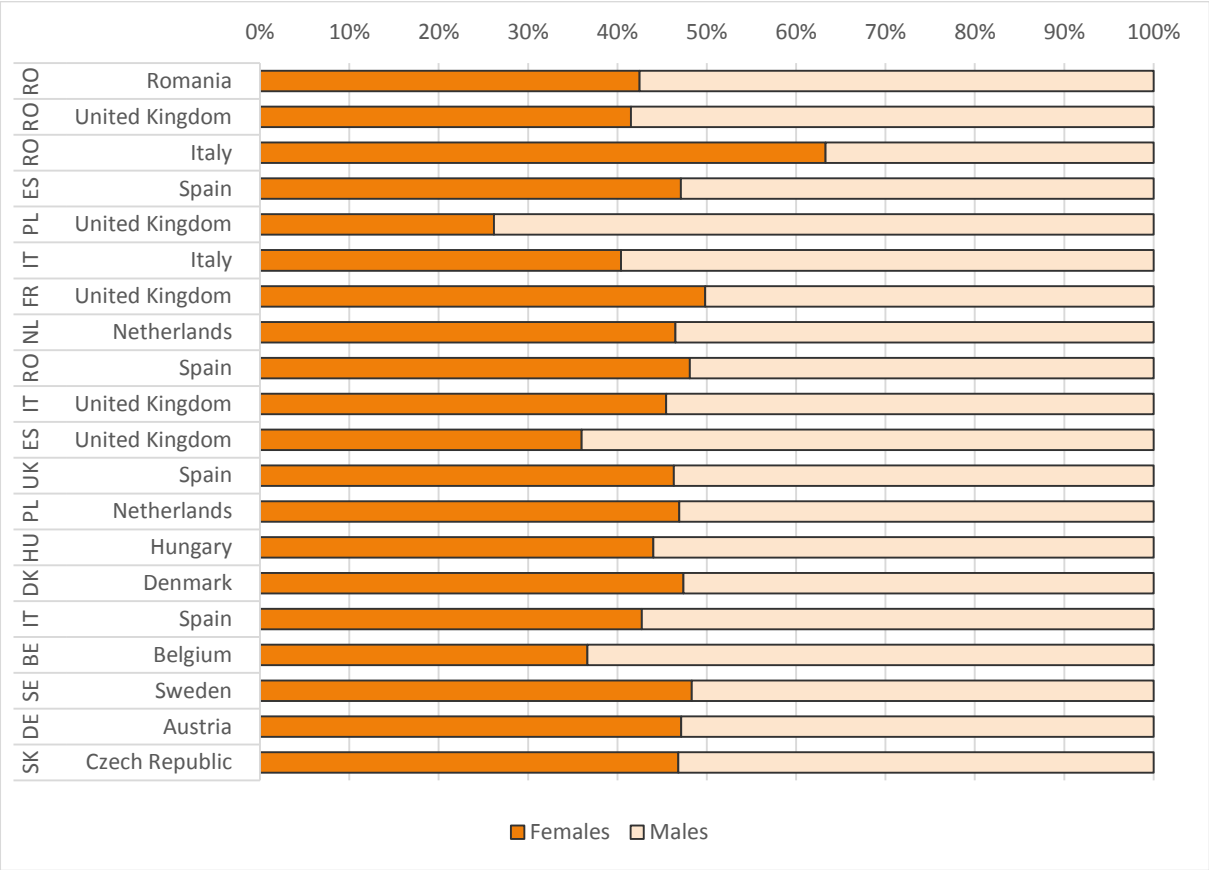


Data source: Eurostat_migr_immi1ctz.

Note: The abbreviations at the left indicate the country of citizenship while the full names indicate the respective receiving country.

In terms of the sex breakdown of the different migration corridors by country of birth, the trend is also generally the same as what has been consistently observed for intra-EU migration: males dominate most of the top bilateral flows. There is only one corridor in which females made up the majority of the migrants in 2016. Among those born in Romania who migrated to Italy, 63.3% were women. In all the other corridors, males made up more than 50% of the flows that year. In the case of return migration of individuals born in Belgium to the same country, males accounted for 63.4% of the total flow; in the case of Spanish natives moving to the UK the rate was 64.0%; and among those born in Poland moving to UK it was 73.8%.

Figure 54: Sex Breakdown of Largest Country-to-Country Flows (origin defined by country of birth), 2016



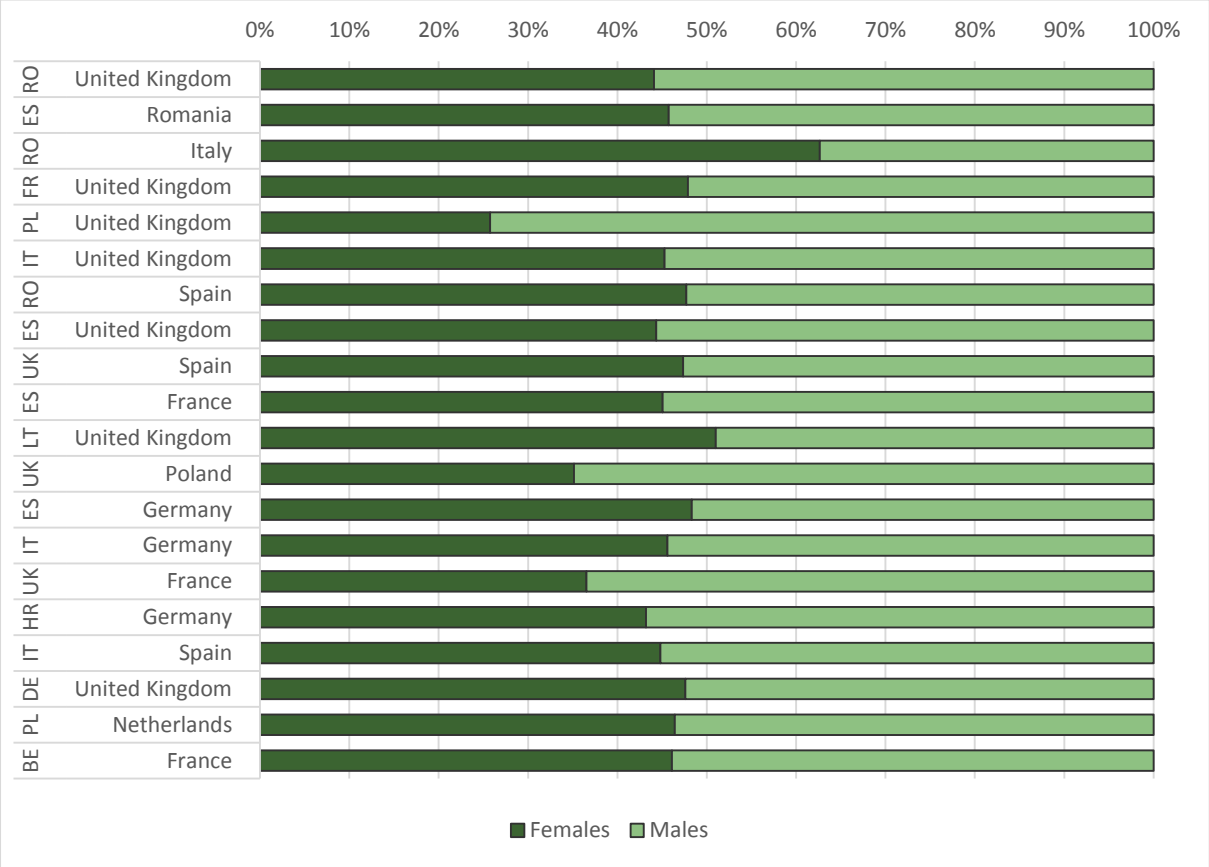
Data source: Eurostat_migr_immi3ctb.

Note: The abbreviations at the left indicate the country of birth while the full names indicate the respective receiving country.

The country of previous residence metric shows similar trends to the other metrics. Males dominate most of the top twenty identified corridors. There are two exceptions: migrants that moved from Romania to Italy in 2016 were female in 62.6% of cases, and those that moved from Lithuania to the UK in 51.0% of cases. In the other corridors, males made up between 51.7% (people moving from Spain to Germany) and 74.2% (people moving from Poland to the UK). What is notable is the comparison in terms of sex composition between those flows that are captured in both directions in Figure 55. So, while the share of men among people migrating from Poland to the UK was the highest among all the corridors, the share of men among those moving in the opposite direction was 64.9% in the same year—almost 10% lower. The flows between the UK and France also show a slightly different composition, depending on the direction. Those moving from the UK were male in 63.5% of

cases, while 52.1% of those moving to the UK were also men. In the other bilateral corridors these differences are not as pronounced.

Figure 55: Sex breakdown of largest country-to-country flows (origin defined by country of previous residence), 2016



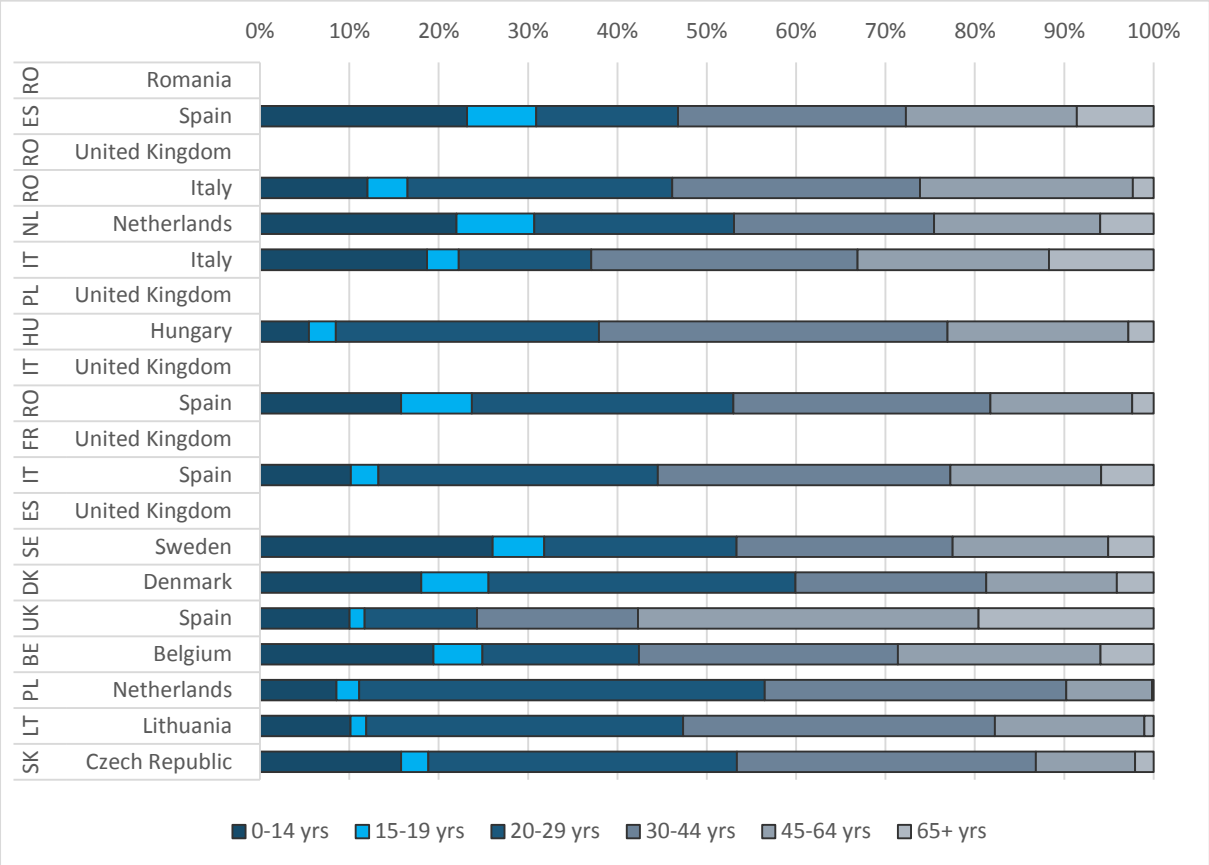
Data source: Eurostat_migr_imm5prv and Eurostat_migr_emi3nxt.

Note: The abbreviations at the left indicate the country of previous residence while the full names indicate the respective receiving country.

The age composition of those in the top twenty corridors by citizenship is unfortunately not available for all corridors. Where data is available, however, some interesting differences can be observed. Looking at the two youngest age groups, 0-14 and 15-19, the data shows that there are more children and youth in some corridors than in others. The share was lowest (11.1%) among Polish citizens moving to the Netherlands in 2016 and highest among Swedish citizens moving to Sweden (31.8%). This variation is also observed when looking at the oldest age group, those 65 and older. Again, the lowest share of this group is observed among Polish citizens migrating to the Netherlands. Only 0.2% of these migrants were 65 or older. In this case, the highest share is observed among British citizens moving to Spain, of

whom 19.6% belonged in the oldest age cohort. Based on the observation that these groups have different levels of representation among the different channels, it is clear that the share of the working age population also differs across corridors. The lowest share in this case is observed among Spanish citizens moving to Spain (60.5%) and the highest among Hungarians moving to Hungary and Polish citizens moving to the Netherlands (88.7% in both cases). In the other corridors, shares of the working age population among the total flows fall between these two extremes.

Figure 56: Age Breakdown of Largest Country-to-Country Flows (origin defined by citizenship), 2016



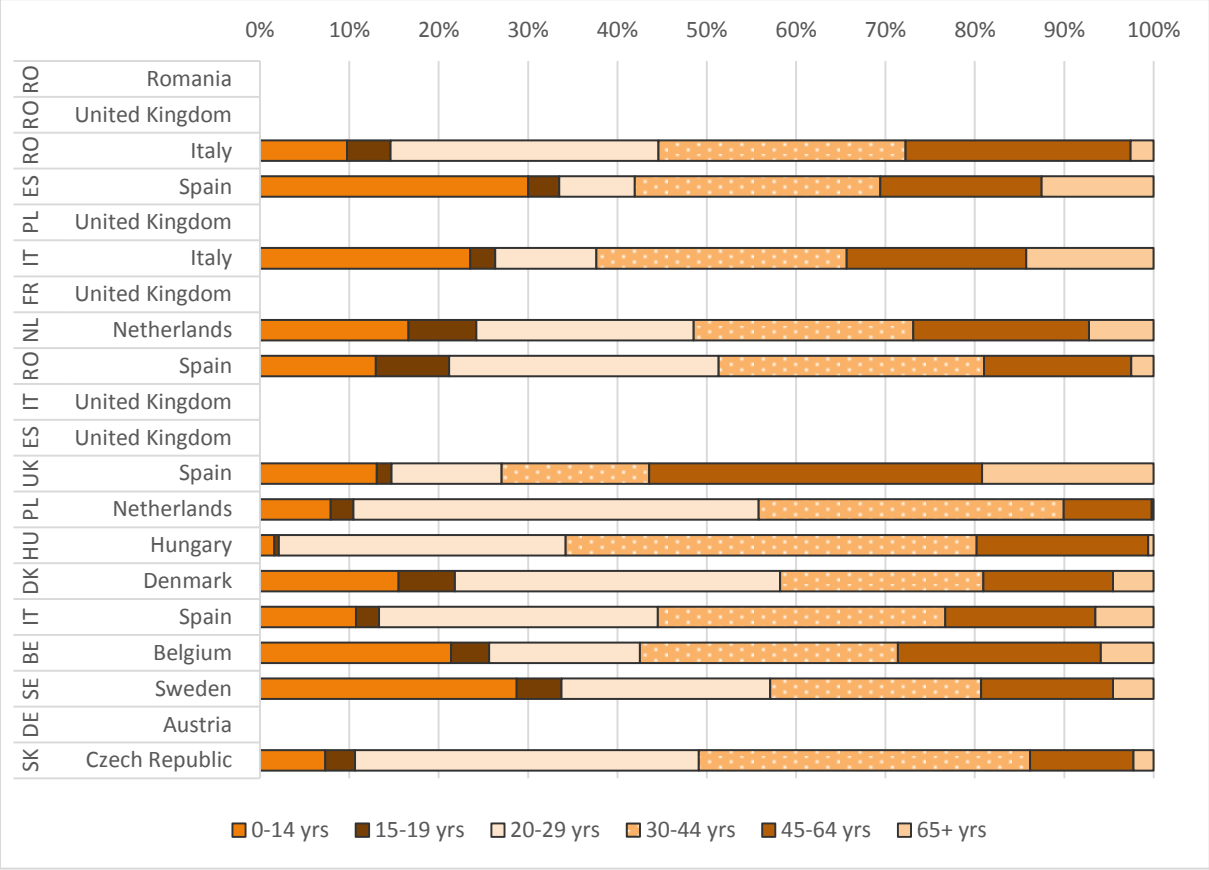
Data source: Eurostat_migr_emi1ctz.

Note: The abbreviations at the left indicate the country of citizenship while the full names indicate the respective receiving country.

In terms of country of birth, the trends in these flows are generally similar. The working age population between 20 and 64 made up at least 51.3% in each of the corridors for which data is available. This is the lowest value for any one corridor, specifically the one capturing return migration to Spain. The share is highest, on the other hand, in the return migration

corridor of those born in Hungary. In this case, 96.8% of all individuals moving back to Hungary in 2016 were of working age. This is also the corridor with the lowest share of children and youth among the migrants. Only 2.1% were between 0 and 19 years old. Return migration to Sweden, on the other hand, had the highest share of the younger part of the population at 33.7%, closely followed by return migrants to Spain at 33.5%. Migrants born in the UK and moving to Spain in 2016 were the most likely to be 65 or older (19.2%). Migrants born in Poland and moving to the Netherlands, on the other hand, were least often (0.2%) among the oldest age group.

Figure 57: Age breakdown of largest country-to-country flows (origin defined by country of birth), 2016



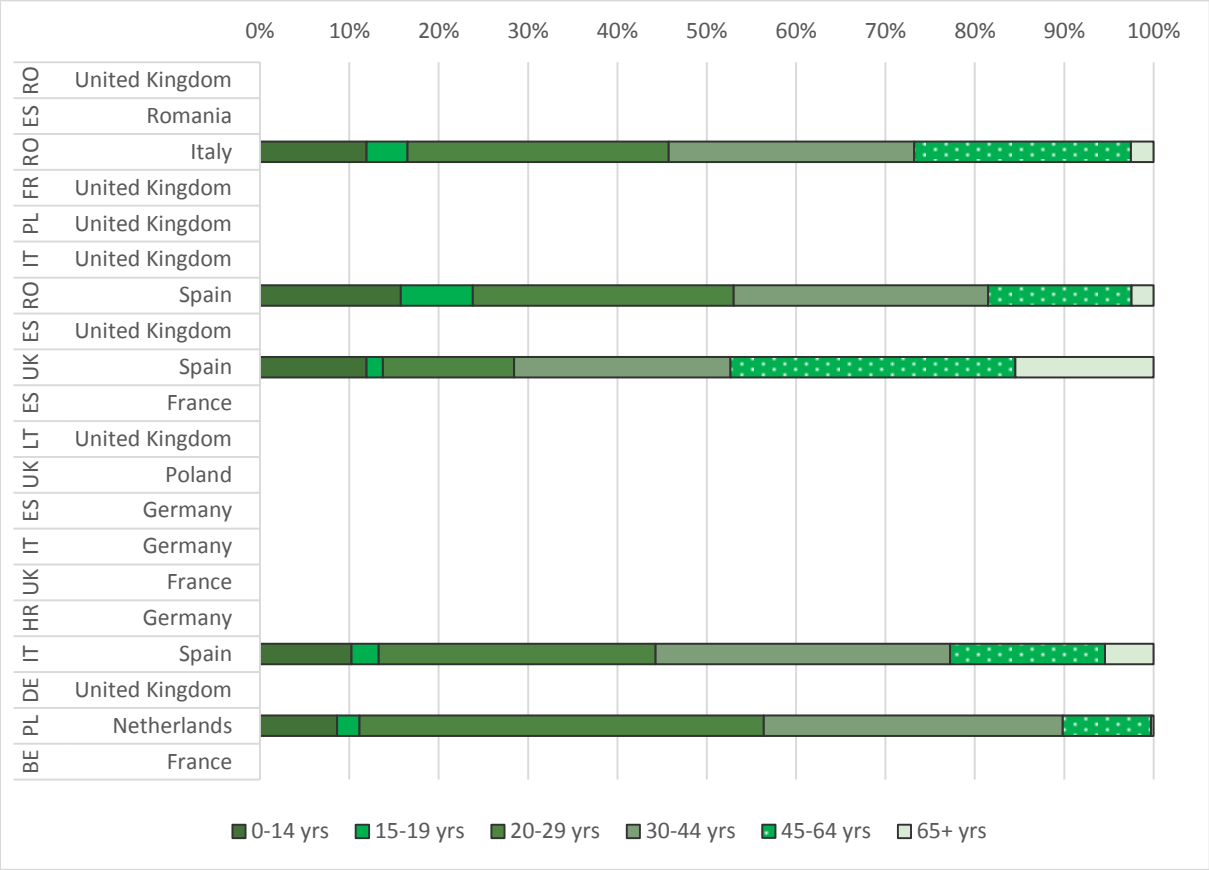
Data source: Eurostat_migr_emi4ctb.

Note: The abbreviations at the left indicate the country of birth while the full names indicate the respective receiving country.

Data on the age composition of migration flows by previous country of residence is, unfortunately, only available in a few cases, as can be seen in Figure 58. Among those flows for which the data is available, those that migrated were largely of working age. The share

was the highest among those moving from Italy to Spain (81.3%) and lowest among those moving from the UK to Spain (70.8%). The latter is also the corridor with the highest share of migrants that were 65 or older at the time of moving in 2016. They made up 15.5% of the total flow that year. The share of children and youth, on the other hand, was the highest (23.7%) among those from Romania to Spain.

Figure 58: Age breakdown of largest country-to-country flows (origin defined by country of previous residence), 2016



Data source: Eurostat_migr_emi3nxt.

Note: The abbreviations at the left indicate the country of previous residence while the full names indicate the respective receiving country.

8. Reasons Driving Migration within the European Union

8.1 Reasons for Intra-EU Migration

8.1.1 Available Statistics and Remaining Challenges

Data on intra-European movers' reasons for migration are key in revealing the drivers behind the existence and prevalence of specific migration corridors within the EU. However, this information is currently not available at an EU level from administrative sources. Although, as mentioned previously, the nature of migration is described in residence permit records – in relatively good detail[66] – this data only refers to third country nationals, and does not contain tools to identify intra-EU movers among them. As such, it is not possible to isolate the reasons for actual intra-EU migration.

Generally speaking, a key issue in capturing motivations in migration data is to differentiate between the legal pathways for migration (the legal criterion that provided the individual the right to settle, such as family reunification), assessed through granted visa types, and the actual motivation(s) of the individual (see interview 4). Not only might the two differ because the 'real' reason might not be the administratively most feasible option, but also because migration is a multifaceted decision often influenced by a variety of factors, which could also change over time. The confusion with legal status is less of an issue for EU nationals who do not require a legal reason to settle in another EU country.

While the type of permit eventually granted to individuals or families might differ from migration reasons, the frontier between the two is sometimes blurred, and residence permit types might be good proxies for migration motivations. This might be particularly true when migrating on humanitarian grounds, and refugee status *eventually granted*, since asylum applications are often thoroughly assessed. In this respect, Eurostat provides detailed cross-country information for EU Member States on the number of asylum applications, their status and outcome by citizenship country from 2009 to 2018, as well as information on Dublin procedures by submitting and receiving country for the period 2008-2017. The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) also reports the

[66] Including not only reason for the immigrant receiving the permit (e.g. student, work, asylum), but additional breakdowns within these main reason (such as sector of employment).

number of refugees by country of previous residence for EU Member States, from 1951 to 2017.

Moreover, national statistical offices often record visa types, which, as explained above, could proxy reasons for migration relatively well in certain cases. Austrian, Belgian, Cypriot, Danish, German, Hungarian, Irish, Italian, Latvian, Lithuanian, Luxemburgish, Maltese, Dutch, Polish, Portuguese, Slovakian Swedish, and British NSIs provide information on *asylum* application status mostly by citizenship country; sometimes by country of asylum or country of transfer. Finnish, Maltese, Swedish, NSIs provide information on *adoption* by birth country or country of previous residence. And, in general, Belgian, Bulgarian, Danish, German, Hungarian, Italian, Lithuanian, Polish, Swedish and British NSIs provide information on (broad) visa types, thus allowing to measure *student migration*, mostly by citizenship country; sometimes, by country of previous residence.

Yet, in order to accurately capture the complexity of motivations that led the migrant to leave one country and/or to choose a specific country to move to, the data collection tool – most likely a survey – would allow to indicate multiple reasons, possibly ranked. Ideally, potential answers would include main categories (e.g. work) as well as more specific sub-categories (e.g. employment opportunities, salary, terms of employment, etc.) to gain richer insight into the drivers of migration within the EU.

The most representative and recent source of cross-country data on reasons for migration is the 2014 ad-hoc module of the LFS (also worth noting the 2008 ad-hoc wave), which specifically asks this question (see Interview 3). A close runner-up is the 2009 special wave (72.5) of the Eurobarometer, which works with a much smaller sample than the LFS but covers questions on motivations and disincentives to work abroad, as well as related attitude questions. An important difference is that most incentives and disincentives recorded by Eurobarometer 72.5 refer to a hypothetical future migration, not a recent migration. Nonetheless, the most recent past migration is also captured, including its location and questions about the type of work performed during that migration. In addition, interviewees are asked if they have ever studied abroad and/or commuted across borders (although destinations are not specified in this case). A weakness of both the LFS and the Eurobarometer is that they only have approximate ways to capture the country of previous

residence.[67] They also provide information on sample-based immigration stocks for a specific year, i.e. static rather than dynamic information on reasons for migration that might not be nationally-representative. Therefore, they are imperfect for capturing the drivers of intra-EU mobility *per se*.

The EIMSS survey is better designed for this purpose since it identifies not only the reason for settling in the destination country, but also the country of residence prior to migration. However, as mentioned in *Section 5.2.1*, this data is only available for 2004 and for a handful of countries – France, Germany, Italy, Spain, and the UK.

Existing databases tracking migration for educational purposes might also be less likely to suffer from discrepancies between administrative and actual reasons for migration, since they are often designed to record student migration as such. This will be further discussed in Section 8.3: Student Migration.

Among Member States' national statistical institutes (NSIs), only Poland, Slovenia and the UK provide information on reasons for migration, through population censuses (Poland) or administrative records (Slovenia's Statistical Office's and the UK's IPS International Passenger Survey). Reasons for migration are recorded for stocks of immigrants by citizenship country, birth country, and country of previous residence for Slovenia; for stocks of *emigrants* by country of next residence for Poland; and for inflows and outflows of migrants by citizenship country, birth country, and country of previous or next residence, respectively, for the UK.

National surveys also supply valuable insights, albeit sample-based. The Netherlands Longitudinal Life-long Survey (NELLS) records reasons to settle in the Netherlands by citizenship and birth country in 2009 and 2013, for a sample-based stock of immigrants. The German Socio-Economic Panel (GSOEP) gives reasons for migration for individuals who lived

[67] The LFS records broad groups of citizenship country, birth country, country of residence one year prior the survey was conducted, as well as last country of work abroad. The Eurobarometer records citizenship country, destination country of last move, and duration of that move.

in Germany at the time of the survey, whether they immigrated to, or emigrated from Germany, by birth country and country of next residence, respectively.[68]

Our interview with a senior official from UN DESA (Interview 2) informed us that the lack of this type of information for EU nationals in lieu of residence permit data has also been noticed by the international statistics community. It is, in fact, a topic of on-going debate in the Global Compact for Migration, with some pushing for a recommendation concerning the collection of reason for migration data in population censuses.

8.1.2 Identified Patterns

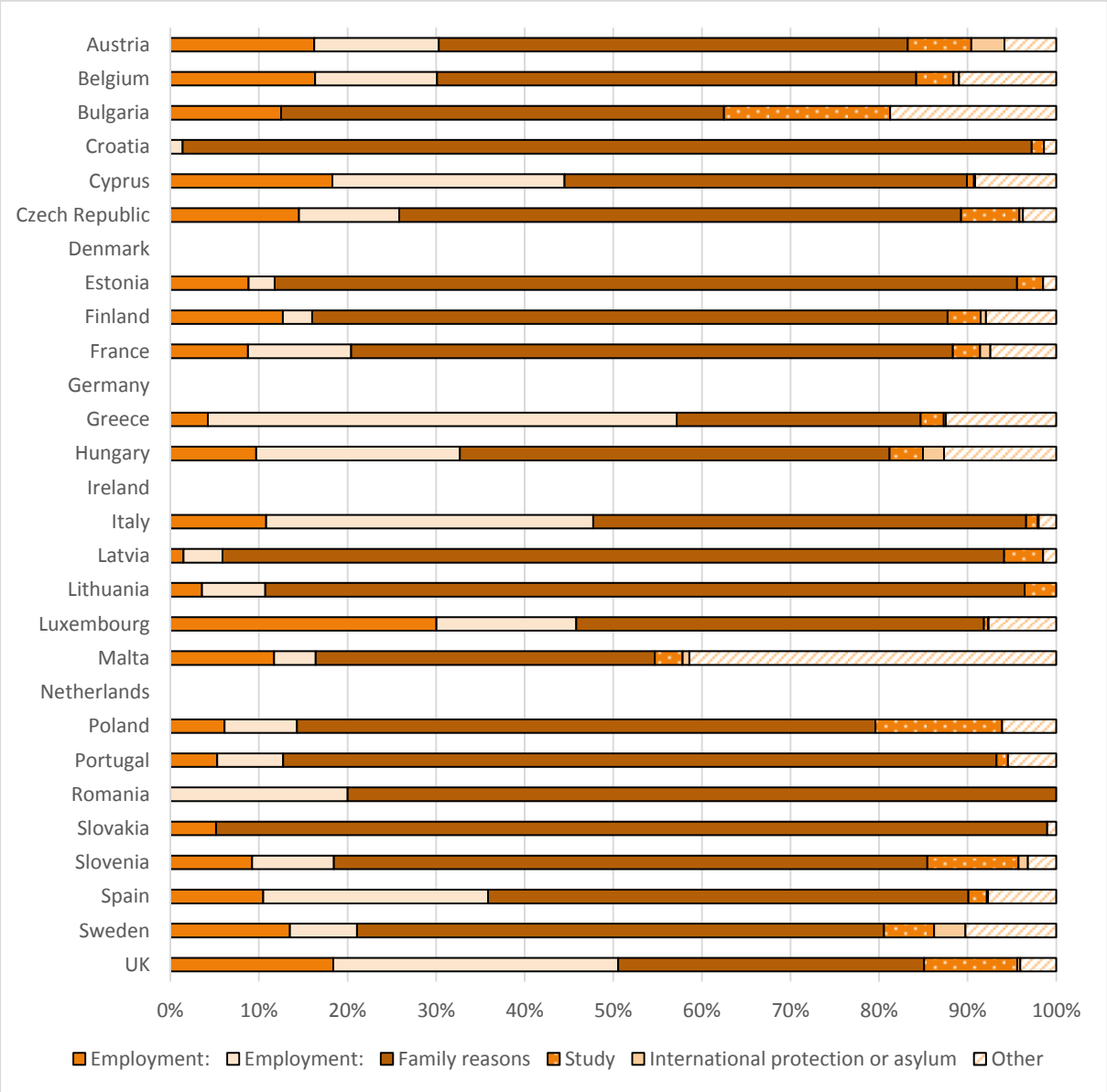
As mentioned, the reason for migration is specifically asked about in the 2014 ad-hoc module of the LFS. Considering the cross-country nature of the survey, this delivers the most comprehensive data on reasons for intra-EU migration we could identify. Figure 59 shows that in all countries, for which the data is available, family-related factors were given the most often as the main reason for migration. When looking at employment-motivated migration, it becomes clear that for some countries people are more likely to move there after finding a job, while in others they more often move to look for a job. Greece stands out as an example for the latter, while in Luxembourg the share of those migrating for specific job is the largest.

It should be said that the sample sizes of intra-EU migrants differs significantly between the countries, with the smallest being 16 in the case of Bulgaria and the largest 3,642 in the case of Italy. Table 10 in *Annex III: Additional Tables* contains the absolute values used for the creation of Figure 59 and also shows some differences between different groups of intra-EU migrants. Some countries report data in a way that it can be disaggregated to the EU15 or the new Member States. This is interesting insofar that it allowed to see if there are differences among the reasons for migration for these different groups. Indeed, the data

[68] Based on the 2015 wave of data obtained at the beginning of this project, the GSEOP sample M1 and M2 could, for instance, provide nationally-representative data by recording households with at least one household member who immigrated to Germany between 1995 and 2010, and 2010 and 2013, respectively (2013 IAB-SOEP Migration Sample 1 and 2015 IAB-SOEP Migration Sample M2). Note that GSOEP estimates on immigrant and emigrant stocks were computed by using samples M1 and M2, applying sample weights to obtain nationally-representative statistics. It should be borne in mind that, while respondents immigrated to Germany over 1995-2013, they might have emigrated from Germany either before 1995, or between 1995 and 2013.

shows that, relatively speaking, in most cases those born in the EU15 more often migrate for family reasons than those from the new Member States. Looking at Italy, for example, 85.5 per cent of the EU15 migrants indicated family as the main reason for migrating to the country, compared to 38.1 per cent of those born in the Member States that joined the EU in 2004 and 33.4 per cent of those born in the three countries that joined in 2007 and 2013. In turn, among the latter two groups the majority (38.3 per cent and 52.3 per cent, respectively) came to Italy to look for a job.

Figure 59: Most Important Reason for Intra-EU Migration to Residence Country (country of birth)



Source: LFS_adhoc2014.
Note: The country of birth is classified differently in the data depending on the country. While some group all migrants from other EU28 countries together, others distinguish between the EU15 and the new member states (NMS). The latter is then again subdivided in some countries and not in others.

While Germany does not provide access to its LFS microdata, the GSOEP contains information on the reasons for migrating to the country. As can be seen in Table 4, the majority of migrants indicated that they came to Germany for family reasons (37.5%), followed by economic reasons (36.4%), specifically reasons related to their children (27.6%). Political (11.3%) and other reasons (9.8%) are also fairly common. Data on the reason for migration was not available in 5.0% of cases. Political factors are, however, not a dominant factor in intra-EU migration to Germany. Only a few migrants from Poland (1.7%), Hungary (1.6%), and Romania (1.1%) indicated such a reason. Economic reasons were the absolute majority for intra-EU movements to Germany, where migrants born in Slovenia (85.0%), Hungary (72.6%), Romania (66.8%), Bulgaria (61.7%), Poland (59.5%), Greece (58.9%), Spain (53.6%), Austria (53.1%), and Italy (49.5%) all indicated that they moved primarily for economic reasons. Family reasons are, however, also still important. In the case of Austrian-born immigrants, for example, 46.9% indicated that they migrated to join a partner.

Looking at another survey as a data source on reasons for migration, the EIMSS provides rich data on intra-EU migrants' main reason for migration, however, the data comes with a few limitations. Firstly, the survey was conducted in 2004, sampling intra-EU migrants that had moved between 1973 and 2003. Secondly, the survey focuses on five specific EU countries (France, Italy, Spain, Germany and Britain), both as countries of origin and countries of destination for sampled intra-EU migrants. This means that it omits a large share of the entire EU28 population.

In comparison to GSOEP findings, EIMSS also identified that close to 40 per cent of intra-EU movers migrated to Germany for family/love reasons, however, in the EIMSS over 50 per cent of migrants chose to migrate for work reasons (including reasons such as 'looking for a job', 'to accept a job offer', 'to start a business 'and 'because of my occupation') compared to 36.4 per cent in the GSOEP. As can be seen in Table 5, EIMSS provides an additional two categories of migration motivations for respondents to choose from, which are not included in the GSOEP: 'education' and 'quality of life'. Of the EIMSS sample, 10.6 per cent of intra-EU migrants in Germany indicated that they had moved for 'education', 9.8 per cent stated that they had migrated for 'better quality of life'.

Table 4: Main Reason to Immigrate to Germany

Country of birth	Total	No answer / Does not apply		Family reasons: Partnership		Family reasons: Others		Economic reasons: Own	
	Estimate	Estimate	%	Estimate	%	Estimate	%	Estimate	%
Total	1,465,523.12	73,054.92	4.98	345,755.80	23.59	203,651.59	13.90	72,300.49	4.93
Germany	71,209.90	70,852.22	99.50	-	0.00	357.68	0.50	-	0.00
Greece	35,223.05	-	0.00	4,480.22	12.72	9,039.44	25.66	2,266.85	6.44
Italy	43,801.59	-	0.00	5,751.74	13.13	4,242.57	9.69	1,133.07	2.59
Spain	22,377.72	-	0.00	2,718.18	12.15	754.03	3.37	198.52	0.89
Austria	25,717.26	-	0.00	12,069.86	46.93	-	0.00	-	0.00
Romania	90,554.53	-	0.00	19,139.21	21.14	6,908.44	7.63	13,960.58	15.42
Poland	186,300.72	806.85	0.43	35,006.31	18.79	31,612.53	16.97	13,790.34	7.40
Hungary	56,522.04	-	0.00	10,890.35	19.27	1,877.89	3.32	2,704.95	4.79
Bulgaria	66,901.13	-	0.00	6,704.56	10.02	11,104.08	16.60	9,556.44	14.28
Slovenia	23,679.73	-	0.00	3,541.60	14.96	-	0.00	2,023.45	8.55

Country of birth	Total	Economic reasons: Children		Economic reasons: Others		Political reasons		Other reasons	
	Estimate	Estimate	%	Estimate	%	Estimate	%	Estimate	%
Total	1,465,523.12	404,539.73	27.60	56,808.75	3.88	165,389.39	11.29	144,022.45	9.83
Germany	71,209.90	-	0.00	-	0.00	-	0.00	-	0.00
Greece	35,223.05	14,862.06	42.19	3,620.11	10.28	-	0.00	954.37	2.71
Italy	43,801.59	19,972.97	45.60	591.67	1.35	-	0.00	12,109.57	27.65
Spain	22,377.72	9,188.44	41.06	2,597.31	11.61	-	0.00	6,921.24	30.93
Austria	25,717.26	13,647.40	53.07	-	0.00	-	0.00	-	0.00
Romania	90,554.53	41,639.53	45.98	4,917.86	5.43	961.68	1.06	3,027.23	3.34
Poland	186,300.72	86,515.96	46.44	10,517.24	5.65	3,231.39	1.73	4,820.10	2.59
Hungary	56,522.04	35,091.61	62.08	3,237.15	5.73	898.85	1.59	1,821.24	3.22
Bulgaria	66,901.13	30,422.76	45.47	1,328.88	1.99	-	0.00	7,784.41	11.64
Slovenia	23,679.73	11,402.17	48.15	6,712.51	28.35	-	0.00	-	0.00

Source: GSOEP.
Note: Percentages are expressed relative to immigration stocks by birth country, e.g. 12.72% of immigrants who were born in Greece immigrated to Germany for partnership reasons.

In comparison to GSOEP findings, EIMSS also identified that close to 40 per cent of intra-EU movers migrated to Germany for family/love reasons, however, in the EIMSS over 50 per cent of migrants chose to migrate for work reasons (including reasons such as 'looking for a job', 'to accept a job offer', 'to start a business 'and 'because of my occupation') compared

to 36.4 per cent in the GSOEP. As can be seen in Table 5, EIMSS provides an additional two categories of migration motivations for respondents to choose from, which are not included in the GSOEP: 'education' and 'quality of life'. Of the EIMSS sample, 10.6 per cent of intra-EU migrants in Germany indicated that they had moved for 'education', 9.8 per cent stated that they had migrated for 'better quality of life'.

Table 5: Main Reasons for Migration to the Country of Residence of Intra-EU Migrants

Reasons for migration	France %	Germany %	Britain %	Italy %	Spain %	Total %
Work: Total	***26.1***	***53.8***	***42.8***	***26.7***	***13.1***	***32.6***
To look for a job	7.3	25.5	14.2	5.1	2.1	10.9
To accept a job offer	13.4	19.7	22.4	14.6	6.1	15.2
To start a business	1.2	0.4	1.1	0.5	3.2	1.3
Because of my occupation	4.2	8.2	5.1	6.5	1.7	5.2
Education: Total	***10.3***	***10.6***	***20.7***	***8.8***	***9.3***	***11.8***
To study in secondary school	0.2	0.6	0.9	0.4	0.7	0.6
To participate in a study exchange program	0.4	1.2	0.9	2.3	0.5	1.1
To study at university level (undergraduate)	2.2	2.7	3.3	2	0.1	2
To study at graduate/ postgraduate/ specialisation level	1.8	1.4	2.8	1.4	0.8	1.6
To do an internship	1.1	1.1	0.6	0.8	1	0.9
To learn the language	4.6	3.6	12.2	1.9	6.2	5.6
Quality of life: Total	***41***	***9.8***	***16.2***	***27.8***	***99.3***	***38.8***
To gain new experiences	10.1	7	11.1	6.6	12.6	9.4
To live in a better natural environment	21.9	1.8	4.8	12.3	37.4	15.7
To live in a better/healthier weather, enjoy climate	9	1	0.3	8.9	49.3	13.7
Love/Family: Total	***33.8***	***39.1***	***35.1***	***44.2***	***24.3***	***35.4***
To live together with members of family	4.2	7.4	4.2	4.5	10.5	6.2
To live with partner/spouse/children	29.6	31.7	30.9	39.7	13.8	29.2

Source: Based on Recchi & Favell (2009), p. 58.

In terms of the remaining four focus countries, approximately 10 per cent of migrants indicated that they had moved for education purposes to the country of residence, with the exception of Britain, where 20.7 per cent of the sample had migrated for education reasons.

As mentioned previously, 53.8 per cent of intra-EU migrants to Germany indicated 'work' as their main reason for migration. Amongst the remainder of the EIMSS sample, intra-EU

migration for the purpose of work returned fluctuating results. In Britain, 42.8 per cent of migrants had migrated for the same reason, followed by 26.7 per cent in Italy and 26.1 per cent in France, and a mere 13.1 per cent Spain. Migration for family/love was particularly high ranking as a motivation for migration amongst migrants residing in Italy (44.2 per cent), followed by Germany (39.1 per cent), Britain (35.1 per cent) and France (33.8 per cent). In Spain, only 24.3 per cent of intra-EU migrants indicated 'love/family' as the main reason for their migration.

Quality of life was the most prominent reason for migration amongst intra-EU migrants in Spain (99.3 per cent), followed by France (41 per cent), Italy (27.8 per cent) and Britain (16.2 per cent). Only 9.8 per cent of intra-EU migrants residing in Germany indicated quality of life as a reason for their migration.

8.2 Labour Migration

8.2.1 Available Statistics and Remaining Challenges

Focusing on European labour migration in particular, the most useful EU-level database to consult is undoubtedly the Labour Force Survey. The core questionnaire allows for identification of foreign citizens in the surveyed country while also asking detailed questions about their labour characteristics. While this is not strictly speaking labour migration in that it is not specified if labour was the motivation behind the move, it does give us some information on EU citizens working in other EU countries (keeping in mind the limited information on their countries of origin). The questionnaire also asks for the country or place of work, which, if different from country of residence, allows the identification of cross-country commuters. The 2008 and 2014 ad-hoc modules are particularly relevant to assess the prominence of labour-motivated migration (together with the socio-demographic profile of these movers), since they ask about the reason for migration and the last country of work abroad.

The Eurobarometer's 2009 special wave on *Geographical and labour market mobility* also contains useful information: it asks if the respondent has ever lived or worked abroad, and if yes (including if they are currently doing that), the location and duration of that migration;

the type of work done while abroad (if any); how he or she found that job; and a variety of similar but also even more detailed questions regarding an intended future move for work purposes. The question asked in the Eurobarometer are important when trying to understand intra-EU labour migration. They addressed some key questions related to labour migration within the EU, which were a highly useful supplement to the data provided by the LFS ad-hoc module (in fact, one might argue that it went into more depth than the LFS did). Repeating this special wave in the near future, in a post-recession context, would no doubt yield valuable data, in particular to understand current EU labour migration attitudes and intentions.

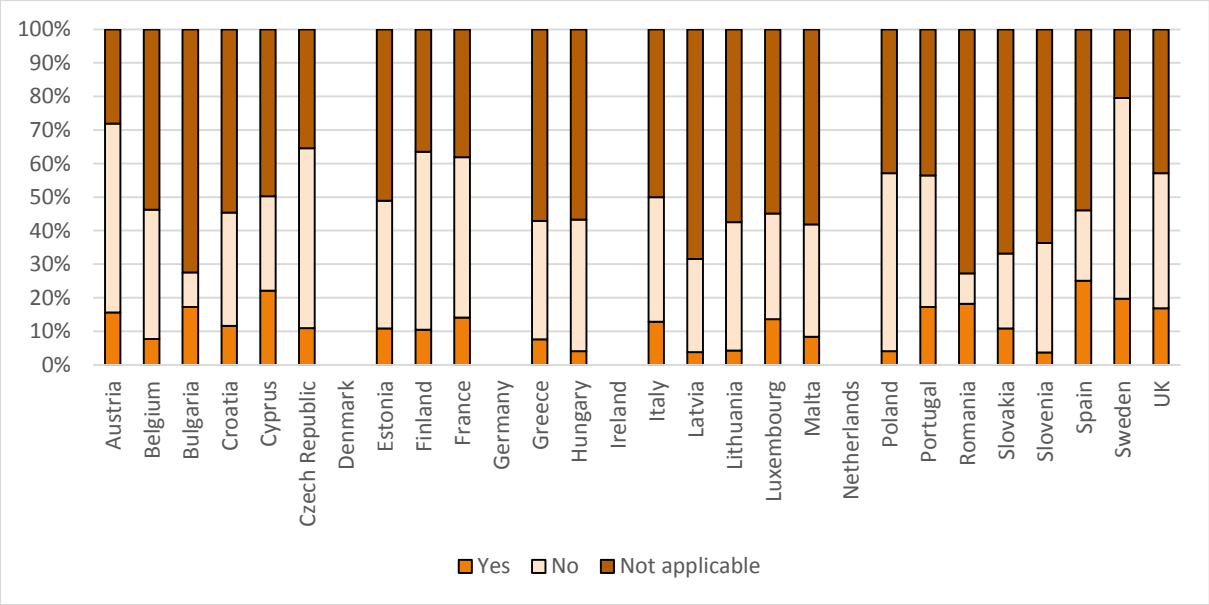
In terms of country-specific databases on EU labour migration, an example that stands out is Germany, specifically the Research Data Centre (FDZ) of the German Federal Employment Agency (BA). It has a variety of microdata originating from administrative registers and surveys with vast information on migration and labour market history variables.

8.2.2 Identified Patterns

The LFS provides information on the labour market status of migrants and as such is a valuable source of data on intra-EU labour migration. The details of this data are beyond the scope of this report, but an example of information that is contained in the 2014 Ad-hoc module can be seen in Figure 60. Respondents were asked to indicate whether they felt that they were over-qualified for their current job. In other words, they felt that with their qualifications and skilled they would allow more demanding tasks than what they are currently doing.

As can be seen, the question was not applicable to differing shares of the respondents across the countries due to them not currently being in active employment. Among those that were working, the majority did not indicate that they felt that they were over-qualified. The shares of those that did report this were largest in Spain (25.1 per cent), Cyprus (22.1 per cent), and Sweden (19.8 per cent). On the other hand, they were Slovenia (3.7 per cent), Latvia (3.8 per cent), Hungary (4.1 per cent) and Poland (4.1 per cent). It is important to mention, that when looking at third country nationals, the shares of those that feel over-qualified are significantly higher.

Figure 60: Over-Qualification of Intra-EU Migrants (country of birth)



Source: LFS_adhoc2014.

8.3 Student Migration

8.3.1 Available Statistics and Remaining Challenges

Education is one of the major drivers of migration within the European Union, particularly among young people. Focusing on tertiary student migration within Europe, statistics are available through two main sources: 1) the joint data collection effort of education data by UNESCO, OECD and Eurostat (UOE) for long-term (degree) migration; and 2) the database of the Erasmus student exchange programme for short-term mobility (one to two semesters).

Starting with UOE, the results regarding Europe (EU and European Economic Association (EEA)/EFTA) are shared on the Eurostat database. Following OECD practice, this collection of data distinguishes between resident foreign students (who are residents in the country as a result of a prior migration) and non-resident, foreign mobile students, who came to the country explicitly to pursue an education programme. This helps capture the real volume of education-driven migration without confusing it with the enrolment statistics of non-naturalised migrant residents.

Until the reference year 2012, data is presented in separate datasets for mobile and foreign students. For both groups, disaggregation is available within country-level data by enrolled students' level of education and their sex, field of education, origin, or destination (for emigrants). Note that the separation of these breakdowns does not allow researchers to disaggregate specific country-to-country flows by characteristics other than level of education. Mobile students' data includes a dataset on graduates, but only by level of education and sex, not origin – which prevents the identification of migration corridors.

The data from 2013 onwards only refers to mobile students and graduates. For both groups, migration corridors (as defined by country of analysis and country of origin) can be broken down by education level and sex. This is an improvement compared to the earlier system, but it would still be useful to include a dataset that allows for disaggregation both by country of origin and field of education. The UOE datasets are therefore a reliable source of data on intra-EU migration of university students (as well as migration into and from the EU), covering all EU-28 countries with some exceptions.

Moving on to Erasmus data, migration statistics starting from the academic year 2008-2009 are available through the European Union Open Data Portal website. The shared data includes not only study exchanges but also work placements as well as teaching assignments and staff training. Raw microdata is freely available to download and includes the option to disaggregate by sending and receiving country, age, sex, grant, duration, subject area, level of study, and other characteristics. It is therefore possible to use this data to identify and describe corridors of short-term student mobility across Europe.

Survey data from PISA and HEGESCO/REFLEX contains some additional information that might be useful for studying intra-European education migration. As discussed in Section III, PISA provides triennial stock data – although through a limited sample – on 15-year-old students born abroad, including how long they have been residing in the country. HEGESCO and REFLEX, on the other hand, provide data on the migration trajectories of former higher education graduates (5 years on), including their country of birth, country of residence at age 16, during higher education studies, country when first starting employment, and at the time of the surveys.

Finally, as mentioned above, the 72.5 wave of Eurobarometer (2009) asks respondents if they have ever studied abroad, but without asking them to specify the location (nor an indication of time).

Despite the fact that data is available on intra-EU migration, there is room for improvements across the different data sources. The UOE datasets are already a reliable source of data on intra-EU migration of university students (as well as migration into and from the EU), covering all EU-28 countries with some exceptions. However, it would be useful to include a dataset that allows for disaggregation both by country of origin and field of education. Furthermore, there are currently still gaps in this data as discussed above. Germany not being included in the data is likely to significantly underreport intra-EU migration for tertiary education.

The main limitation of data on ERASMUS may be the fact that the most recent data available in the form of a database is that from 2013-14 used in the previous section. While annual reports are currently available in the form of pdf-files[69] up to 2017, it is much more complicated to extract the desired data depending on the question of interest. It would be more user-friendly to publish the annual statistical annexes in the form of an excel file.

As also discussed, survey data from PISA and HEGESCO/REFLEX contain some additional information that might be useful for studying intra-European education migration. In the case of PISA, the limited sample on 15-year-old students born abroad does provide information how long they have been residing in the country. However, at this age, it is likely that the students moved with at least one parent or guardian and that the student itself did not make the decision to migrate. As such, it contributes little to understanding the patterns and dynamics of intra-EU migration. In the case of HEGESCO and REFLEX, the main limitations of the datasets are that they are over a decade old and that their migrant subsample is rather small.

The 72.5 wave of Eurobarometer from 2009 contains information on whether a respondent ever studied abroad, but without the indication of the location or timing of that move, this data also contributes little to the understanding of intra-EU migration. It is rather data on

[69] See: https://ec.europa.eu/programmes/erasmus-plus/about/statistics_en

retrospective education migration-related statistics about respondents who are certainly European residents at the time of the survey, but we cannot know if the indicated migration was intra-European.

8.3.2 Identified Patterns

In this section, some of the main corridors of intra-EU migration for education are mapped based on the data sources identified. As said above, the UOE database allows to identify the main corridors of intra-EU migration for the purpose of tertiary education. Table 6 illustrates the top five countries receiving mobile students and degree mobile graduates from other EU28 countries in 2017. For both categories, Germany is one of the most prominent sending countries with the largest share of students/graduates going towards Austria, the Netherlands, or the UK. Likewise, the UK remains one of the top destinations for both mobile students and graduates, receiving students/graduates from the likes of Italy, Germany, and France. In addition, there is a significant flow from Slovakia to the Czech Republic for both mobile students and graduates. The data furthermore shows that these same corridors generally remain the most prominent across time, with the exception that the number of mobile students from France to Belgium as well as from Cyprus to Greece have also been sizeable in years past.

Table 6: Top 5 Largest Student Country-to-Country Flows (origin defined by previous residence), 2017

	Mobile students			Degree mobile graduates		
Rank	Host country	Origin country	Size of flow	Host country	Origin country	Size of flow
1	Austria	Germany	28,474	Netherlands	Germany	6,443
2	Czech Rep.	Slovakia	22,478	UK	Germany	5,919
3	UK	Italy	13,376	Austria	Germany	5,289
4	UK	Germany	13,220	UK	France	5,276
5	UK	France	13,089	Czech Rep.	Slovakia	4,959

Data source: Eurostat_educ_uoe_mobs02.
Note: Country of origin in this case refers to the country of prior education. Specific corridors might be omitted due to missing data.

Table 7 highlights the main corridors of ERASMUS participants within the EU28 for the most recent year of data available, 2013-2014. Spain is the most common destination across all countries, with most students arriving from Italy, France, and Germany. The United Kingdom and Italy also receive a fair share of students from other EU28 countries, including France

and Spain respectively. Table 7 also shows how ERASMUS students among the five largest corridors are more likely to be female and pursuing Bachelor's degrees, although the number of students pursuing Master's degrees is also considerable in certain cases.

Table 7: Largest Intra-EU28 Country-to-Country Student Mobility Flows Based on ERASMUS (2013-2014)

	Destination	Origin	Total	Gender		Level of study			
Rank				Male	Female	Bachelor	Master	PhD	Short
1	Spain	Italy	7,636	2,993	4,643	3,825	3,734	77	0
2	UK	France	6,964	2,708	4,256	3,282	2,574	11	1,097
3	Italy	Spain	6,946	2,882	4,064	5,945	396	15	590
4	Spain	France	6,397	2,134	4,263	3,167	2,189	18	1,023
5	Spain	Germany	6,253	2,156	4,097	5,144	1,088	3	18

Data source: Erasmus_mobility.

Note: Short cycle level of study includes one or two-year degrees. Specific corridors might be omitted due to missing data.

9. Irregular Migration

9.1 Available Statistics and Remaining Challenges

Flows and stocks of undocumented migrants, by definition, tend to remain undetected in administrative records. Even when data collection is designed in a way that allows for the inclusion of unregistered inhabitants (e.g. censuses, non-register-based surveys), their irregular migrant status is unlikely to be recorded unless specifically asked for.

It is important to note that the concept of irregular migration within the EU mostly applies to TCNs: while EU/EEA nationals are usually required to register their residence when moving to another country for more than three months, failing to do so may subject them to a fine but not to be expelled.[70] That said, there are limitations to the freedom of settlement, beyond which EU migrants may not be allowed stay (as highlighted during Interview 3). These limitations may include cases in which the migrants are unable to support themselves financially and/or are homeless. People who have criminal sentences may also be banned from residence in another Member State. According to one of the experts interviewed (Interview 3), the limits imposed on so-called *poverty migration* from Eastern Europe were quite a hot political topic in Germany, France, and the UK before the refugee crisis hit. This expert (Interview 3) also noted that this is an issue strongly related to ethnicity, concerned primarily with migration of Roma individuals. An interviewed International Organisation of Migration (IOM) official (Interview 4) also spoke of *assisted voluntary returns* taking place, particularly in the East-West corridors.

Nevertheless, the concept of irregular migrants in the European context is defined as "third-country nationals who do not fulfil, or no longer fulfil, the conditions of entry as set out in Article 5 of the Schengen Borders Code or other conditions for entry, stay or residence in that Member State".[71] There are multiple ways for third-country nationals to enter irregularity even if they fulfilled regulations when they first arrived to the EU. Examples include staying after their visa or residence permit has expired, becoming employed without a work permit, entering some non-Schengen countries without an EEA entry visa (only

[70] Europa.eu, "Registering Your Residence Abroad".
[71] Sabbati and Poptcheva, "Irregular Immigration in the EU: Facts and Figures".

holding a visa/residence permit from a Schengen country) etc.[72] Non-EU family members of EU nationals are often subject to different regulations, as are citizens of certain non-EU countries, which further complicates the task of monitoring irregularity of flows within Europe.

To our knowledge, the standardised EU data collection on irregular migration statistics focuses solely on non-EU citizens. Categorised under *Enforcement of immigrant legislation*, Eurostat provides statistics on TCNs who were refused entry at the external borders of the EU, found to be illegally present in the Member State's territory, were subject to an obligation to leave the territory of Member States, or have left the Member State's territory to a third country. Asylum-seekers' so-called Dublin returns (mentioned earlier), constitute a further small section of law enforcement statistics that concern specifically intra-EU movements.

Law enforcement statistics, however, only capture a fraction of the irregular immigrant population – namely, those who were "caught". The CLANDESTINO Database on Irregular Migration aimed to bridge this gap by combining enforcement data with regularisation data, support service data, administrative data, expert, migrant, employer surveys, and other sources. This makes CLANDESTINO the most comprehensive existing database on irregular migration in Europe, to our knowledge. The database contains data and estimates from 12 EU countries[73], mostly from 2007 to 2009. Country specific reports and policy briefs were still occasionally published on the website, with the majority being published in 2010. The most recent publication available on the website dates back to 201574, when a country update for Germany was given. However, these reports only gives data on the migrants' country of origins and not their previous country of EU residence (if any) or which EU country they are returned to (if they are returned at all to an EU country). Overall, the use for understanding irregular migration within the EU is therefore limited.

In sum, the statistics available through Eurostat are useful indicators of flows of TCNs with an irregular status into and out of the EU as well as stocks inside EU territory. However –

[72] For a detailed explanation, see Jandl, Vogel & Iglicka "Report on Methodological Issues", p.11.
[73] AT, CZ, FR, DE, EL, HU, IT, NL, PL, SK, ES, UK.
[74] http://irregular-migration.net/index.php?id=229

even though they may include such cases – these statistics do not provide specific information on the intra-EU movements of migrants with an irregular status, apart from irregular intra-EU migrants captured under Dublin Statistics. Such information remains a data gap to be addressed. As recommended by interviewed experts, further data sources to be explored for this purpose include IOM's records on assisted voluntary returns within the EU, as well as the European Asylum Dactyloscopy Database (Eurodac) figures (Interviews 2, 3, and 4). The latter helps EU and EFTA Member States to determine responsibility for processing asylum applications by matching fingerprints. As such, EURODAC has recorded fingerprints, alongside the date and place of registration, of all asylum applicants within the EU/EFTA in a central database[75] since 2003. According to the European Commission[76], EURODAC provides yearly reports on i) irregular border crossings/unauthorised entry and ii) Intra-Schengen secondary movements, both of which could provide valuable data on intra-EU movements of irregular migrants. However, statistics are only available to the public via the annual reports and not as datasets per se and EURODAC merely provides records of 'hits' against previously lodged asylum seeker applications in other EU/EFTA member countries. Therefore they do not provide information on effective returns under the Dublin regulation, nor do they give accurate information on previous illegal border crossings (in particular, the year in which the illegal border crossing took place).

Overall, it is important to note that major collections of migrant stock and flow statistics, such as Eurostat or OECD, tend to exclude irregular migrants altogether from their enumerations, as do surveys that draw their sample using registers (e.g. SOEP, LFS in some countries). Meanwhile, censuses and non-register-based surveys (such as PISA, or LFS in other countries) may include respondents with an irregular status, but they remain unidentified as such in the data. Where irregular migrants are asked to self-identify, it is likely that they significantly underreport due to the risks associated with revealing this status.

Eurostat's data on effectively implemented Dublin returns are the only source for irregular intra-EU migration that was identified in this report. Other databases capturing illegal intra-

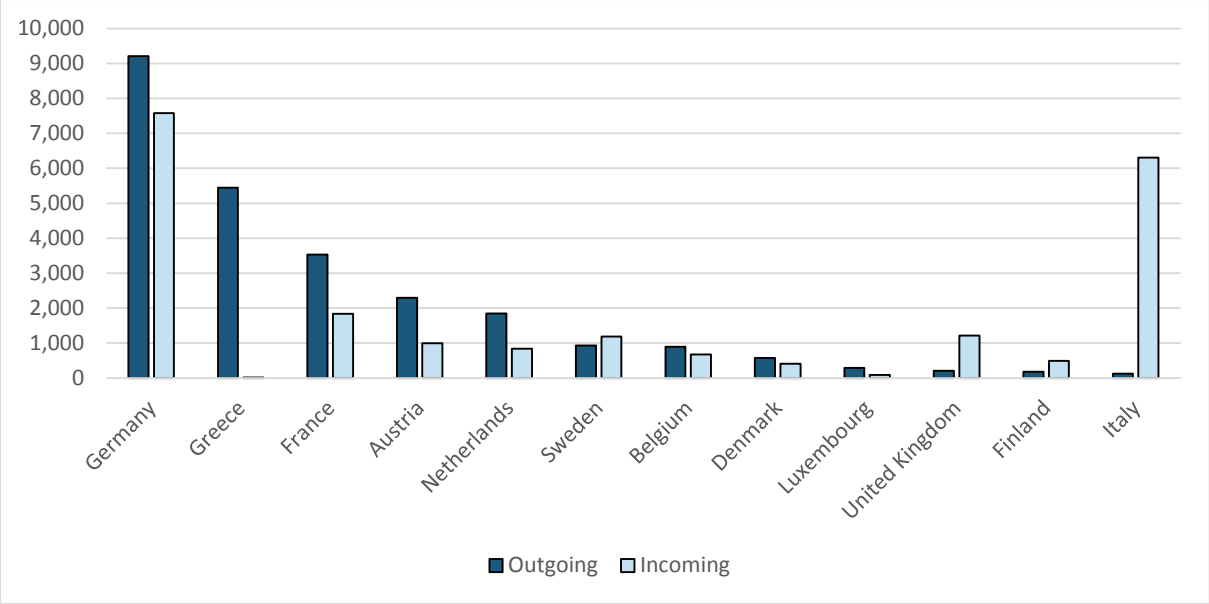
[75] https://bluehub.jrc.ec.europa.eu/catalogues/data/dataset/ds00008
[76] https://ec.europa.eu/knowledge4policy/dataset/ds00008_en

EU migrants, which fall under the Dublin regulation, often only register migrants' irregular migration status under this regulation. Whilst Eurostat also provides information on effectively implemented Dublin transfers, EURODAC merely gives statistics of hits against previously made asylum seeker applications within other European Member States and therefore do not provide information on actual intra-EU migration.

9.2 Identified Patterns

Eurostat provides data on incoming and outgoing effectively implemented Dublin transfers. To that end, Figure 61 provides statistics on transfers implemented in 2018 in the countries with the largest numbers of outgoing transfers. In total, EU Member States reported 27,548 outgoing and 25,352 incoming transfers in that year. However, the totals are incomplete due to missing data points for Cyprus, the Czech Republic, and Poland. The highest number of outgoing transfers was registered by Germany (9,209), Greece (5,447), and France (3,533), while Germany also registered the highest incoming transfers (7,580), alongside Italy (6,307) and France (1,837).

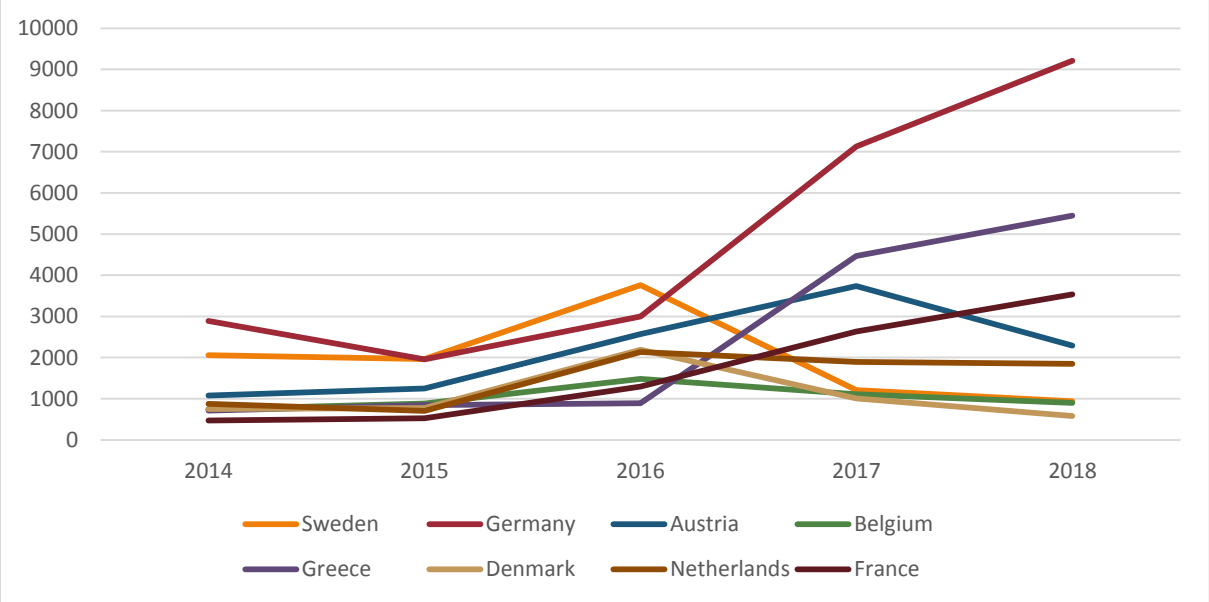
Figure 61: Outgoing and Incoming Dublin Transfers by Receiving EU Country, 2018



Data source: Eurostat_migr_dubti and Eurostat_migr_dubto.
Note: Countries ranked on outgoing.

According to Figure 62, the main sending countries of Dublin transfers during the years 2014 to 2018 (more than 1,000 Dublin transfers annually) were Germany, Greece, France, and Austria. Germany, Greece, and France showed steady increases throughout the aforementioned years, with Germany exhibiting the steepest slope, rising from approximately 2,000 transfers in 2014/2015 to 2,572 in 2016, then increasing sharply to 7,124 in 2017 and to a total of 9,209 in 2018. Austria on the other hand showed a slight dip in numbers after 2017, reducing to 2,291 transfers in 2018, and throughout the concerned years not exceeding the 4,000 mark. Sweden also showed high numbers of Dublin returns in 2016 (3,763), but these numbers returned close to 1,000 in 2017 and 2018.

Figure 62: Main Sending Countries of Dublin Transfers (>1.000 yearly), 2014-2018

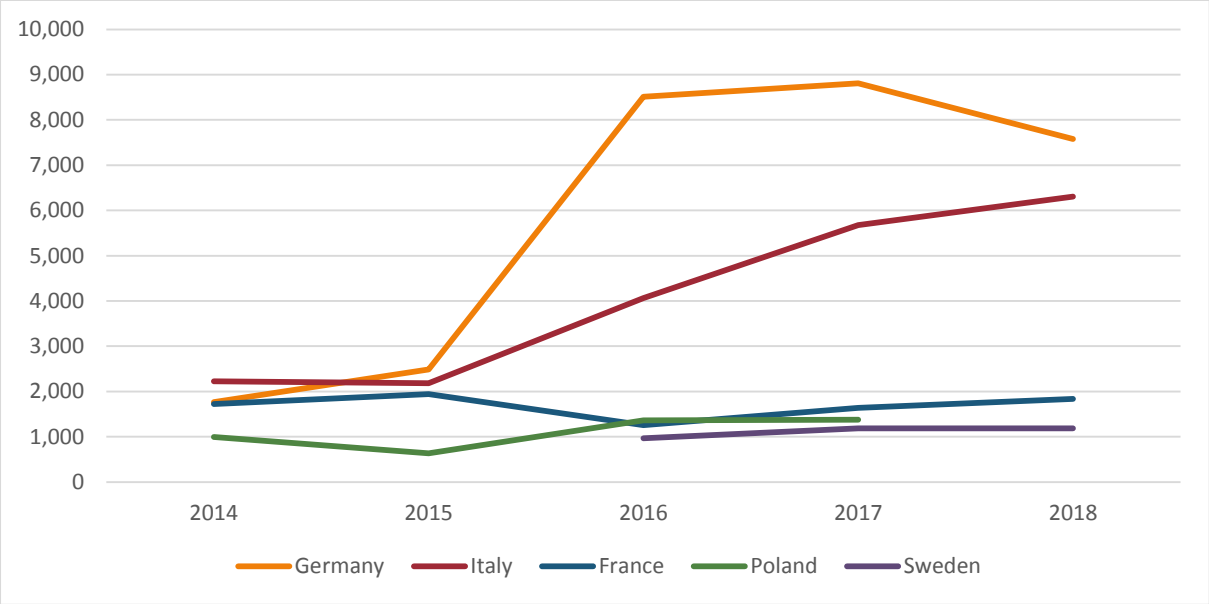


Data source: Eurostat_migr_dubto.

Specifically during the European "migrant crisis", Germany showed a particularly steep increase in numbers of received Dublin transfers compared to other EU countries, followed by Italy. France, Poland, and Sweden, on the other hand, registered very moderate fluctuations in received Dublin transfers whilst also having very low total numbers throughout the years 2014 – 2018 (below 2,000 in all cases). Surprisingly, Greece registered low numbers of received Dublin transfers (<20 from 2014 – 2018), despite being an important transit country to other EU Member States, which can be explained by the fact

that a number of EU Member States[77] have suspended Dublin transfers to Greece since 2011 due to identified asylum system deficiencies.[78]. Likewise, Dublin transfers to Bulgaria and Hungary were suspended by some EU countries for specific time periods[79] due to concerns about the welfare of returned asylum seekers in respective countries.

Figure 63: Main Receiving Countries of Dublin Transfers (>1.000 yearly), 2014-2018



Data source: Eurostat_migr_dubti.

[77] NL, SE, ES, POR, MT, CY, HU, IRL, RO

[78] In 2011, two judgments of the European Court of Human Rights (ECHR) and the Court of Justice of the European Union (CJEU) identified systemic deficiencies in the Greek asylum system.

[79] European Council on Refugees and Exiles, "The Dublin system in 2017 – overview and developments from selected European countries", March 2018

10. Monitoring Lifetime/ Multiple Migrations

10.1 Available Statistics and Remaining Challenges

Tracking lifetime migration trajectories – or even just multiple migrations – of EU residents with existing data was another major challenged encountered during the mapping exercise. The relative lack of data on this aspect was confirmed by the experts we interviewed (see interviews 1, 2, 3, and 4).

As discussed with regard to migrant stocks, it is often difficult to even identify migrants' most recent country of previous residence, the only information on a country of origin being the citizenship or country of birth. This is the case for migration data based on, among others, population *stock* statistics, residence permits, and law enforcement data (as presented in the Eurostat database), as well as OECD stock and flow data and PISA surveys.

It is, however, worth noting that various sources provide information on migration flows by previous or next residence countries, at least. As seen in Section 7 for instance, Eurostat immigration and emigration flows are reported by previous and next country of residence, respectively, from 2007 until 2017. UNDESA, largely based on Eurostat data, reports migration flows similarly. UNHCR documents the number of asylum seekers and refugees by previous country of residence. The European Commission Directorate General Education and Culture records Erasmus study exchanges and work placements as well as Erasmus mobility for teaching assignments, by countries of home and host institution – proxies for previous and next country of residence. Lastly, UOE education mobility database records education and training related migration by previous and next country of residence (see Section 8.2).

Data on the country of residence one year before surveys were conducted are included in the core module of the LFS. According to current regulations, EU population censuses (i.e. Census 2011) are also required to include data on either respondents' previous place of residence (and date of arrival), or place of usual residence one year prior to the census.[80] The former variable is particularly useful to capture migration trajectories. However, the

[80] Eurostat, 'Census 2011 Round (Cens_11r) Reference Metadata in Euro SDMX Metadata Structure (ESMS)'.

Census Hub database contains the latter variable, and rarely specifies (individual) countries. Although the current overarching database excludes this variable, individual country censuses, where accessible, should thus be informative.

National Statistical Offices (NSIs) also often provide data by previous and next country of residence, at various levels of aggregation. For example, the NSI of the Republic of Cyprus reports flows of immigrants and emigrants, by previous and next country of residence, respectively. The German NSI provides information on migrant status, age at the time of entry, duration of residence, citizenship, as well as naturalisation and former citizenship. The British, Danish, Estonian, Finnish, French, German, Greek, Irish, Italian, Latvian, Lithuanian, Luxembourgish, Maltese, Polish, Romanian, Slovakian, Slovenian, Spanish, and Swedish NSIs similarly report flows of immigrants and flows of emigrants by previous and next country of residence, respectively; and, at times, stocks of immigrants by country of previous residence. While NSIs report information on countries of previous or next residence, data does not contain any information on 'older' migration spells. Only one, the most recent, migration episode is tracked.

A similar method asks for the individual's country of residence at a point in the past, not one but multiple years prior, or when the respondent was a specific age.[81] Again, this type of data is useful in providing insights into individuals' migration histories, but it does not allow researchers to map country-to-country trajectories since it leaves out migrations that might have happened between the years for which residency was surveyed. The likelihood of the data accurately capturing all migration spells will be greater if places and times of residence are asked for multiple life stages that are (or almost) directly connected.

HEGESCO and REFLEX, for instance, provide relatively good data in this regard as they ask about country of birth, country of residence at age 16, during higher education studies, when respondents got their first job, and at the time of the surveys, i.e. five years after graduating. Unfortunately, these surveys only provide sample-based information that might

[81] It is also worth noting that the opposite method was applied in the UK Passenger Survey, which instead of asking about respondents' location at a specific time, specifies the year when they last moved to or away from the UK.

not be nationally representative, moreover that the migrant subsample is likely small as mobile individuals were not specifically targeted.

Another survey, the 2014 ad-hoc module of the LFS, asks respondents to state their previous country of work abroad (within the last ten years); but no specific question was included on when that migration took place, or if any other migration episodes, for other reasons than work, have taken place since.

The 2009 special wave of the Eurobarometer (72.5) asks respondents about their most recent migration experience, including the location and the length of stay. Similarly to the LFS, it does not report when this migration occurred. Nevertheless, this dataset is interesting as detailed questions are asked on planned *future* moves,[82] such as questions assessing the maturity/certainty of these plans. This is valuable data since it identifies potential future migration episodes, and contains information on past (and/or present) migratory behaviours. However, readers should be reminded that such sample-based migration data might not give a nationally representative picture of intra-EU migration.

The best existing cross-country example might be the EIMSS. The EIMSS tracks every country respondents have lived in, prior migration to the current country of residence, reasons for settlement, and future moving aspirations, such as retirement. However, as indicated previously, the EIMSS data is only available for a few countries and only for 2004. Reported migration information is, moreover, sample-based; it might therefore not be nationally representative.

At a national level, the GSOEP appears to be well-designed to record lifetime migration, as it asks respondents to specify previous moves (location and date), that is migration episodes beyond those to and from Germany. The data collected in 2015 track previous stays of at least three months. For instance, respondents are asked when and where to they left their birth countries for the first time; as well as dates and destinations after this first move; after their first stay in Germany; and following this past-Germany stay – that is a maximum of four migration episodes. Respondents are also asked *how* they migrated, i.e. as an

[82] Note: Wave 3 and 7 of the UK Understanding Society Survey also address planned future migrations, although the latter wave does ask respondents to specify a destination.

employed person who already had a job offer, a family member, a student, or a job seeker. This information is available for the GSOEP M1 and M2 samples collected in 2015.[83]

The implementation of surveys at the broader, cross-country level – or the inclusion of prior migration-related questions in existing EU-wide questionnaires such as the LFS – would provide crucial, but currently lacking, information on extended/ full migration trajectories and the prevalence of multiple migrations over EU residents' lifetimes – a point also discussed during Interview 2.

Another key challenge to in-depth studies on intra-EU migration is the lack of information on lifetime migration (or at least multiple migrations) of intra-EU movers. This information could probably be best gathered by repeating and extending the EIMSS survey (conducted in 2004), which covered all previous migrations of respondents. A repetition of the 72.5 special wave of the Eurobarometer conducted in 2009 would also undoubtedly yield some valuable data in this regard.

10.2 Identified Patterns

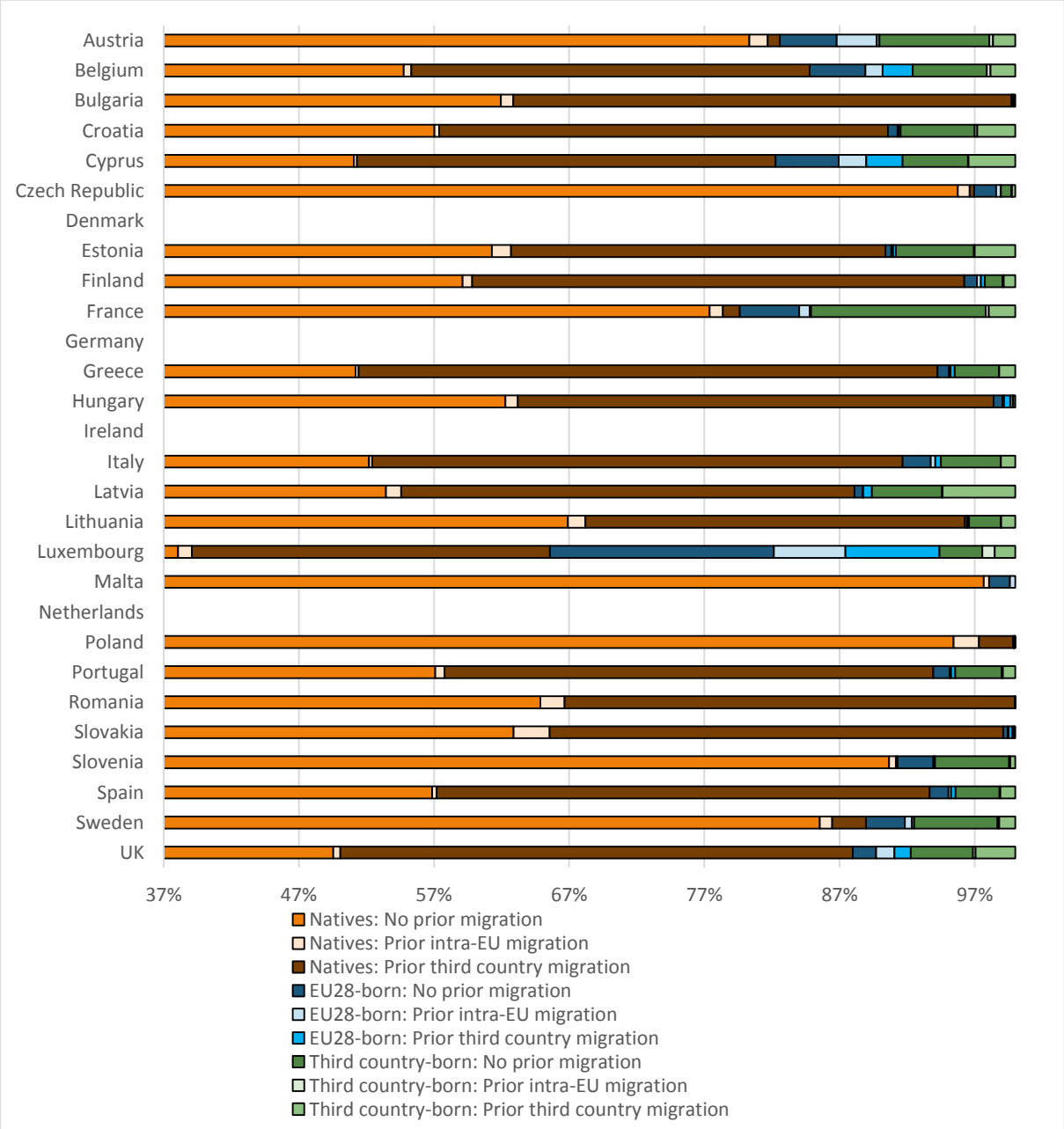
As becomes clear from the discussion in the prior section, tracking lifetime/multiple migrations is probably one of the areas of intra-EU migration where a lack of data is currently most evident. The trends in terms of country of previous or next residence identified based on the Eurostat flow data has already been presented in Sections 7.2.2 and 7.2.3, respectively.

Another source that is interesting in this regard is the ad-hoc module of the LFS in 2014. It asks respondents to indicate their last country of work abroad, within the past ten years. The data therefore does not account for all migration episodes, but just one for a specific purpose in a specified time period. Yet, it shows some interesting trends. Figure 64 shows that the majority of respondents did not migrate for work elsewhere in the last ten years. This holds for those born within the respective country, those born in other EU28 countries, as well as those born outside of the EU28. In addition, it seems that among all three of these

[83] More recent waves of the GSOEP ask similar questions specifically to refugees (GSOEP M3, M4 and M5 samples).

groups prior migration to third countries is more common than migration for work within the EU28.

Figure 64: Last Country of Work Abroad by Country of Birth (last 10 years)



Source: LFS_adhoc2014.
Note: The presented data shows the composition of 63% of each countries' respondents respectively; the remaining 37% are natives, who did not migrate for work in the past ten years.

11. Short-Term and Circular Migration, Cross-Border Commuting and Return Migration

11.1 Available Statistics

Short-term migration – a change of residence to another country for a length between 3 and 12 months[84] – is particularly difficult to track with existing European statistics. Residence permits do include information allowing the identification of short-term migrants among third-country nationals, but not to capture intra-EU movers among them. Passenger surveys seem to be the best available data source to observe the volume of short-term movements (as well as tourism) from specific European countries; unfortunately, to our knowledge, at this time only the UK and Cyprus carry out these types of surveys systematically.

Similarly, we struggle to find internationally available sources on circular migration within Europe. This challenge was thoroughly discussed in a recent report by the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE) titled *Defining and Measuring Circular Migration.*[85] The report describes definitional issues as well as a detailed review of potential sources that may be exploited to build circular migration statistics, using Italy and Sweden as in-depth examples; we recommend referring to this report for a comprehensive overview on the topic.

The availability of cross-border commuting data is slightly better, as the core module of the LFS includes a question on the country of place of work (which can be compared with country of residence). Additionally, the special wave (72.5) of the 2009 Eurobarometer, asks whether the respondent commutes to work in another country, the frequency of the commute, and further questions about hypothetical or intended international work commutes.

It should also be mentioned that censuses are a potential data source for information on cross-border workers. By comparing the place of residence and the place of work, it is possible to account for those working in a country other than that of residence (Interview 1).

[84] OECD, "OECD Glossary of Statistical Terms - Short-Term Migrant Definition".
[85] UNECE, "Defining and Measuring Circular Migration".

An additional recommendation by one of our interviewees is that in order to capture seasonal and/or cross-border workers – feasible primarily for sector and country-specific studies – the records of people registered in the profession are a viable option (Interview 3); another expert added insurance records and home ownership records (e.g. for summer homes) as a potential source on seasonal/circular movements (Interview 4).

A lack of data on return migration also came up during the interviews, a shortfall attributed to the low quality of emigration data (Interview 4). As highlighted by the interviewed IOM expert, a fraction of return movements may be captured by IOM records on assisted voluntary returns (Interview 4).

Naturally, short-term migrants are less incentivised – and not legally required – to register their residence. As such, data on short-term and circular migration is not systematically collected for intra-EU migrants in the majority of Member States. The interviewed UN DESA expert questioned the necessity of such data being collected at the administrative level and aggregated at the EU level, but recommended carrying out specialised surveys in cases where indeed there is an interest in capturing non-linear and/or short-term migration (Interview 2). The Eurostat expert interviewed (Interview 1) also shared that the Conference of European Statisticians (CES) has endorsed the definition of circular migration put forth by the UNECE report mentioned above, and that Eurostat might start sharing information on circular migrants starting 2019.

Looking at cross-border commuting, the situation is a bit better with both surveys as well as census data at least providing some insights into the dynamics. A major shortfall of the Eurobarometer data is that the destination of indicated commutes is not identified. Furthermore, we may expect a small sample of cross-border commuters as they are not specifically targeted in both the LFS and the Eurobarometer.

Intra-EU return migration is another topic on which little is known so far. Above we use Eurostat flow data to provide some insights into the dynamics, however, this only serves to scratch the surface. What is specifically important is to further understand what drives return migration within the EU. In line with this, one of the interviewed experts stressed the importance of including not only a question about return in future large-scale surveys on

migration (e.g. the LFS), but also to include a question asking about the reason for return (Interview 4).

In terms of intra-EU forced and voluntary return, data is often dispersed across different sources and often times not publicly available. In an effort to tackle this gap, the EU has implemented an Integrated Return Management Application (IRMA), which has the aim of integrating all EU returns, but, again, the data is not publicly available nor are there any reports available. As discussed above, the limited data that is made available on returns (for example, as is the case with the IOM data on AVRR) does not specifically identify intra-EU returns, but rather indicates the country of origin of migrants without indicating the country from which they have returned.

11.2 Identified Patterns

The UK Office for National Statistics publishes on their website yearly Short-term International Migration (STIM) Statistics to England and Wales, including a breakdown by citizenship. STIM Statistics are estimates based on International Passenger Survey (IPS) data, which is a sample survey. Figures are grossed up by weighting factors dependent on migrants' route and time of year. Therefore STIM figures are estimates, not exact counts of migrants. For ease of comparison, the statistics reproduced in Table 8 use 3 – 12 months as a definition for short-term migration. Alternatively, STIM statistics are also available for migration periods between 1 to 12 months and the narrower definition of the UN, which defines short-term migration as movements between 3 and 12 months for the purpose of work and study.

Table 8: Estimated Short-Term Migration Flows (3 to 12 month) of EU28 citizens, 2012-2017

Year	Inflows	Outflows
2017	139,000	70,000
2016	190,000	53,000
2015	147,000	45,000
2014	160,000	43,000
2013	117,000	32,000
2012	89,000	33,000

Source: UKIPS.

According to STIM estimates, numbers of EU28 short-term migrants peaked in 2014 and 2016, with 160,000 and 190,000 migrants respectively. The most recent statistics were provided for 2017, when 139,000 short-term EU28 migrants were estimated to have migrated to UK. Table 9 lists the main EU28 countries of citizenship of short-term migration flows to the UK. Romanians represented the largest short-term migration group in both 2015 and 2016, and came second in both 2014 and 2017, with a steady increase in numbers from 20,000 migrants in 2014 to 42,000 in 2016. Although Romanians still were the second largest EU28 short-term migrant group in 2017, the inflow decreased to a mere 18,000 migrants.

Although Polish short-term migrant numbers remained steady throughout the years (peaking at 27,000 migrants in 2016, but remaining between 23,000 and 24,000 in other years), they were only the fourth largest EU28 migrant group in 2016, whilst being the main EU28 short-term migrant group in 2014 and 2017 and coming second in 2015. Spanish and French featured amongst the top five EU28 short-term inflows throughout 2014 to 2017, both showing a peak of 30,000 migrants in 2016.

German and Italian migrants were also amongst the top five EU28 short-term migration flows, however, were not represented amongst the top five in all years and migrant inflows were relatively small, fluctuating between 12,000 and 14,000 migrants and 14,000 to 16,000 migrants respectively.

Table 9: Estimated Top 5 EU28 Inflows to the UK, 2014-2017

2017		2016		2015		2014	
Poland	23,000	Romania	42,000	Romania	31,000	Poland	24,000
Romania	18,000	France	30,000	Poland	23,000	Spain	20,000
France	17,000	Spain	30,000	France	21,000	Romania	20,000
Spain	16,000	Poland	27,000	Italy	14,000	France	19,000
Germany	12,000	Italy	16,000	Spain	13,000	Germany	14,000

Source: UKIPS.

According to STIM estimates in Table 8, outflows of EU28 short-term migrants are in all cases significantly inferior to inflows. A breakdown of EU28 receiving countries of these flows, however, is only available for a fairly limited amount of EU28 countries.

Looking at return migration, the flow statistics by Eurostat provide some insights as shown in Section 7.2.4. In addition, the data on assisted voluntary returns by IOM provides insights into a specific type of return migration. Although IOM does not make this data available to the public, annual reports with key trends are available on the website from 2015 to 2017. AVRs are summarised per country of origin (and only lists the top five countries), but it is not clear from which countries these returns were sent, therefore making it difficult to declare them intra-EU returns. However, for 2017 transfers to countries of the European Economic Area, the IOM states that 90% of these returns flows were intra-regional, predominantly from countries such as Austria, Belgium, Germany, and Sweden.[86]

Overall, Romania has registered the highest numbers of voluntary assisted returns since 2015, with numbers well above any of the other countries listed (see Figure 65). For example, in 2017 Romania registered 858 returns, whereas the remaining countries (Bulgaria, Italy, Slovakia and Poland, order by number of returns), all received less than 100 returns. In 2016, a similar patterns was observed with Romania registering 826 returns, followed by 128 returns to Bulgaria and less than 50 returns to the remaining countries.

In 2015, Hungary and Croatia occupied rank 4 and 5 amongst top five countries of origin of voluntary returns, with 60 and 39 returns respectively. Again, Romania was the main receiver of returns with 806, followed by Bulgaria and Slovakia with approximately 100 returns.

Figure 65: Assisted Voluntary Return and Reintegration (AVRR), Numbers of Migrants Assisted by Country of Origin within the European Economic Area

	2015	2016	2017
Romania	806	826	858
Bulgaria	125	128	94
Italy		36	72
Slovakia	114	41	63
Poland		43	43
Hungary	60		
Croatia	39		

Source: IOM, Assisted Voluntary Return and Reintegration (AVRR) Key highlights for respective years.
Note: Sending country is not in all cases a member of the European Economic Area.

[86] International Organization of Migration, "Assisted Voluntary Returns and Reintegration 2017 Key Highlights".

12. Conclusion and Recommendations

12.1 Summary

The state of data on migration and mobility within the European Union has seen monumental improvements over the course of the past two decades. As a result of sustained efforts on the part of national statistical institutes and Eurostat (along with other international organisations), the European Union, generally speaking, now has some of the world's highest-quality regional population and migration statistics. The introduction of Regulations (EC) No 862/2007, (EU) No 351/2010, and (EU) No 1260/2013, in particular, has contributed to the improvement of harmonised and reliable migration data for all 28 EU countries, easily accessible in the online Eurostat database. That being said, intra-EU migration seems to receive less attention in European statistics than immigration from outside the EU. On the one hand, this is naturally explained by the lack of administrative obstacles (and resulting lack of a paper trail) associated with the freedom of movement within the territory of the EU. On the other hand, the political salience of the topic also influences the quality of its statistics; and while specific movements (e.g. East-to-West EU migration corridors) have indeed become the topic of heated public debates, generally speaking, recent years' dominant migration-focused debates have centred around the arrivals of (forced) migrants from the Global South (Interview 3).

As a first step towards the improvement of internal migration statistics, we set out to map what existing data can, and importantly, what it *cannot* tell us about these movements. In line with this effort, this report aimed to provide a discussion and overview of the main databases available to understand migration within the European Union. Following some key questions of interest, we mapped existing data sources and evaluated their usefulness and quality in supporting intra-EU migration research. In addition to a thorough desk review of sources, we complemented our findings with insights from interviews with experts in European (and global) migration statistics.

Our initial overview of the different types of data sources (e.g., administrative registers versus surveys) was greatly aided by previous similar comprehensive reviews borne by

projects such as THESIM and PROMINSTAT.[87,88] Guided by the criteria outlined by these works as well as our own research priorities and experiences, we identified the best – most comprehensive and practical in use – databases. Accordingly, for each aspect of EU migration, we highlighted one main data source, followed by some other sources that can best complement the gaps left by the main data (no single data source we found was exhaustive). The Eurostat database, the Labour Force Survey (both core and 2008/2014 ad-hoc modules), the migration databases of UN DESA and OECD, as well as the EIMSS survey and the special wave 72.5 of the Eurobarometer, were among the most useful sources we identified. Besides presenting these main sources, however, an equally critical objective of our exercise was to shed light on the remaining challenges and limitations of measuring intra-EU migration.

In addition to this mapping, this report has provided an overview of the patterns and dynamics of intra-EU migration. Migration stocks and flows were analysed based on existing data sources, primarily Eurostat population and migration data. This was first done at the aggregate EU28 level before moving to the country and bilateral level. Both absolute and relative trends were considered. In addition, information on the demographic characteristics of intra-EU migrants was included, where available.

One of the main conclusions of this paper relates to the fact that the analysis in different sections has shown that metrics matter. The three metrics, which can be used to measure intra-EU migration, often tell different stories. For example, the total number of intra-EU migrants is consistently higher when using the country of birth metric than when using the citizenship metric. This is, for example, highlighted by the fact that, at the aggregate level, residents born in another EU28 country account for 7 per cent of the total Member States resident population. In comparison, the share of intra-EU migrants is 4 per cent among the total EU28 population when considering the citizenship metric.

Furthermore, focusing solely on immigrant stocks paints an incomplete and simplistic picture of the patterns and, especially, the dynamics of migration within the European Union. The aggregate stock of intra-EU migrants has grown steadily between 2014 and

[87] Poulain, Perrin, and Singleton, "THESIM".
[88] Kraler and Reichel, "Statistics on Migration, Integration and Discrimination in Europe. PROMINSTAT Final Report".

2017, independent of which metric is applied (citizenship or country of birth). The analysis of emigrant stocks and bilateral stock corridors shows that this growth is predominately driven by increased numbers of Romanian and Polish citizens/ natives taking up residence in other Member States. However, it is important to understand that stock figures are static snapshots. As the analysis of intra-EU migration flows has shown, there are a lot of dynamics in intra-EU migration and many more people move between Member States each year, then the stock figures would have one think. The analysis of country-to-country flow corridors particularly reveals a high frequency of return and circular migration, especially of Romanian citizens/natives.

Moreover, the level chosen for analysis is also an important component in the process of understanding intra-EU migration. Looking at the aggregate immigrant stocks of all EU28 countries, the gradual annual increase during the 2014-2017 period seems to indicate that increasing numbers of people are moving across and within the EU than ever before. When looking at the country level, however, the data shows that the vast majority of the increase in immigrant stocks was absorbed almost entirely by Germany and the UK. In the case of migration flows, also overall increasing over time, there is a considerable amount of return migration evident in the top twenty flow corridors.

It is important to understand that the patterns and dynamics discussed in this paper are only preliminary indications of the nuanced patterns and networks that make up intra-EU migration. For instance, focusing solely on the stocks of Romanians in host countries gives the impression that this is a one-way and one-time movement that is only becoming more frequent. As discussed, significant return migration movements to Romania also take place. The data used in this report does not allow investigation of how far this also implies regular, circular movements between Romania and popular destination countries, such as the UK, Italy, and Spain. It is often talked about that open borders allow for movement from one country. Maybe the main takeaway in this regard is that the right to free movement, perhaps more critically, also allows people to go back.

Overall, the patterns and dynamics presented and discussed in this paper highlight the complexity of intra-European migration, while also leaving key questions unanswered. For example, the present data does not address in any depth the question of why people move

within the EU. This is a topic that is taken up by Work Package 3 of the REMINDER Project ('Determinants of Migration'). The two work packages are important compliments, as generating evidence on the determinants of the movements of different types of intra-EU migrants is imperative to further advancing the understanding on migration between EU28 countries. Only when the nuances of European migration are fully understood and the topic dealt with accordingly, a responsibility shared by policy-makers and researchers, can targeted and well-designed policies be developed.

In order to get this nuanced understanding, however, it is imperative that Member States adopt a set of standard operating procedures when it comes to data collection and reporting. As apparent throughout this report, certain countries fail to collect and/or report certain indicators altogether, making full-scale analysis impossible and comparisons challenging. While the quality of data is already relatively high, there is room for improvements when it comes to the harmonization of European migration data collection and reporting. With strong analysis, more complete data will further contribute to a more informed discourse and to evidence-based policy making.

12.2 Key Gaps in Intra-EU Migration Statistics

We begin with the remaining key gaps identified during the desk review, followed by the priorities outlined by the experts interviewed in the framework of this study. Overall, we find that the primary challenge in finding data on intra-EU migration relates to identifying the part of EU-related migration that truly takes place within the territory of the EU, excluding external movements of EU nationals but including internal movements of third-country nationals. For recent reference years, data on the citizenship and/or country of birth of migrants is usually available, but there are significant gaps in migration data disaggregated by single **countries of residence prior to migration**; most data sources either do not seem to be interested in the country of departure and/or seem to be willing to assume that it is the same one as the country of citizenship or birth. This makes it very difficult to accurately identify migration corridors within Europe both for EU and third-country nationals. Higher rates of compliance with existing EU requirements to collect information on residents' previous/next country of residence for migration flow statistics on

behalf of Member States would be a major step towards filling this gap. Additionally, the inclusion of a question regarding country of previous residence in either the LFS core module or at least its upcoming ad-hoc module on labour migrants would be key to gain this information as it relates to existing migrant stocks.

Furthermore, a significant obstacle to intra-EU migration research is the **lack of disaggregation options** available for information regarding origin of the migrants (e.g. residence *and* citizenship). Having this information could be key for detailed analyses to understand who is moving from which Member State to which other Member State. This would allow for key developments in the measurement of intra-EU migration, such as comprehensive figures on the volume of return migration, not to mention figures on the relative share of EU vs. non-EU nationals moving within the EU.

Next, surprisingly little is known about the **reasons driving intra-EU movements**. In lieu of residence permit-based administrative data on this, most of what we know is based on surveys. As discussed in detail in Deliverable 3.1 of the REMINDER project, *Determinants of migration flows within the EU*, past surveys have had a strong focus on labour migration in particular, overlooking important other streams. The 2014 ad-hoc module of the LFS has been a major development in this regard – especially the possibility to select multiple options – but the depth of this still limited. Firstly, to our knowledge this data has not been exploited to explore motivations of intra-EU movers in particular. Second, little remains known about drivers relating to specific bilateral corridors and return movements; finally, commonly used broad categories such as *labour* or *lifestyle*, while better than no information, severely limit the depth of our understanding regarding the factors driving EU migration.[89]

Another key challenge to in-depth studies on intra-EU migration is the lack of information on **lifetime migration** (or at least multiple migrations) of intra-EU movers. This information could probably be best gathered by repeating and extending the EIMSS survey (conducted in 2004), which covered all previous migrations of respondents. A repetition of the 72.5

[89] Work Package 3 of the REMINDER project aims to further analyse the complexities in the determinants of intra-EU migration. For more information please see: https://www.reminder-project.eu/publications/work-packages/wp3-determinants-of-migration/

special wave of the Eurobarometer conducted in 2009 would also undoubtedly yield some valuable data in this regard.

Further themes on which there is limited or no data available in the intra-EU context include **irregular migration**, **short-term migration**, **cross-border commuting,** and **circular migration**. In addition to these, acquiring more **background information** on migrants, especially data on their skills, occupation and other socio-economic characteristics at the time of migration could help researchers gain a better understanding of which EU residents are moving to which Member State. This could in turn help policy-makers understand drivers, predict effects, and anticipate needs of new inhabitants.

12.3 Recommendations for Policy-Makers and Lead Statisticians

As underlined by interviewed experts, given the high volume of effort and cost involved with improving, changing and producing additional population and migration data (often in an environment of limited resources), outlining priorities is key. In line with the above gaps – combined with the priorities outlined by interviewed experts (Interviews 1, 2, 3, and 4) – we bring the following recommendations to the attention of policy-makers and lead statisticians:

1. Improve quality and consistency of administrative flow data:
    - Fill in major gaps for countries (e.g. UK, France) that still do not have a regular source for flow data and details by country of origin and destination;
    - Collect and share detailed previous/next residence based data; in most cases, this could easily be done simultaneously with the collection of information on citizenship and country of birth; and
    - Share double (or even triple) disaggregation of migration flow data by at least broad groups of previous residence, citizenship, and country of birth.
2. Introduce regular, EU-wide surveys to better understand internal movements. These could be realised via passenger surveys and/or by the inclusion of relevant items (with appropriate samples) into existing surveys such as the LFS; useful items would include:

- Drivers of migration (multiple reasons possible; broad and detailed categories; rank reasons);
- Background characteristics of movers (at the time of migration), such as: sex, age, skills, occupation, socio-economic characteristics;
- Length of stay and future plans for migration;
- Cross-border commuting and circular/seasonal movements;
- Past migration experiences within the EU; and
- Impacts of migration (how migration to another Member State has impacted the life of the mover).

3. Work further towards improving the comparability of population and migration data by implementing internationally recommended definitions and methods:
    - Develop a common definition of intra-EU migration; and
    - Where harmonised information is missing, work with the best available approximate data in the meantime to minimise gaps and waste of useful existing data (ensure to note methodological differences).

As an additional note – as highlighted by the data expert of Interview 3 – the improvement of intra-EU migration data necessitates a shift in our understanding of the phenomenon: both in academic and policy debates, intra-European movement continues to be caught in a static view of migration as a one-time, long-term, linear process. In reality, the region's extraordinary liberty of movement and settlement allows a massive turnover of people, involving temporary, circular, return, seasonal movements, as well as migration trajectories spanning multiple countries across a lifetime. In order to capture the reality of European migration, involved parties must move past traditional static approaches and seek to appreciate its dynamic nature.

A number of new and upcoming initiatives and debates within the international statistical community give reason for optimism in achieving the above goals (Interviews 1, 2, 3). The Eurostat expert interviewed as part of this study highlighted an on-going effort to redesign the architecture of population statistics, including migration statistics, after the 2021 census (Interview 1). Among other things, main developments in the international statistical community may include a new population definition (the concept of residence might change), inclusion of the reason for migration question in the census (although this is still a

non-core topic in the UNECE Recommendations for the 2020 Censuses of Population and Housing), and the possible incorporation of new data sources (such as big data) (Interviews 1, 2).

We may also expect new upcoming data on circular migration to be available on Eurostat as soon as 2019 (provided they are transmitted on voluntary basis by the national statistical offices), following further developments by Eurostat of the technical specifications concerning this specific form of migration. Furthermore, there is a wider call for a global migration survey, endorsed by a number of prominent migration researchers. Concerning the UN Recommendations on International Migration Statistics, the UN Expert Group on Migration Statistics is currently trying to review the latest edition (Interview 1). Speaking of surveys, we also learned that the core module of the LFS is soon expected to include items from the migration-focussed 2014 ad-hoc module, such as the question regarding reasons for migration (Interview 3). This is an important step ahead, although without an oversample of migrant respondents, the results may not be significant for all countries.

All in all, internal migration is a fundamental aspect of life within the European Union. The accurate monitoring of these movements is imperative if Member States want to accurately understand its drivers as well as its social, fiscal, labour market and broader economic effects. The European Union has some of the best quality population statistics in the world (Interview 1, 2). Therefore, the accurate measurement of movements happening within its internal borders is a goal well worth pursuing, and one that should not be out of reach.

12.4 Recommendations for Future Research

We conclude our report with some recommendations on further topics and potential datasets to explore to enrich the body of research on intra-European migration and mobility. Our suggestions are as follows:

1. Increase the volume of research on:
    a. Reasons for migration within Europe;
        i. Existing 2014 LFS AHM data has not been used for this purpose yet;
    b. Cross-border commuting, and circular migration; and
    c. Extended migration trajectories / lifetime migration within Europe.

2. Extend the focus of research from EU28 to all EFTA countries.
3. Potential data sources to look into:
    a. Stock of migrants;
        i. Data from European Health Interviews survey;
    b. Cross-border/circular/short-term/seasonal mobility;
        i. Records from labour registries/chamber of commerce;
        ii. Insurance records; social security data;
        iii. Home ownership records (e.g. holiday homes);
    c. Irregular migration;
        i. Eurodac data & Dublin statistics;
        ii. National police records, records of EU nationals working on the black market;
        iii. IOM data on trafficking and migrants gone missing in a Member State while trying to reach another; and
        iv. (Potentially) unpublished NSI data on the undocumented population, used for background calculations.

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Annex

Annex I: List of Interviewed Experts

Interview Number	Name	Relevant expertise
1	Giampaolo Lanzieri	Senior Eurostat staff member involved in data production and projections related to demography and migration.
2	Bela Hovy	Chief of the Migration Section within the Population Division at the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UN DESA). Dr. Hovy is currently involved with UN DESA production of global migrant stocks and flows, as well as high-level discussions on migration matters (including data) in the international community. In the past, Dr. Hovy was also involved in UNHCR's estimation of asylum-related migration figures in Europe.
3	Albert Kraler	Senior Research Officer at the International Centre for Migration Policy and Development (ICMPD). Dr. Kraler was involved in all three major projects to date that have aimed to map European migration data: COMPSTAT (Comparing National Data Sources in the Field of Migration and Integration, 2001-2002), THESIM (Towards Harmonised European Statistics on International Migration, 2004- 2005), and PROMINSTAT (Promoting Comparative Quantitative Research in the Field of Migration and Integration in Europe, 2007-2009, building on COMPSTAT).
4	Jasper Tjaden	Data and Survey Officer at the Global Migration Data Analysis Centre (GMDAC) of IOM – UN Migration Agency in Berlin. Prior to his current position at IOM, Dr. Tjaden has also worked for the UK Home Office in London and the Migration Policy Group in Brussels.
5	Gunter Brückner & Claire Grobecker	Dr. Brückner: Head of Unit, Immigration and Integration; Dr. Grobecker: expert in migration statistics for DESTATIS (Germany's Federal Statistical Office).

Notes: Further academics and practitioners were contacted for interviews, but declined to participate or did not respond. As the goal of the interviews was to complement the desk review, further recruitment of interviewees was stopped once satisfactory information was gained on key questions that arose during the desk review, and saturation was reached (i.e. more overlapping than new information shared on key topics). Interviews were conducted via phone or Skype calls, following a semi-structured format, and lasted about one hour each.

Annex II: General List of Questions for Expert Interviews (simplified)

1. Could you briefly explain your expertise and involvement with migration data in general and intra-European migration data in particular?
2. *If they work for an organisation involved with data:* Could you list the relevant data that your organisation collects or publishes?
    a. What are the pros and cons of this data?
    b. How would you improve it?
3. Generally speaking, what did you find to be the main setback(s) in existing statistics on intra-European movements? (If needed, suggest: availability, quality)
    a. What do you think is the reason for these problems?
    b. Do you believe there are important data gaps?
    c. What do you think could be a solution for this?
4. Adding to what you mentioned, other important gaps we identified include […]. *[For each:]*
    a. What do you think is the reason for these problems?
    b. Do you believe there are important data gaps?
    c. What do you think could be a solution for this?
5. In summary, what do you think are the three key gaps or shortcomings in European migration data – the top priorities – that should be addressed?
6. Could you summarise three (or more) recommendations you would give to institutions or policy-makers able to influence data collection and/or sharing?
7. Thank you for taking the time to share your thoughts with us. Do you have any other thoughts or insights that you would like to share?

Annex III: Additional Tables

Table 10: Most Important Reason for Migration to Residence Country (country of birth), LFS

Country	Employment		Family reasons	Study	International protection or asylum	Other	Total
	Job found before migrating	No job found before migrating					
Austria							
All migrants	395	647	2,308	232	401	151	4,134
%	9.55	15.65	55.83	5.61	9.70	3.65	100.00
EU15	165	71	508	98	1	59	902
%	18.29	7.87	56.32	10.86	0.11	6.54	100.00
EU NMS10	81	101	201	17	24	26	450
%	18.00	22.44	44.67	3.78	5.33	5.78	100.00
EU NMS3	35	71	206	9	40	16	377
%	9.28	18.83	54.64	2.39	10.6	4.24	100.00
Belgium							
All migrants	281	336	1,585	160	259	228	2,849
%	9.86	11.79	55.63	5.62	9.09	8.00	100.00
EU15	156	65	562	46	3	117	949
%	16.44	6.85	59.22	4.85	0.32	12.33	100.00
EU NMS10	32	58	63	2	1	10	166
%	19.28	34.94	37.95	1.20	0.60	6.02	100.00
EU NMS3	22	54	70	6	4	14	170
%	12.94	31.76	41.18	3.53	2.35	8.24	100.00
Bulgaria							
All migrants	5	8	49	16	2	6	86
%	5.81	9.30	56.98	18.60	2.33	6.98	100.00
EU28	2	0	8	3	0	3	16
%	12.50	0.00	50.00	18.75	0.00	18.75	100.00
Croatia							
All migrants	31	62	398	25	98	6	620
%	5.00	10.00	64.19	4.03	15.81	0.97	100.00
EU28	0	1	69	1	0	1	72
%	0.00	1.39	95.83	1.39	0.00	1.39	100.00
Cyprus							
All migrants	516	327	565	23	23	95	1,549
%	33.31	21.11	36.48	1.48	1.48	6.13	100.00
EU15	39	34	272	4	0	64	413
%	9.44	8.23	65.86	0.97	0.00	15.50	100.00
EU NMS10	15	17	18	1	0	3	54
%	27.78	31.48	33.33	1.85	0.00	5.56	100.00
EU NMS3	84	147	53	1	1	2	288
%	29.17	51.04	18.40	0.35	0.35	0.69	100.00
Czech Republic							
All migrants	132	148	448	47	4	37	816
%	16.18	18.14	54.90	5.76	0.49	4.53	100.00
EU15	1	1	23	2	0	3	30
%	3.33	3.33	76.67	6.67	0.00	10.00	100.00
EU NMS10	71	55	300	33	0	16	475
%	14.95	11.58	63.16	6.95	0.00	3.37	100.00
EU NMS3	5	4	13	0	2	1	25
%	20.00	16.00	52.00	0.00	8.00	4.00	100.00
Estonia							
All migrants	82	29	658	22	0	8	799
%	10.26	3.63	82.35	2.75	0.00	1.00	100.00
EU15	5	1	18	1	0	1	26
%	19.23	3.85	69.23	3.85	0.00	3.85	100.00
EU NMS10	1	1	39	1	0	0	42
%	2.38	2.38	92.86	2.38	0.00	0.00	100.00
Finland							
All migrants	163	46	1,083	96	136	126	1,650
%	9.88	2.79	65.64	5.82	8.24	7.64	100.00
EU15	21	7	340	14	0	23	405
%	5.19	1.73	83.95	3.46	0.00	5.68	100.00
EU NMS13	64	15	140	11	4	30	264
%	24.24	5.68	53.03	4.17	1.52	11.36	100.00

France							
All migrants	117	231	1,853	205	116	130	2,652
%	4.41	8.71	69.87	7.73	4.37	4.90	100.00
EU15	54	71	442	12	2	45	626
%	8.63	11.34	70.61	1.92	0.32	7.19	100.00
EU NMS10	5	4	13	4	1	4	31
%	16.13	12.90	41.94	12.90	3.23	12.90	100.00
EU NMS3	1	5	11	5	5	2	29
%	3.45	17.24	37.93	17.24	17.24	6.90	100.00
Greece							
All migrants	101	1,358	775	38	8	176	2,456
%	4.11	55.29	31.56	1.55	0.33	7.17	100.00
EU15	4	21	44	5	1	26	101
%	3.96	20.79	43.56	4.95	0.99	25.74	100.00
EU NMS10	3	39	16	4	0	14	76
%	3.95	51.32	21.05	5.26	0.00	18.42	100.00
EU NMS3	11	165	57	2	0	13	248
%	4.44	66.53	22.98	0.81	0.00	5.24	100.00
Hungary							
All migrants	71	152	316	28	16	79	662
%	10.73	22.96	47.73	4.23	2.42	11.93	100.00
EU15	7	1	43	3	0	3	57
%	12.28	1.75	75.44	5.26	0.00	5.26	100.00
EU NMS10	6	2	20	3	0	2	33
%	18.18	6.06	60.61	9.09	0.00	6.06	100.00
EU NMS3	36	113	182	13	12	59	415
%	8.67	27.23	43.86	3.13	2.89	14.22	100.00
Italy							
All migrants	826	4,284	5,755	199	56	189	11,309
%	7.30	37.88	50.89	1.76	0.50	1.67	100.00
EU15	44	41	894	30	1	35	1.045
%	4.21	3.92	85.55	2.87	0.10	3.35	100.00
EU NMS10	65	148	147	12	0	14	386
%	16.84	38.34	38.08	3.11	0.00	3.63	100.00
EU NMS3	285	1,156	738	6	3	23	2,211
%	12.89	52.28	33.38	0.27	0.14	1.04	100.00
Latvia							
All migrants	30	24	510	38	1	25	628
%	4.78	3.82	81.21	6.05	0.16	3.98	100.00
EU15	1	0	7	1	0	0	9
%	11.11	0.00	77.78	1.11	0.00	0.00	100.00
EU NMS13	0	3	53	2	0	1	59
%	0.00	5.08	89.83	3.39	0.00	1.69	100.00
Lithuania							
All migrants	46	44	279	7	0	21	397
%	11.59	11.08	70.28	1.76	0.00	5.29	100.00
EU15	0	0	5	0	0	0	5
%	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
EU NMS10	1	2	19	1	0	0	23
%	4.35	8.70	82.61	4.35	0.00	0.00	100.00
Luxembourg							
All migrants	1,031	565	1,794	32	36	267	3,725
%	27.86	15.17	48.16	0.86	0.97	7.17	100.00
EU15	840	454	1,321	11	1	220	2,847
%	29.50	15.95	46.40	0.39	0.04	7.73	100.00
EU NMS10	56	19	53	3	0	4	135
%	41.48	14.07	39.26	2.22	0.00	2.96	100.00
EU NMS3	19	7	27	2	0	8	63
%	30.16	11.11	42.86	3.17	0.00	12.70	100.00
Malta							
All migrants	45	17	119	22	12	138	353
%	12.75	4.82	33.71	6.23	3.40	39.09	100.00
EU28	15	6	49	4	1	53	128
%	11.72	4.69	38.28	3.13	0.78	41.41	100.00
Poland							
All migrants	16	22	75	24	7	12	156
%	10.26	14.10	48.08	15.38	4.49	7.69	100.00
EU28	3	4	32	7	0	3	49
%	6.12	8.16	65.31	14.29	0.00	6.12	100.00

Portugal							
All migrants	85	235	1,579	65	53	174	2,191
%	3.88	10.73	72.07	2.97	2.42	7,94	100.00
EU15	13	5	400	7	0	25	450
%	2.89	1.11	88.89	1.56	0.00	5.56	100.00
EU NMS10	1	1	4	0	0	1	7
%	14.29	14.29	57.14	0.00	0.00	14.29	100.00
EU NMS3	15	35	39	0	0	4	93
%	16.13	37.63	41.94	0.00	0.00	4.30	100.00
Romania							
All migrants	0	6	7	5	0	3	21
%	0.00	28.57	33.33	23.81	0.00	14.29	100.00
EU15	0	1	4	0	0	0	5
%	0.00	20.00	80.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
EU NMS13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
%	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Slovakia							
All migrants	8	0	123	2	0	1	134
%	5.97	0.00	91.79	1.49	0.00	0.75	100.00
EU15	2	0	3	0	0	0	5
%	40.00	0.00	60.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
EU NMS10	2	0	85	0	0	1	88
%	2.27	0.00	96.59	0.00	0.00	1.14	100.00
EU NMS3	1	0	3	0	0	0	4
%	25.00	0.00	75.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00
Slovenia							
All migrants	213	218	554	54	30	25	1,094
%	19.47	19.93	50.64	4.94	2.74	2.29	100.00
EU28	26	26	189	29	3	9	282
%	9.22	9.22	67.02	10.28	1.06	3.19	100.00
Spain							
All migrants	610	1,664	2,912	129	28	405	5,748
%	10.61	28.95	50.66	2.24	0.49	7.05	100.00
EU15	66	64	657	32	0	90	909
%	7.26	7.04	72.28	3.52	0.00	9.90	100.00
EU NMS10	17	27	28	1	0	9	82
%	20.73	32.93	34.15	1.22	0.00	10.98	100.00
EU NMS3	94	337	230	2	2	31	696
%	13.51	48.42	33.05	0.29	0.29	4.45	100.00
Sweden							
All migrants	132	93	1,358	107	418	154	2,262
%	5.84	4.11	60.04	4.73	18.48	6.81	100.00
EU15	64	30	285	33	0	46	458
%	13.97	6.55	62.23	7.21	0.00	10.04	100.00
EU NMS13	27	21	116	5	24	23	216
%	12.50	9.72	53.70	2.31	11.11	10.65	100.00
UK							
All migrants	956	1,478	3,928	1,056	371	404	8,193
%	11.67	18.04	47.94	12.89	4.53	4.93	100.00
EU15	208	202	541	186	0	47	1,184
%	17.57	17.06	45.69	15.71	0.00	3.97	100.00
EU NMS10	253	602	370	92	6	59	1,382
%	18.31	43.56	26.77	6.66	0.43	4.27	100.00
EU NMS3	54	97	56	17	3	8	235
%	22.98	41.28	23.83	7.23	1.28	3.40	100.00

Source: LFS_adhoc2014.
Note: The country of birth is classified differently in the data depending on the country. While some group all migrants from other EU28 countries together, others distinguish between the EU15 and the new member states (NMS). The latter is then again subdivided in some countries and not in others.

REMINDER

ROLE OF EUROPEAN MOBILITY AND ITS IMPACTS IN NARRATIVES, DEBATES AND EU REFORMS

The REMINDER project is exploring the economic, social, institutional and policy factors that have shaped the impacts of free movement in the EU and public debates about it.

The project is coordinated from COMPAS and includes participation from 14 consortium partners in 9 countries accross Europe.

This project has received funding from the European Union's Horizon 2020 research & innovation programme under grant agreement no 727072