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The intra-European mobility of non-European-born migrants

Deliverable 4.3

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Country abbreviations list

AT – Austria
BE – Belgium
BG – Bulgaria
CH – Switzerland
CZ – Czech Republic
CY – Cyprus
DE – Germany
DK – Denmark
EE – Estonia
EL – Greece
ES – Spain
FR – France
FI – Finland
HR – Croatia
HU – Hungary
IE – Ireland
IS – Iceland
IT – Italy
LI – Liechtenstein
LT – Lithuania
LV – Latvia
LU – Luxembourg
MT – Malta
NL – Netherlands
NO – Norway
PL – Poland
PT – Portugal
RO – Romania
SE – Sweden
SI – Slovenia
SK – Slovakia
UK – United Kingdom

The intra-European mobility of non-European-born migrants

QuantMig Deliverable D4.3

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1 Introduction

Two trends characterise the demography of Europe since the 1990s. The first one concerns the change in the source of demographic growth over the decades, which first depended mostly on a positive natural balance, but started to depend exclusively on migration from outside the continent in the recent years (Eurostat, 2022a). The second one concerns the increase in intra-European mobility, as the number of international intra-European movements more than doubled between 1995 and 2015 (Azose & Raftery, 2019). If both trends gain in momentum in the decades to come, there could be an important increase in the number of cross-border movements within the European Union that are attributable to the non-European-born (NEB) population (i.e. consisting of people born outside of Europe who migrated to Europe at some point in their lives). Under this scenario, the NEB population could increasingly contribute to shaping the intensity, direction, and composition of intra-European migration flows as a whole. In this context, it becomes particularly important to obtain a better understanding of the migratory patterns of the NEB population in Europe as well as its socioeconomic profile. This constitutes the aim of the present paper.

There are at least two reasons to expect differences between the movements of the NEB and European-born (EB) populations within Europe. First, NEB migrants have by definition already been moving at least once. As a result, they might be on average older than EB migrants, more likely to be married and have children, and be at a different stage of their professional trajectory. Also, their migration from one European country to another might be part of a larger migration project in which more countries already figured. Their migratory decisions may be more likely influenced by their networks or the presence of same-country minorities than among EB migrants, whose decisions may be more influenced by union formation and labour opportunities. As such, NEB migrants may be more subject to longer-distance migrations than EB migrants. Second, both groups face different constraints and opportunities due to Europe's legal migratory framework. Whereas the EB population can move freely across European borders, movements among the NEB population often depend on the acquisition of a European citizenship or the successful obtention of visas.

Earlier work (Mooyaart & de Valk, 2020) concentrated on intra-European migration as a whole, describing flows between countries in terms of their size and how they have evolved in the last ten

years. While the current report is also about intra-European migration, it more specifically concentrates on movements within the NEB population and contrasts them with those within the EB population. For reasons explained below, this report considers a single, recent period (2014–2019), rather than changes over time. We pay attention to both the macro-processes that govern the intra-European migration of the NEB and EB populations and the individual-level characteristics of both groups of migrants. The focus on the macro-level patterns allows us to uncover the different roles that countries play in the European migration landscape and whether these depend on which migrant group we consider. Identifying what these differences might be is in turn important for improving current projection models of intra-European migration. Exploring the individual-level differences between EB and NEB migrants can, on the other hand, allow us to gain insights into the likely reasons that motivate NEB people to migrate again once they arrive in Europe and how their needs, opportunities, and preferences might differ in comparison to EB migrants.

The separate foci on the macro-level patterns and the individual-level characteristics call for different data and analytical tools. For studying the former, we use newly released estimates of intra-European migration flows obtained as part of the QuantMig project (Aristotelous et al., 2022; Aristotelous & Smith, 2022). Based on these data, we start by describing the size of the flows between countries (see Figures 1–3), then move on to a network and cluster analysis to highlight how these flows connect countries (Figures 4–6), to finally wrap up with a gravity model (Table 3) as a way to further characterize the differences in the intra-European migrations within the EB and NEB populations. Concerning the individual-level characteristics, we use data from the European Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS) to carry out descriptive analyses (Table 4 and Figures 7–9) and fit logistic regression models (Table 5) to uncover how NEB and EB migrants differ concerning their age, sex, and employment characteristics.

The present study unfolds as follows. In the next section, we provide an overview of the literature on the movements of the NEB population within Europe and briefly discuss available data to study them. Then, in the Data and methods part (Section 3), we describe our two data sources and detail further our analytical methods. In the Findings part (Section 4), we present in turn the results of our macro- and individual-level analyses and, finally, in the Discussion (Section 5), we discuss our overarching findings and their implications.

2 Background

In earlier work, Mooyaart and de Valk (2020) preceded their quantitative analysis of intra-European migration by an overview of the literature on this topic. We took the same list of articles and checked it for content specific to the intra-European migration within the NEB population. We further searched for articles that could have been published after Mooyaart and de Valk's work by repeating their search in Scopus (we used the string *TITLE-ABS-KEY (intra AND europe AND migration AND mobility)*). This provided us with 130 documents. We checked each document's title and abstract for content specific to the intra-European migration of NEB people, allowing us to find a total of eleven relevant documents. Based on the references found in these, we then found eight more relevant articles which we added to our review.

Our analysis of this literature reveals starkly contrasting approaches taken to study the mobility of NEB people in Europe. Studies first varied in terms of the data they used. While some studies were performed based on qualitative data collected among small samples of migrants—sometimes less than ten (Smith et al., 2018)—others used large administrative datasets containing thousands of

cases (Lens et al., 2022). Data were either collected at multiple points over time among the same people, allowing for reconstructing extended migratory biographies (Toma & Castagnone, 2015), or at a single point in time, using information about a person's country of birth and countries of origin and destination to infer their migratory paths (Cillo, 2021). Some of the documents we encountered did not use data on migrants but analysed how the European legal system differently treats EB and NEB migrants (Tazzioli, 2020; Thym, 2016). Importantly, no study considered migration in the whole of Europe or among the whole of the NEB population. Studies instead focused on single countries of origin (e.g. Senegalese migrating in multiple countries in Europe and Africa; Toma & Castagnone, 2015), destination (e.g. non-European workers posted in Belgium via another European country; Lens et al., 2022), or "transit" (e.g. Colombians migrating from Spain to different destinations in Europe; Bermudez, 2020); some concentrated on specific professional groups (e.g. physicians and nurses; Williams et al., 2020), or considered only migrants with a specific status (e.g. refugees, migrants without a European nationality; McCarthy, 2021; Schapendonk, 2017).

Many of the studies included in our review were interested in the migration of NEB people from Southern Europe (Portugal, Spain, Italy) to Western Europe (Belgium, United Kingdom; Bermudez, 2020; Mapril, 2021; Ramos, 2021). Some highlighted how such migrations can be motivated by the migrants' desire to improve their economic position (especially in the context of the 2008 financial crisis; Bermudez, 2020; McCarthy, 2021; Ramos, 2021; Vivas-Romero, 2020), offer their children a better future (Mapril, 2021; Morad & Sacchetto, 2021), or join communities that share the same country of birth (e.g. Bangladeshis from Portugal or Italy to London; Della Puppa & King, 2019) or other social ties (Toma & Castagnone, 2015). Studies showed that such migrations are often triggered by the acquisition of a European citizenship (Bermudez, 2020; McCarthy, 2021; Ramos, 2021).

Among migrants who lack a European citizenship, posting (i.e. an appointment for work in another country) appears to be a strategy that is increasingly used by lower-skilled migrants to migrate to richer, Western European countries, as these countries are otherwise unlikely to grant them a visa (Cillo, 2021; Lens et al., 2022). Studies that concentrated on refugees have underscored how their movements within Europe are often forced due the European legal system (Schapendonk, 2017; Tazzioli, 2020), but that this system at the same time offers them a certain form of protection (Thym, 2016). We refer to Della Puppa et al. (2021) as well as to special issues published in *International Migration* (Montagna et al., 2021) and *Ethnic and Racial Studies* (Bermudez & Oso, 2020) for more in-depths overviews of the literature on the Intra-European migration of NEB people.

Scholars used different terminologies when describing their object of study. Studies that focused on migrants that had yet to obtain the citizenship of a European country (as opposed to any non-European-born migrant) sometimes used the term "migration of third-country nationals" (Bermudez, 2020; Cerna, 2013; Lens et al., 2022; Thym, 2016), while others used the terms "onward migration" (Della Puppa et al., 2021; Vivas-Romero, 2020), "secondary migration" (Schapendonk, 2017), or "remigration" (Ramos, 2021; Toma & Castagnone, 2015) to talk about the intra-European movements of NEB. Despite being common in the literature on migration in general (Salamońska & Czeranowska, 2021), the words "circular" or "return" migration do not seem to have been applied to talk about the intra-European movements of NEB people, although their migration journeys can in fact include components of circular or return migration within Europe. In general, scholars appear to have been more interested in the factors that incite NEB migrants to migrate within Europe and their individual characteristics than in characterising the migration patterns themselves and how they shape flows between countries.

The focus on specific migrants or types of migration may depend on the interest of the researchers, but they may also be driven by data availability. Before writing this report, we searched for data sources that allow the identification of NEB intra-European migrants, characterise their migratory journeys, and describe their personal characteristics. Register data, such as in the Netherlands and Scandinavia, allow reconstructing portions of migrants' journeys—including the country of birth, origin, and destination—and identifying their characteristics (see, e.g., Monti, 2020) but are difficult to access and cover only a few countries. Retrospective surveys such as SHARELIFE allow reconstructing complete individual migration histories (subject to recall and self-reporting biases) but do not contain samples of sufficiently large size to satisfactorily cover a population as specific as NEB intra-European migrants. Having these limitations in mind, we opted for analysing data that do not account for individual migration histories—the downside being that we cannot distinguish between onward, circular, or return migration, or between migrants with or without a European citizenship—but that contain larger sample sizes and cover all European countries[1].

3 Data and Methods

3.1 Macro-level patterns

Data. We first investigate the differences in the macro-level patterns of migration between the NEB and EB populations by using data produced by the QuantMig estimation model (Aristotelous et al., 2022). This model was developed within the QuantMig project to provide harmonised estimates of migration flows by origin and destination between all European countries as well as between each European country and eight regions of the world (outside Europe). The QuantMig estimation model applies a Bayesian hierarchical model developed in the Integrated Model of European Migration (IMEM) project to Eurostat data to obtain a posterior distribution capturing all migration events between each pair of countries (or combinations of country and region), each year between 2009 and 2019, for people born inside and outside Europe (i.e. EB and NEB respectively). Migration events are defined as moves with duration of stay of more than 12 months (which is the criterion used in the Eurostat data). Importantly, the breakdown of migration events by NEB and EB relied on the consultation of experts and their assumptions about the composition of migration flows. The European countries covered by the estimates include the 27 European Union members (as of 2022), the four countries of the European Free-Trade Agreement (EFTA), and the United Kingdom[2]. We will in the remaining of this study refer to this group as the EU+ countries. Before the model was applied, the Eurostat data were cleaned following the approach outlined in Aristotelous et al. (2020) while more information about the estimation procedure is provided in Aristotelous and Smith (2022).

We take for our analysis the median of the posterior distributions obtained for the whole of the period 2014–2019. We choose this period of extended length to avoid presenting results that may be

[1] Eurostat publishes country-level data on the number of emigrants and immigrants either by country of birth—which allows the identification of EB and NEB migrants regardless of their country of origin/destination—or by country of previous/next residence—which, in turn, allows the identification of intra-EU migrants, regardless of their country of birth. However, it is not possible to combine information on the country of birth and the country of previous/next residence, making it impossible to distinguish between EB and NEB intra-EU migrants (see Mooyaart et al. 2021).

[2] We note that the United Kingdom was during the whole estimation period still a member of the EU.

indicative of temporary idiosyncrasies rather than general patterns. This also helps avoid small counts in the case of the microdata (see their description below). We further chose the year 2014 as a lower limit to capture two events that may bear meaning for recent trends in European migration: the latest enlargement that saw Croatia join the Union in 2013 and the 2015 European migrant crisis. Moreover, this period is posterior to the 2008 financial crisis, which also had an impact on intra-European migration of EB and NEB populations in the subsequent years (see Prieto-Rosas et al., 2018). The resulting dataset provides us with (32*32*2=) 2,048 data points representing flows between each pair of EU+ countries (thus excluding migration in and out of the EU+ countries) and each birth status (i.e. born inside vs. outside the EU+).

Some of the results presented below make use of a country grouping. This grouping includes 1) Eastern Europe (including the EU+ countries that were once part of the Eastern Bloc or the Soviet Union), 2) Southern Europe (including the Iberian Peninsula, Italy, Greece, Cyprus, and Malta), and 3) Western Europe (including all the other countries). A comprehensive breakdown of countries with respect to the group they belong to is presented in the Appendix.

We use additional data in a gravity model to analyse the role of distance in migration flows (as explained below). These include data from DataSet Publishing Language on country geographical coordinates (dataset countries.csv; Dataset Publishing Language 2022), World Bank data for values of gross domestic product (World Bank, 2022), and GeoDataSource data for determining which countries share borders (GeoDataSource, 2022).

Analyses. Analyses for the macro-level part of the study are carried out in four phases. The first one concentrates on the top-sending and receiving countries, first using a ranking of the top-ten sending and receiving countries and their corresponding total of incoming and outgoing immigrants (Figure 1), then using chord diagrams (Figures 2–3) to show flows between European regions and between the top-five sending and receiving countries (including a residual country grouping that comprises the migrations from and to all the other countries). The chord diagrams were produced using the R package "circlize" (version 0.4.15).

The second phase proposes a network analysis to explore how countries vary in terms of the number of EB and NEB migrants they send to other countries. The goal is to build a network, visualise its structure on a two-dimensional surface, and explore which countries tend to be placed closer to each other as a result of the stronger ties between them (i.e. more migrants sent to one another). The network considers only each country's first three destinations (separately for the EB and NEB populations) for parsimony[3]. More specifically, for each of the 32 countries contained in the data, we identified the top-three countries of destination, transformed the corresponding migration counts into their logarithmic value, assumed a value of zero for all other pairs of countries, and built an origin-destination matrix based on the result. We then used the *graph_from_adjacency_matrix* function from the R package "igraph" (version 1.3.2) to build a directed and weighted graph and used the *create_layout* function from the package "ggraph" (version 2.0.5) to position each country on a two-dimensional surface using the Fruchterman & Reingold algorithm (Fruchterman & Reingold, 1991).

In the resulting visualisation (Figure 4), countries that have stronger ties tend to be placed closer to each other and those receiving or sending more migrants tend to be located more centrally. Each country is represented by a node (i.e. a point) and each flow by an edge (i.e. an arrow). The nodes'

[3] Alternative model specifications using each country's top-two or top-four destinations did not significantly change the configuration of the networks.

sizes reflect each country's total number of migration events (thus emigration and immigration) and their colour whether they are net senders or receivers (salmon colour for the former, turquoise for the latter). The edges' level of darkness reflects the size of the migration flow they represent. In the Results section, we present and briefly explain results of different statistics (reciprocity, diameter, incoming ties, betweenness) calculated from the networks (Table 2 and Figure 5). More information about how to interpret these can be found in Broda et al. (2021).

In the third phase, we perform a hierarchical cluster analysis using the Euclidean distance between each pair of countries in the network layouts as a measure of distance[4]. We take the average over 100 runs as the distances were obtained using simulation (Figure 5). This part of the analysis allows identifying, somewhat more efficiently than using the graph visualisations, which countries entertain stronger ties with each other and how this varies between the EB and NEB migrants. We use the command *hclust* (R package "stats") and the average distance between countries as agglomeration method.

Finally, we estimate a series of gravity models to quantify the role that distance between countries and shared borders play in shaping migration flows among the EB and NEB populations (Table 3). We run two models on both populations. The first one contains the geographic distance between each country's centroid and the sending and receiving countries' GDPs (in the year 2015), while the second one additionally contains a binary variable indicating whether two countries share a common border. We use an ordinary least square approach with robust fitting in the R package "gravity" (version 1.0). We performed all analyses in R version 4.2.0.

3.2 Individual-level characteristics

Data. For the micro-level analyses, we use the data from the European Labour Force Survey (EU-LFS) to study the demographic and socioeconomic profiles of EB and NEB people who migrate within Europe. The LFS is a quarterly survey carried out in 35 European countries with the primary aim of providing information on labour force participation (Eurostat, 2022). It is the largest household survey in Europe, averaging 1.8 million interviews per quarter (see Mack et al., 2016). Eurostat is responsible for assembling and harmonising the micro-data collected by each individual country and making harmonised datasets available for research.

We pool the EU+ yearly country files covering the period 2014–2019, resulting in a total of 9,259,362 unique individuals. Among these, we first identify (recent) intra-European migrants by comparing the variables "country of residence at the time of the survey" (COUNTRY) and "county of residence one year before the survey" (COUNTR1Y); different values denote a migration. We then use the variable "country of birth" (COUNTRYB) to identify those who were born in a non-European country (i.e. the NEB migrants) and those who were born in an EU+ country other than the country where the survey took place (i.e. the EB migrants)[5]. In this process, we discard a large number of individuals with missing information on country of birth (250,090) and on country of residence in the previous year (1,186,653). In the end, we obtain a selection of 10,026 intra-European migrants (8,464 EB and 1,562 NEB). We also use LFS variables to capture individuals' demographic characteristics (sex, age, marital status, and number of children in the household), nationality,

[4] The distance metric used in the clustering is based on the cartesian coordinates of countries in the surface generated by the network analysis. The absolute value of this metric does not have particular significance.
[5] We do not include those born in the reporting country—i.e. return migrants—because they substantially inflate the EB group, and their profile may be different from other Europeans who migrate.

degree of urbanisation of their place of residence, educational level, work status, and main activity at the time of the survey and one year before[6].

The use of pooled LFS data at the EU+ level to capture intra-European migrants represents many potential problems. These mainly stem from the varying quality of the two key variables used to define our sample (COUNTR1Y and COUNTRYB) from one country to the other. Many countries do not provide reliable information on the country of residence in the previous year (e.g. in the period 2014–2019, Romania reported only one individual who lived in another country in the year before the survey). This yields a large number of missings, as mentioned above, and these missings are not equally distributed across countries. Countries also have different ways of reporting individuals' country of birth. Germany, for instance, only reports the country of birth of migrants since 2017. Intra-European migrants in Germany before that year are thus not identifiable and are not included in our sample. Many Eastern European countries only report the country of birth of migrants born in the EU+ and other European countries: it is therefore impossible to capture the NEB migrants born in other continents. In sum, due to the varying quality of the variables COUNTR1Y and COUNTRYB across countries, EB and especially NEB migrants are not well captured everywhere. Hence, our sample is likely not representative of all intra-European migrants across the EU+ countries.

Other issues may also hinder the representativeness of our selected sample (see Martí and Ródenas, 2007). First, recently arrived migrants are considerably underrepresented in the surveys due to higher rates of non-response among foreign populations. Second, as survey design varies between countries by sample size and stratification, so does the coverage of recently arrived migrants. Third, for comparable sample sizes, high-immigration countries are more likely to capture migrants than low-immigration countries.

As a result of these issues, the selected sample has a disproportionate amount of intra-European migrants living in Western European countries (89 percent; see Table A1 in the appendix for a breakdown by country/macro-region of residence) compared to other European regions. In other words, our sample mainly contains migrants who moved within and towards Western Europe. This imbalance is visible in Table 1, which compares the inter-regional flows in our LFS selected sample to the flows in the QuantMig estimates. The overrepresentation of migrants who moved within and towards Western Europe is particularly strong in the case of the NEB population.

In conclusion, analyses based on the LFS data should be interpreted with caution and bearing in mind that the results mainly reflect migrants who moved within or towards Western Europe. Yet, it should be noted that the LFS data were the best data at our disposition to unravel the characteristics of EB and NEB migrants at the European level and, despite their limitations, they still offer interesting insights on the differences and similarities between these two populations.

Analyses. We use the LFS data to look into the characteristics of NEB and EB people who move within EU+ countries. First, in a descriptive analysis, we compare the socioeconomic and demographic profiles of EB and NEB migrants. We also look into differences in the socioeconomic composition of the migrants forming the most important flows between European regions (Western-Western, Southern-Western, and Eastern-Western). Second, we fit a logit model to analyse the determinants of employment for the two types of migrants. For these models, we select intra-

[6] The LFS variables used are the following (in the order they are mentioned in the text): SEX, AGE, MARSTAT, HHNBCHLD, NATIONAL, DEGURBA, HATLEV1D, ILOSTAT, MAINSTAT, and WSTAT1Y.

European migrants aged 25–64 living in Western Europe at the time of the survey (who account for the majority of the sample). We run separate models for EB and NEB migrants using the *glm* function in R. The outcome variable describes whether individuals were employed at the time of the survey (i.e. in the first year after migration). The independent variables include respondents' sex, educational level (low, medium, or high) the direction of migration flow, whether the respondent was older than 40 (which is a way of controlling for age and yet avoiding small counts in more precise age groups), whether they lived in a city (as opposed to a town or rural area), whether they were married, and whether they had an EU nationality (in the case of non-EU-born migrants). The idea of this simple logit model is to better understand whether and how the factors that are associated with the occupational status of NEB migrants differ from those that are linked to the occupational status of EB migrants.

Table 1 Flows of European- and non-European-born migrants between EU+ macro-regions[7] (period 2014–2019): percentage of the total flows (estimated yearly number of migrants in parentheses)

1a Computed from the LFS sample

EU-BORN		***Destination***	
% (N)	Western EU	Eastern EU	Southern EU
Origin			
Western EU	36.3 (3,077)	1.6 (138)	2.2 (190)
Eastern EU	33.7 (2,851)	1.1 (91)	3.8 (321)
Southern EU	18.8 (1,595)	0.2 (16)	2.2 (185)
Non-EU-BORN		***Destination***	
% (N)	Western EU	Eastern EU	Southern EU
Origin			
Western EU	44.4 (694)	2.7 (42)	4.8 (75)
Eastern EU	10.9 (170)	0.3 (5)	0.3 (5)
Southern EU	33.6 (524)	0.3 (5)	2.7 (42)

Source: Labour Force Survey 2014–2019, own calculations.

1b QuantMig estimates

EU-BORN		***Destination***	
% (N)	Western EU	Eastern EU	Southern EU
Origin			
Western EU	22.7 (521,466)	10.4 (239,425)	7.4 (170,416)
Eastern EU	24.8 (571,763)	3.1 (71,247)	8.5 (194,553)
Southern EU	15.3 (351,060)	6.0 (137,328)	2.0 (44,954)
Non-EU-BORN		***Destination***	
% (N)	Western EU	Eastern EU	Southern EU
Origin			
Western EU	26.1 (99,815)	7.1 (27,267)	13.1 (49,976)
Eastern EU	12.1 (46,219)	1.2 (4,504)	3.7 (14,026)
Southern EU	26.2 (100,165)	5.6 (21,275)	4.9 (18,793)

Source: QuantMig WP6, own calculations.

[7] The grouping of countries into these macro-regions is detailed in the appendix.

4 Results

4.1 Macro-level patterns

Top-sending and receiving countries. Figure 1 ranks countries in terms of their number of out- (top origins) and in-migration (top destinations) events, contrasting the EB and NEB populations. In the left panel, we see that Eastern European countries such as Romania, Bulgaria, and Hungary send large numbers of EB migrants to other European countries but relatively few NEB migrants, probably because they have small immigrant populations to start with. In contrast, richer countries of Central or Western Europe (Austria, Belgium, Netherlands, Switzerland) send relatively few EB migrants to other countries but relatively large numbers of NEB migrants. Countries with large populations such as France, Germany, Italy, Poland, Spain, and the United Kingdom figure prominently as top senders of both EB and NEB migrants. In the right panel, we see that top-destination countries are usually about equally attractive for both the EB and NEB populations. One exception concerns Sweden, which figures as a top destination for NEB migrants but an average one for EB migrants.

Figure 1 Top-ten origin and destination countries of EB and NEB migrants (ordered by number of migrants; intra-European migration, period 2014–2019)

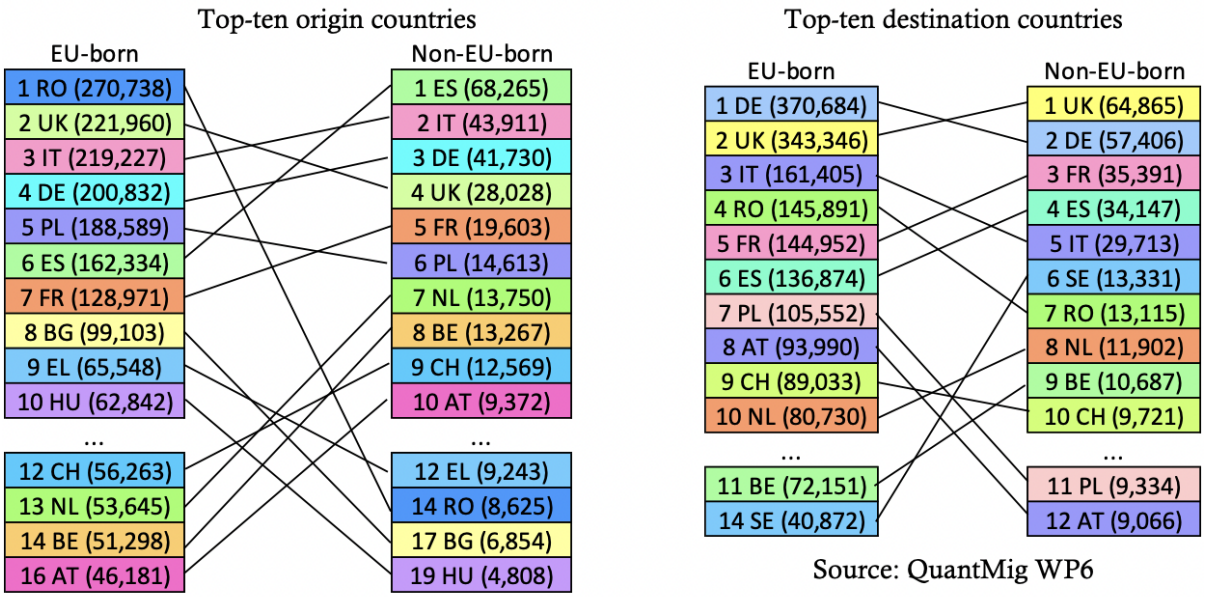
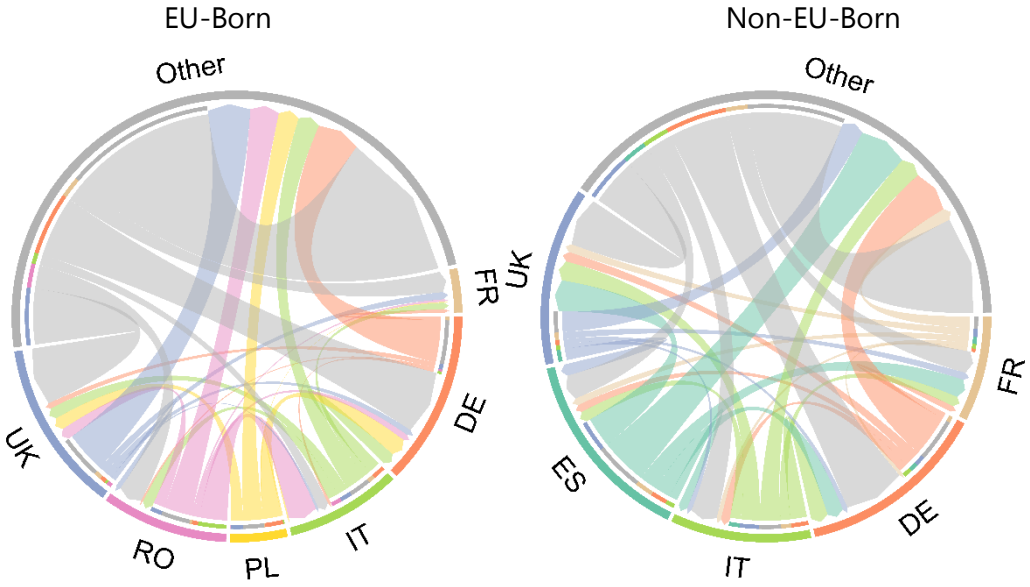


Figure 2 shows the size of the migration flows between the top-five sending and top-five receiving countries, including flows from and to all other countries (i.e. those that are neither in the top-five sending nor the top-five receiving countries). Flows from and to the remaining countries account for about half of all flows concerning the EB population and about one-third concerning the NEB population. Regarding the EB population, important flows go from Romania to Italy as well as from Poland and Italy to Germany and the United Kingdom. For the NEB population, the most important flows are from Spain and Italy to the United Kingdom and Germany

Figure 3 provides an overview of flows between European regions. In the cases of both EB and NEB migrants, flows from Western countries to other Western countries are among the most important

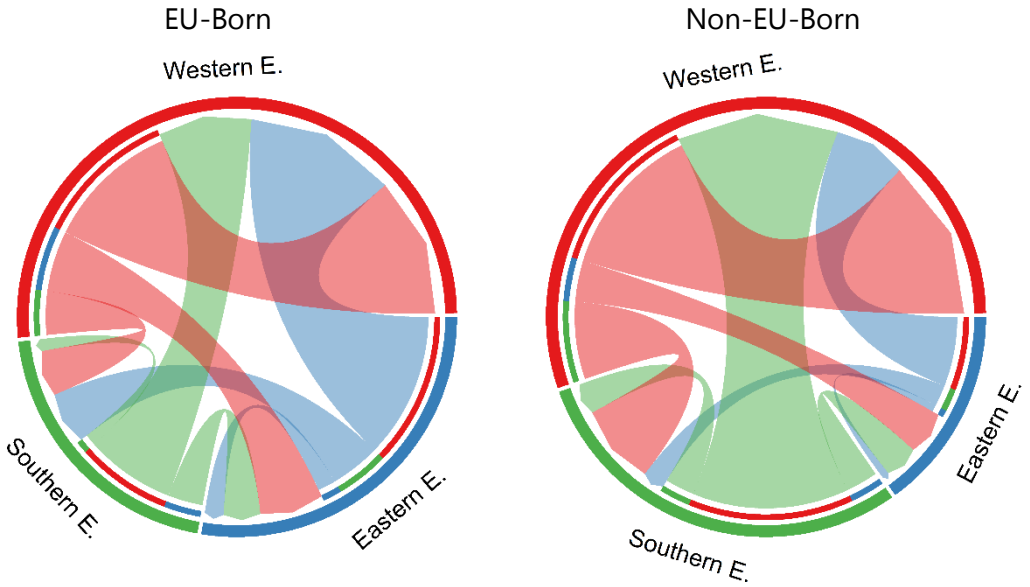
ones. Flows from Eastern countries to Western countries are more important concerning the EB migrants and flows from Southern countries to Western countries more so concerning the NEB migrants.

Figure 2 Migration flows between the top- five sending and top-five receiving countries, including flows from and to other countries, EB and NEB migrants (intra-European migration, period 2014–2019)



Source: QuantMig WP6, own calculations.

Figure 3 Migration flows between European regions, EB and NEB migrants (period 2014–2019)



Source: QuantMig WP6, own calculations.
Note: see appendix for the country groupings.

Network analysis. Figure 4 presents a directed and weighted graph based on each country's top-three migrant destinations. In the case of both the EB and NEB populations, Germany and the United Kingdom figure as main destinations of the largest number of countries, lending them a place at the centre of both graphs. Strong mutual connections exist between different pairs of countries (as shown by the double-headed arrows), among both the EB and NEB populations. Poland appears to play a somewhat more important role in the case of the EB population; Spain, and Italy a more important one in the case of the NEB population (as sending countries). Despite appearing in the graph's periphery, some countries seem to play an important role in their region. For example, Austria is an important destination for both EB and NEB migrants coming from Croatia, Hungary, Slovakia, and Slovenia but has weaker ties with the countries located more in the centre of the graph.

Table 2 shows the values of two statistics used to characterise networks in their entirety: reciprocity and mean distance. Reciprocity reflects the proportion of reciprocal connections between pairs of actors (i.e. if country B is among country A's top-tree destinations, is country A also among country B's top-tree destinations?). We see that the level of reciprocity is considerably higher in the case of EB migrants compared to NEB migrants. Mean distance is the mean Euclidian distance of the cartesian coordinates of all nodes (i.e. the arrows' lengths) in the network graph—which in turn depends on where countries send migrants to and how many. Distances are considerably shorter in the case of the NEB migrant graph compared to EB migrant one. It sems that a small group of countries (namely, Germany, the United Kingdom, Italy, and Spain) play a very important role in the NEB network (in the sense that there are few nodes that separate them from a large share of all countries) while in the EB network, there are fewer countries attracting such a high number of directed nodes.

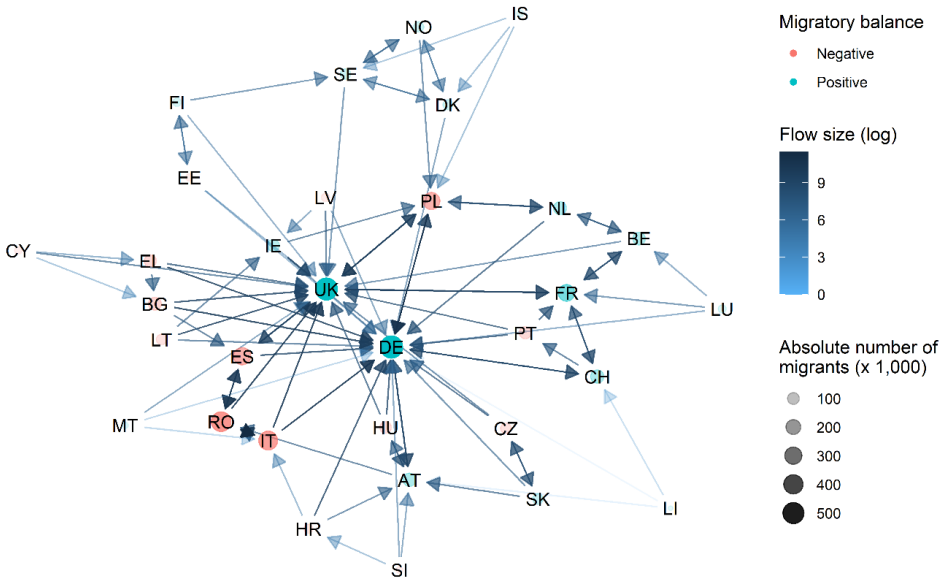
Table 2 Network statistics: reciprocity and diameter

	EU-Born	**Non-EU-Born**
Reciprocity	0.35	0.25
Mean Distance	21.0	11.0

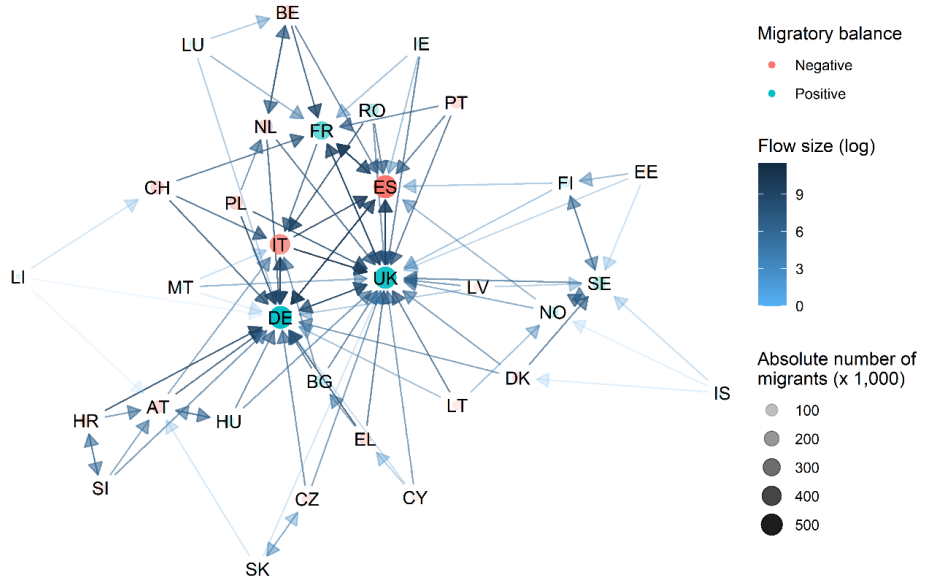
Figure 5 ranks countries according to their numbers of incoming ties and betweenness values. Not surprisingly, Germany and the United Kingdom are by far the countries that most often appear within a country's top-three destinations, concerning both the EB and NEB populations. Countries such as Poland appear prominently among the EB population but lower concerning the NEB population, while countries such as Spain, Italy, Norway, and Finland rank low concerning the EB population but high concerning the NEB one. Betweenness is the number of times that a country falls on two other countries' shortest path in the network graph. High betweenness values thus mean that a country sends or receives migrants from two countries that otherwise have little connection to each other. Values are much higher concerning the EB population, pointing to the more fragmented nature of the EB migrant graph compared to the NEB one.

Figure 4 Graph of European countries according to their top-three migrant destination countries, EU-born (top) and non-EU-born (bottom) populations (period 2014–2019)

4a EU-born migrants

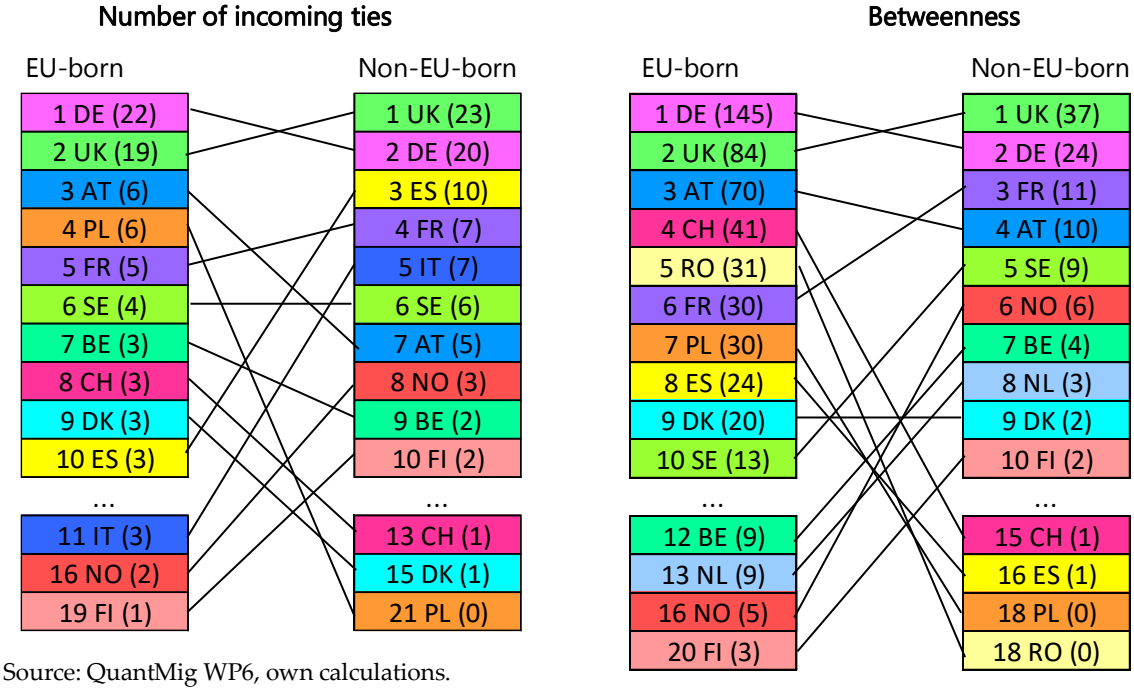


4b Non-EU-born migrants



Source: QuantMig WP6, own calculations.
Note: Each country is represented by a node (point) which varies in size according to the total number of people who emigrated from and immigrated into each country during the period of interest. The colour of each node indicates whether each country was either a net sender (negative migratory balance) or receiver (positive migratory balance). The level of darkness of each edge (arrow) represents the total number of migrations between two countries (converted into their logarithmic value) during the period of interest.

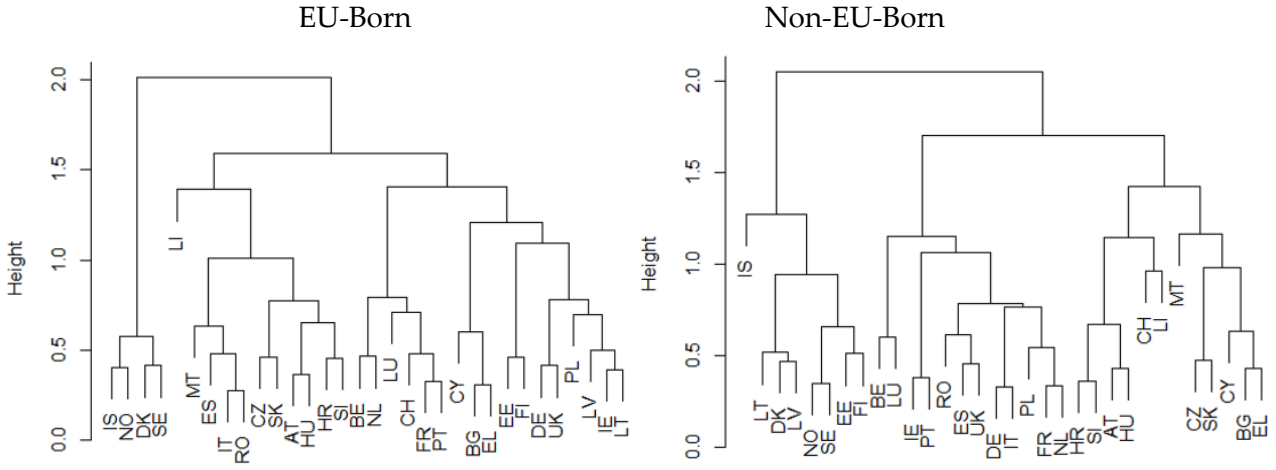
Figure 5 Network statistics: number of incoming ties and betweenness, by country rank within the EB and NEB population



Source: QuantMig WP6, own calculations.

Figure 6 shows the results of the cluster analysis based on the Euclidian distance between each pair of countries in the network layouts (which, in turn, is determined by the intensity of migration flows between countries). The idea behind this clustering is to further detect patterns concerning how countries tend to aggregate in the network graphs. We see that countries with common borders seem to occupy a more proximate location in the graphs when considering the EB population, while this is less the case concerning the NEB one. For example, Scandinavian countries (Iceland, Norway, Denmark, and Sweden) aggregate at a very low level for the EB population but at a higher one (and in a less clear-cut manner) in the case of the NEB population. Furthermore, countries without common borders seem to aggregate at a lower level concerning the NEB population than concerning the EB one, as evidenced by the low aggregation level of Denmark and Latvia, Ireland and Portugal, the United Kingdom and Spain, or Germany and Italy.

Figure 6 Cluster analysis based on the between-country distance in the network layouts, EU-born and non-EU-born populations



Source: QuantMig WP6, own calculations.

Gravity models. Table 3 shows the results of the gravity models we estimated to formally test the observation according to which countries with common borders occupy a more proximate location in the network graphs in the case of the EB population (and therefore tend to exchange more migrants compared to the case of the NEB population). The variable "Common border" has a somewhat stronger effect on migration flows concerning the EB population than concerning the NEB one. More strikingly, the addition of this variable reduces to almost null the effect of the variable "Distance" concerning the EB population, but not concerning the NEB one. Common borders appear to play an important role in both populations, albeit somewhat more in the case of the EB population; however, distance seems to play an equally important role (over and beyond common borders) in the case of the NEB population while it plays little or no role in the case of the EB population when we account for a common border.

Table 3 Gravity models for intra-European flows of EU- and non-EU-born. OLS estimates (p-values)

	EU-born		**Non-EU born**	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2
Intercept	-34.173 ***	-34.109 ***	-40.551 ***	-40.503 ***
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Log distance	-0.302 ***	0.014	-0.486 ***	-0.246 ***
	(0.000)	(0.862)	(0.000)	(0.001)
Log GDP orig.	0.799 ***	0.779 ***	0.890 ***	0.875 ***
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Log GDP dest.	0.840 ***	0.820 ***	0.933 ***	0.918 ***
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Common border		1.351 ***		1.026 ***
		(0.000)		(0.000)
R2	0.652	0.670	0.732	0.741

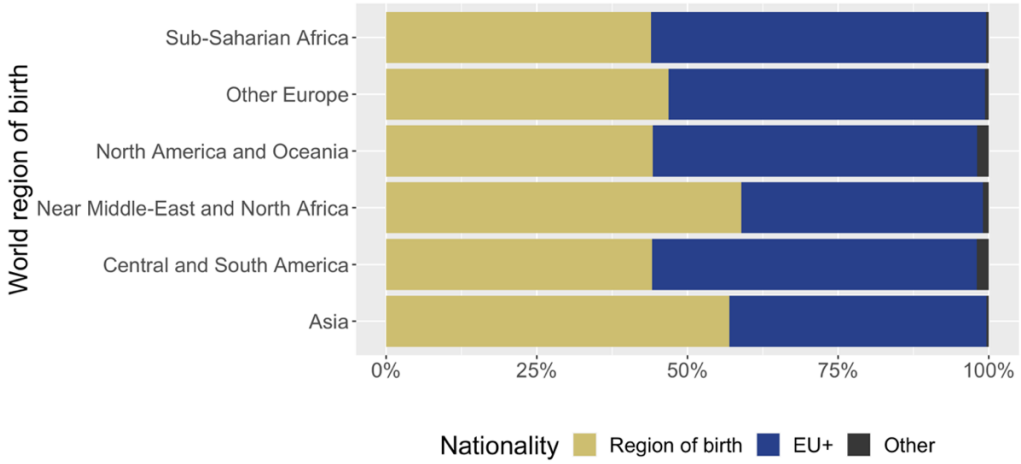
Source: QuantMig WP6, own calculations.
Note: ***p < 0.001, **p < 0.01, *p < 0.05.

4.2 Individual- level characteristics

Descriptive analysis. Table 4 presents proportions of EB and NEB migrants according to their EU macro-region of residence at the time of the survey, degree of urbanisation of the place of residence, world region of birth, age, occupational and marital status, and level of education.

Nearly one third of the NEB migrants in our sample was born in Europe outside of the EU+, whereas 20 percent was born in the Near Middle East and North Africa[8]. The number of migrants from North America and Oceania are in turn relatively small (seven percent). Around 55 percent of the NEB migrants from our sample have an EU+ citizenship (Figure 7) but this proportion is lower for migrants who were born in Asia and the Near Middle East and North Africa (43 and 41 percent, respectively). NEB migrants are relatively more present in urban areas (56 percent) compared to EB migrants (48 percent). The latter, in turn, have a higher presence in rural areas (19 percent) than NEB migrants (13 percent).

Figure 7 Nationality of non-EU-born migrants in the LFS sample (EU+ countries, period 2014–2019)



Source: Labour Force Survey 2014–2019, own calculations.

NEB migrants in our LFS sample are on average older (Table 4), with lower proportions of people aged 25 to 39 in the case of the NEB migrants (48 percent) compared to EB migrants (38 percent). The older age of NEB migrants may reflect the fact that they have already been migrating at least once (to Europe), whereas EB migrants may be moving for the first time. The differences in age are paired with differences in family structure. NEB migrants are more likely to be married than EB migrants (61 percent against 43 percent) and less likely to be childless (50 percent against 68 percent). In addition, large households (with three children or more) are much more common among NEB migrants (14 percent) than among EB migrants (4 percent)[9].

[8] As a reminder, the "country of birth" in the LFS is not consistently captured in all countries and has a large number of missing values; hence, these shares may not be representative of all NEB migrants across EU+ countries (see Section 3).

[9] It is important to note that sociodemographic differences between NEB and EB migrants in the LFS data could be influenced by selectivity into the survey. For example, the LFS may better capture older NEB migrants who speak the country language than young migrants who recently arrived in Europe. It may also be capture more NEB migrants in household with a native-born person (thus more likely to be married).

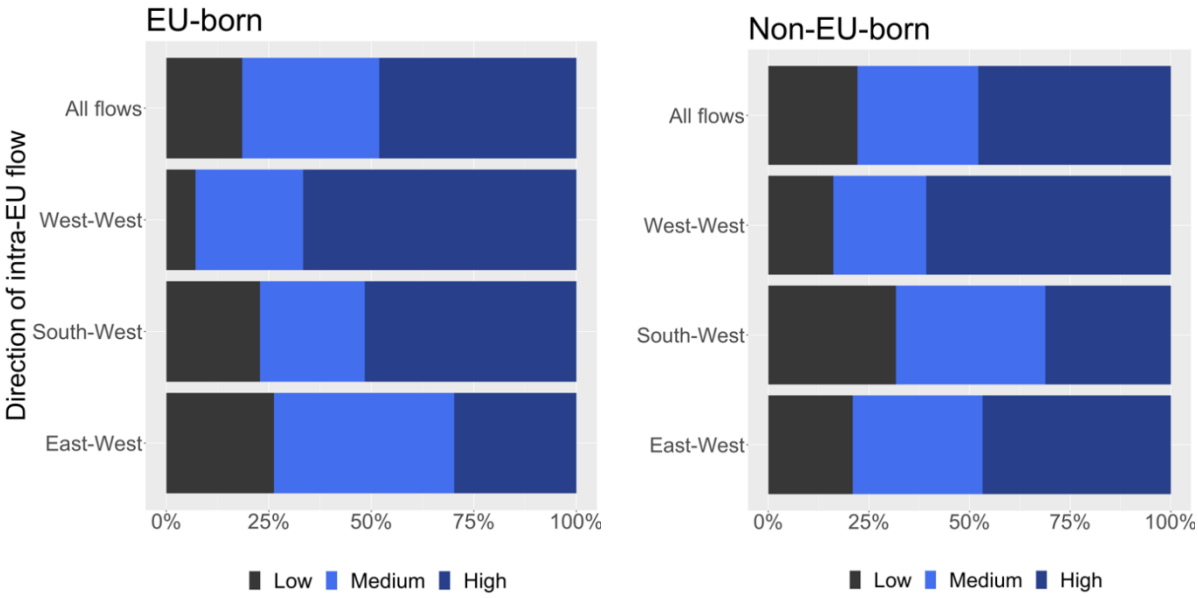
Table 4 Descriptive statistics of intra-EU migrants in the LFS sample (EU+ countries, period 2014–2019; %)

%	EU-born	Non-EU-born
Region or residence		
Western EU	88.9	88.9
Eastern EU	2.9	3.3
Southern EU	8.2	7.8
Degree of urbanisation		
City	48.1	55.5
Town	33.0	31.5
Rural	18.9	13.0
Region of previous residence		
Western EU	40.2	51.9
Eastern EU	38.6	11.5
Southern EU	21.2	36.6
World region of birth		
EU+	100.0	0.0
Asia	0.0	15.1
Central and South America	0.0	13.1
Near Middle East and North Africa	0.0	20.1
North America and Oceania	0.0	6.7
Other Europe	0.0	31.7
Sub-Saharan Africa	0.0	13.3
Sex		
% Women	50.3	53.1
Age groups		
0–14	14.3	8.5
15–24	21.7	15.4
25–39	38.2	48.3
40–65	22.4	26.4
65+	1.8	0.7
Marital status (25–64)		
Widowed, divorced, separated	8.8	7.0
Single	47.6	31.5
Married	43.6	61.4
N children (25–64)		
0	68.1	50.2
1	15.8	18.9
2	12.3	17.2
3+	3.8	13.6
Education (25–64)		
High	48.1	47.8
Medium	33.4	30.0
Low	18.5	22.1
Occupation (25–64)		
Employed	73.4	56.4
Unemployed	8.3	13.3
Inactive	18.4	30.2

Source: Labour Force Survey 2014–2019, own calculations.

NEB and EB migrants in our sample have similar educational levels (Table 4). More marked differences appear between EB and NEB migrants when we disaggregate by migration flow (Figure 8). NEB migrants who moved from Southern to Western European countries have overall lower educational levels than their EB counterparts (31 percent with low education concerning the NEB population against 23 percent for the EB population). In turn, individuals who moved within the Western European region are more likely to be highly educated than those moving from Southern or Eastern Europe to Western Europe; this holds for both EB (66 percent have high education) and NEB (61 percent) migrants.

Figure 8 Educational level of intra-EU migrants in the LFS sample by direction of flow (EU+ countries, period 2014–2019)

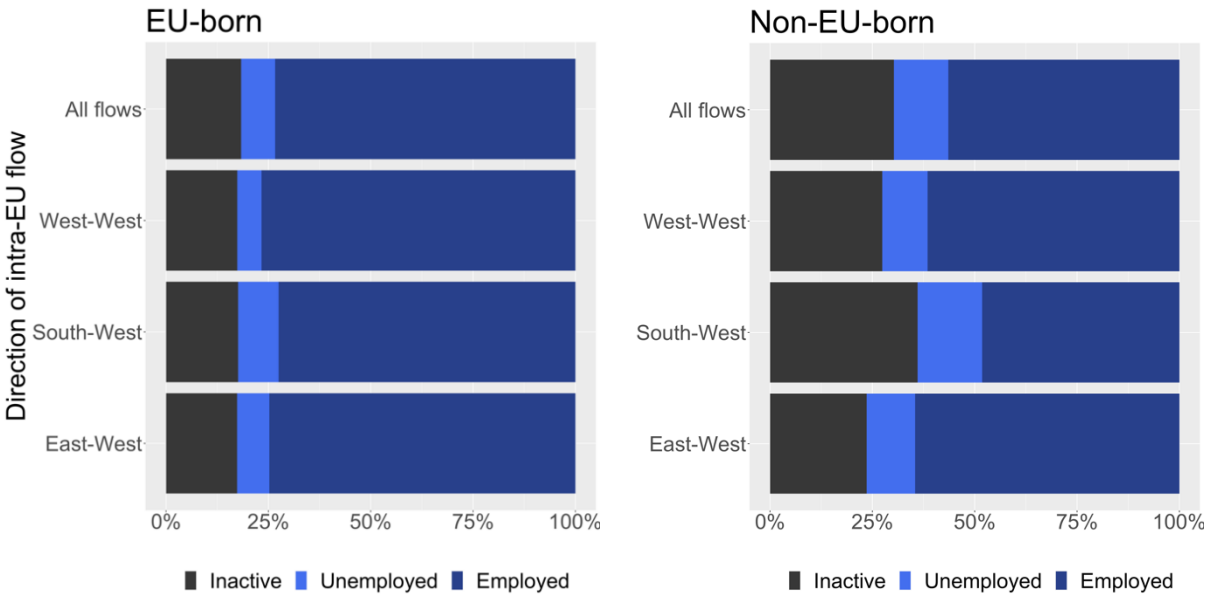


Source: Labour Force Survey 2014–2019, own calculations.

There are some differences in the occupational structure of NEB and EB migrants in our sample. Employment levels at the time of the survey (i.e. in the first year after migration) are lower among NEB migrants. While 56 percent of NEB individuals aged 25 to 64 were employed at the time of the survey, this was the case of 73 percent of the EB migrants. This is partly due to the higher unemployment among the NEB group (13 percent, compared to 8 percent in the EB group), but especially to the much higher proportion of inactive adults[10] (30 percent were inactive, compared to 19 percent for EB individuals). We do not observe stark contrasts in the occupational structure of the different migration flows (Figure 9). The only feature that stands out is the higher proportion of inactive and unemployed adults among the NEB migrants who moved from Southern to Western Europe (which is also the group with the lowest educational level).

[10] "Inactive" refers to persons who were not seeking work and to those were seeking work but were not available to start working in the two weeks following the interview. More details are available in the *EU Labour Force Survey Database User Guide* (Eurostat, 2021).

Figure 9 Occupational status (ILO) of intra-EU migrants in the LFS sample by direction of flow (EU+ countries, period 2014–2019)



Source: Labour Force Survey 2014–2019, own calculations.

The comparison of the respondents' occupational statuses during the survey year and the year before[11] suggests that most intra-European moves—EB and NEB alike—do not involve a change in occupational status. The majority of those who were employed at the year of the survey were also employed the year before (77 percent for EB and 73 percent for NEB), whereas the majority of inactive individuals remained inactive (66 percent for EB and 75 percent for NEB).

Logit models of employment. We fit logit models to better understand whether the factors that affect the occupational status of NEB migrants differ from those that affect the occupational status of EB migrants. Because the determinants of employment can vary much from one region to the other, we selected only migrants who were living in Western European countries at the time of the survey (which represent 89 percent of our initial sample). The dependent variable is whether or not an individual was employed in the first year at their destination country. We ran two separate regressions for EB and NEB migrants: one including only the geography of the migration flow (base model) and one including demographic and socioeconomic covariates (full model). The results are presented in Table 5.

People who migrated from Southern to Western European countries are less likely to be employed than those moving within Western European countries (base model). This is especially the case for NEB migrants coming from Southern European countries, who are nearly half as likely to be employed in their first year at destination as those coming from other Western European countries (odds ratio OR = 0.59, $p < 0.001$). The lower likelihood of being employed of individuals coming from Southern European countries is partly explained by their different demographic and socioeconomic profiles: when we include all covariates (full model), differences in employment

[11] Unfortunately the counts are too small to observe all types of changes in occupational status (e.g. unemployed to inactive, etc.). Hence, we only comment on the most important ones. Matrices containing all changes are available in the Appendix, Table A2.

between types of flows attenuate. Overall, the factors associated with the occupational status are similar for EB and NEB migrants. Not surprisingly, the educational level plays a role in the likelihood of being employed. Migrants with a low educational level are much less likely to be employed in their first year of migration than those with a high one (OR = 0.63 for EB and 0.53 for NEB, $p < 0.001$). Moreover, women are much less likely to be employed than men (OR = 0.36 for EB and 0.3 for NEB, $p < 0.001$), as is the case of married individuals vis-à-vis singles (OR = 0.55 for EB and 0.54 for NEB, $p < 0.001$).

Regarding NEB migrants, the addition of a dummy variable indicating whether or not an individual has an EU citizenship (see Full+ model) leaves the other coefficients largely unchanged. In this case, the results indicate that, all things being equal, a NEB migrant who is an EU citizen is nearly twice as likely of being employed in their first year after an intra-EU move compared to those who are not EU citizens (OR = 1.9, $p < 0.001$).

Table 5 Logit models of predictors of employment among intra-EU migrants aged 25–64 living in Western European countries. Separate regressions for EU-born and non-EU-born migrants; odds ratios (p-values)

	EU-born		**Non-EU-born**		
	Base	Full	Base	Full	Full+
Intercept	3.29 ***	8.64 ***	1.60 ***	6.60 ***	4.74 ***
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Flow (ref: West-West)					
East-West	0.90	1.08	1.14	1.21	1.18
	(0.178)	(0.376)	(0.524)	(0.392)	(0.466)
South-West	0.80 *	0.85 .	0.58 ***	0.72 *	0.78
	(0.015)	(0.093)	(0.000)	(0.030)	(0.115)
Age > 40		1.08		0.85	0.74 *
		(0.298)		(0.263)	(0.050)
Sex: woman		0.36 ***		0.30 ***	0.30 ***
		(0.000)		(0.000)	(0.000)
Education (ref: high)					
Low		0.63 ***		0.53 ***	0.55 **
		(0.000)		(0.000)	(0.001)
Medium		0.78 **		0.76 .	0.75 .
		(0.003)		(0.098)	(0.080)
Living in city		0.91		0.76 .	0.76 .
		(0.182)		(0.053)	(0.052)
Married		0.55 ***		0.54 ***	0.59 ***
		(0.000)		(0.000)	(0.000)
EU national					1.90 ***
					(0.000)
N	4601	4530	1034	1019	1016
AIC	5165.2	4784.4	1398.4	1272.6	1250.5

Source: Labour Force Survey 2014–2019, own calculations.
Note: ***p < 0.001, **p < 0.01, *p < 0.05.

5 Discussion

As the European population is becoming more mobile and the share of non-European-born people is increasing, there is a possibility that the European migration landscape becomes more strongly influenced by the migratory behaviour of people born outside Europe. This possibility crucially depends on the extent to which EB and NEB people adopt different migratory behaviours. In this study, we first highlighted how fragmented the current state of knowledge is about the intra-European migration of NEB people, making it difficult to see the bigger picture. We then proceeded to an analysis of two sources of data covering migration in the whole of Europe during the period 2014–2019: first, data produced by the QuantMig model allowed us to draw a portrait of the macro-level patterns of migration within the EB and NEB populations; second, data from the Labour Force Survey allowed us to contrast the individual-level characteristics of these two populations.

Our analyses allowed us to notice differences and similarities between how the EB and NEB populations migrate across Europe. These differences and similarities can be first characterised in terms of the importance of each country as an origin and a destination for migrants of both groups. Western European countries, with the United Kingdom and Germany as forerunners, occupy a central place in the European migration network as they send and receive large numbers of both EB and NEB migrants. These migrants mostly move within Western European countries themselves, but also from Eastern and Southern Europe.

In contrast, Eastern and Southern European countries play considerably different roles depending on which population we consider. While Eastern countries (including Romania and Poland) are major players in the case of the EB population, their roles are lesser than that of Southern countries (with Spain and Italy as forerunners) in the case of the NEB population. This is because Eastern European countries tend to send large numbers of EB migrants to Western Europe, while Southern European countries appear to be sending relatively larger numbers of NEB migrants to Western Europe. However, compared with Western Europe, relatively few people migrate within the Eastern and Southern European groups of countries. To some extent, Southern European countries appear to be playing the role of transit countries for many newly arrived NEB migrants en route to Western Europe. This may in part explain the interest paid by the previous literature for the "onward" migration of people from Southern American countries to Spain and onward to Belgium or the United Kingdom (Bermudez, 2020; Ramos, 2021), or from Asia or Africa onward to France or the United Kingdom (Della Puppa & King, 2019; Toma & Castagnone, 2015). In sum, contrasting the migration of the EB and NEB populations in Europe allowed us to underscore the particular role of transit countries played by Southern European countries between South America, Africa, and Asia on the one hand, and Western Europe on the other.

Distance appears to play different roles when contrasting the migration of the EB and NEB populations in Europe. Migration appears to occur a lot within groups of countries that share common borders among the EB population but somewhat less so among the NEB population. This is exemplified by the gravity model (Table 3)—where the common border variable (geographic contiguity) played a very important role concerning the migration flows of EB population but less so concerning the NEB population—and to some extent by the cluster analysis (Figure 6)—which identified clusters of two, three, or four nearby countries often at a lower level concerning the EB population than concerning the NEB one. Paradoxically, this results in a more fragmented country network in the case of the EB population than in the NEB one.

In the case of the NEB population, a small group of countries, including the United Kingdom, Germany, France, Spain, and Italy, appear to account for a large share of all movements. By doing so, they "connect" a large number of NEB migrants, because these migrants often share the same origin, destination, or transit country. This observation is among others supported by the "mean distance" statistic (Table 2), which is much lower in the NEB population than in the EB one. These differences may be in part due to the factors that push both populations to migrate. As suggested by our individual-level analysis, EB migrants seem to be more often from a rural area than NEB migrants. It is possible that EB migrants more often migrate for work or union formation between bordering regions of two countries, thereby maintaining their ties with their friends and families, whereas NEB migrants may be more likely to move between large cities to join communities of people who were born in the same country. In conclusion, as the share of NEB people increases in Europe, migrants as a whole might become more likely to move to specific countries, and even to specific large cities, while less densely populated regions may become less likely to receive migrants.

We observed above that Southern European countries appear to play a role of transit countries between non-European countries on the one hand and Western Europe on the other hand. The population that migrates via this route furthermore appears to have different characteristics compared to other migrant populations. According to our sample selected from the LFS data, NEB migrants who migrate from Southern European to Western European countries have a lower level of education and are more likely to be inactive or unemployed in the first year after migration. These differences can be observed both with respect to the NEB migrants migrating via other routes and the whole of the EB migrants, and they hold after controlling for other socioeconomic and demographic characteristics (Table 5). One possible mechanism driving these differences is that many less-highly skilled migrants would first migrate from a non-European country to Southern Europe; there they would acquire the citizenship of the Southern European country and become free to move within Europe; subsequently, they would move to Western Europe in the search of better economic perspectives. This explanation is consistent with the literature based on ethnographic analysis of migratory biographies, which underscored the importance of the acquisition of a European citizenship to "activate" further migrations among NEB migrants (Della Puppa & King, 2019; Ramos, 2021). It is further consistent with the observation based on the LFS data that around half of the NEB migrants in our sample had a European citizenship (with higher proportions for Asians and Central- and Southern Americans), and that NEB migrants who have a European citizenship are twice as likely to be employed in the first year after their move to Western Europe than third-country nationals. In short, migration from Southern to Western Europe seems to play an important role for the spatial and social mobility of the NEB population, both in terms of the volume of migrants and their particular socioeconomic and labour market characteristics.

There are important limitations that should be borne in mind when interpreting our results. First, the macro-level data we used in the first part of the analyses are estimations from a migration model, and therefore subject to errors which we could not take into account in this report. Furthermore, these data only allowed us to distinguish between the whole of the EB and NEB populations and did not allow for a breakdown by sex, age, or country of birth. As a result, it was not possible to capture the heterogeneity of migration patterns within the NEB population and to investigate, for instance, whether and how the migration patterns of long-established origin groups differ from those of recently-established origin groups. The macro-level data were also too coarse-grained to distinguish between migrants according to their time since arrival in Europe, and we could not identify any migratory sequences that could have allowed us to distinguish between onward and return movements, or to determine the frequency at which migrants tend to move again after a first

migration. Meanwhile, whereas LFS data offer an opportunity to characterise intra-European NEB migrants at the individual level, we need to be aware that NEB migrants account for only a very small proportion of the whole LFS sample and that they are not equally captured in the country-specific surveys across Europe. In fact, our selected sample contains a disproportionate number of respondents interviewed in Western-European countries and may thus not be representative of all intra-European migrants. Like the QuantMig estimates, LFS data did not contain information about migrants that could have been valuable, such as the age at first migration to Europe (some NEB migrants may actually have been living most of their life in Europe), or the type of visa there were first granted (which could have allowed us to determine whether a person was a refugee or not).

Better-quality data for the study of the intra-European migration of NEB populations will be key for future research. The collection of data on people crossing borders poses important political, legal, and methodological challenges, but the possibility remains to reconstruct migration histories using large-scale surveys or combinations of register data. A longitudinal perspective of the intra-European movements within the NEB population, combined with information on their family and professional trajectories, would allow researchers to draw a much more precise portrait of the European migration landscape. Such perspective would allow the identification of different types of migration (transit, return, circular) and to distinguish between different times of arrivals and the kind of settlements migrants prefer in terms of city size or rural/urban dichotomy, for example. It would further allow us to better understand what motivate NEB people to migrate further once they are in Europe and how they navigate the European- and country-level legal systems. As the intra-European mobility of NEB populations gains momentum, such knowledge will become a valuable asset for public policy, and it will better inform projection models of migration on how migrants from the rest of the world are redistributed after their arrival in Europe.

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Appendix

Country groupings

The composition of the groups of countries is as follows:

- Eastern Europe: BG, CZ, EE, HR, HU, LT, LV, PL, RO, SI, SK
- Southern Europe: CY, ES, GR, IT, MT, PT
- Western Europe: AT, BE, CH, DE, DK, FI, FR, IE, IS, LI, LU, NL, NO, SE, UK.

Table A1 Distribution of intra-European migrants in the LFS sample (EU+ countries, period 2014–2019). Absolute numbers (percentage among EB and NEB migrants in parentheses)

N (%)	Country of residence (destination)		Previous country of residence (origin)	
	EU-born	Non-EU-born	EU-born	Non-EU-born
WESTERN EU				
DE	2,502 (29.56)	436 (27.91)	1,029 (12.16)	163 (10.44)
UK	1,114 (13.16)	214 (13.7)	419 (4.95)	141 (9.03)
FR	337 (3.98)	208 (13.32)	818 (9.66)	135 (8.64)
BE	947 (11.19)	150 (9.6)	186 (2.2)	54 (3.46)
CH	859 (10.15)	139 (8.9)	148 (1.75)	75 (4.8)
AT	1,055 (12.46)	116 (7.43)	164 (1.94)	44 (2.82)
LU	479 (5.66)	65 (4.16)	96 (1.13)	18 (1.15)
DK	160 (1.89)	59 (3.78)	47 (0.56)	11 (0.7)
IS	14 (0.17)	1 (0.06)	13 (0.15)	3 (0.19)
FI	0 (0)	0 (0)	32 (0.38)	14 (0.9)
IE	0 (0)	0 (0)	76 (0.9)	28 (1.79)
LI	0 (0)	0 (0)	6 (0.07)	2 (0.13)
NL	53 (0.63)	0 (0)	262 (3.1)	70 (4.48)
NO	0 (0)	0 (0)	40 (0.47)	23 (1.47)
SE	3 (0.04)	0 (0)	69 (0.82)	30 (1.92)
Total Western EU	**7,523 (88.88)**	**1,388 (88.86)**	**3,405 (40.23)**	**811 (51.92)**
EAST EU				
SI	10 (0.12)	10 (0.64)	49 (0.58)	22 (1.41)
HR	1 (0.01)	9 (0.58)	256 (3.02)	54 (3.46)
LV	26 (0.31)	9 (0.58)	70 (0.83)	1 (0.06)
LT	16 (0.19)	7 (0.45)	87 (1.03)	1 (0.06)
EE	7 (0.08)	6 (0.38)	14 (0.17)	1 (0.06)
PL	70 (0.83)	5 (0.32)	717 (8.47)	25 (1.6)
HU	37 (0.44)	4 (0.26)	336 (3.97)	16 (1.02)
BG	6 (0.07)	1 (0.06)	382 (4.51)	9 (0.58)
CZ	71 (0.84)	1 (0.06)	94 (1.11)	12 (0.77)
RO	1 (0.01)	0 (0)	1,114 (13.16)	28 (1.79)
SK	0 (0)	0 (0)	144 (1.7)	11 (0.7)
Total East EU	**245 (2.89)**	**52 (3.33)**	**3,263 (38.55)**	**180 (11.52)**
SOUTHERN EU				
CY	356 (4.21)	43 (2.75)	10 (0.12)	7 (0.45)
IT	156 (1.84)	30 (1.92)	780 (9.22)	281 (17.99)
ES	105 (1.24)	25 (1.6)	409 (4.83)	153 (9.8)
PT	65 (0.77)	22 (1.41)	264 (3.12)	43 (2.75)
GR	4 (0.05)	2 (0.13)	323 (3.82)	86 (5.51)
MT	10 (0.12)	0 (0)	10 (0.12)	1 (0.06)
Total Southern EU	**696 (8.22)**	**122 (7.81)**	**1,796 (21.22)**	**571 (36.56)**
TOTAL	**8,464 (100)**	**1,562 (100)**	**8,464 (100)**	**1,562 (100)**

Source: Labour Force Survey 2014–2019, own calculations.
Note: countries are sorted by highest to lowest number of non-EU-born residents (at destination).

Table A2 Occupation status of intra-European migrants in the country of destination and in the country of origin the previous year in the LFS sample (EU+ countries, period 2014–2019). Percentages (absolute numbers in parentheses)

EU-born		*Situation in the previous year (in the country of origin)*				
% (N)		1	2	3	4	Total
Situation at survey (country of destination)						
1	Carries out a job or profession	76.6 (2,474)	10.5 (339)	4.4 (141)	8.5 (276)	100 (3,230)
2	Unemployed	43.4 (169)	41.1 (160)	4.4 (17)	11.1 (43)	100 (389)
3	Pupil, student, further training, etc.	21.1 (37)	3.4 (6)	69.1 (121)	6.3 (11)	100 (175)
4	Other inactive	26.4 (188)	4.6 (33)	3.1 (22)	65.8 (468)	100 (711)
Non-EU-born		*Situation in the previous year (in the country of origin)*				
% (N)		1	2	3	4	Total
Situation at survey (country of destination)						
1	Carries out a job or profession	72.7 (411)	9.2 (52)	6.5 (37)	11.5 (65)	100 (565)
2	Unemployed	40.6 (58)	28.7 (41)	13.3 (19)	17.5 (25)	100 (143)
3	Pupil, student, further training, etc.	17 (9)	5.7 (3)	69.8 (37)	7.5 (4)	100 (53)
4	Other inactive	18.7 (48)	4.7 (12)	1.9 (5)	74.7 (192)	100 (257)

Source: Labour Force Survey 2014–2019, own calculations.