

► Inclusion of migrants in the labour market

A comparative analysis of Italy
and other EU countries

Vallì Corbanese and Gianni Rosas

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International Labour Organization

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► Introduction

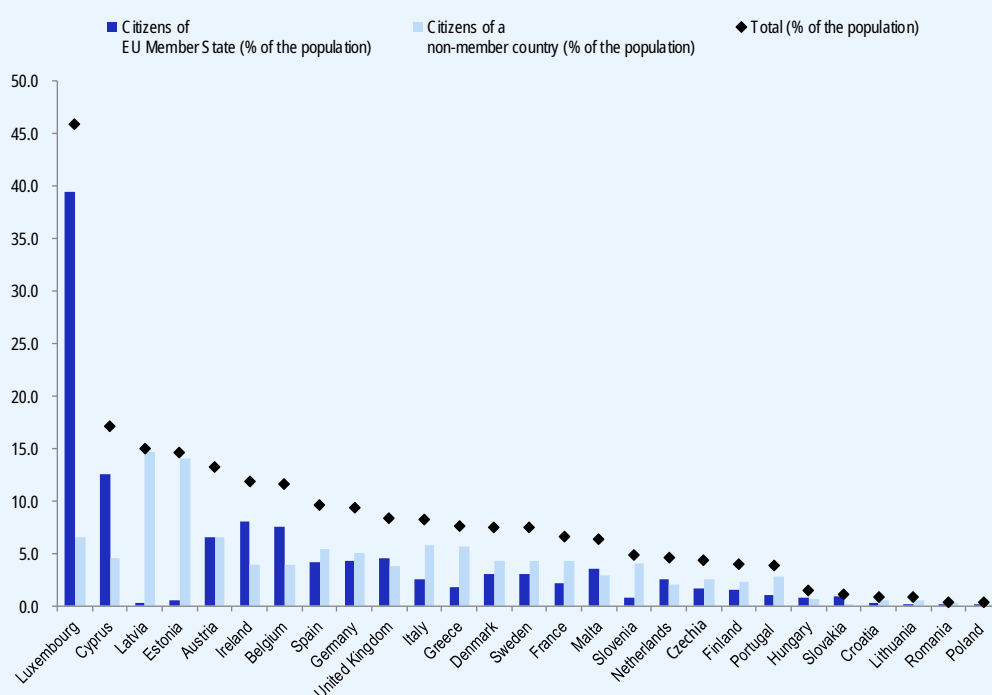
This paper provides a comparative review of the labour market situation and the latest trends in the social integration of migrants in Italy and the European Union. The objective is to shed light on the labour market and social integration pathways of individuals who migrated to Italy for work, family reunion or international protection and compared it to the situation of other European Union countries.

Chapter 1 of the paper looks at the main characteristics of migrants in Italy and Europe and examines the main reasons for their decision to migrate. Chapter 2 examines the labour market performance of migrants once they settle in Italy or in another European country. Chapter 3 concludes by reviewing the trends in the integration of migrants in terms of their access to education, housing and health care, the acquisition of citizenship and discrimination.

► 1 Migrants in the European Union

The number of foreign individuals residing in a European Union (EU) Member State with citizenship of a non-member country at the beginning of 2018 was 19.8 million (equivalent to 3.9 per cent of the EU-28 population), whilst 15.3 million persons were living in one EU Member State but had the citizenship of another Member State (see Figure 1.1).

► Figure 1.1 — Non-national population by group of citizenship, January 2018



Note: The values for the different categories of citizenship may not sum to the totals due to rounding.

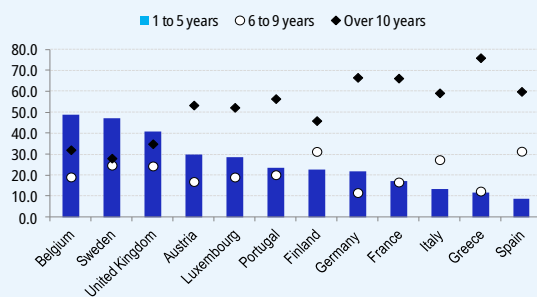
Source: EUROSTAT (online data code: migr_pop1ctz).

The EU countries that hosted the largest stock of migrants from non-member countries were Germany (4 million), Italy (3.5 million), France (2.9 million), Spain (2.5 million) and United Kingdom (2.4 million). In most EU Member States, the majority of foreigners were citizens of non-member countries. The opposite is true for Luxembourg, Slovakia, Cyprus, Ireland, Belgium, the Netherlands, Hungary, the United Kingdom, Malta and Austria. In the case of Latvia and Estonia, the proportion of citizens from non-member countries is particularly large due to the high number of recognised non-citizens (mainly former Soviet Union citizens, who are permanent resident but have not acquired any other citizenship). Table A1 in the Annex presents a summary of the five main groups of foreign citizens in selected EU countries.

At the aggregate level, migrants are equally distributed between men and women, both for EU and extra-EU citizens, but with important country-level differences. In Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Estonia, Luxembourg, Poland, Romania, Slovenia and Slovakia the share of immigrant men from other EU countries exceeds 60 per cent, while only in Slovakia and Slovenia migrant men from non-member countries exceed 60 per cent of the total.

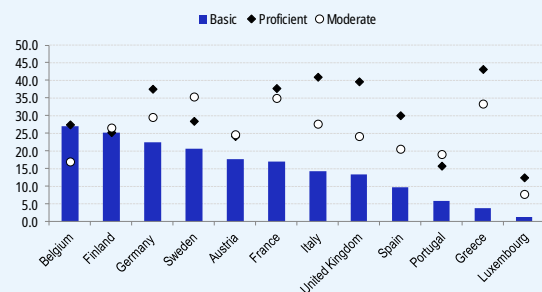
Only in Belgium, Sweden and United Kingdom, the share of newly arrived migrants (i.e. with immigration periods ranging from one to five years) is higher than the share of settled migrants (i.e. individuals with immigration spell of 10 years and over). The relationship between duration of immigration (Figure 1.2) and language skills (Figure 1.3) is rather weak for most countries, except for Belgium and Sweden. In these countries, the fact that 20–25 per cent of migrants have only basic language skills is probably due to the share of new arrivals over the total immigrant population. But in countries with large shares of settled migrants (like Germany, France and Italy), it is rather surprising that between 15 and 20 per cent of the immigrant population has only a basic knowledge of the host country language.

► **Figure 1.2 — Foreign population by duration of immigration (selected EU countries 2014, percentage over total)**



Source: EUROSTAT (online data code: lfso_14b1dr).

► **Figure 1.3 — Foreign population by skill in host country language (selected EU countries 2014, percentage over total)**



Source: EUROSTAT (online data code: lfso_14blang).

The age structure of the population shows that, for the EU as a whole, the foreign population — and especially the group born outside the EU — is younger than the national population (Table 1.1.). In 2018, the median age of the national population in the EU was 43 years, while the median age of foreigners was 35 years. Children less than 15 years old represented 9.6 per cent of the total population coming from other EU countries and 15.5 per cent for the migrants coming from extra-EU countries. Youth (15–24) represents 8.1 per cent of migrants from other EU countries and 12.9 per cent of migrants from countries outside the EU, while individuals aged 25 to 64 represent 51.3 per cent and 64.7 per cent, respectively.

In Greece, Spain, Italy and Malta the share of children and youth (less than 25 years old) coming from non-EU countries exceeds the share of native-born children and youth by 6–10 percentage points.

► **Table 1.1 — National and foreign population by broad age-group and origin, EU28, 2018 (percentage)**

Country	National population			Citizens EU28			Non-EU citizens		
	<25	25–64	>64	<25	25–64	>64	<25	25–64	>64
Belgium	29.1	51.8	29.1	24.6	63.1	12.3	30.3	64.7	5.0
Bulgaria	23.9	56.1	23.9	10.1	69.3	20.6	22.0	66.9	11.1
Czech Republic	25.8	55.7	25.8	11.5	81.9	6.6	23.8	73.0	3.1
Denmark	30.0	50.4	30.0	27.0	67.7	5.3	30.5	63.9	5.6
Germany	23.9	53.9	23.9	20.5	69.8	9.7	25.2	65.1	9.7
Estonia	29.5	53.0	29.5	18.0	68.1	13.9	8.1	65.2	26.7
Ireland	34.1	51.7	34.1	25.7	69.2	5.1	30.5	67.8	1.7
Greece	24.2	53.5	24.2	24.0	69.1	6.9	34.2	63.0	2.8
Spain	24.7	55.6	24.7	19.0	68.0	12.9	31.1	65.6	3.2
France	30.7	50.6	30.7	20.4	58.9	20.7	29.6	60.1	10.3
Croatia	26.3	54.9	26.3	12.4	57.2	30.4	22.2	66.0	11.8
Italy	23.0	53.6	23.0	24.9	72.3	2.8	32.0	64.9	3.1
Cyprus	31.1	52.7	31.1	27.8	63.5	8.7	28.5	68.5	3.0
Latvia	29.1	54.0	29.1	22.0	64.5	13.5	5.7	60.0	34.2
Lithuania	27.6	53.7	27.6	19.6	66.8	13.6	14.0	62.8	23.2
Luxembourg	29.4	51.0	29.4	27.6	64.4	8.0	28.0	65.7	6.2
Hungary	26.1	55.8	26.1	19.5	67.2	13.3	31.4	63.3	5.4
Malta	27.0	54.1	27.0	17.6	60.2	22.2	33.4	64.3	2.2
Netherlands	29.1	52.5	29.1	24.9	69.0	6.1	25.9	68.5	5.6
Austria	25.6	54.1	25.6	26.2	67.7	6.1	30.7	62.8	6.5
Poland	27.0	57.6	27.0	16.6	69.9	13.5	16.5	77.9	5.6
Portugal	25.0	54.2	25.0	19.1	65.7	15.2	27.3	69.2	3.5
Romania	26.6	56.3	26.6	14.0	75.9	10.2	30.6	65.9	3.4
Slovenia	24.8	56.6	24.8	10.9	76.9	12.2	21.8	75.1	3.0
Slovakia	27.6	58.4	27.6	11.3	76.6	12.1	17.5	73.9	8.5
Finland	28.3	51.1	28.3	22.6	72.1	5.3	28.8	67.5	3.6
Sweden	29.5	49.9	29.5	21.4	65.3	13.3	34.7	61.0	4.3
United Kingdom	30.5	50.8	30.5	28.5	64.2	7.3	30.3	64.7	5.0

Source: EUROSTAT (online data code: migr_pop1ctz).

In about half of EU countries, the educational attainment of the first generation of migrants (aged 15 to 64) is higher than for the native born (Table 1.2). The difference between native-born and the first generation of migrants is particularly striking in countries like Luxembourg, Poland and United Kingdom where migrants with a high level of education represents 40 to 50 per cent of all migrants. Conversely, in countries like Greece, Spain, Italy, Malta and Portugal the share of low-educated migrants (ISCED 0–2) exceeds 40 per cent of the total.

The educational attainment level of the second generation (one of the indicators used to measure the integration of migrants in the host country) is not as high. Only Cyprus, Lithuania, Portugal, Slovakia and United Kingdom have shares of highly-educated second generation migrants that are higher than those of the native born. In Estonia, Croatia, Latvia and Slovenia the shares of highly educated second generation migrants is similar to those of the native born (due to the specific migration patterns experienced by these countries).

Among the countries that host the largest share of migrants (France, Italy, Spain, and Germany), only France shows shares of highly-educated second generation migrants similar to those of the native born. In Italy, the share of highly-educated second generation migrants is four times lower than those of the native born and in Greece and Germany this share is twice lower.

► **Table 1.2 — Educational attainment level of native-born, first and second generation of migrants (as percentage of working age population), 2014**

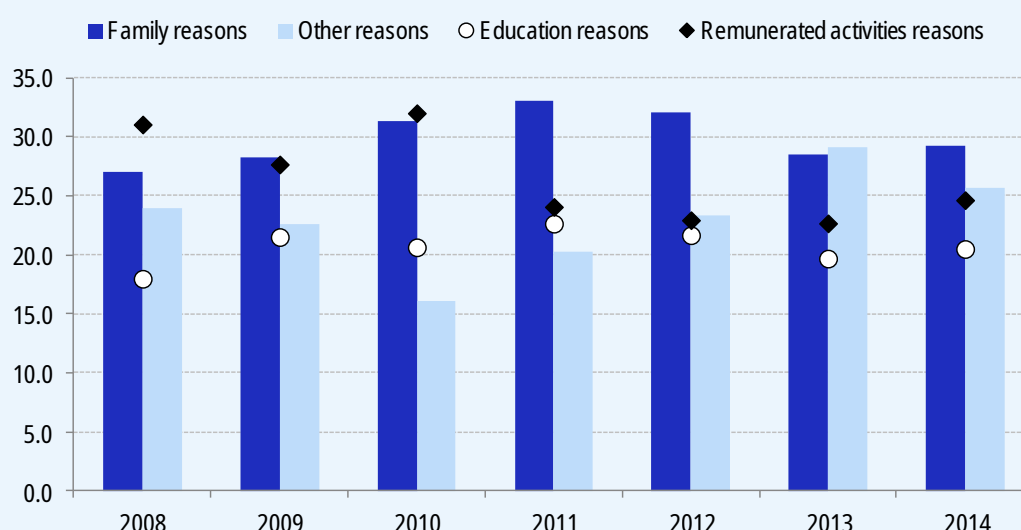
Country	Native born			1st generation of immigrants			2nd generation of immigrants		
	ISCED 0–2	ISCED 3–4	ISCED 5–8	ISCED 0–2	ISCED 3–4	ISCED 5–8	ISCED 0–2	ISCED 3–4	ISCED 5–8
Belgium	26.7	39.4	33.9	39.5	30.3	30.2	37.8	42.5	19.6
Bulgaria	22.5	53.8	23.7	...	57.4	38.6	...	...	...
Czech Republic	12.6	68.3	19.1	17.2	57.1	25.8	34.1	52.8	13.1
Germany	15.6	60.4	23.9	33.6	45.3	21.2	41.4	49.0	9.5
Estonia	16.4	52.3	31.2	4.8	54.1	41.1	9.8	59.0	31.2
Greece	32.4	42.2	25.4	44.7	41.9	13.4	52.0	36.3	11.7
Spain	43.7	22.5	33.8	42.0	31.9	25.3	55.8	23.6	20.6
France	23.5	45.5	30.5	35.7	32.6	30.7	25.8	43.7	29.4
Croatia	20.9	59.7	19.2	22.1	61.3	16.3	23.9	58.0	18.1
Italy	41.7	42.8	15.5	46.4	41.9	11.7	64.8	31.4	3.8
Cyprus	26.4	37.5	36.0	27.1	36.1	36.8	43.9	...	48.6
Latvia	16.7	55.5	27.8	7.8	70.8	21.2	8.5	66.0	25.6
Lithuania	15.6	53.9	30.5	...	58.8	36.8	...	53.8	42.0
Luxembourg	27.7	44.0	27.4	22.2	25.9	50.1	39.6	40.7	19.1
Hungary	22.4	57.8	19.8	12.7	57.5	29.8	33.8	53.9	12.3
Malta	54.4	28.9	16.6	41.0	23.9	35.1	...	...	...
Austria	17.9	55.6	26.5	28.7	44.2	27.1	34.4	49.4	16.2
Poland	15.9	60.8	23.3	8.6	51.0	40.4	10.0	75.9	14.1
Portugal	58.7	22.7	18.5	40.1	32.7	27.2	41.7	34.5	23.8
Romania	31.4	54.4	14.2	...	67.4	...	...	...	...
Slovenia	17.7	55.4	26.8	28.0	58.0	14.0	13.5	61.1	25.4
Slovakia	15.4	66.7	17.9	16.8	60.5	22.7	...	70.0	25.8
Finland	19.5	45.4	35.1	26.7	44.5	28.8	57.6	36.3	...
Sweden	16.8	48.4	32.1	26.8	32.0	38.2	26.1	45.7	23.9
United Kingdom	23.2	41.8	32.8	18.8	33.8	45.3	20.1	38.0	39.3

Source: EUROSTAT (online data code: Ifso_14beduc).

In 2014 EU countries issued a total of 2.3 million first permits (used a proxy for immigration flows), still lower than the levels recorded immediately before the global economic crisis (2.5 million in 2008). All EU countries, except the Czech Republic, Spain, Italy, United Kingdom and Romania, experienced increasing inflows between 2013 and 2014.

Most entries into the EU Member are due to family reasons (29.3 per cent in 2014), other reasons (25.6 per cent) and education (20.5 per cent). Immigration inflows for work purposes (Figure 1.4) decreased from over one third of all inflows in 2008 (just over 786,800 migrants) to less than one quarter (24.6 per cent) in 2014 (slightly over 572,800 migrants). The largest decreases in inflows for work were recorded in the years 2010–2011 (–33.8 per cent) and in 2011–2012 (–8.1 per cent).

► **Figure 1.4 — Migration to EU countries by category of entry, 2008-2014 (percentage)**

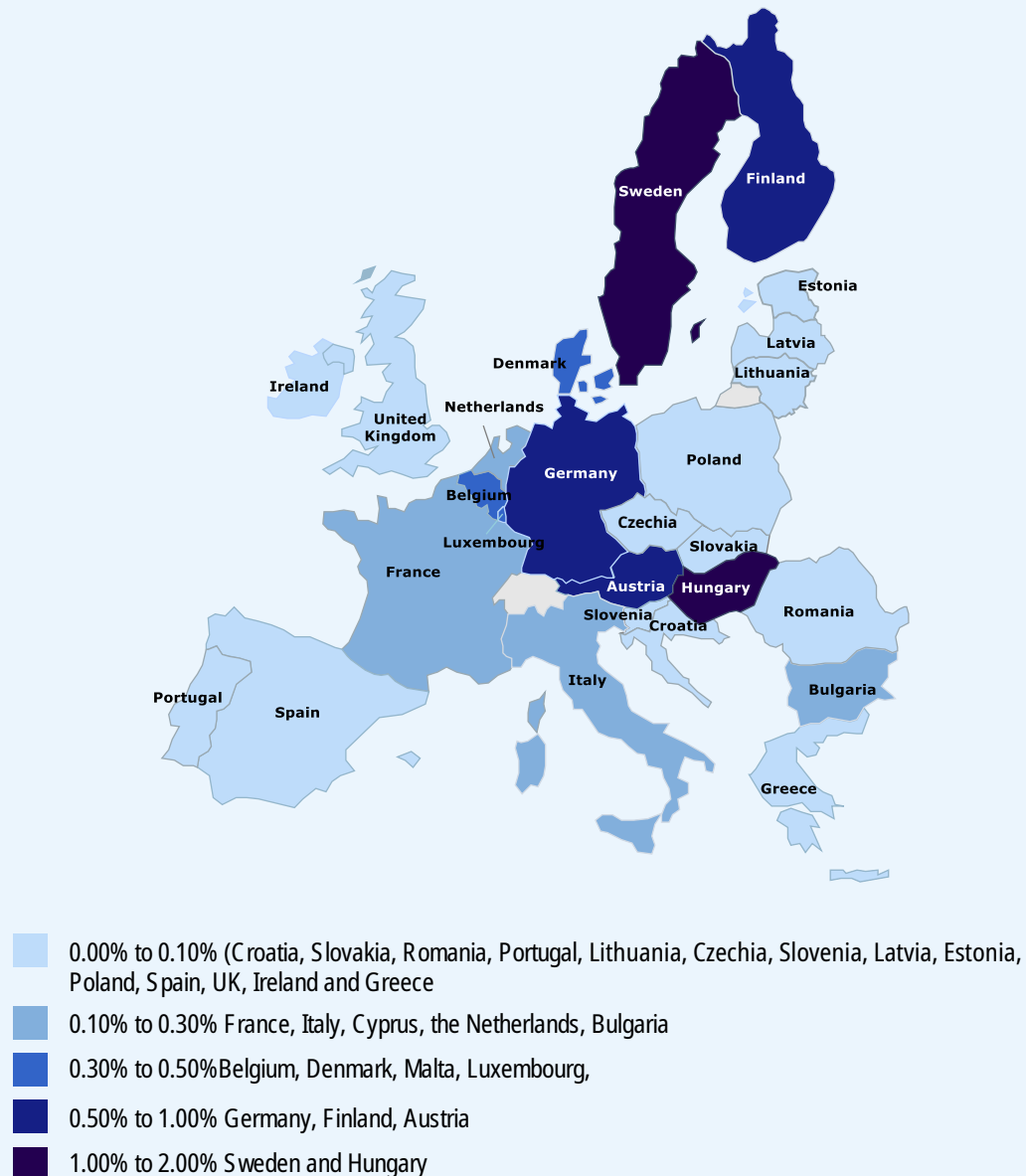


Source: EUROSTAT, (online data code: migr_resfirst).

The EU ad hoc module of the Labour Force Survey (LFS) on migrants and their descendants (carried out in 2014) shows that the majority of migrants from other EU countries moved for work-related reasons (47.8 per cent), followed by those who migrated for family reasons (34 per cent of all migrants), while migrants from extra-EU countries moved primarily for family reasons (44.3 per cent), for work (33.3 per cent) and for asylum and international protection (5.8 per cent of the total).

In 2018 more than 1.2 million people applied for asylum in EU countries, over twice the number of asylum applicants recorded in 2014. The highest increases were registered in Finland, Hungary, Austria, Belgium, Germany, Austria, Spain, Luxembourg and Sweden (see Table A2 in the Annex). In terms of percentage of the population, the countries that experienced the largest increases were Hungary, Austria and Sweden.

► Figure 1.5 — Asylum applicants as percentage of the population, 2018 (percentage)



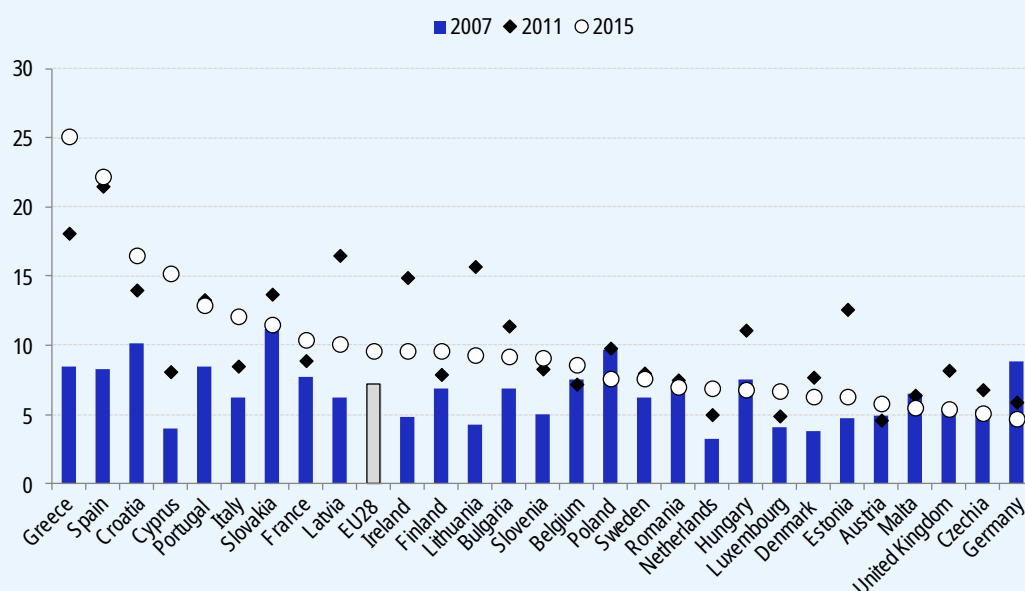
Source: EUROSTAT, (online data code: migr_asyappctza).

Approximately 785 thousand citizens of non-member countries residing in an EU Member State acquired EU citizenship in 2014, corresponding to a 10 per cent decrease compared to 2013. These new EU28 citizens were mainly from Africa (29 per cent of the total number of citizenships acquired), North and South America (21 per cent), Asia (20 per cent), and other European countries outside the EU28 (18 per cent). As in previous years, the largest group of new citizens in the EU were citizens of Morocco (10.4 per cent of all citizenships granted), followed by citizens of Albania (4.6 per cent), Turkey (4.2 per cent), India (4 per cent) and Ecuador (3.9 per cent). Compared to 2013, the number of Moroccan citizens acquiring the citizenship of an EU Member State increased by 5.5 per cent (especially in Spain, Italy and France).

► 2 Labour market performance of migrants in the European Union

Since 2011, the labour market situation of EU28 countries improved only marginally, with the unemployment rate decreasing by a mere percentage point (from 9.7 per cent to 9.6 per cent) and remaining well above the level recorded prior to the economic crisis (7.2 per cent, see Figure 2.1).

► **Figure 2.1 — Unemployment rate (15–64), EU28 countries 2007–2018 (percentage of the labour force)**



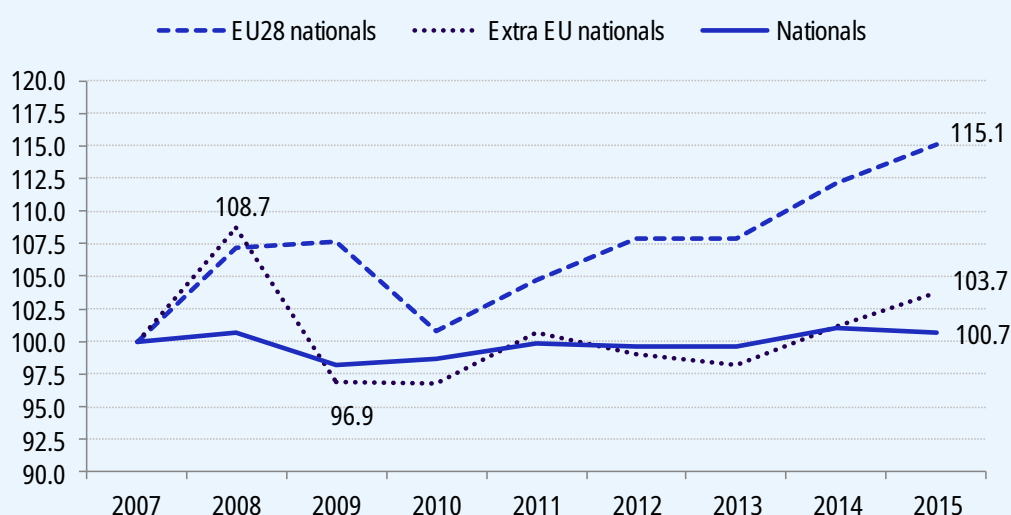
Source: EUROSTAT, (online data code: lfsa_urgacob).

In the whole EU28 area, every other unemployed has been out of work for at least 12 months, twice as many as in the beginning of the crisis in 2007. The persistence of high unemployment rates for such a long period implies a rise in structural unemployment.

In the period 2011–2018, the experience of EU countries varied substantially. A first group of countries (Germany, Malta, and Poland) saw improvements in their labour markets with unemployment rates declining to levels below those of the pre-crisis period. In a second group of countries the labour market situation improved, and unemployment rates returned close to their pre-crisis levels (United Kingdom and Romania). Another set of countries have made substantive improvements since 2011, but still they have not fully returned to pre-crisis levels (Estonia, Denmark, Hungary, Portugal Sweden, Bulgaria, Lithuania, Ireland, Latvia and Slovakia). For the fourth group of countries, the recovery lagged behind or they have entered a new cycle of recession, with stagnant unemployment rates (Spain) or even rising ones (Croatia, Cyprus, Italy, France, Finland, Slovenia, Belgium, the Netherlands, Luxembourg and Austria). In Italy, Spain, Cyprus, Ireland, Lithuania and the Netherlands the unemployment rates in 2018 were still twice as high as the levels registered in 2007.

The employment trends of nationals and foreigners have followed different paths in the recovery period (Figure 2.2). Since 2010, growth in employment was higher for migrants compared to nationals (and especially for citizens from other EU28 countries). This difference can be largely explained by the trends in the total working-age population, with the foreign-born one rising, due to demographic trends and arrivals of new migrants, and the native-born one falling, due to ageing. It was only in 2014 that the employment levels for nationals started to increase to reach 199.5 million in 2018 (but still below the 203 million recorded in 2007). Employment among working age migrants from other EU Member States continued to increase throughout the period, while for migrants coming from outside the EU, employment decreased sharply in 2009-2010 (by 3 per cent) and again in 2012-13 (by 1.8 per cent)

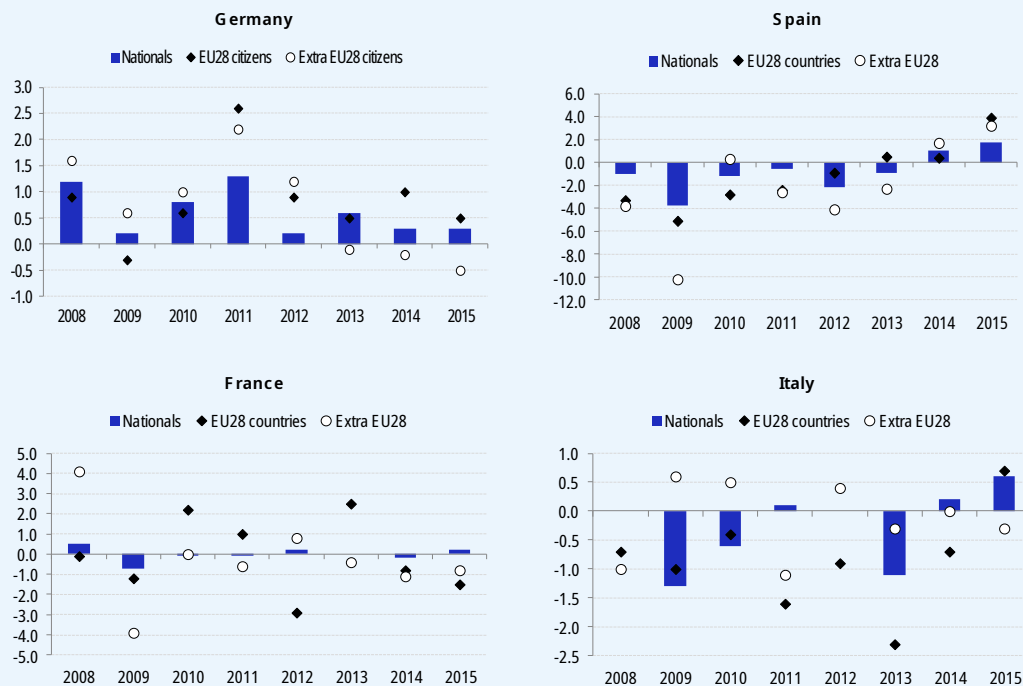
► **Figure 2.2 — Employment by citizenship, EU28 countries, 2007-15 (Index 100 = 2007)**



Source: EUROSTAT, (online data code: Ifsa_egan).

The employment performance of foreigners among EU countries hosting the largest stock of migrants coming from outside the EU28 (Germany, Italy, France and Spain) differs substantially (Figure 2.3). In Germany, the employment-to-population ratio increased for nationals and extra-EU migrants until 2012. The same is true for migrants from other EU Member States except in 2009. Since 2013, the employment-to-population ratio of extra-EU migrants has started to decline (slowly first and then more markedly). In Spain, the group of workers most affected by the crisis were extra-EU immigrant workers: since 2007 their employment-to-population ratio has declined every year, but more steeply compared to native-born and migrants from EU Member States. Only in 2014 had this trend reversed.

In France, employment-to-population ratios, after the generalized decline of 2008 and 2009, remained sluggish for French and extra-EU immigrant workers, but increased for migrants from other EU countries. In 2014 and 2018 rates declined sensibly for all foreign workers. In Italy, the largest decrease was recorded in 2008-2009 for native-born and EU28 workers, while employment among extra-EU workers increased and remained positive till 2010. In the period 2010-2014, employment growth remained negative for immigrant workers of other EU countries, while for extra-EU workers rates recovered slightly in 2012 to then decline again.

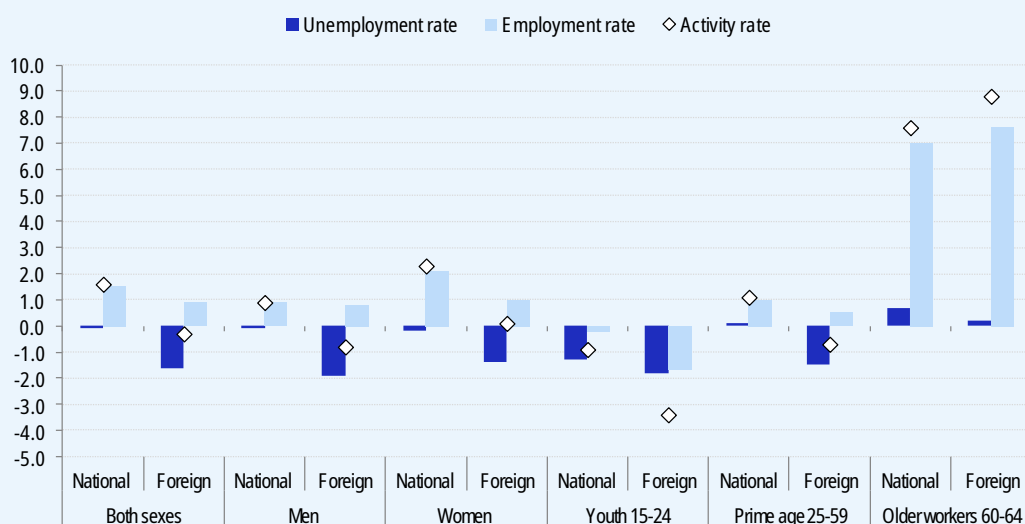
► **Figure 2.3 — Changes in the employment-to-population ratios by citizenship, selected EU countries 2007–2018 (percentage points)**

Source: EUROSTAT, (online data code: lfsa_ergan).

In the period 2007–2018 overall employment levels, however, increased for extra-EU immigrant workers in Germany, France and Italy, while it declined in Spain. Declining employment-to-population ratios combined with increasing employment levels for extra-EU migrants in Germany, France and Italy is due to higher extra-EU population levels and higher labour force participation. In Spain, conversely, the extra-EU population declined in the period 2007–2018 by 18 per cent and with it also the share of the extra-EU population that is active in the labour market (by 20 per cent).

There are still large differences in the labour market performance of immigrant workers in EU countries depending on their individual characteristics. Immigrant workers have suffered disproportionately from the crisis, with sharply decreasing employment and activity rates. These partly recovered in the period 2011–2018, but unevenly across EU countries. The group that was most affected — and continues to be affected — is the one of immigrant youth (15–24). Youth employment dropped dramatically in European countries (by roughly 20 per cent for both migrants and native-born youth), but the participation rate among immigrant youth declined four times more compared to the native-born due to their withdrawal from the labour market (Figure 2.4).

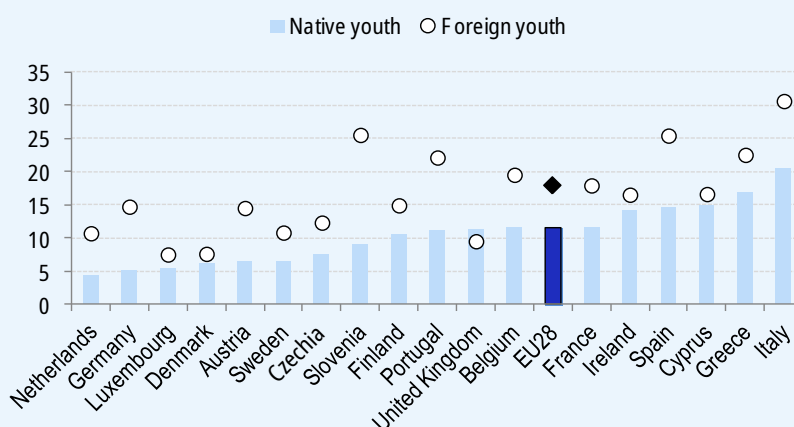
► **Figure 2.4 — Changes in labour market outcomes, by demographic group and citizenship 2011–2015 (EU28 percentage points)**



Source: EUROSTAT, (online data code: lfisa_egan, lfisa_urgan, lfisa_agan).

A complementary analysis of youth (15–24) neither in education, employment or training (NEET) shows that declining activity rates among foreign youth are not explained by a rise in participation in education or training. In 2018, more than one every five foreign youth in the EU was not in education, training or employment (Figure 2.5). For national youth, the NEET rate is about 6.3 percentage points lower. The disadvantaged position of foreign youth compared to the native-born holds true in all countries, even in those where NEET rates are lower, like in Austria, Germany, Denmark the Netherlands, Sweden and Luxembourg.

► **Figure 2.5 — Youth (15–24) neither in employment, education or training by citizenship 2018**



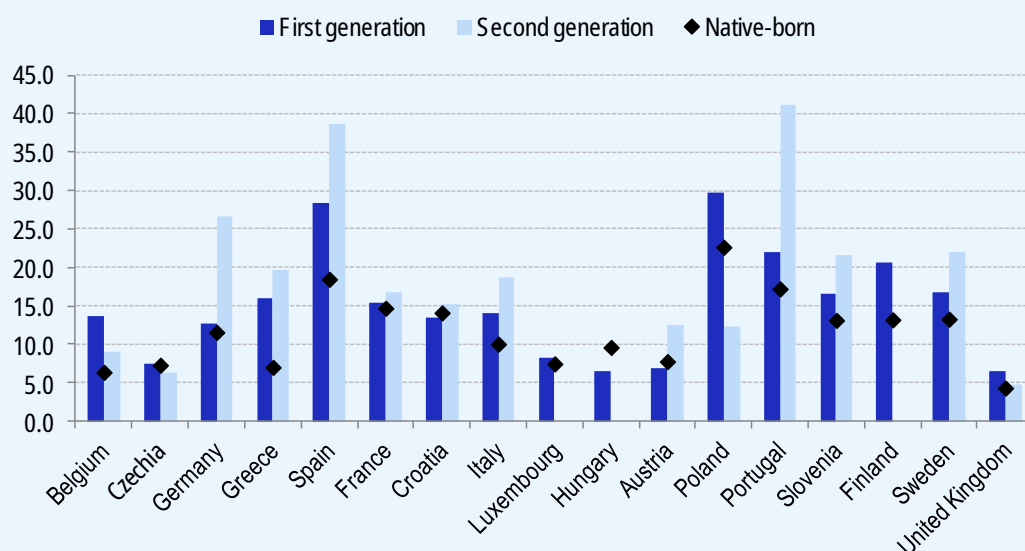
Source: EUROSTAT, (online data code: edat_lfse_23).

Not all migrants have been affected by the crisis and subsequent recovery in the same way. Migrants from other EU countries saw slight improvements in their employment levels during the recent period (2011–2015) compared with the first years of the crisis. In Europe, the only other groups that have experienced an increase in their employment rates are North Americans and Asians. Latinos and North African migrants experienced declining employment rates between 2011 and 2014 by 2 and 3 percentage points respectively.¹

The disproportionate impact of the economic crisis on immigrant workers can be explained to some extent by their distribution across sectors. Immigrant workers tend to be employed in sectors more exposed to the economic cycle (like construction), but also in sectors with more flexible forms of employment like catering and personal services, and thus are more vulnerable compared with the native-born to the upturns and downturns of the economy.

Quality of employment for migrants remains an issue. In 2014, the share of first-generation migrants working with temporary contracts was lower than that of native-born only in Hungary, Austria and Croatia (Figure 2.6). In all other countries, first generation migrant workers were much more likely to be working on temporary jobs compared to the native-born, especially in Belgium, Greece, Spain, Poland and Finland. In France, Germany and Luxembourg differences between the native-born and first-generation migrants are small (around one percentage point difference), while in United Kingdom, Slovenia and Sweden differences range from 2 to 3 percentage points. The situation is even more precarious for second generation migrants. Only in a handful of countries the share of second-generation migrants working in temporary jobs is similar to the native born (Belgium, Czech Republic, France, Croatia and United Kingdom), while in most countries differences range from 8 percentage points (Italy, Slovenia and Sweden) to over twice the share of native born (Germany, Greece, Spain and Portugal).

► **Figure 2.6 — Temporary workers by immigration status (selected EU countries, 2014, percentage over total employed 15–64)**



Source: EUROSTAT, (online data code: lfso_14lemp).

¹ OECD, 2018. *Migration Outlook 2018*.

Part-time work among migrants is generally more widespread than among native-born workers. The most striking differences are found in Greece, where first generation workers are nearly three times more likely to be working part-time compared to the native-born and second-generation workers; and in Italy and Spain where migrants are twice more likely to be working part-time compared to the native-born (Table 2.1)

► **Table 2.1 — Part-time workers by migration status, selected EU countries, 2014**
(percentage of 15–64 total employment)

Country	Native-born	First generation of migrants	Second generation of migrants
Belgium	23.2	24.1	23.4
Czechia	5.4	5.2	9.3
Germany	25.8	29.6	25.1
Estonia	8.5	8.8	6.4
Greece	8.0	21.9	8.3
Spain	14.7	24.9	27.4
France	18.4	21.4	19.4
Croatia	5.2	8.4	...
Italy	16.6	27.8	24.9
Cyprus	14.3	12.9	...
Latvia	6.3	7.1	9.9
Luxembourg	21.9	15.8	20.9
Hungary	5.9	6.3	...
Malta	15.2	14.9	...
Austria	25.7	27.4	29.4
Poland	7.4	14.6	6.9
Portugal	9.8	11.6	...
Slovenia	11.1	9.4	12.8
Finland	14.3	15.1	...
Sweden	23.7	22.0	25.9
United Kingdom	25.1	22.9	23.5

Source: EUROSTAT (online data code: lfso_14lemp).

Over-qualification is another challenge that affects first generation migrants more than native-born. The data of EU countries with the largest stock of migrants show that over-qualification among migrant workers exceeds 19 per cent of all immigrant workers compared to 10 per cent of the native-born. Data on over-qualification of migrants varies from country to country. The only country that displays over-qualification rates that are similar between native-born and immigrant workers is France (13.7 and 13.8 per cent, respectively). In Italy, migrants are three times more likely to be over-qualified for the work they do compared to native born workers, while in Germany the ratio is 2.2 (see Table 2.2). There are, however, large gaps between real and perceived over-qualification in Spain, France and Italy, where many more migrants feel over-qualified for the work they do.

► **Table 2.2 — Over-qualification by migration status (selected EU countries, 2014, percentage of employed, age 15–64)**

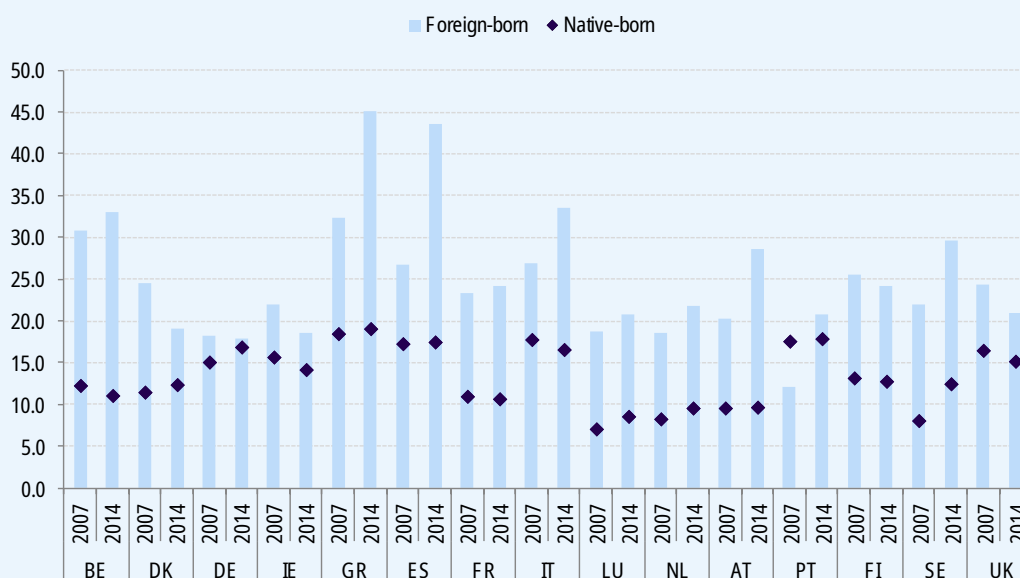
Country	Over-qualification		Self-declared over-qualification	
	Native-born	First generation of migrants	Native-born	First generation of migrants
Belgium	12.1	21.2	8.6	20.2
Germany	7.8	17.7	9.4	16.6
Greece	14.0	21.2	13.1	13.4
Spain	17.8	30.5	49.7	54.1
France	13.7	13.8	17.0	28.7
Italy	6.5	22.6	12.8	28.1

Source: EUROSTAT (online data code: Ifso_14leeow and Ifso_14loq).

The rise in unemployment and long-term unemployment has had a profound impact on the lives of individuals and their households and has exposed many of them to poverty. Migrants are more vulnerable to poverty than their native-born peers. In Belgium, Italy and Sweden, the at-risk of poverty rate for migrants is 30 per cent or higher, while in Spain and Greece it reached 43.5 and 45 per cent of the immigrant population 18 years old and over in 2018 (Figure 2.7). In all these countries, the respective poverty rates for native-born were over 20 percentage points lower.

In EU countries, the at-risk of poverty rate increased in the period 2010–2014 for both native-born and immigrant population groups (by 0.2 and 0.5 percentage points, respectively), but in Greece, Spain, Italy, Austria and Portugal the poverty rate among migrants increased by 8–16 percentage points in the period 2007–2014, while there has not been much change among the native-born population.

► **Figure 2.7 — At-risk of poverty rate, native- and foreign-born, selected EU countries 2007–2014 (percentage population 18+)**



Source: EUROSTAT (online data code: ilc_li32).

The crisis also affected the lives of migrant workers and their family. As shown in Table 2.3 below, the in-work poverty rates of migrants in 2014 was highest in Spain (36.9 per cent), Greece (32.4 per cent) and Italy (about 28 per cent). In all these countries, in-work poverty was substantially lower among native-born workers (by around 20 percentage points). In Belgium, Denmark, France, Austria and Sweden, the gap between migrants and native-born was in the two digits. In about three quarters of EU countries in-work poverty among migrants increased substantially since 2007.

► **Table 2.3 — In-work poverty, native and foreign workers, selected EU countries 2007–2014 (percentage population 18+)**

Country	Foreign workers			Native workers		
	2007	2011	2014	2007	2011	2014
Belgium	9.6	12.5	16.0	4.0	3.4	3.6
Denmark	15.6	16.8	17.2	3.8	5.9	4.4
Germany	10.6	12.2	14.7	7.3	7.4	9.4
Ireland	9.7	6.6	7.9	5.0	5.5	5.0
Greece	24.3	29.4	32.4	13.5	10.6	12.0
Spain	18.2	28.3	36.9	9.2	8.7	10.1
France	14.6	21.9	24.8	6.0	6.9	7.2
Italy	21.4	26.5	27.7	8.4	9.5	9.0
Luxembourg	15.1	15.3	16.3	4.2	4.8	6.5
Netherlands	5.5	22.5	4.7	4.6	5.0	5.3
Austria	12.5	19.1	22.1	5.3	6.2	5.0

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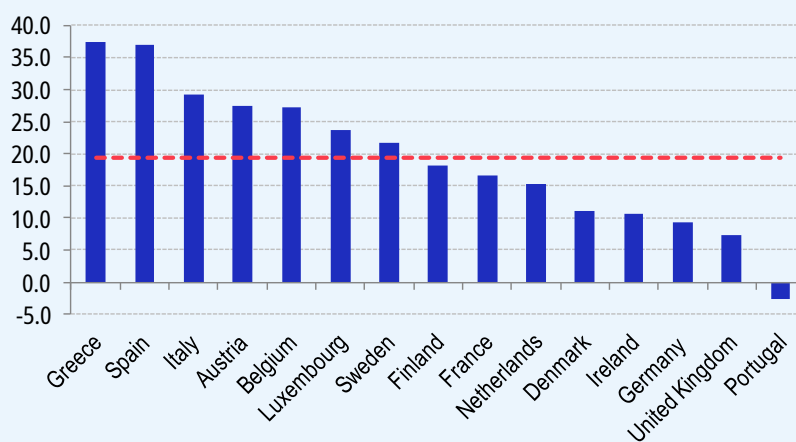
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Country	Foreign workers			Native workers		
	2007	2011	2014	2007	2011	2014
Portugal	5.6	25.8	15.6	9.8	9.8	10.6
Finland	11.8	8.0	11.2	4.9	3.8	3.5
Sweden	17.2	19.0	23.2	5.9	6.4	6.9
United Kingdom	12.9	11.2	12.5	7.7	7.7	8.2

Source: EUROSTAT (online data code: ilc_iw15).

The net income gap between foreign and native-born individuals is around 20 per cent. The largest differences in terms of income are recorded in Greece and Spain (37 per cent), followed by Austria and Italy (28 and 29 per cent), whilst in Germany and United Kingdom the gap is in single digit (see Figure 2.8).

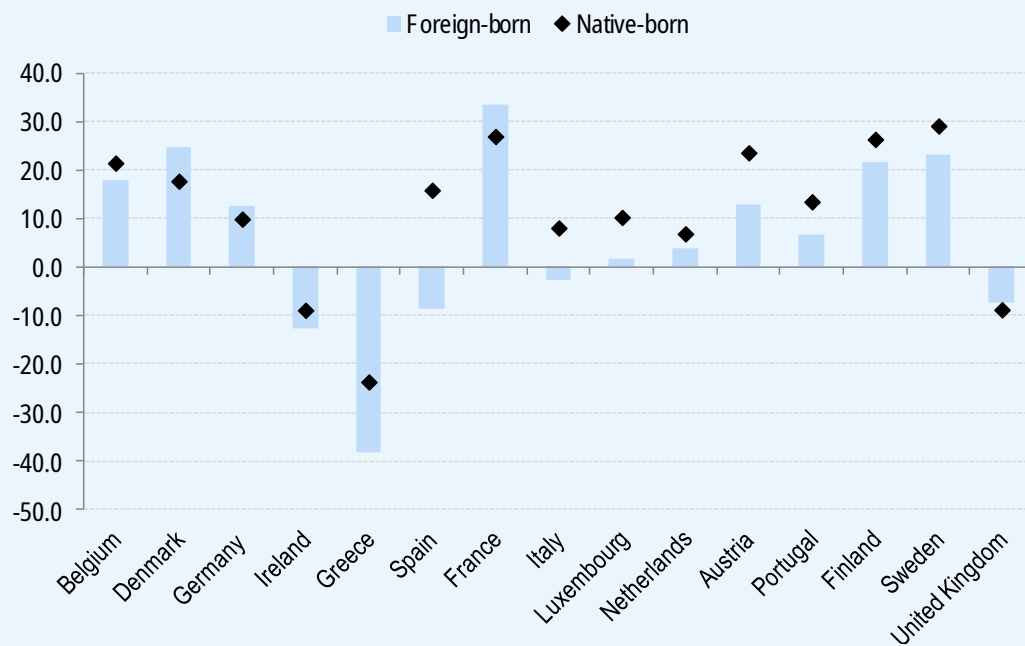
► **Figure 2.8 — Net median income gap, foreign and native-born individuals, selected EU countries 2014 (percentage, €).**



Source: EUROSTAT, (online data code: ilc_di16).

In terms of income trends, Ireland, United Kingdom and Greece experienced declining median net incomes for both natives and migrants in the period 2007–2014 (Figure 2.9). In Italy and Spain, conversely, incomes declined for migrants, but not for the native-born. Only in Denmark and France, median income increased more for foreign households compared to national ones.

► **Figure 2.9 — Changes in net median income of native- and foreign-born (PPS) selected EU countries 2007–2014 (percentage population 18+)**



Source: EUROSTAT (online data code: ilc_di16).

► 3 Trends in labour market inclusion of migrants

The previous two sections analysed the key characteristics of migrants in EU countries as well as their performance in the labour market. Available data show that:

European Union countries host approximately 35 million migrants, 56.7 per cent of whom are citizens of extra-EU countries. At aggregate level, women comprise 49.5 per cent of the overall migrant population in the EU. Migrants are younger than the national population, with a median age of 35 years old;

Over 55 per cent of migrants had been residing in EU for 10 years or longer, whilst the share of newly-arrived migrants (one to five years) represents 22.6 of total number of migrants. Immigration for family reasons remain the prevailing channel of entry in the EU, followed by work;

Educational attainment is lower among migrants compared to nationals. In EU28 nearly 38 per cent of migrants (15–64) had low educational attainment compared to 26 per cent of the national population;

Migrants tend to have poorer labour market outcomes compared to national population groups. Although labour force participation rates are similar among the two groups (71.6 per cent for migrants and 72.6 per cent for nationals), employment and unemployment levels differ markedly. In 2018, employment levels among migrants were roughly 6 percentage points lower (60.7 and 66 per cent, respectively) and unemployment rates 6 percentage points higher (15.2 per cent and 9.1 per cent, respectively).

Migrants are more exposed to part-time employment, temporary work and over-qualification compared to national workers. In addition, they are more exposed to poverty risk and to on-work poverty.

Income gaps between migrants and nationals remain large (roughly 20 per cent at EU level), with migrants still more exposed to the negative income effects of the economic crisis of 2008.

The economic crisis hit migrants particularly hard, also due to their segregation in economic sectors and occupations more responsive to economic cycles. However, the group of migrants that suffered the most during the crisis was that of young people (15–24), who not only experience sharp decreases of employment and mounting unemployment, but also withdrawal from the labour force.

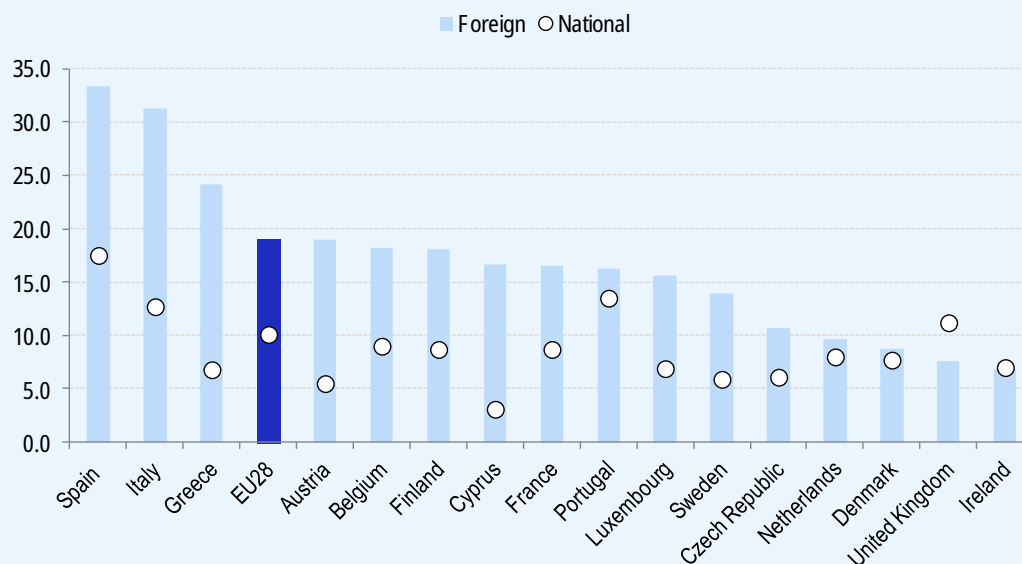
Other indicators that are relevant to understand the integration of migrants in European countries relate to education (early school leaving, reading ability and low achievers); housing and health (self-reported health status and dwelling over-crowding); active citizenship (naturalization rate) and perceived discrimination.

3.1 Education

How well host countries integrate the children of migrants can be considered a yardstick of integration policies. As children of migrants are schooled in the host country, they should not encounter the same difficulties faced by the parents who migrated for work, family or other reasons. Their outcomes should be much the same as those of young people with no migrant background. Yet, this is not what happens in many European host countries.

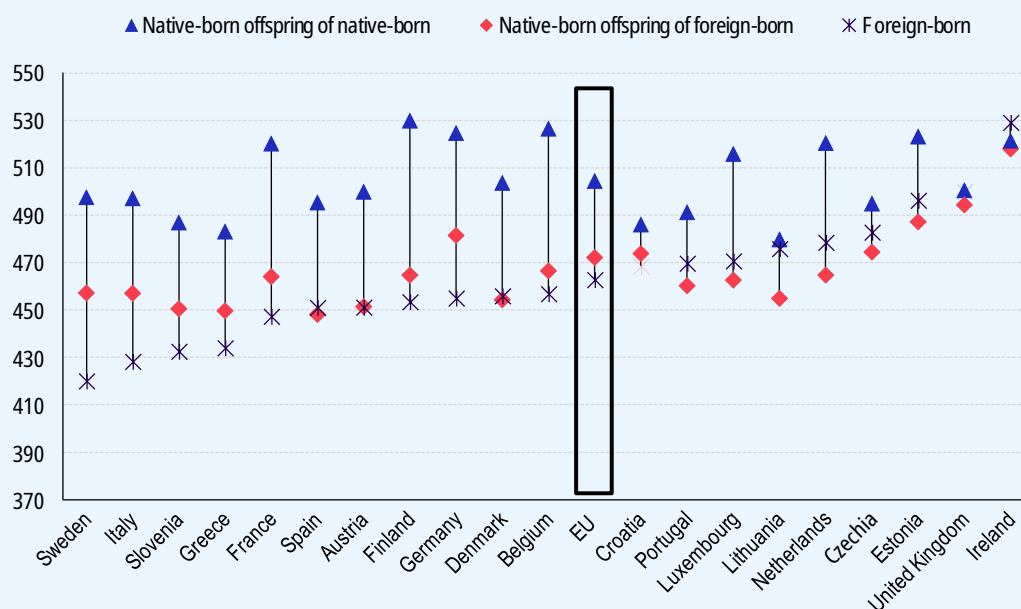
The first indicator of the different performance of national and foreign youth (18–24) at school is the rate of early school-leaving (Figure 3.1). At aggregate level, youth with a foreign background in the EU are twice as likely as nationals to leave school early (19 per cent and 10.1 per cent, respectively). The aggregate figures, however, mask wide gaps across countries and over time. Spain, Italy and Greece show the highest rates of early school-leavers among foreign youth, but also the countries that recorded the largest improvement since 2010 (with early school leaving rates dropping by 19 percentage points in Greece and nearly 10 percentage points in Italy and Spain). Other countries that progressed substantially in reducing early school leaving among foreign youth are Portugal, France and Denmark. In Portugal and Denmark early school leaving rates started to converge across the two population groups, while in France youth with a foreign background are still twice as likely to leave school early compared to French youth. Austria, Luxembourg and Sweden still have early school-leaving rates that are two-three times those of national youth, but Austria is succeeding in decreasing early school leaving, while in Luxembourg and Sweden rates are increasing.

► **Figure 3.1 — Early school-leaving rates, by citizenship, selected EU countries, 2018**



Source: EUROSTAT (online data code: edat_lfse_02).

The average level of reading literacy among migrant children in 2012 was lower than that of native-born children. Foreign-born children lagged 42 points behind and native-born children with immigrant parents scored 40 points lower. The shortfalls were much higher in Sweden, Italy, France, Finland, Germany and Belgium (70 point or more). Results were good, however, in United Kingdom and Ireland (Figure 3.2)

► **Figure 3.2 — Mean PISA reading scores of 15-year-old students by migration background, 2012**

Source: OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2012.

Since 2003, the performance of foreign-born children improved in many countries, and especially in Belgium, Luxembourg, Germany, Ireland, Poland and Portugal. The only exceptions are Scandinavian and Southern European countries, where the performance of foreign-born children worsened across the two rounds of the Programme for International Student Assessment — PISA (see Table 3.1).

► **Table 3.1 — Mean PISA reading scores of 15-year-old students by migration background, 2012**

Host country	Native-born	Native-born children of foreign-born	Foreign-born
Austria	0	23	20
Belgium	-1	27	32
Czech Republic	-3	23	4
Denmark	7	15	-18
Finland	-16	-61	-29
France	14	6	0
Germany	7	61	23
Greece	7	-22	-5
Hungary	7	114	14
Ireland	6	31	18

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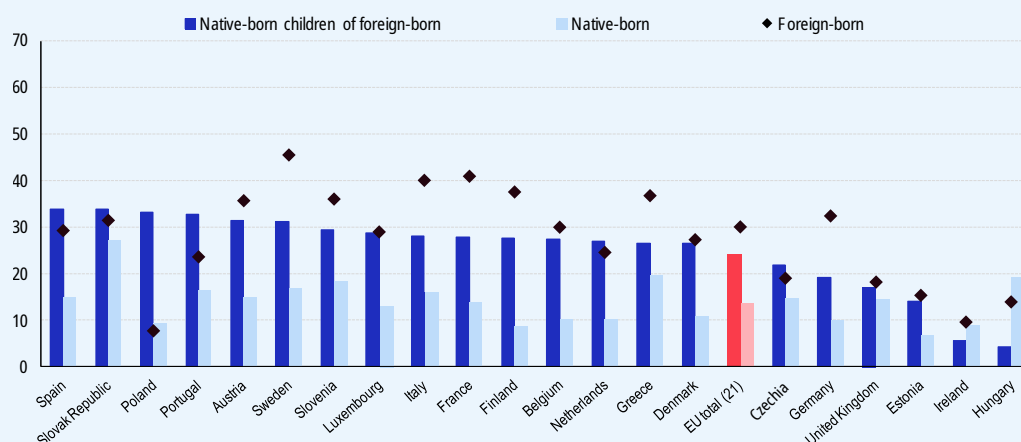
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Host country	Native-born	Native-born children of foreign-born	Foreign-born
Italy	19	-7	-9
Latvia	-3	10	-35
Luxembourg	13	9	33
Netherlands	-4	-10	-3
Poland	21	-16	39
Portugal	11	-11	28
Slovak Republic	-5	18	-18
Spain	12	8	1
Sweden	-25	-45	-32
United Kingdom	-6	-15	2
EU total (20)	7	14	11

Source: OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2003 and 2012.

Across the EU in 2012, around 13 per cent of native-born children struggled with reading literacy at 15 years old. The figure was 24 per cent among children with foreign-born parents, but 30 per cent among immigrant children. The share of low-performers among immigrant children was above the EU average in Austria, Sweden, Italy, France, Finland, Greece and Germany, whereas only in Ireland and Poland shares were similar or better. In the majority of EU countries, the share of low performers among children born in the host country from foreign parents exceeds 25 per cent. In Spain, the Slovak Republic, Portugal, Austria and Sweden the share of low performers is around 30 per cent, twice higher than the share of native-born children.

► **Figure 3.3 — Shares of low school performers among 15-year-old students in reading by migration background, 2012**



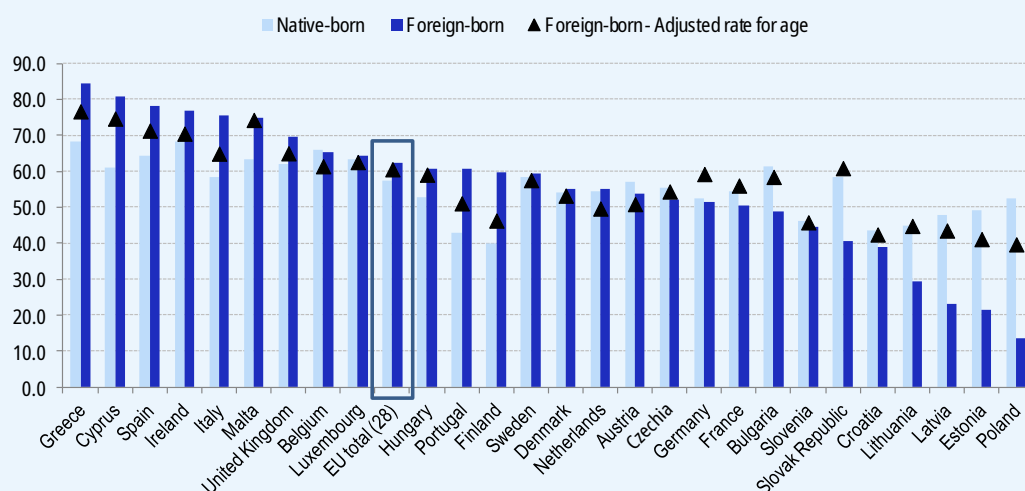
Source: OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2012.

3.2 Health and housing conditions

Health is integral to wellbeing and affects the degree and manner of engagement with society as a whole. Socio-demographic characteristics such as gender and age, participation in risky behaviour (e.g. drinking alcohol or smoking) and living and working conditions are among the most important determinants of health. The quality of life in the country of origin and the migration process itself also affect health outcomes, with some migrant groups, such as refugees, particularly exposed to certain diseases or mental disorders.

In 2012, six out of ten migrants in the European Union responded positively in all three dimensions of the self-reported health status indicator — perception of overall good health, no chronic illnesses, and no health-related limitations. The levels were similar to those of the native-born. In Ireland and in Southern Europe (Cyprus, Greece, Italy and Spain), three out of four migrants reported no problem in any of the three dimensions. In southern Europe, migrants tend to be generally healthier than their native-born counterparts. In most of those countries, recent migrants — on average younger than the rest of the population — account for a high proportion of foreign-born residents. In France and Germany, and in a number of central and eastern European countries, migrants are on average less likely than the native-born to report being in good health or better, with gaps of 39 percentage points in Poland and 28 in Estonia (Figure 3.4).

► **Figure 3.4 — Foreign- and native-born individuals reporting good health, non-health-related limitations, and non-chronic health conditions, 2012**

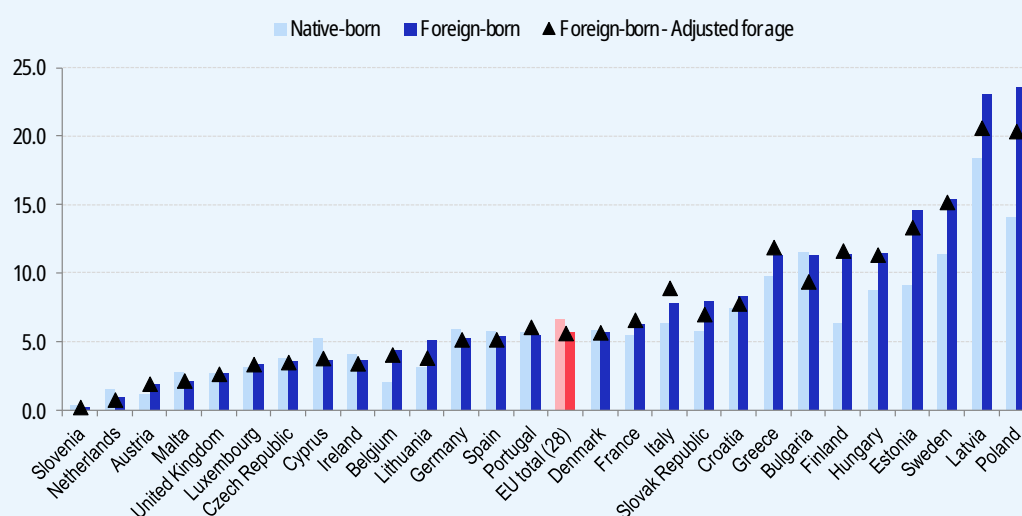


Source: European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC) 2012.

After adjusting for age, differences between the foreign- and native-born in self-reported health status narrow in most countries. Indeed, in Germany and southern Europe, accounting for age makes migrants healthier than the native-born. In Austria and Belgium, however, the gap with the native-born widens and remains significant, while in the Baltic countries and Poland, it closes but remains significant.

In the EU, an average of 5.6 per cent of migrants reported an unmet medical need in 2012, slightly less often than their native counterparts (6 per cent). Migrants in Central and Eastern Europe, as well as in Scandinavia, were the most likely to report unmet needs — 24 per cent in Poland and 15 per cent in Sweden. The least likely were those in Slovenia, the Netherlands, and Austria, where levels were all below 2 per cent. Differences in the prevalence of unmet needs between the foreign-born and the native-born were widest in central and eastern Europe and in countries that host a large number of refugees. The foreign-born were 5.5 percentage points more likely to have unmet needs than the native-born in Estonia and 4 points more in Sweden.

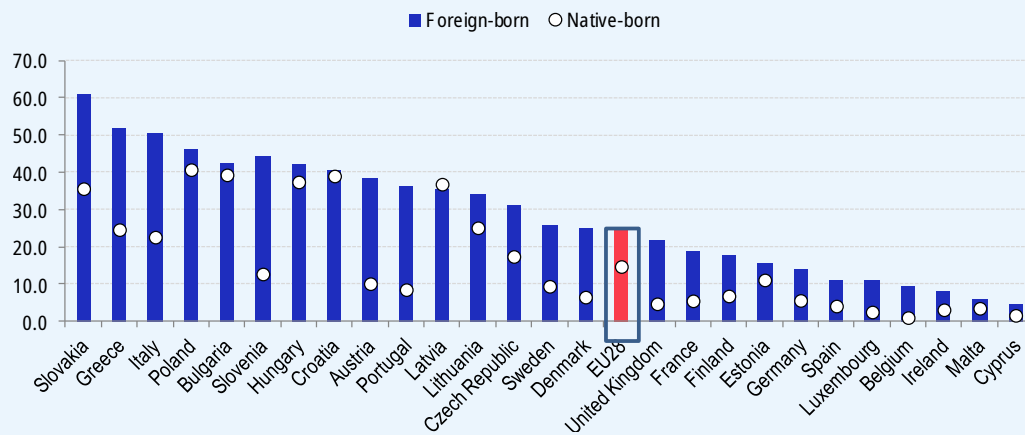
► **Figure 3.5 — Foreign- and native-born individuals reporting unmet medical needs, 2012**



Source: European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC) 2012.

In 2014, one quarter of migrant adults in the EU lived in overcrowded conditions, compared to 14.7 per cent of the native-born. Overcrowding is very rare in the Netherlands, Ireland and Belgium even though also in these countries the rate of over-crowding is higher among extra-EU migrants. Conversely, it affects five migrants out of ten in Slovakia, Greece and Italy. In most countries, migrants are at least twice as likely to live in overcrowded homes as the native-born. But the gaps between migrants and the native born are particular wide in Slovenia, Austria, Portugal, Denmark, United Kingdom, France, Luxembourg and Belgium. The data show a higher probability for extra-EU migrants to live in overcrowded accommodation compared to migrants from other EU countries (31.5 and 17.2 per cent respectively).

► **Figure 3.6 — Over-crowding rates foreign- and native-born individuals, 2014**
(percentage of population 18 +)



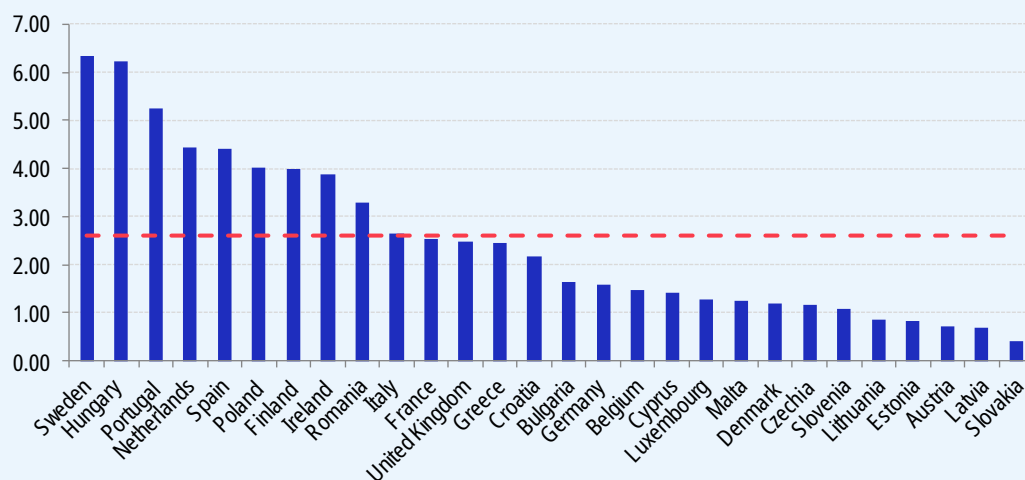
Source: European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC) (online data code: ilc_lvho15).

3.3 Citizenship and discrimination

In 2014, nearly 890,000 foreigners acquired the citizenship of an EU Member State. Long-residing migrants are more likely to take the nationality of the country of destination when policies are in place to support such process (e.g. in Sweden). Conversely, less than one-third of long-residing migrants hold host-country nationality in Luxembourg, southern European countries and the Baltic States. Figure 3.7 below show that for most EU countries the share of foreigners acquiring citizenship remains below two per cent.

The acquisition of the nationality can also depend on historic ties between host and home countries. Migrants born in former colonies acquire nationality easily than those born in non-former colonies as exemplified by the 87 per cent of migrants from Africa in Portugal. Some migrant groups, such as refugees, benefit from fast-track naturalisation procedures — one reason why 90 per cent of African and Asian migrants have taken host-country nationality in Sweden.

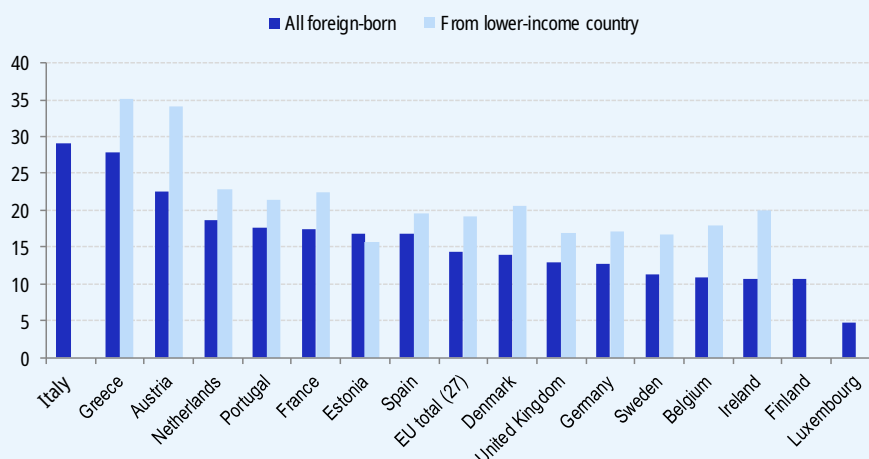
► **Figure 3.7 — Share of foreign citizens who have acquired citizenship in host country, 2014**



Source: EUROSTAT (only data code migr_acqs).

In Europe about 14 per cent of migrants felt discriminated against on the basis of ethnicity, nationality, or race (Figure 3.8). Levels were particularly high in Greece, Latvia and Austria, where a quarter of the foreign-born population felt they were discriminated against. In general, migrants to southern Europe and the Baltic countries were more likely to feel discriminated against than in Luxembourg.

► **Figure 3.8 — Share of migrants aged 15-64 who felt discriminated against on the basis of ethnicity, nationality or race, by place of origin, 2002-2012**



Note: The data for Italy is not fully comparable as it stems from an ad hoc survey.

Source: European Social Survey (ESS) 2002-2012 (pooled). For Italy, ISTAT, Percezione dei cittadini stranieri: soddisfazione, fiducia e discriminazione 2011-2012.

Higher proportions of migrants from lower-income countries report discrimination against their community. In Greece and Austria, over 35 per cent of migrants from low-income countries felt discriminated against.

In the period 2008–2012, prime age workers, the less educated, the unemployed and migrants from Sub-Saharan Africa were the most likely to feel discriminated against in European Union countries.

The data also show a generalized improvement in the share of migrants feeling discriminated against, except for migrants from Sub-Saharan Africa. Feelings of discrimination improved the most for highly educated migrants, migrants from Asian and Latin American countries, and for those gainfully employed (Table 3.2).

► **Table 3.2 — Migrants discriminated against by characteristics, EU countries, 2002–2006 and 2008–2012**

		2002–2006	2008–2012
Sex	Total	15.24	13.67
	Women	14.25	12.42
	Men	16.36	15.08
Age group	15–24 years old	15.99	14.02
	25–54 years old	16.52	15.04
	55–64 years old	8.43	6.84
Educational attainment	Low-educated, ISCED 0-2	17.81	16.69
	Medium-educated, ISCED 3/4	12.17	13.35
	High-educated, ISCED 5-8	15.73	10.75
Labour market status	Inactive	12.60	11.71
	Unemployed	19.97	18.59
	Employed	16.00	13.64
Income level region of origin	Lower-income country of birth	21.24	17.54
	High-income country of birth	7.19	7.22
Region of origin	Asia	20.36	15.61
	South and Central America	19.44	14.87
	Sub-Saharan Africa	27.38	25.84
	North Africa	19.22	23.18
	Other Europe	14.62	13.30
	EU28	7.53	6.81

Source: European Social Survey (ESS) 2002–2006 and 2008–2012.

In Italy, nearly one third of all migrants feel discriminated against, men more than women (31.5 and 27.1 per cent respectively) and prime age workers more than other age-groups (32.7 per cent). The groups that most report being discriminated against are Tunisians (36.6 per cent), Moroccans (32.2 per cent), Polish (31.3 per cent and Romanians (30.6 per cent), whilst Indians and Filipinos are less likely to feel discriminated (19.7 and 17.5 per cent, respectively). The perception of discrimination is more widespread at work or while job-searching (19.2 per cent of all migrants).²

The actual prevalence of discrimination is difficult to measure, since the disadvantage of migrants in many domains may be attributable to other observed and non-observed factors aside ethnic origin. One measure that has been applied in a growing number of countries is testing studies in recruitment processes in which fictitious CVs are submitted to hiring companies to measure the difference

² ISTAT. Percezione dei cittadini stranieri: soddisfazione, fiducia e discriminazione 2011–2012.

in call-backs that persons with and without a migration background have for an otherwise equivalent curriculum vitae. These studies suggest that it is not uncommon for migrants and their children to have to send more than twice as many applications to get invited to a job interview than an individual with a national background (see Table 3.3 that summarizes the findings of a number of testing studies carried out in EU countries).

► Table 3.3 — Field experiments investigating discrimination

Country	Ethnic group	Call back ratio*	Source
Austria	Serbian	1.31	Weichselbaumer D., (2015) Discrimination against migrants in Austria: An experimental Study, IZA Discussion Paper No. 9354.
	Turkish	1.46	
	Chinese	1.37	
	Nigerian	1.98	
Belgium	Turkish	2.05	Baert, et al. (2013), "Do eEmployers discriminate less if vacancies are difficult to fill? Evidence from a field experiment", IZA Discussion Paper, No. 7145.
France	Native-born from North African and Sub-Saharan Africa	2.0	Cediey, E. and F. Foroni (2008), "Discrimination in access to employment on grounds of foreign origin in France", ILO International Migration Papers, No. 85, ILO, Geneva.
Germany	Turkish	1.1	Kaas, L. and C. Manger (2012), "Ethnic discrimination in Germany's labour market: A field experiment", German Economic Review, Vol. 13, pp. 1-20.
Greece	Albanian	1.8	Drydakis, N. and M. Vlassis (2010), "Ethnic discrimination in the Greek labour market: occupational access, insurance coverage and wage offers", The Manchester School, Vol. 8, pp. 201-218.
Ireland	African	2.4	McGinnity, F. and P. Lunn (2011), "Measuring discrimination facing ethnic minority job applicants: an Irish experiment", Work Employment and Society, Vol. 25, No. 4, pp. 693-708.
	Asian	1.8	
	German	2.1	
Italy	Moroccan	1.4	Allasino, E., et al., (2006), "Labour market discrimination against migrant workers in Italy", ILO International Migration Papers, No. 67, ILO, Geneva.
Netherlands	Moroccan	1.1	Andriessen, I. et al., (2012), "Ethnic discrimination in the Dutch labour market: its relationship with job characteristics and multiple group membership", Work and Occupation, Vol. 39, No. 3, pp. 237-69.
	Turkish	1.2	
	Surinamese	1.2	
	Antillean	1.2	
Sweden	Middle-East	2.5	Attström, K. (2008), "Discrimination against native Swedes of immigrant origin in access to employment", ILO International Migration Papers, No. 86E, ILO, Geneva.
United Kingdom	Black African	1.7	Wood, M. et al., (2009), A Test for Racial Discrimination in Recruitment Practice in British Cities, Department for Work and Pensions Research Report, No. 607, London.
	Black Caribbean	1.9	
	Chinese	1.9	
	Indian	1.9	
	Pakistani/Bangladeshi	1.5	

Note: All reported results are significantly different from zero.

Source: EUROSTAT (online data code: Ifso_14beduc).

► Statistical annex

► **Table A.1 — Main countries of citizenship of the foreign population, selected EU countries, 2018 (thousands and percentage)**

Belgium			Bulgaria		
Citizens of	(thousands)	(%)	Citizens of	(thousands)	(%)
France	159.4	12.3	Russia	17.9	27.3
Italy	157.0	12.1	Turkey	8.2	12.4
Netherlands	149.2	11.5	Syrian Arab Rep.	7.5	11.4
Morocco	82.3	6.3	Ukraine	3.9	5.9
Poland	68.4	5.3	UK	3.7	5.6
Other	684.2	52.6	Other	24.4	37.3

Czechia			Denmark		
Citizens of	(thousands)	(%)	Citizens of	(thousands)	(%)
Ukraine	2,018.7	23.8	Poland	32.3	7.6
Slovakia	96.3	21.1	Turkey	28.8	6.8
Vietnam	57.6	12.6	Germany	23.0	5.4
Russia	33.9	7.4	Romania	18.8	4.5
Germany	19.7	4.3	UK	16.1	3.8
Other	141.0	30.8	Other	303.5	71.8

Germany			Estonia		
Citizens of	(thousands)	(%)	Citizens of	(thousands)	(%)
Turkey	1,372.1	18.2	Russia	89.2	46.6
Poland	640.3	8.5	Recognized non-country	83.7	43.8
Italy	537.6	7.1	Ukraine	5.7	3.0
Romania	345.8	4.6	Latvia	2.2	1.1
Greece	304.6	4.0	Finland	1.7	0.9
Other	4,339.4	57.6	Other	8.8	4.6

Ireland			Spain		
Citizens of	(thousands)	(%)	Citizens of	(thousands)	(%)
Poland	117.9	21.4	Romania	708.4	15.9
UK	117.0	21.3	Morocco	688.7	15.5
Lithuania	35.8	6.5	UK	301.8	6.8
Nigeria	21.1	3.8	Italy	182.7	4.1
Latvia	20.3	3.7	Ecuador	174.4	3.9
Other	238.5	43.3	Other	2 398.4	53.8

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Italy		
Citizens of	(thousands)	(%)
Romania	1 131.8	22.6
Albania	490.5	9.8
Morocco	449.1	9.0
China	265.8	5.3
Ukraine	226.1	4.5
Other	2 451.2	48.9

Lithuania		
Citizens of	(thousands)	(%)
Russia	10.7	47.7
Ukraine	2.1	9.3
Belarus	1.9	8.6
Stateless	1.6	7.2
Poland	1.3	5.7
Other	4.8	21.4

Hungary		
Citizens of	(thousands)	(%)
Romania	28.6	19.7
Germany	18.8	12.9
China	16.5	11.3
Slovakia	8.7	6.0
Ukraine	6.9	4.7
Other	66.2	45.4

Netherlands		
Citizens of	(thousands)	(%)
Poland	99.6	12.9
Turkey	77.5	10.0
Germany	71.8	9.3
Morocco	44.9	5.8
UK	43.0	5.6
Other	436.6	56.5

Austria		
Citizens of	(thousands)	(%)
Germany	170.5	15.1
Turkey	115.6	10.2
Serbia	113.9	10.1
Bosnia and Herzegovina	92.0	8.1
Romania	71.3	6.3
Other	567.8	50.2

Portugal		
Citizens of	(thousands)	(%)
Brazil	87.5	22.1
Cape Verde	40.9	10.4
Ukraine	37.9	9.6
Romania	31.5	8.0
China	21.5	5.4
Other	176.0	44.5

Romania		
Citizens of	(thousands)	(%)
Italy	10.3	11.6
Moldova	9.4	10.6
Turkey	8.4	9.5
China	7.0	7.9
Syrian Arab Rep.	4.0	4.5
Other	49.6	55.9

Finland		
Citizens of	(thousands)	(%)
Estonia	48.4	22.1
Russia	30.6	14.0
Sweden	8.3	3.8
China	7.6	3.5
Somalia	7.4	3.4
Other	116.6	53.3

Sweden		
Citizens of	(thousands)	(%)
Finland	59.7	8.2
Poland	48.2	6.6
Somalia	47.1	6.4
Syrian Arab Rep.	42.2	5.8
Denmark	38.4	5.3
Other	495.7	67.8

United Kingdom		
Citizens of	(thousands)	(%)
Poland	869.1	16.0
India	371.7	6.9
Ireland	336.9	6.2
Pakistan	213.6	3.9
Romania	178.3	3.3
Other	3 452.5	63.7

Source: EUROSTAT, (online data code migr_pop1ctz and migr_pop3ctb).

► **Table A.2 — Asylum applicants in EU Member States (thousands) and percentage over total population, 2014–2018**

Country	First time asylum applicants		Asylum applicants as % of the population	
	2014	2018	2014	2018
EU28	562,680	1,255,685	0.11	0.25
Belgium	14,045	38,990	0.13	0.35
Bulgaria	10,805	20,165	0.15	0.28
Czech Republic	905	1,235	0.01	0.01
Denmark	14,535	20,825	0.26	0.37
Germany	172,945	441,800	0.21	0.54
Estonia	145	225	0.01	0.02
Ireland	1,440	3,270	0.03	0.07
Greece	7,585	11,370	0.07	0.10
Spain	5,460	14,600	0.01	0.03
France	58,845	70,570	0.09	0.11
Croatia	380	140	0.01	0.00
Italy	63,655	83,245	0.10	0.14
Cyprus	1,480	2,105	0.17	0.25
Latvia	365	330	0.02	0.02
Lithuania	385	275	0.01	0.01
Luxembourg	1,030	2,360	0.19	0.42
Hungary	41,215	174,435	0.42	1.77
Malta	1,275	1,695	0.30	0.39
Netherlands	21,780	43,035	0.13	0.25
Austria	25,675	85,505	0.30	1.00
Poland	5,610	10,255	0.01	0.03
Portugal	440	870	0.00	0.01
Romania	1,500	1,225	0.01	0.01
Slovenia	355	260	0.02	0.01
Slovakia	230	270	0.00	0.00
Finland	3,490	32,150	0.06	0.59
Sweden	74,980	156,110	0.78	1.60
United Kingdom	32,120	38,370	0.05	0.06

Source: EUROSTAT, (online data code: migr_resfirst).

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