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Study on workers' mobility

Lot 2: Short-term international assignments

SHORT-TERM MOBILITY

FINAL REPORT

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Executive Summary

- There is no precise and universally agreed definition of what constitutes a short-term international assignment. The term is used in different ways. This leads to confusion about what it encompasses and a lack of comparability between studies. The working definition adopted for this study is: *A work-related relocation from one country to another country for a period of less than a year.* The particular focus of the study is on intra-EU moves – although short-term international assignments also involve moves by EU nationals to countries outside the EU, and moves by non-EU nationals into the EU. This definition excludes daily commutes between EU countries and assignments/relocations undertaken as part of a vocational education or a higher education programme. However, this definition is open to question. It is clear that student moves have become more significant and also that there is an increasing nexus between temporary and permanent migration. In this context any definition may be regarded as ‘messy’.
- The literature review and interviews with EURES advisers suggest that *flows are becoming increasingly complex.* Short-term international assignments may be taken for a variety of reasons – including economic gain, broadening experience, discovery, improving language skills, etc. Some moves involve intra-company transferees (moving within and beyond the EU) and there is a distinct literature on this particular group. Hence, in practice, the term ‘mobility’ is preferred to ‘assignment’. In the context of free movement, there may be important differences between intended and actual length of stay: a short-term international assignment may evolve into permanent migration. In the context of such complexity there is a ‘blurring’ between different types of move. Hence it is difficult to delineate and apply a rigid definition to ‘short-term international mobility’ – which is a dynamic concept.
- There is considerable *difficulty in measuring short-term moves*, let alone doing so in a consistent fashion. There are different recording definitions in place in different countries. Some have registration systems (although the ‘duration’ criteria and types of moves distinguished may differ), while others rely largely on surveys to measure international moves. Short-term movers are often ‘missed’ by such surveys. Free movers and movements are particularly hard to record; data tends to be better for migrants from outside the EU who require work permits. The implication of these measurement difficulties is that *any typology of short-term international mobility is largely ‘ideal’, as opposed to ‘operational’.* The Eurobarometer survey on geographic mobility in Europe yields useful information on the motives for international migration, but for a small number of individuals. EURES advisers are not in a position to collect information on numbers of short-term moves, but may provide useful intelligence on patterns of enquiries by potential movers.
- *Migration policy* (at EU and national levels) is important in helping to set the framework for recording particular types of moves. At the current time there are important developments in migration policy within several EU countries. In some countries these developments have been accompanied by changes in structural and institutional arrangements for policy delivery. New developments also have implications for the structural recording of particular types of movers and will result in new administrative data series. Moreover, in recent years the uneven application across the EU15 of transitional restrictions on movers from accession countries has helped shape the geography of moves from Eastern Europe.
- There is a range of *ongoing work* on developing statistics on short-term migration and on harmonising international migration statistics. OECD, Eurostat, National Statistical Institutes and research organisations across the EU are at the forefront of such developments. This work endorses the measurement difficulties highlighted above regarding short-term moves, and also between ‘temporary’ and ‘permanent’ moves.

1. INTRODUCTION

The European Commission wishes to consolidate its knowledge base on mobility patterns and practices, as a means to:

- facilitate *geographic mobility* (i.e. movement of workers between countries and regions) and *job-to-job mobility* (i.e. moving to another job – either moving to another employer or occupational mobility with the same employer) within the EU;
- remove remaining barriers; and
- contribute to the emergence of a mobility culture within the European labour market.

Key features of the context for this interest in mobility are:

- the internationalisation of labour markets;
- the development of multinational companies which transfer their workforce between nations;
- the increased complexity of international migration;
- the cheapening of international travel;
- the increasing nexus between temporary and permanent migration;
- the increased significance of student movement;
- the information and communication technology revolution allowing:
 - easier recruitment on an international basis; and
 - individuals who are internationally mobile to maintain close and regular contact with their homeland.

All of these features have facilitated mobility, and particularly the development of ***temporary international moves***. Such temporary mobility is of increasing relevance to economic, labour market and social policy, but information on it is limited.

This section of the report begins by outlining the policy context for this study on short-term international mobility (section 1.1). A brief discussion of the importance of the changing economic context follows (section 1.2). Then the aims and objectives of the study are outlined (section 1.3). Finally, the methodology employed is discussed (section 1.4).

1.1 Policy context

The European Council has identified mobility as a key element for the revised **Lisbon Strategy** and the implementation of the **European Employment Strategy**. Labour mobility between regions and between jobs is seen as a crucial element in making Europe a more competitive, flexible and adaptable economy. However, there are concerns that despite efforts undertaken to facilitate mobility, in both geographic and labour market terms, the current mobility rates of workers in the European Union (EU) remain relatively low (especially vis-à-vis comparison with the USA). It is estimated that approximately 2% of EU citizens of working age are currently living and working in another Member State. A larger number of workers are likely to be involved in forms of temporary mobility, some of which are the subject of this research report.

Freedom of movement is one of the founding principles of the European Union, alongside promotion of economic and social progress and achieving a high level of employment.¹ Alongside free movement of goods, services and capital, free movement of workers is one of the four fundamental freedoms guaranteed by EU law. The Commission's **Action Plan on Skills and Mobility** in 2002 was designed to further the principle of the freedom of movement for workers and underlined the importance of labour market mobility in advancing the European Employment Strategy. However, at the time of the **2004 and 2007 EU enlargements** there were concerns amongst the EU15 Member States that large in-flows of workers from Central and Eastern European countries would depress wages and impact negatively on employment rates of local workers. **Transitional arrangements** were put in place to restrict the movement of workers from the new Member States (excepting Malta and Cyprus) for a maximum of seven years. Implementation of such restrictions has varied between EU15 Member States, but much recent debate and analysis of geographical mobility within the EU has focused on the movement of workers from on flows of A10 migrants to the EU15.

In 2005 the European Council agreed to relaunch the Lisbon Strategy to focus more sharply on the key priorities of growth and jobs (CEC, 2005; 2006). Removing barriers to mobility was one of the objectives highlighted, with job mobility seen as crucial to Europe's objective of boosting jobs and growth and geographical mobility (between Member States) seen as providing individuals with the opportunity to learn new languages, discover new cultures and develop new skills. The promotion of labour mobility received additional impetus with the designation of 2006 as the **European Year of Workers' Mobility**. A series of activities and events during the course of the year highlighted opportunities for job-to-job and geographic mobility. A new **EURES** (European Employment Services)² job portal was launched (see Figure 1.1 for an overview of the role of EURES and services provided), advertising vacancies across Europe, and use of the portal increased considerably. A new portal for social security information (EUIsses) was launched. Evidence from the Eurobarometer Survey on geographic and job-to-job mobility in Europe presented at a conference to mark the end of the European Year of Workers' Mobility suggested a gradual but consistent change towards a genuine mobility culture in Europe. It was also noted that "the 'typical mobile worker' has also changed, and now tends to be younger and more qualified, *staying abroad for short periods* [emphasis added]" (European Commission, 2006).

¹ Also of relevance here is freedom to provide services in another Member State. To guarantee that the rights and working conditions of such individuals are protected throughout the EU, and to avoid 'social dumping' (where foreign service providers can undercut local service providers because their labour standards are lower), a core of mandatory rules regarding the terms and conditions of employment to be applied to an employee posted to work in another Member State have been established in European Community law. These rules reflect the standards of local workers in the host Member State (i.e. where the employee is sent to work) (see COM [2007a]).

² EURES was created in 1993 to facilitate the free movement of workers.

Figure 1.1 EURES: scope and key features

EURES is supported by the European Commission and links the public employment services (PES) across the European Economic Area (EEA). It is designed as a one-stop service to facilitate and promote free movement between Member States of the EEA by providing information, advice and recruitment/placement (job-matching) services for jobseekers and for employers. As such it helps jobseekers to find alternative work opportunities to those available locally or nationally and likewise it helps employers who cannot find the right recruits for their jobs locally or nationally.

All vacancies from EU and EEA national public employment services are accessible on the EURES portal in 25 European languages. Via the EURES portal jobseekers can search electronically for vacancies in particular occupations or via job titles or skills. They can also post their CV online.

Employers can post vacancies on the EURES portal and can search the CVs of jobseekers. Via EURES they can also access personalised help (via EURES advisers) in accessing potential workers from elsewhere in Europe.

EURES has a network of over 700 advisers specialising in international recruitment and job mobility issues. The advisers support both jobseekers and employers through advice, guidance and placement. There is at least one EURES adviser in each region of the EEA. The advisers work within the Public Employment Service of each member country, or within other partner organisations in the EURES network.

In order to promote informed decision-making by jobseekers and employers the EURES portal provides information on a range of practical, legal and administrative issues relating to working in other countries.

In order to be able to make informed decisions about mobility, job-seekers and employers need information on a wide range of practical, legal and administrative questions. The Living and Working Conditions database contains details on a number of important issues such as finding accommodation, finding a school, taxes, cost of living, health, social legislation, comparability of qualifications, etc. The portal also has a Labour Market Information section, containing information on current trends on the European labour market by country, region and sector of activity – highlighting where there are labour market imbalances in the short- and longer-term.

The Learning section of the EURES portal, which is provided by PLOTEUS (Portal on Learning Opportunities throughout the European Space), a service of the European Commission, contains information on education and training opportunities throughout Europe, such as websites of higher education institutions, databases of training courses, schools, etc.

Issues arising during the European Year of Workers' Mobility, along with findings from the report on the Action Plan for Skills and Mobility (COM, 2007b) and lessons from ongoing policy debates on flexicurity (i.e. the need for workers to be flexible to sustain employment, while sustaining social protection rights), lifelong learning (in order to develop new skills to facilitate job-to-job and geographical mobility), multilingualism (to aid international mobility and understanding) and demographic change, fed into the **Job Mobility Action Plan** published in December 2007 (COM, 2007c). The Plan identifies obstacles to mobility – including legal and administrative obstacles, housing costs and availability, employment of spouses and partners, portability of pensions, linguistic barriers, and issues on the acceptance of qualifications in other Member States. It identified fifteen actions – grouped into four main areas:

- 1) improving existing legislation and administrative practices
 - 2) ensuring policy support for mobility from authorities at all levels
 - 3) reinforcing EURES
 - 4) fostering awareness of the advantages of mobility
- to tackle these obstacles (see Figure 1.2).

Figure 1.2 The Job Mobility Action Plan: summary

- **Improving existing legislation and administrative practices on social security coordination and on the portability of supplementary pensions**
 - Examine whether Regulation (EC) No 883/2004, its Implementing Regulation and related administrative practices need adapting to take account for changing patterns of worker mobility.
 - Propose the inclusion of a new provision in Regulation (EC) No 883/2004 formalising the status and analytical capacity of the TRESS network of independent experts in order to strengthen existing expertise in the area of social security coordination at European level.
 - Intensify the streamlining of national administrative practices and cooperation, in particular through electronic consultation and exchange of information, and the launch of an electronic version of the European Health Insurance Card.
 - Follow up its 2005 proposal and its 2007 amended proposal for a Directive on minimum requirements for enhancing worker mobility by improving the acquisition and preservation of supplementary pension rights.
- **Ensure policy support from authorities at all levels, for example by supporting the implementation of the European Qualifications Framework**
 - Encourage Member States to include geographic and job-to-job mobility as a priority in their national employment and lifelong learning strategies.
 - Encourage authorities at regional and local levels, and other relevant stakeholders, to remove remaining practical obstacles to mobility and to promote the concept of "fair mobility", namely by fighting undeclared work and social dumping.
 - Encourage Member States to learn from good practice through mutual learning schemes for the mobility actions, financed from EU Cohesion Policy, in particular the schemes made possible by the European Social Fund. Establish an inventory of existing financial support schemes and examine the possibility of developing European mobility schemes.
 - Support the implementation of the European Qualifications Framework, develop Europass, and give appropriate follow-up to upcoming initiatives on credit transfer in vocational education and training (ECVET).
- **Reinforce EURES as the one-stop shop for job mobility in Europe, by improving services to targeted groups such as long-term unemployed, young workers, older workers, women, researchers, self-employed workers, seasonal workers)**
 - Significantly improve the provision of information and raise awareness on the principle of equal treatment and the respect of labour standards within the European labour markets via its portal and advisers' services.
 - Enhance its services to meet the needs of specific categories of workers (long-term unemployed, young workers, older workers, women, researchers, self-employed workers, seasonal workers). The network will support individuals in preparing a full career plan, including their reintegration into the labour market upon their return.
 - Significantly increase the collection of strategic information, in particular on mobility flows. Synergies with other networks and information providers will be reinforced and cross-border cooperation schemes established, including new activities and partnerships between Member States.
 - Where relevant, be expanded to the benefits of third country nationals including those who have not yet acquired long term resident status. As a first step, information will be provided on the rules and procedures for entering the EU labour market and on the demand for specific types of workers within these markets.
- **Increase awareness of the possibilities and advantages of job mobility among the wider public, by organising European job fairs and supporting pilot projects.**
 - Organise annual 'European Job Days' to improve public awareness of workers' rights and the benefits of mobility, and step up the exchange of information and best practices among all stakeholders.
 - Launch the 'European Job Mobility Partnership', an initiative hosting a network of stakeholders committed to developing job mobility in the EU.
 - Earmark, within the PROGRESS Programme, support for the financing of pilot activities, exchange of good practices, disseminating results on new developments and the emergence of innovative schemes.

These actions support the **New Skills for New Jobs** initiative (COM, 2008) which promotes skills upgrading and seeks to improve the capacity to match labour market and skills needs in the EU, and in so doing help EU countries remain productive and competitive – so supporting the EU’s growth and jobs strategy. Geographical mobility is one important way in which matching of skills and jobs can be achieved, along with occupational and sectoral mobility. Key elements of the New Skills for New Jobs agenda are outlined in Figure 1.3, with those activities of particular relevance to geographical mobility highlighted.

Figure 1.3 The New Skills for New Jobs Agenda: selected key features

- **Addressing mismatches** – to promote professional and geographical mobility the Commission will:
 - Establish (in 2009) a ‘European Labour Market Monitor’ – with up to date information on short-term trends in the European labour market. The Monitor will collect, analyse and disseminate data on vacancies and registered job seekers through the EU network of PES and, in time, from wider sources – including sectors, companies and recruitment agencies.
 - Develop a standard multilingual directory of occupations and skills – to enhance the quality and transparency of vacancy information to improve matching between job seekers and vacancies.
 - Create (in 2009) ‘Match and Map’, a user-friendly, transparent online service for citizens, providing information on occupations, skills, learning and training opportunities across the EU. As part of EURES and linked to PLOTEUS and EURAXESS³ portals, it will provide a clear geographic mapping of the EU job offers matching a user’s profile, feedback on why jobs and skills do not match, and information on learning opportunities.
- **Strengthening capacity for forecasting and anticipation** – involving the establishment of a regular systematic assessment of long-term supply and demand in EU labour markets up to 2020, with disaggregations by sector, occupation and countries; and also an analysis of the skills and labour market needs of key sectors.
- **Deepening international cooperation** – including active participation in the OECD’s Programme for the Assessment of Adult Competences (PIAAC) and other OECD, ILO and associated programmes and initiatives.
- **Mobilising Community instruments** – ensuring Community policies, financial instruments and processes help support skills upgrading.

Overall, the policy developments outlined above seek to facilitate international mobility for work purposes, with a particular emphasis on enhancing the amount and utility of available information available for potential movers in order that they can make informed decisions and for employers to draw on a wider labour pool.

1.2 Economic context

Economic motivations are a primary factor in prompting geographical mobility for work. According to neoclassical economic models, workers migrate from poorer to richer countries. Indeed, the relative poverty of Central and Eastern European countries vis-à-vis the EU15 at the time of EU expansion in 2004 and 2007 was a key factor in the implementation of transitional arrangements placing temporary restrictions on migrant flows. As standards of living converge, economic motivations for international labour mobility might be expected to diminish. Hence changes in rates of growth, in standards of living and exchange rates within the EU might be expected to influence geographical patterns of mobility.

Many of the policies outlined in section 1.1 were formulated at a time of economic growth. By the second half of 2008 it was clear that many European countries were entering recession as a result of the credit crunch and economic downturn. Moreover, the recession is global in nature. This means that the current context for geographical mobility is

³ EURAXESS, the Researchers in Motion website, contains a job portal dedicated to vacancies for researchers.

somewhat different from that experienced in recent years. A key question is: ***'What will be the impact of the economic downturn on geographical mobility?'***

Evidence on migration flows from Central and Eastern Europe to the UK and Ireland (two of the three EU Member States to open their borders to A8 migrants in 2004) reveals a downturn in inflows from 2007 to 2008, and some evidence of return (Pollard *et al.*, 2008). This is associated with a convergence in economic conditions as growth rates in Central and Eastern Europe exceeded those in the UK and Ireland, as well as an easing of transitional restrictions on in-migration in some other EU Member States such that migrants had a wider range of potential destinations to choose from. Exchange rate differentials also changed, such that the monetary gains to be made from migration were reduced.

Looking ahead in the context of greater economic uncertainty than hitherto, it is possible that a reduction in vacancies in potential destination countries will serve to depress migration. Conversely, it is possible that a shortage of employment opportunities locally or nationally will prompt more individuals to consider an international move in search of employment. With greater competition for jobs in the context of a reduction in vacancies, there are signs that there may be challenges to community cohesion if migrants are perceived to be engaged by employers in preference to local people and / or if 'posted workers' (see Figure 2.3 for a definition) are taking jobs in the context of rising unemployment locally.

1.3 Aims and objectives

The research reported here was commissioned to provide enhanced insights into one aspect of temporary mobility - i.e. ***short-term international assignments***.

The ***aim*** of the research was to improve the knowledge base on existing practices and trends in short-term international assignments and to define common methodologies for data collection on short-term contracts.

Key ***objectives*** were:

1. ***Development of a typology***: To establish a typology of short-term international assignments/ contracts, with reference to links with geographic mobility and job-to-job mobility.
2. ***Statistical analysis***: To provide statistical evidence (from available sources) about the numbers of EU workers engaged in these types of assignments/ contracts.
3. ***Methodological improvements***: To make suggestions with regard to how to improve recording of the number of mobile workers engaged in short-term international assignments/ contracts.

In practice, these objectives proved challenging, given the ambiguity of the concept of a 'short-term international assignment',⁴ the lack of a coherent and distinctive literature on the topic, the paucity of statistical information on short-term mobility (especially when disaggregated by the reason for moving) and the difficulties of measuring short-term mobility in the context of freedom of movement.

⁴ Hence the term 'short-term international mobility' is preferred.

1.4 Research methods

This report is based largely on the findings from a **review of the literature and statistical data sources**. Given the scope of the topic and the resources available, the review was necessarily selective rather than comprehensive (i.e. it was not possible to review in detail statistical sources for each country). Hence, countries were selected on the basis of their importance in geographical mobility in Europe and because of their contrasting national statistical sources (i.e. whether they had registration systems or not) for more detailed investigation. This review was supplemented by a limited amount of primary research which involved interviews with EURES advisers and private sector relocation specialists.

Literature review

Given that the subject area lies at the intersection of different disciplines, the literature search drew on a wide range of journal-based data bases, discipline-based data bases and relevant journals and books on international migration and associated matters. In the first instance the following key words were used to yield focused results:

- seasonal migration
- short-term labour migration
- short-term international migration
- short-term international assignment
- short-term International secondment
- short-term international internship
- short-term international placement

The literature search was restricted to the period 2000 to 2008 in the first instance in order to concentrate on more recent experience. Thereafter, websites of relevant organisations, networks or other bodies (such as OECD and IMISCOE⁵) were searched systematically, applying, where search functions would allow, the above keywords.

Additional references were retrieved following up some references listed in the literature identified through the search and, on a few occasions, purely by chance, as the publication title does not have any references to the temporary dimension of migration.

Data search

Data sources yielding information on the number of people engaged in short-term international mobility were identified via:

- the literature review;
- a Web search of statistical sources; and
- reports from international collaborative projects on improving international migration statistics; and
- consulting experts (e.g. OECD, national statistical agencies and national experts working on the EU Framework 6 'PROMINSTAT' project,⁶ which is concerned with developing an EU-wide inventory of sources of data on migration.)

⁵ IMISCOE (International Migration, Integration and Social Cohesion): a research network involving over 500 researchers with a range of disciplinary backgrounds from 23 European research institutes – see <http://www.imiscoe.org/about/aims/index.html>

⁶ These national experts were sent an e-mail, asking them to summarise the availability of data on short-term international migration related to employment for their own country.) Replies were received from some, but not all, of the PROMINSTAT experts.

Interviews with EURES advisers and relocation specialists

Up-to-date information on the nature and scope of short-term international mobility was gathered through fourteen interviews with experts who come into regular contact with short-term international migrants – i.e. EURES advisers⁷ and relocation specialists with an international remit (who provide a range of relocation related services, mainly for inter-company transferees). The topics covered in interviews included:

- emerging trends in short-term international mobility
- motivations for such mobility
- the relative importance of ‘push’ and ‘pull’ factors in such mobility
- variety of short-term international mobility – in terms of duration, pay and conditions, etc
- characteristics of individuals involved in short-term international mobility
- geography of short-term international mobility
- incidence of short-term international mobility by sector and occupation
- advantages and disadvantages for (i) individuals and (ii) businesses of short-term international mobility.

Two interviews were conducted with employers who actively recruited seasonal workers from other countries.

Synthesis

The findings from the different elements of the research conducted are synthesised in this report.

1.5 Structure of the report

The remainder of the report is structured as follows:

- *Section 2* is concerned with conceptual and definitional issues and the development of an ‘ideal’ typology of short-term international mobility. Drawing largely on the literature review and interviews conducted with advisers, it presents evidence on some of the key features of short-term international mobility and also identifies gaps in the evidence base.
- *Section 3* reviews the statistical data available on the scope and nature of short-term international mobility. It encompasses harmonised data across the EU, selected country-specific data, and information on ongoing statistical developments.
- *Section 4* presents the conclusions and recommendations from the study.

⁷ Interviews were conducted with EURES advisers from seven countries (Germany [3], UK [2], France [1], Poland [1], Lithuania [1], Portugal [1], Ireland [1]). Of these four interviews were conducted via telephone, lasting between 25 to 40 minutes, and six interviews face-to-face at the European Job Day in Liverpool (UK) in September 2008. The interviews lasted between approximately 15 to 25 minutes.

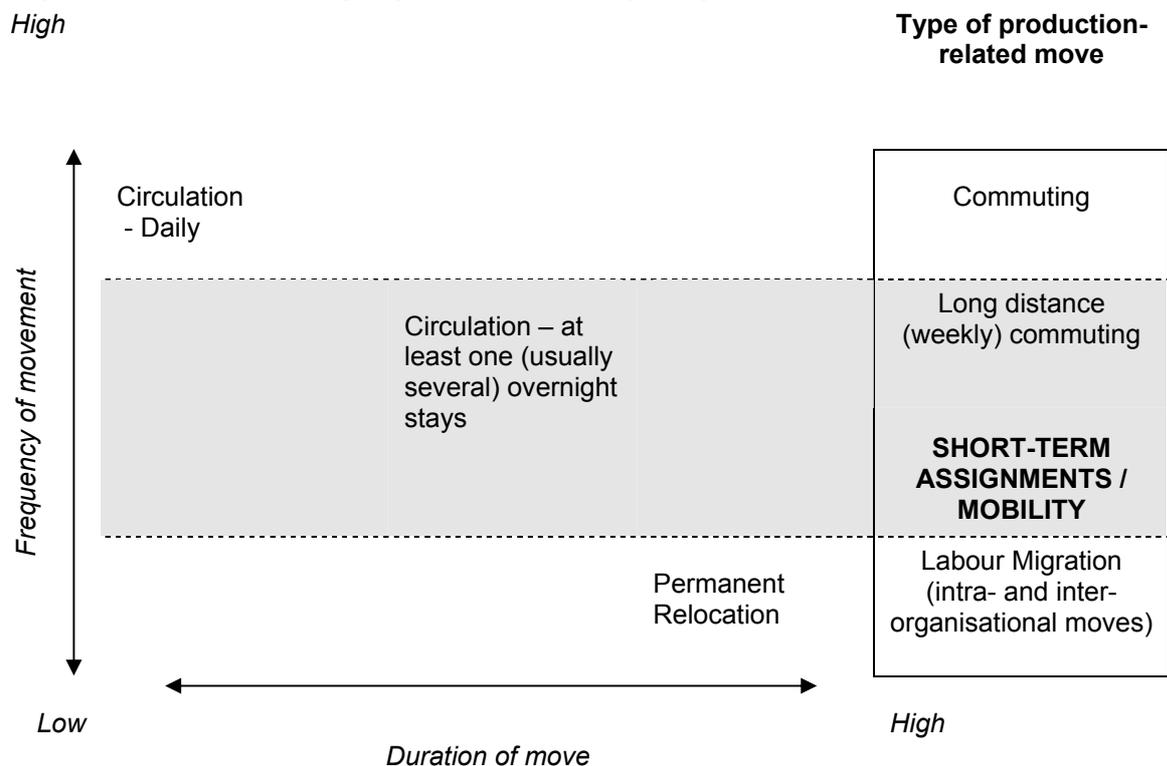
2. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK, DEFINITIONAL ISSUES AND TYPOLOGY

2.1 Conceptual issues

At the outset it is important to establish definitions of key terms and to refine the precise focus of the study. The concern is with **short-term international assignments** (later referred to as short-term international mobility) as one aspect of workers' mobility.

A conceptual framework for examining geographical mobility is set out in Figure 2.1. Here a continuum of movement is presented ranging from daily circulation (commuting) between a place of residence and a place of work, through circulation involving one or several overnight stays and relocation (migration) involving a change of residence. Short-term assignments / mobility are identified here as one particular type of circulation of longer duration than long distance weekly commuting, but not involving a permanent relocation on a long-term basis. The dotted lines around the shaded area in Figure 2.1 indicate that there is 'blurring' between different types of geographical mobility. To some extent different types of geographical mobility can substitute for one another (e.g. a short-term assignment / mobility may substitute for a permanent move or for long distance commuting).⁸ Moreover, it is possible that a short-term assignment / mobility can morph into a permanent move. Likewise, a short-term assignment may develop into a long distance commuting arrangement, if at the end of an initial assignment the mover decides to stay. This 'blurring' poses a significant challenge to attempts to delineate and apply a rigid definition to a 'short-term international assignment' – which is a dynamic concept.

Figure 2.1 Workers' geographical mobility: migration and circulation



Source: adapted from Green and Canny (2003); drawing on Bell (2001).

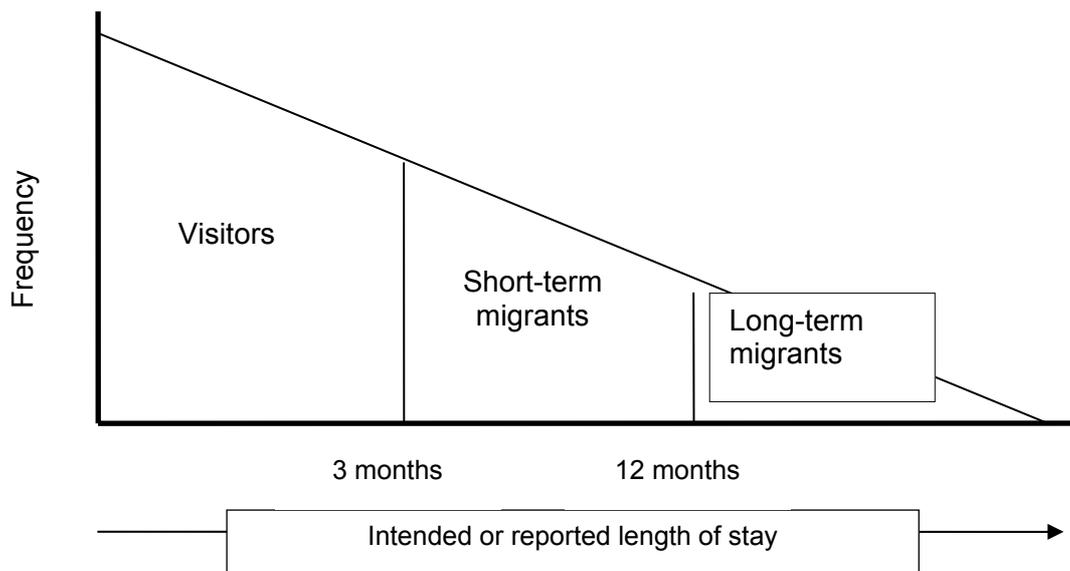
⁸ Generally, geographical proximity affects the propensity to substitute between different types of movement.

2.2 Definitional issues

A key challenge facing this particular study of workers' mobility is that **there is no single universally accepted definition of precisely what constitutes a 'short-term international assignment'**. If the term 'short-term international assignment' is broken down into its separate elements it is evident that some of the constituent elements are more problematic in definitional terms than others are:

- **short-term**: This is one of the problematic definitional elements. The difficulty arises in distinguishing between 'visits' and 'long-term moves' (see Figure 2.2).

Figure 2.2 Visitors and migrants – duration of moves



Source: from Boden and Rees (2008); Figure 3.

- The UN has definitions of long-term and short-term migrants, as follows:
 - **UN definition of a long-term migrant**: a person who moves to a country other than that of his or her usual residence for a period of at least a year (12 months) so that the country of destination effectively becomes his or her country of usual residence.
 - **UN definition of a short-term migrant**: a person who moves to a country other than that of his or her usual residence for a period of at least 3 months but less than a year, except in cases where the movement to that country is for purposes of recreation, holiday, visits to friends and relatives, business, medical treatment or religious pilgrimage.

Hence, the time period identified as short-term in the UN definition is one of 3-12 months; (hence, workers staying for less than 3 months are excluded). An identical timeframe for short-term international assignments has been adopted in a study of global staffing (Scullion and Collings, 2006). Employers across the world use different periods to define short-term employment, including periods in excess of a year (Ince *et al.*, 2002). The factsheet on managing international assignments produced by the UK based CIPD (Chartered Institute for Personnel Development) defines the length of short-term international assignments as between over 31 days to less than a year (Chartered Institute for Personnel Development, 2008). In the UK the outcome of a consultation process on definitions of 'short-term migrant' revealed that there was considerable interest in adopting a definition of 1-12 months (in addition to a desire for statistics on migrants staying for 3-12 months (ONS, 2007).

However, as highlighted in Section 3 of this report, duration of stay criteria adopted in migration statistics differ between countries.

The exclusion of certain migration ‘purposes’ in the UN definition of a short-term migrant is indicative of a distinction that is made between ‘visits’ and ‘short-term migration’. The UN definition of short-term migration focuses mainly on travel for employment or study (i.e. it includes movers with a definite job to go to, those looking for work and those undertaking formal study). In the UK context a ‘visit’ is defined as a trip (in or out of the UK) that lasts less than a year, mainly for tourist purposes (recreation, holiday, visits to friends or relatives), but also includes business travel (Smith and Sharfman, 2007).

This suggests that in Figure 2.2 short-term international assignments could be encompassed in both ‘visits’ and ‘short-term migrants’.

There is a further issue regarding ‘intended’ and ‘actual’ duration of stay. Some movers may have an initial intention to stay for a short period (i.e. 6 months), but then stay for a longer period. Some may be undecided about their length of stay at the onset of a move and remain so when they have moved (Green *et al.*, 2007, 2008a).

- **international:** This is the least problematic element in the term. ‘International’ means a move from one country to another. Given the focus of this study on the EU, it is important to note here that short-term international assignments could cover moves between Member States within the EU, moves by EU nationals to countries outside the EU, and moves by non-EU nationals into the EU.
- **assignment:** This term is problematic.⁹ Rather terms such as ‘short-term assignment’, ‘short-term contract’, ‘temporary migration’, are often used in a range of different ways in the literature. Some of the terms used in the literature are presented in Figure 2.3.

In addition to the terms highlighted in Figure 2.3, it is debatable whether groups such as au pairs, Working Holiday Makers and volunteers working internationally for a short period are, or should be, included within the scope of the term ‘assignment’.

⁹ As noted above, the term ‘short-term mobility’ is preferred in this report.

Figure 2.3 Selected terms and definitions used in the literature

- **Short-term assignments**: A company-specific definition for an assignment duration.
- **Commuter assignments**: Assignment engagements whereby an employee commutes from their home country to a place of work in another country, usually on a bi-weekly basis, while their family remains in the home country.
- **Expatriate**: An employee who is assigned to live and work in a foreign country for a period of time (not permanently).
- **International cadre/ Career expatriates**: The term given to expatriates who will complete several consecutive international assignments as part of their career with the company.
- **Internship**: A student or trainee who does a job to gain work experience or for a qualification.
- **Placement**: A temporary positing of someone in a workplace, especially to gain work experience.
- **Posted worker**: An individual employed by a company in one Member State and sent to another Member State to perform services for short periods of time up to a maximum of one year.^{10 11}
- **Rotational assignment**: An employee commutes from their home country to work in another country for a few months without changing their home; rotational assignments typically involve work in isolated or hardship locations (although they may be used more widely).
- **Seasonal working**: Movement for a relatively short period to undertake seasonal work (e.g. harvesting of crops, tourism, etc)
- **Secondment**: Temporary transfer of a worker to another position.
- **Temporary/Long-term assignments**: A company specific definition for an assignment duration, with the expectation that the expatriate will return at the end of the assignment.
- **Virtual assignment**: A term used to describe a spell of employment whereby an employee does not relocate to a host location, but has international responsibilities for a part of the organisation in another country. This requires frequent business trips to the host country and reliance on communications such as telephone, e-mail, video conferences, etc.¹²

The wide range of types of mobility that are evident in practice is highlighted in a study of 'portfolios of mobility' in the aerospace and extractive sectors, which distinguished eight types of mobility (some of which are identified in Figure 2.3 above, and some which are not) (Millar and Salt, 2008):

- i. *permanent recruitment through the external labour market (ELM) or the internal labour market (ILM)*
- ii. *long-term assignments* – usually involving moves of 1-4 years, with moves of 2-3 years being the norm.
- iii. ***short-term assignments*** – generally of 3-12 months duration. These moves were distinguished from business travel by the benefits package involved: on short-term assignments family members to accompany the assignee, whereas in 'extended business travel' the package is normally based on 'expenses' (i.e. hotels) only. Short-term assignments tend to be used for 'specific tasks' – which may be career-, experience- or project-related.
- iv. *commuter assignments* – weekly commuting for periods lasting a few months to one or two years. These assignments may substitute for short-term or long-term assignments, depending on family circumstances of the worker in question.
- v. *rotators* – typically working on a shift pattern of 1-2 months on, followed by 1-2 months off. Note that for international moves of this nature there is an important

¹⁰ The definition of a 'posted worker' does not apply to individuals who decide of their own accord to seek employment in another Member State.

¹¹ Posted worker arrangements are common in the construction industry, but also in transport, telecommunications, entertainment, repairs, maintenance and servicing.

¹² 'Teleworking' has similarities and overlaps with the concept of a virtual assignment, but characteristically involves little business travel, if any.

distinction between ‘flows’ (i.e. the number of moves) and ‘stocks’ (i.e. the number of movers) – see section 3.2 for further details.

- vi. *extended business travel* – generally trips of 30-90 days, although some trips might last for 6 months. (As noted above, there are important similarities between short-term assignments and extended business travel.)
- vii. *business travel* – usually a trip of up to 30 days.
- viii. *virtual mobility* – involving use of teleconferencing, common databases and collaborative systems. This may substitute for business travel, rather than for short-term assignments.

These different types of mobility options fulfil different functions and are configured into ‘portfolios of mobility’ as business needs and individual preferences dictate.

With regard to the statistical evidence base and suggestions for improvement therein, the ***salient points to note from this review of definitional issues*** are that:

- terms may be used in company-specific, sectorally-specific and nationally-specific ways; thus indicating that:
- there is scope for considerable confusion between different terms;
- context is important in understanding the ways in which terms are used;
- the dimensions of variation in use mean that standardisation would be very difficult to achieve.

2.3 Development of a typology

One of the key objectives of this study was to *establish a typology of short-term international assignments/ contracts*, with reference to links with geographic mobility and job-to-job mobility.

Key dimensions of variation of interest in a *comprehensive typology* (i.e. one which covers the full range of dimensions of variation that might be of ‘theoretical’ interest to a study of short-term international assignments / mobility) are shown in Figure 2.4. The ‘comments’ column provides summary comments on why each particular dimension is of theoretical interest for a study of short-term international assignments and also outlines some of the challenges to measurement in operational terms (i.e. to be taken account of in generating an *operational typology*).

Shortcomings in data (see Section 3 for further details) mean that the comprehensive typology presented in Figure 2.4 is largely ‘ideal’, because different data sources cover only some of the dimensions of interest and even where information on one of the dimensions of interest is available it may not be possible to crosstabulate each dimension against others of interest.

Figure 2.4: Dimensions of variation of interest for development of a typology of short-term mobility

Dimension	Categories	Comments
Initiation	(i) employer-directed (ii) initiated by the individual	This is of interest in order to distinguish moves initiated by the employer and those where the individual takes the initiative. Household survey statistics generally do not capture this dimension of variation.
Motivation	(i) business needs (ii) for career advancement (from the employer or individual perspective); (iii) to broaden experience (from an individual or an employer perspective) (iv) to satisfy the need for income while fulfilling other objectives (e.g. as in the case of Working Holiday Makers)	This is of interest in order to distinguish between motivations for migration. The motivation may come from the business needs of the employer (see the 'initiation' dimension below). Whether initiated by the employer or the individual, there may be a number of motivations for a move. Even if a primary motive can be identified, it is often the case that secondary motives are important too (e.g. to learn a new language or experience a different culture). The intricacies of the 'motivation' dimension are not well-captured by statistics on job-related moves. Rather bespoke surveys are likely to be necessary,
Employer	(i) retains the same employer (i.e. an intra-firm move) (ii) moves to a different employer (i.e. an inter-firm move)	This is of interest to identify the extent to which moves are in internal, as opposed to external labour markets. EULFS data enables identification of intra-firm moves, but such information is not available from aggregate statistics. The issuing of work permits implies that a move is within the external labour market.
Facilitation	(i) managed by the employer (i.e. by an organisational channel) (ii) by a labour market intermediary (e.g. the PES or a private employment agency) (iii) part of a 'managed migration' scheme (i.e. a country-specific scheme for international workers in specific sectors) (iv) managed independently by the individual	This is of interest in order to gain an understanding of how movements take place and lubricating factors in such moves. Some data sources (e.g. on permits issued) cover specific schemes (i.e. category 'iii'). Otherwise, there is limited information on recruitment channels. It should also be borne in mind that an individual might seek advice at one point in time (e.g. from a EURES adviser), and act upon this advice at a later date – in which case the individuals would appear in category 'iv'; so understating the role of labour market intermediaries in facilitating moves.
Previous economic status	(i) in employment (ii) unemployed (iii) in education (iv) otherwise inactive	This is of interest in order to identify whether moves mainly involve people in employment or moves from education (which may be related to employment). International moves from unemployment or economic inactivity are also of interest in providing insights into the extent to which short-term mobility is being used in order to gain employment – perhaps when employment opportunities are restricted in the origin country. In the analysis of the 2005 Eurobarometer survey of geographical and labour market mobility in Europe (European Communities, 2006; Vandenbrande <i>et al.</i> , 2006), the dimension of previous economic status is used to distinguish between 'forced' moves (for reasons of redundancy, end of contract, etc) and 'voluntary' moves. The EULFS captures this dimension of variation, but other national statistics, aggregate statistics and statistics covering permits do not routinely do so.

Dimension	Categories	Comments
Occupation	(i) retains the same occupation (ii) moves to a different occupation	This dimension is of crucial interest in determining the importance of short-term international mobility in different occupations, and the role of short-term international mobility in facilitating occupational mobility. The corporate literature suggests that short-term international assignments play a key role in broadening the occupational experiences of workers. Such information is available from the EULFS. Permit-based statistics may be (but are not always) disaggregated by occupation.
Sector	(i) moves within the same sector (ii) moves to a different sector	This dimension is of interest in determining sectoral variations in the use of short-term international mobility. The literature suggests that different sectors are characterised by different portfolios of mobility. Such information is available from the EULFS. Permit-based statistics may relate to specific sectors.
Contractual status	(i) retains original employment status (ii) is on a short-/ fixed-term contract (iii) has some other contractual arrangement	This dimension is of interest for understanding the ways in which employers use short-term labour and also for understanding the rights of workers and their potential vulnerability. The EULFS collects some limited information on the use of short-term contracts, but greater details of contractual arrangements are not generally available.
Duration	(i) a specified fixed period (and if so, what period) (ii) for the (unspecified, yet finite) duration of a particular project	The duration (number of months) is a key dimension of interest for analysis of short-term international mobility. It is of interest to know whether short-term mobility is for a specific fixed period (as is the case for some permit-based schemes), or whether the arrangement is somewhat more open-ended. It should be noted that in the latter case an individual may move to another country on a short-term basis, and thereafter 'stay on' for longer: intended length of stay may be different from actual length of stay. Permit-based schemes may stipulate a specified maximum duration. While survey-based statistics may provide information on actual length of stay (i.e. from date of entry to the country [if such information is collected] to the date of the survey), information on 'actual' length of stay may not be available.
Location	Country (of residence and of work)	This is of interest in examining volumes and patterns of geographical and labour mobility by country. ¹³
Place of residence	(i) moves their residence on a permanent basis (ii) moves their place of residence on a temporary basis (iii) commutes from their place of residence on a regular (e.g. bi-weekly) basis	This dimension of variation (alongside 'workplace location') is of crucial importance in distinguishing between 'commuters' and those on 'short-term assignments'. In a residence-based survey, census or register, place of residence is automatically recorded. However, it is salient to note that conceptually and in practice there may be some ambiguity about 'usual place of residence' for an individual involved in a long distance commuting arrangement or involved in short-term international mobility. In the latter instance, an individual is likely to keep their main place of residence in their home country, while living to accommodation elsewhere for a temporary / fixed period. This poses difficulty for the collection and analysis of statistics.

¹³ Analyses of the 2005 Eurobarometer survey showed different 'clusters' of mobility patterns (see Vandenbrande *et al.*, 2006).

Dimension	Categories	Comments
Country of place of work	(i) their home country (within the EU) ¹⁴ (ii) in a different EU Member State (iii) in a country outside the EU	To gain an insight into volumes and patterns of flows of movers, as opposed to stocks, it is necessary to have an insight into where people work (alongside 'place of residence').
Age	Single or grouped years of age	Mobility varies over the life course. Analyses of migration statistics show that young adults are the most mobile group and analyses of the 2005 Eurobarometer Survey (Vandenbrande <i>et al.</i> , 2006) and have the most positive attitudes towards migration. Short-term international mobility of different types may be associated with different age groups. Age is a key dimension in survey sources and may be one of the dimensions of variation in sources covering permits.
Gender	(i) male (ii) female	Gender is a key dimension of variation in socio-economic analysis and so is of interest here.
Marital and family status	(i) single (ii) married (without children) (iii) married (with children)	Analysis of the 2005 Eurobarometer Survey (Vandenbrande <i>et al.</i> , 2006) shows that single people are most mobile and those with children tend to be less mobile. Migration research has highlighted how families tend to bear the costs of geographical mobility (see Green and Canny, 2003). Surveys such as the EULFS contain information on marital status, but generally administrative statistics relating to permits or seasonal work schemes do not.
Nationality	(i) EU national from EU15 (ii) EU national from Accession 8 (countries) (iii) EU national from New Member States (iv) Non EU national	Nationality is a key dimension of interest in studies of international mobility. Of particular interest here is whether an individual is an EU national or not. Some work permit statistics relate only to movers from outside the EU. Different recording systems apply to nationals of Accession and New Member States for whom transitional arrangements (and associated recording systems) may be in place.
Country of birth	(i) Country of birth in EU (ii) Country of birth outside the EU.	'Country of birth' is a key concept in migration studies. 'Country of birth' is a more stable concept than 'nationality' – since an individual can change his/her nationality and hold dual nationality. Some individuals may have been born in one country (perhaps outside the EU), but hold the nationality of an EU Member State and have spent most of their life in a country other than that of their birth.
Educational level	(i) Low or none (ii) Intermediate (iii) High	Previous migration studies show that highly educated workers tend to be more mobile than those with lower levels of education (see Rodriguez-Pose, 2002; Salt, 2002). For international moves within the labour markets of transnational corporations, it is highly skilled workers who are most likely to move. However, seasonal work (e.g. in agriculture) may demand only routine skills and such short-term international mobility may, at least in theory, be open to those with lower educational levels. However, it may be the case that highly educated workers fill low-skill jobs on a short-term international assignment basis (see Anderson <i>et al.</i> , 2006).

¹⁴ If this is the case 'short-term mobility' would not be categorised as 'international'.

2.4 Key features of short-term international mobility

2.4.1 Evidence from the literature

There is a dearth of empirical studies focusing exclusively on **short-term migration** or **short-term international mobility**, apart from studies on seasonal migration.¹⁵ More empirical research has been undertaken on migration where short-term labour migrants form part of the research remit and/ or the sample, but due to the specific research questions or the sample size there is no or hardly any separate analysis of the group of short-term movers. Other empirical studies focus on groups of people who worked abroad for a period of at least one year and are thus, by definition, outside the scope of this study.

The literature on **intra-company transferees**¹⁶ suggests that the traditional expatriate assignment, where an employee works for the same multinational enterprise in another country on a longer term basis (at least a year to a couple of years and longer), may become less important due to cost and staff considerations. Instead, so-called alternative forms of international mobility are going to increase (Scullion and Collings, 2006; Collings *et al.*, 2007); see also Figure 2.3), among them short-term assignments (GMAC Global Relocation Services, 2008; Dixon and Sim, 2008). The literature on alternative forms of international assignments largely focuses on international human resources management, such as benefits and drawbacks of short-term international assignments, development of HR policies for short-term international assignments, with other topics including the use of different forms of international assignments in the context of the development stage of a company or a comparison between intra-company transferees and movements initiated by the individual.

Data on the scope of expatriate and non-traditional assignments are gathered through employer surveys conducted by large HR consultancies, relocation or real estate companies in regular intervals (one, two or more years), with some of the most prominent companies being Mercer, Cartus (formerly Cendant mobility), GMAC and PriceWaterhouseCoopers. Surveys are typically based on responses from between 100 to a couple of hundred HR representatives worldwide, with few if any details on the sampling (some of organisations may actually be drawn from the company's clients). Results from both the 2007 Cartus Survey (Cartus, 2007) and the 2008 GMAC survey¹⁷ indicate that international assignments are expected to rise but that alternatives to long-term assignments will see the largest increase, among them short-term international assignments (note the length itself is not defined). Other alternatives to long-term assignments on the increase include extended business travel, international commuters, more local hires and an approach labelled as 'developmental', according to the 2007 Cartus Survey. Compared to the overall workforce of the company the number of international assignees would appear to be low, with 35% of companies having up to 50 international assignees and 25% in excess of 500 (2007 Cartus Survey). Relatively similar percentages are reported for the number of expatriates in the 2008 GMAC Survey (30% below 50 expatriates and 24% above 500 expatriates). Although neither the 2008 GMAC Survey nor the summary version of the 2007 CARTUS Survey reports the actual number of long-term and short-term assignments the former appear to be still far larger than the latter despite recent and continued growth.¹⁸

¹⁵ Many of the studies on seasonal migration predate the expansion of the EU in 2004 and 2007.

¹⁶ This is the main body of literature on short-term international assignments and tends to focus on moves at a global (rather than the EU) scale.

¹⁷ Note that this was not accessible free of charge.

¹⁸ According to the 2008 GMAC survey, the majority of assignments (53%) are expected to be for the longer term (1-3 years) and a substantial group (33%) for short-term assignments (less than a year).

In addition to the global surveys there are a few small scale country-specific or sector-specific studies which look at international mobility, including short-term international mobility. Examples include a study on the implications of short-term international mobility, drawing on interviews with 11 HR managers in Finland (Tahvanainen *et al.*, 2005); a study on researcher mobility in the pharmaceutical industry, drawing on 24 interviews with HR managers and assignees conducted in six companies (Criscuolo, 2005); and a study on the international mobility of the highly skilled based on 19 interviews with HR representatives of multinational enterprises located in Portugal (Peixoto, 2001):

A number of studies showed that the nature of and reasons for short-term mobility substantially differ from that of the long-term assignment (for an overview see Tahvanainen *et al.*, 2005). A direct comparison of the two forms of assignment in the 2007 Cartus Survey revealed that long-term international assignments largely focus on management and leadership, whereas short-term international assignments are largely project based and focused on technical skills transfer. A key driver for short-term international assignments are cost pressures, particularly in the current economic climate (GMAC Survey 2008), as expatriates are paid substantial compensations plus the cost for the relocation of the family, and difficulties recruiting staff for international assignments, particularly in less developed countries. An insight into the challenges of short-term assignments perceived by assignees and partners staying back home, based on 105 interviews is provided in Weston (2007). The key challenges for assignees were strains on personal and family relationships, insufficient pre-assignment support and lack of company support and knowledge about the context of the assignment.

It has been highlighted by others (for example, Suutari and Brewster, 2000) that the literature on self-initiated labour migration is not abundant and this has been confirmed through the literature research conducted for this project, particularly with regard to short-term movers.

It is not surprising that a number of studies on migration (including long-term and short-term movers) have been undertaken on **Polish migrants** as they form the largest group of migrants in key EU destination countries from among the A8 countries. A qualitative study on perceptions of class and ethnicity among Polish migrants in London (Eade *et al.*, 2007) has revealed a typology of four groups taking into account the migrant's intended duration of stay (although not always specified in terms of months), frequency of migration, motivations and their perceptions of their class position. About 20% of the sample of 50 migrants surveyed were different groups of seasonal workers, mainly in low paid jobs, who would stay in London for between 2-6 months but come back for another seasonal spell to improve their economic status in Poland (so-called 'storks'). Next were the so-called 'hamsters' – who treat their move as a one-off act to acquire enough capital to invest in Poland (and so tend to have longer stays than the 'storks'). At the other end of the spectrum 22% of the sample (termed 'stayers') intended to stay in the UK. The largest group were the 'searchers' (42% of the sample) who deliberately wanted to keep their options open. They were described as mainly 'young, ambitious and individualistic', working in a range of low to high skilled jobs.

In an overview of the state of the art of migration research in Poland (Kicinger and Weiner (2007) it has been noted that a number of studies have been conducted on the seasonal migration of Poles to other European countries, with Polish migrants mainly working in sectors like construction, renovation, agriculture and personal services (domestic help). Statistical data suggest that seasonal migration mainly occurs in peripheral areas, including the Opolskie region with its historical links to other countries (Grabowska-Lusinska, 2007). Other studies have highlighted that Polish seasonal workers often do not seek integration into the host country as they enter it with the intention of earning money that will enable them provide for their (family) life in Poland. This has been described as 'incomplete migration' (Okólski, 2001). In the context of economic downturn it is possible that such 'incomplete

migration' could pose challenges for social cohesion, as more locals compete with migrants for fewer jobs.

Seasonal work may be undertaken by **working holiday makers** (WHMs). Research conducted in three case study sites in Australia estimated that WHMs from abroad constitute an estimated 20-30% of the employers' workforce in the agricultural sector. The length of stay of WHMs from abroad with a single employer was thought to be between 4-12 weeks, with the upper end reflecting regulations regarding the length of stay with one single employer (3 month maximum) (Hanson and Bell, 2007). Finding seasonal work is facilitated through backpacker hostels offering links to harvest offices and recruitment agencies. A qualitative study on British WHMs in Australia (Clarke, 2005), whilst focusing on non-employment issues, provides some background information on age, gender, education, occupation and staying on intentions for the 12 (of a total of 20) interviewees. Whilst the study offers somewhat limited insight into the background and intentions of WHMs, it adds value as most of these data would not be captured by statistics based on permit schemes. This suggests that migrants undertaking short-term international moves motivated mainly by 'discovery' reasons may be particularly unlikely to be captured by official migration statistics.

It is also clear from the literature that **social networks** are an influential factor in understanding the spatiality of migration flows) and play an important role in facilitating moves between jobs and between areas (within and between countries) and helping with adjustment (Epstein, 2008; Ryan *et al.*, 2008). Hence, short-term movers themselves are an important recruitment channel for other movers. As social networks grow, those engaged in short-term international mobility expand their potential recruitment channels through the creation and recreation of networks. However, it is also possible that increased use of the Internet will serve to reduce the importance of social networks in some instances, as individuals access additional information that is not available via social networks.

Some of the **methodological problems** outlined in more detail in Section 3 also feature in empirical investigations, particularly the difference between *de facto* and *de jure* residence. For example, a study on Polish migrants in Leipzig used the local population register to draw the sample, but found that 80% of the addresses (nearly 1,900 in absolute figures) were no longer up-to date (Glorius, 2007). It was presumed that a large proportion were temporary migrants (who at the time had to register to get a work permit) but had since returned to Poland. Of those who had responded to the survey around two-thirds had a second residence in Poland, occupied by relatives or the spouse. Whilst it is not clear whether these migrants are still officially registered in Poland it highlights issues of *de jure* and *de facto* residence in both host and home country. Other shortcomings in capturing short-term migrants may occur where people have dual citizenship from two EU countries due to historic reasons (Morokvasic, 2008). This raises the important distinction between 'nationality' and 'country of birth' in migration studies, with the former being more subject to change than the latter (see European Commission [2008] for more discussion on this issue).

Another issue is whether an assignment would require the existence of an employment contract. A study on migrant workers in South Lincolnshire, UK, which gathered nearly 700 questionnaire responses from migrant workers (through distribution in publicly accessible places and factories) highlighted that a substantial proportion did not have an employment contract or did not know the duration of their contract (Zaronaite and Tirzite, 2006). In contrast, in excess of 90% of the interviewed intermediaries ('labour providers') reported that migrants had a contract. These migrants may well be mainly casual workers working for a period of up to a couple of months, with some of the work possibly occurring in the shadow economy, but there is a possibility that some of the labour migrants would be excluded if short-term international mobility was to be linked to an employment contact. The same may probably be true for migrants working as domestic helps.

In **summary**, there is a relatively small but diverse literature on short-term international assignments / mobility. This literature is spread across disciplines. Studies of seasonal workers (mainly relating to the period prior to EU expansion in 2004) and of global corporate transferees predominate. Both of these can be thought of as ‘special cases’ (albeit important ones) of short-term international assignments. To date, studies of ‘free movers’ have been less common, although there are exceptions – mainly adopting biographical approaches to provide insights into migrant experiences (for example, Favell [2008]). A common theme emerging from the studies is the difficulty of measuring short-term international mobility.

2.4.2 Evidence from EURES advisers and relocation specialists

This section draws on interviews with EURES advisers and relocation specialists (see section 1.4 for background information on the methodology).

The interviewees highlighted the importance of short-term moves abroad for employment, while being unable to quantify trends in mobility. In the case of private sector relocation agencies this reflects their unwillingness to provide information (on the basis that they are in a competitive market situation), while in the case of the EURES advisers **the number of enquirers who subsequently decide to move to another country, and the subsequent experiences of those who do move, is not known**. The EURES advisers emphasised that a key part of their role was to provide advice and a ‘reality check’ about what it is like to work abroad – which may or may not be acted upon (in the short- or medium-term). Clearly, not all placements are made through EURES, although the public employment service may play an important initial role in providing information to support movers. However, as part of their role some EURES advisers assist in targeting people who are seeking jobs abroad on behalf of multi-national corporate companies. Respondents agreed that **private sector recruitment agencies** play an increasingly important role in facilitating international moves. Some of these serve particular market niches or particular countries (e.g. Poland), while others provide more general services. Indeed, it has been guesstimated in the UK that between 40% and 50% of A8 migrant workers in the UK work for, or through, agencies (Nathan, 2008). Meanwhile, In the USA it has been argued that agencies (i.e. the ‘temporary staffing industry [TSI]’) are embedding themselves within the American labour market – at micro level (meeting the needs of individual enterprises) and at macro level – mediating macroeconomic pressures and socio-economic risks across the labour market as a whole (Peck and Theodore, 2007). It is salient to note that the emphasis here is on the flexibility of migrant labour at the lower end of the labour market, rather than on geographical mobility playing a role in skills upgrading, as highlighted in the New Skills for New Jobs initiative and the Job Mobility Action Plan outlined in section 1.1.

The EURES advisers and relocation specialists identified a variety of motivations for short-term international mobility and associated destination preferences were identified. For example:

- For those moving within internal labour markets moves are often **prompted by project requirements**, the need for a particular specialist role in a specific location, or the need for a staff member to have broader experience – including enhanced cultural and market awareness. In these instances the geography of the move is determined by the employer (although sometimes the employee may have some input into the location decision).
- Other individuals turn to **short-term international mobility as a way of escaping unemployment** in their home country. In this context, a short-term international move may be thought of as a ‘stop gap’ measure to continue earning until prospects for employment in the home country improve. Choice of destination is determined by a number of factors, including the availability of employment opportunities and

language connections, with neighbouring countries often preferred if jobs were available.

- A primarily **economic motivation** for moves also applies in cases where an individual sees an opportunity to gain more money in a job in another country than is possible in the home country. Here the availability of work and relative wage differentials with the home country are important factors in selection of destination, although subsequently social network factors may also play an important role. Hence moves from accession countries to countries such as the UK and Ireland (i.e. the Member States imposing few restrictions on moves in 2004) were prime destinations for these moves. As economic conditions change and more countries remove transitional restrictions on movement, a greater range of possible destinations come into consideration. For some of these individuals for whom the primary motivation for a move is economic, the chance to improve language skills may also be an important subsidiary factor.
- Some moves are prompted by a **need to gain work experience (preferably international work experience)** following completion of a higher education course and before taking up a permanent career-track job. This is particularly important in the case of young people in France, where the home labour market was described by a EURES adviser as “demanding”. For some higher level jobs in both public and private sectors English language skills were described as either desirable or, increasingly, ‘mandatory’. Hence, countries such as the UK and Ireland are popular destinations, as are countries where English is widely spoken (such as the Netherlands and Scandinavia).
- For some individuals, especially young people, short-term international mobility may be thought of as a type of **‘discovery migration’** – i.e. it provides an opportunity to live away from home (perhaps for the first time) and to experience a different country. For such individuals having a job to pay the bills while improving English language skills may be an attractive proposition. Economic, language and lifestyle factors may be important considerations for such individuals.
- For some individuals **perceptions of a better work-life balance** may prompt a move from one country to another where working and living conditions are more attractive. One EURES adviser noted that the Scandinavian countries were a popular destination for doctors in this respect.

Hence, both ‘push’ and ‘pull’ factors play a role in shaping moves. Economic conditions¹⁹ are important, but so are language factors (either a desire to be able to use a first language or to improve another language [particularly English]) and a desire to broaden experiences.

Some sectors and occupations are characterised by a greater density of ‘migrants’ / ‘movers’ than others. Sectors such as construction, agriculture and hospitality and tourism have long been associated with seasonal or short-term working and according to the EURES advisers interviewed these remain key sectors for short-term international migrants, along with the health and social care.²⁰ While those with skilled trades or professional skills tend to be attracted to opportunities where they can utilise those skills, for young people with relatively little work experience, the hospitality sector is attractive because the availability of short-term work (sometimes with accommodation provided) and the opportunity to gain language and customer orientation skills (which are transferable elsewhere in the home country or other destination countries). Language skills are likely to determine the type of job that an individual is able to acquire in a destination country; hence some occupational downgrading may be necessary in order to secure employment in cases where language proficiency is limited.

¹⁹ In both ‘home’ and ‘destination’ countries.

²⁰ Analyses of sectoral variations in the importance of migrant labour show similar results.

EURES advisers noted that those seeking advice could be from any age group, although **younger people** predominated. According to UK work permit data, the 'typical' mover was a young male from Eastern Europe. It is salient to note here that young males are the group that tends to be least well captured in individual and household surveys – so compounding the challenges of measuring short-term international mobility.

With regard to **data collection**, EURES advisers are obliged to complete a monthly survey and to transfer the data to EURESCO in Brussels. The survey captures data such as the number of clients who contacted the EURES adviser, the nature of their enquiry (e.g. generic enquiries or the nature of more specific enquiries), and the number of clients EURES advisers helped into employment. The monthly survey is designed as a performance measurement instrument. Thus it does not provide any data about the intended duration of migration to another European country, nor is this necessarily a topic which comes up during the enquiries.

2.5 Synthesis

Short-term international moves represent one aspect of workers' mobility. They occupy a space on the continuum of mobility between a permanent international relocation and daily or weekly commuting across international boundaries.

There is no single universally accepted definition of what constitutes a short-term international assignment. Two of the three constituent elements – 'short-term' and 'assignment' are problematic in definitional terms. 'Short-term' is typically measured as 3-12 months, but there is also considerable interest (and demand) for statistics on moves of 1-12 months. 'Assignment' is used in different ways in the literature, but is used in this study to relate to work-related geographical mobility (and hence the term 'mobility' is preferred to 'assignment').

A comprehensive 'ideal' typology of short-term international mobility has a range of dimensions encompassing initiation, motivation, employer, facilitation, previous economic status, occupation, sector, contractual status, duration, location, individual characteristics (e.g. age, gender, nationality, marital and family status) and educational level. A review of the literature and insights into short-term international mobility gained from EURES advisers and relocation specialists reveals that there is limited information available on several of these dimensions. This indicates that the typology is likely to remain largely 'ideal' rather than 'operational'.

There is not one single 'typical' individual engaging in a short-term international mobility; rather at either pole of the continuum of types of individuals engaged in short-term international mobility there are managers and professionals in international corporations on the one hand, and seasonal workers engaged in less skilled work on the other. In the former case short-term international moves are initiated by the individual, whereas in the latter case they are initiated by the individual, and often facilitated by an agency. The former is engaged in a job to job move, whereas the latter may be moving from unemployment to employment. Whereas the former is likely to be retaining the same occupation and enhancing his/her skills through short-term international mobility, the latter is more likely to be moving to an unrelated occupation and/or sector and is more likely to suffer occupational downgrading (although through an international assignment may gain useful soft skills [including confidence, networking ability and language skills]). Both are likely to be relatively young, although the latter is likely to be younger than the former. Of course, between these two poles there are a variety of other individuals engaged in short-term international mobility for a variety of reasons and with some similar and some different characteristics.

3. REVIEW OF STATISTICAL DATA ON THE SCOPE AND NATURE OF SHORT-TERM INTERNATIONAL MOBILITY

3.1 Introduction: are statistical data fit for purpose?

This section is concerned with reviewing available statistical data sources and assessing whether they are fit for purpose in measuring short-term international mobility. It begins with an introduction to some general issues highlighted in Section 2 and also covers some of the key findings from European collaborative projects on international migration statistics. The focus then shifts to an assessment of data sources which seek to provide a standardised view of international migration across EU countries. In the third sub-section data sources for three countries – the UK, Germany and Poland - with contrasting migration histories and migration data sources is assessed in more detail. This selective country-specific focus enables an assessment of migration statistics compiled by the national statistical institutes in the relevant Member State from various data sources, including administrative sources. Finally, some ongoing statistical data developments pertinent to the study of short-term international mobility are reviewed. More limited information is presented for two other countries: Spain and Finland.

3.1.1 General issues

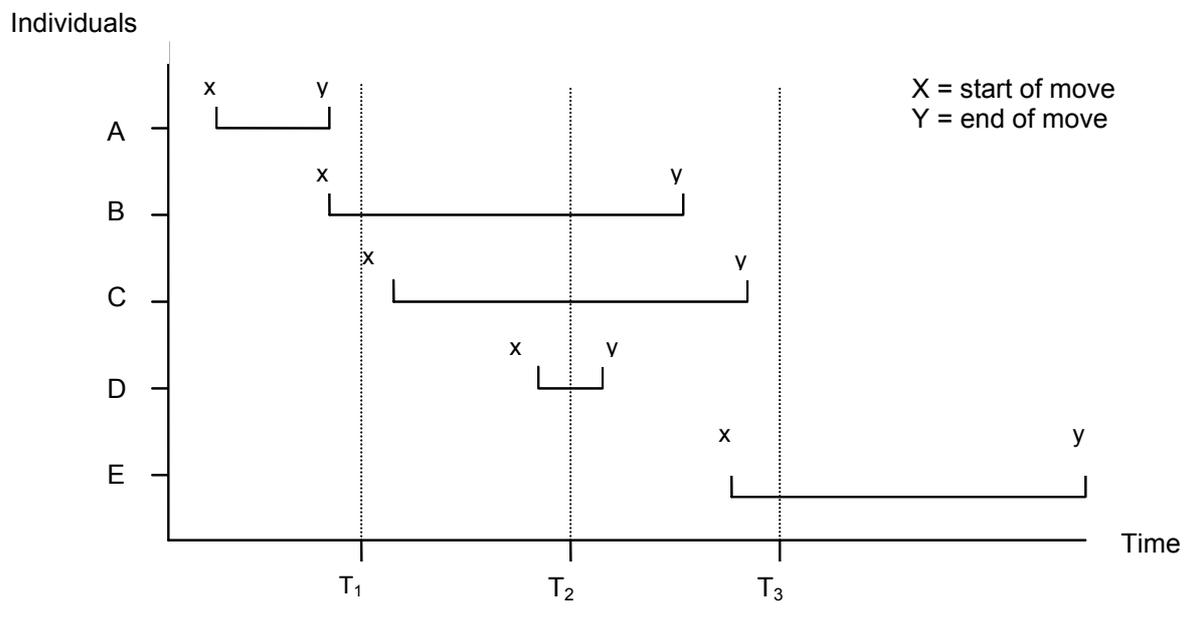
At the outset it is appropriate to make a distinction between the number of moves (i.e. '**flows**') and the number of people (i.e. 'movers' in this instance) who are present at a specified point in time (i.e. '**stocks**'). There is an interest in both 'flows' and 'stocks' in this study.

It is evident that **the most mobile groups are often the most difficult to capture** in statistical data sources and that shorter duration moves are often more difficult to obtain data on than longer duration moves. For example, in estimating 'stocks' some of the most mobile groups may not be within the scope of surveys (for example, temporary workers living in non-private households) or because of their short duration of stay they may be 'missed' by survey instruments. Figure 3.1 illustrates this point: at time T_1 only individual B is included in a stock estimate of movers, at time T_2 three individuals (B, C and D), while at time T_3 only individual E is included; individual A is not included in any of the estimates of movers.

Registration systems are likely to have more comprehensive coverage than surveys, as are statistics relating to permits issued to foreign workers in a particular country. However, permit statistics are not without their shortcomings: first, not all persons may need a permit to enter a country; secondly, the reference period for the data on permits may be the time when the permit was granted rather than actually used; thirdly, the data may describe permits granted rather than actually used.

In some countries work is ongoing to make improvements to migration statistics – especially in relation to the capture of short-term moves (see section 3.4). In some countries technological developments may help in the collection of better migration statistics. On the other hand there is also a trend towards decreasing response rates in population surveys and short-term international migrants have many of the individual characteristics associated with higher than average rates of refusal to participate in voluntary surveys.

Figure 3.1: Individuals' contribution to a stock estimate of short-term moves
Source: from Smith and Sharfman (2007), Figure 1



3.1.2 Key findings from European collaborative projects on international migration statistics

One useful source of information is the findings from recent and ongoing collaborative work on international migration statistics, involving researchers and experts from National Statistical Institutes. Examples include the THESIM (Towards Harmonised Statistics on International Migration) study (Poulain *et al.*, 2006) and PROMINSTAT (Promoting quantitative comparative research in the field of Migration and Integration in Europe) study (both funded under the Sixth Framework Programme (FP6)) and subsequent work building on such studies (see Raymer and Willekens [2008]) as well as ongoing research.²¹

From this body of evidence it is clear that comparative studies suffer from different national views about what constitutes a ‘migrant’. Furthermore, the event of ‘migration’ (or ‘movement’) is rarely measured directly; rather it is often measured by changes in place of residence at two points in time; (as noted in 3.1.1 short-term moves are especially difficult to capture in this way).

Challenges are compounded at European (and wider international) level by the fact that different countries use different methods of data collection – including a mix of censuses, surveys and administrative data. Table 3.1 shows the primary data sources for analysis of international migration flows in the EU25. In most countries the same data source provides information on flows of immigrants and emigrants, but this is not always the case. Population registers are the primary source for collecting information on flows in most countries, but in some countries (e.g. the UK) there is a reliance on sample surveys.

People from countries outside the EEA require a visa to visit countries within the Schengen area. However, citizens of most developed countries (e.g. North America and Japan) can enter Schengen countries and remain there without a visa for three months. Citizens of non-EEA countries require a work permit in order to work in countries of the EU. Therefore, it is possible that systems recording work permit applications may identify people engaged in short-term international mobility. However, it seems that data is usually not routinely published, or is only produced in the national language, as is the case in Poland.²²

²¹ For example:

MIMOSA: Modelling of statistical data on migration and migrant populations which aims to develop appropriate methodologies to reconcile differences in international migration statistics in European countries and to provide consultancy to Eurostat and EU Member States on ways to produce more reliable migration figures, to make all available figures more compatible (within each country) and more comparable (at EU level) and to estimate missing data using all available data and expert opinions. Key data sources being used are Eurostat’s migration database NewCronos and complementary sources from National Statistical Institutes and international organisations.

PROMINSTAT: Promoting quantitative comparative research in the field of migration and integration in Europe which is responding to the need for more reliable, more systematic and more harmonised statistical data on migration, integration and discrimination in Europe. It aims to provide a comprehensive inventory of statistical data collection in 27 European countries, covering both administrative and statistical datasets.

²² In Poland data on “export services” (secondments) is produced with breakdowns by citizenship, industry, occupation and permit duration. However, these tables are only available in Polish, they are not published and the format of the data changes from year to year.

Table 3.1: Primary sources of data on international migration flows in 25 EU countries^{a,b}

		Population register (central or local)		Register of foreigners or residence permit register	Sample survey		Statistical form or another type of source	
		NAT	FOR	FOR	NAT	FOR	NAT	FOR
Belgium	I	x	x					
	E	x	x					
Czech Republic	I	x		x				
	E	x		X				
Denmark	I	x	x					
	E	x	x					
Germany	I	x	x					
	E	x	x					
Estonia	I	[x]	[x]					
	E	[x]	[x]					
Greece	I			[x]				
	E							
Spain	I	x	x					
	E	x	x					
France	I			x				[x]
	E							
Ireland	I				x	x		
	E				x	x		
Italy	I	x	x					
	E	x	x					
Cyprus	I				x	x		
	E				x	x		
Latvia	I	x	x					
	E	x	x					
Lithuania	I	x	x					
	E	x	x					
Luxembourg	I	x	x					
	E	x	x					
Hungary	I	x		x				
	E	x		x				
Malta	I							
	E							
Netherlands	I	x	x					
	E	x	x					
Austria	I	x	x					
	E	x	x					
Poland ^c	I						x	x
	E						x	x

continued

Table 3.1: Primary sources of data on international migration flows in 25 EU countries^{a,b} (continued)

		Population register (central or local)		Register of foreigners or residence permit register	Sample survey		Statistical form or another type of source	
		NAT	FOR	FOR	NAT	FOR	NAT	FOR
Portugal	I			x	[x]			
	E				x	X		
Slovenia	I	x		x				
	E	x		x				
Slovakia	I			x			x	x
	E			x			x	x
Finland	I	x	x					
	E	x	x					
Sweden	I	x	x					
	E	x	x					
UK	I				x	x	x	x
	E				x	x	x	x

^a I – immigration; E – emigration; NAT – nationals; FOR – foreigners.

^b □ Information referring to data not disseminated, but potentially available in future.

^c Since 2006, Poland has prepared statistics on flows based on the data taken from the population register.

Source: Table 3.3 in Kupiszewska and Nowak (2008), based on Nowok and Kupiszewska (2005).

There is considerable diversity across countries in the information which is recorded which might potentially identify people engaged in short-term international mobility. In *Greece*, short-term employment cannot be identified because the Greek state tends to award short-term permits to long-term migrants. In *Denmark*, it is possible to identify people who enter the country on a legal basis for more than 3 months. It is possible to identify their length of stay, but it is not possible to identify the reason for migration. *Sweden* publishes data on the number of short-term (a few months) residence permits granted to ‘providers and recipients of services’²³ and data on residence permits awarded for purposes of employment identifies the country of origin (including origins within the EU). However, a specialist employed by an international company and travelling to and from Sweden in that capacity in order to work for temporary periods does not require a work permit, as long as the total duration of stay in Sweden is less than 12 months. Statistics *Norway* annually publish statistics on migrant labour participation, for those settling for a period longer than six months (who are not registered as residents in the population register) and one for migrants with short term permissions valid for less than six months.²⁴

In *Belgium*, there are two data bases that can be used to study short-term migration (less than 3 months): the visa database of the Federal Public Service of Foreign Affairs (all persons residing in the country more than one week should visit the municipal administration and complete a ‘declaration of arrival’) and the LIMOSA database on ‘mandatory declaration of foreign employees and self-employed’. All non-Belgians working in the country for more

²³ See <http://www.migrationsverket.se/pdf/verket/statistik/tabe8.pdf>. The number increased from 201 in 1994 to 686 in 2006.

²⁴ See http://www.ssb.no/english/subjects/06/01/kortsys_en/. Short-term international migrants mostly work in construction (23.6 per cent), provision of personnel (18.9 per cent) and manufacturing industry (14.9 per cent). Their numbers increased from 31976 in quarter 4 2004 (1.4 per cent of all in employment) to 64297 in quarter 4 2007 (2.6 per cent of all in employment).

than 5 days a month must register on this database. However, it seems that no statistics from this system are yet available.

In *Germany*, the Federal Employment Agency (BA) holds statistics on foreigners who immigrate temporarily in order to work in Germany within the legal scope of the Decree on Exceptions of the Recruitment Ban (ASAV) or the Decree on the Permission of Recently Immigrated for the Purpose of Employment (Beschäftigungsverordnung; BeschV). Many are also included in the Central Register of Aliens (Ausländerzentralregister, AZR).²⁵ The Federal Employment Agency also holds statistics on short-term (seasonal) foreign workers (Saisonarbeitnehmer; Sec. 18 BeschV), who do not (or only in exceptional cases) occur in the AZR. However, the BA only registers the number of placements, which does not allow the number of persons involved to be estimated. BA and AZR statistics are not compatible. (See section 3.3.2 for a more detailed discussion of statistical sources in Germany pertinent to measuring short-term international mobility.)

Just as there are variations in types of data sources, likewise there are variations in duration of stay criteria used in international migration definitions across EU countries (see Table 3.2) (Kupiszewska and Nowak (2008)). In some countries (e.g. Germany) no duration definition is applied. Other countries have a specific duration of stay definition (such as three months or six months). Generally, this relates to intended rather than actual duration of stay. In some instances the durations relate to registration (or deregistration) obligations, or the duration of validity of residence permits. In some instances (e.g. Poland and Slovakia) only 'permanent' changes of residence are recorded. In some countries permit expiration is used as a criterion for emigration of foreigners.

Overall, the key issue emerging is the variation in practice between countries about measurement of duration of stay (and hence of short-term moves).

²⁵ See Federal Office for Migration and Refugees (Bundesamt für Migration und Flüchtlinge, BAMF) http://www.bamf.de/nr_566312/DE/Migration/AZR/azr-node.html. Federal Employment Agency (BA) <http://fdz.iab.de/en.aspx>.

Table 3.2: Duration of stay criteria in the international migration definitions in 25 EU countries

		None		Three months		Six months		Other below one year		One year		Permanent		Permit expiry
		NAT	FOR	NAT	FOR	NAT	FOR	NAT	FOR	NAT	FOR	NAT	FOR	FOR
Belgium	I			x	x									
	E			x	x									p
Czech Republic	I				x ^{EEA}					x ^{nEEA}		x		
	E											x	x	p
Denmark	I	x			x ^{nEEA}				x ^{EEA}					
	E ^f					x		X						
Germany	I	x	x											
	E	x	x											
Estonia	I	[x]			x									
	E	[x]	[x]											
Greece	I													
	E												[p]	
Spain	I	x	x											
	E	x	x											
France	I													
	E												p ^g	
Ireland	I	x	x											
	E	x	x											
Italy	I	x	x ^{EEA}						x ^{nEEA}					
	E									x	x			
Cyprus	I									x	x			
	E									x	x			
Latvia	I	x	x									x		
	E					x	X							p
Lithuania	I					x	X				x			
	E					x	X							p

Table 3.2: Duration of stay criteria in the international migration definitions in 25 EU countries (continued)

		None		Three months		Six months		Other below one year		One year		Permanent		Permit expiry
		NAT	FOR	NAT	FOR	NAT	FOR	NAT	FOR	NAT	FOR	NAT	FOR	FOR
Luxembourg	I	x	x											
	E	x	x											
Hungary	I			x	x ^{EEA}					x ^{nEEA}				
	E			x								x		p
Malta	I											x	x	
	E											x		
Netherlands	I							x ^h	x ^h					
	E							x ⁱ	x ⁱ					
Austria	I			x	x					[x]	[x]			
	E			x	x					[x]	[x]			
Poland	I											x	x	
	E											x	x	
Portugal	I										p			
	E								x	x				
Slovenia	I			x ^j	x							x		
	E			x ^j									x	p
Slovakia	I				p							x	x	
	E											x	x	p
Finland	I	x									x			
	E ^f									x	x			
Sweden	I									x	x			
	E ^f									x	x			
UK	I									x	x			
	E									x	x			

^a I – immigration; E – emigration; NAT – nationals; FOR – foreigners.

^b – [] Information referring to data that might be available in future.

^c p Migration data based on issued or expired residence permits.

^d EEA refers to EEA citizens.

^e nEEA refers to non-EEA citizens.

^f Registration of emigration to the Nordic countries follows the rules applied for registration of

immigration in the receiving country.

^g Only foreigners with right of long-term settlement are included.

^h Four out of six months.

^j Eight out of 12 months.

^j Refers to nationals holding permanent residence status.

Source: Table 3.4 from Kupiszewska D. and Nowak B. (2008), 60-61.

3.2 Standardised data for EU countries

3.2.1 OECD work on international migration

The OECD has undertaken a considerable amount of background work on developing estimates of international migration. The results of this research are published in the *International Migration Outlook*, drawing together the work of the national SOPEMI experts (OECD, 2008). The **value of the OECD work lies in drawing together migration statistics across OECD countries and attempting to standardise them**. OECD statistics focus on international comparability and adjustments made may mean there are variations from national statistical sources.

The conclusions and working practices of the OECD international migration experts are of relevance to this study. They conclude that: “it is currently difficult, if not impossible, to harmonise statistics of international migration flows according to the UN Recommendations on International Migration Statistics using standard national sources” (Fron *et al.*, 2008). Moreover, these sources do not generally include information on the nature (i.e. motivation) of migration flows – i.e. whether for work, family, humanitarian or other reasons. Furthermore, many of the standard national sources tend to group together some short-term movements with long-term flows. Hence, currently, in their work the OECD makes a distinction between ‘permanent’ and ‘temporary’ on the basis of the permit granted by the destination state. On this basis a distinction is made between ‘temporary’ and ‘permanent’ as follows:

- ‘*temporary migrant*’ is someone whose permit is not renewable, or is renewable only on a limited basis;
- ‘*permanent migrant*’ is one whose permit is (more or less) indefinitely renewable; (although persons under a free-movement regime who enter for reasons similar to those with a limited renewal permit²⁶ are excluded);

In contrast, the UN definition reserves the term ‘international migrant’ for someone who changes his or her usual residence for at least one year.

For ‘*free movement*’ (i.e. for EU nationals moving between EU Member States) the notion of ‘permanent’ as applied by the OECD is not entirely appropriate because there is not always a ‘permit’ associated with movement, although many (but not all) countries retain a nominal permit for the purposes of monitoring. The capturing of ‘free movements’ poses particular challenges for international migration/mobility statistics:

“One is hostage to national procedures regarding monitoring of movements for this group. Nordic countries still generally identify this kind of movement in their administrative statistics. For France, however, there are no administrative sources whatsoever for EU15 citizens. The population registers are not generally much help, because even if they capture short-term movements, they have no information on the nature of the movement.”²⁷

The granting of free movement tends to be associated with relaxed migration control, so that distinctions between short- and long-term inflows or by migration category are no longer always made. In some cases, permits are still granted, but they are nominal, while in others, they are foregone completely. As a result, inflows from countries involved in a free-movement regime have often had to be estimated or obtained from surveys. In the 2008 *International Migration Outlook* ‘free-movement’²⁸ (including all persons from Accession

²⁶ Persons in this category include tourists, business visitors, seasonal workers, international students, exchange academics and researchers, trainees, service providers, etc.

²⁷ Lemaitre G. (2008) personal communication, OECD.

²⁸ Inflows of free movements consist of the sum of workers and family.

countries – even though transitional arrangements exist in some EU countries) was placed in a separate category from regulated movements for the first time (see Figure 3.2 for exemplar statistics for Germany and the UK). Excluded from the “free movement” category are international students, persons on exchange programmes, au pairs, short-term workers, etc – i.e. persons whose stay in the host country is intended to be temporary (Fron *et al.*, 2008). Inflows of free movements consist of the sum of workers and family.

OECD statistics on ‘temporary’ migration cover only temporary labour migration (i.e. they exclude moves for other purposes). Movements between EU countries are included for those countries where it is possible to do so. Enlargement countries are included almost everywhere, because most countries have a monitoring system for such moves.²⁹ For EU15 citizens the data are described as “spotty”.³⁰

Hence, it is likely that some individuals on short-term international moves will be included in the ‘temporary’ migration statistics produced by OECD, while others may be included in the ‘free-movement’ category.

²⁹ An example is the Workers Registration Scheme (WRS) for A8 nationals coming to the UK.

³⁰ Lemaitre G. (2008) personal communication, OECD.

Figure 3.2: Exemplar flow data on foreigners from SOPEMI 2008 *International Migration Outlook Report*

Flow data on foreigners: GERMANY

Migration flows (foreigners)				Average		Level ('000)
National definition				1995-2000	2001-2006	2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants						
Inflows	9.7	7.9	7.0	8.2	7.5	558.5
Outflows	6.9	6.8	5.9	7.1	6.1	483.8
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type						
Thousands		% distribution				
Permit based statistics (standardised)						
	2005	2006	2005	2006		
Work	13.0	13.2	5.4	6.1		
Family (incl. accompanying family)	53.2	50.3	22.0	23.3		
Humanitarian	9.5	6.1	4.0	2.8		
Free movements	130.1	138.7	53.9	64.2		
Others	35.5	7.7	14.7	3.6		
Total	241.4	216				
Temporary migration				Annual average		
				2000-2006		
Thousand						
International students	45.7	55.8	53.6	55.0		
Trainees	3.6		
Working holiday makers		
Seasonal workers	255.5	320.4	294.5	297.1		
Intra-company transfers	1.3		
Other temporary workers	99.8		
Inflows of asylum seekers				Average		Level ('000)
1995				1995-2000	2001-2006	2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants				1.3	0.6	21.0

Flow data on foreigners: UK

Migration flows (foreigners)				Average		Level ('000)
National definition				1995-2000	2001-2006	2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants						
Inflows	3.9	6.4	7.9	4.8	7.5	509.8
Outflows	1.7	2.7	2.9	2.2	2.8	193.7
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type						
Thousands		% distribution				
Permit based statistics (standardised)						
	2005	2006	2005	2006		
Work	89.8	99.3	24.7	28.9		
Family (incl. accompanying family)	98.1	109.2	27.0	31.8		
Humanitarian	67.8	30.6	18.7	8.9		
Free movements	88.2	83.5	24.3	24.3		
Others	19.2	20.7	5.3	6.0		
Total	363.1	343.2				
Temporary migration				Annual average		
				2000-2006		
Thousands						
International students	76.0	117.0	137.0	106.4		
Trainees		
Working holiday makers	38.4	56.6	43.7	46.4		
Seasonal workers	10.1	15.7	16.1	16.0		
Intra-company transfers		
Other temporary workers	58.0	202.6	206.1	114.9		
Inflows of asylum seekers				Average		Level ('000)
1995				1995-2000	2001-2006	2006
Per 1 000 inhabitants				1.1	1.0	28.3

Source: taken from OECD (2008) *International Migration Outlook*.

3.2.2 The EU Labour Force Survey

The EU Labour Force Survey (EULFS) is a household survey that does not specifically target migrants, but which collects labour market (and other) information on the resident population; (although see reference to an ad hoc module below). In contrast to the migration statistics compiled by national statistical institutes which vary by country, in accordance with the systems in place (i.e. censuses / surveys / registers) for counting the population, the EULFS is a harmonised data source across EU countries. The EULFS is conducted in all countries of the EU (and some in the EEA), and provides access to a long time-series of labour market data in the EU15 countries. There is a core of common questions across the EU, but individual national surveys can collect more detailed information.

The most useful variables to date from the EULFS for identifying short-term international migrants are detailed in Table 3.3 (extracted from the EULFS database user guide).

Table 3.3: Key variables for identifying short-term international migrants from EULFS data

Description	Variable name
Demographic background	
<i>Sex</i>	SEX
<i>Year of birth</i>	YEARBIR
<i>Marital status</i>	MARSTAT
<i>Nationality</i>	NATIONAL
<i>Years of residence in this Member State</i>	YEARESID
<i>Country of birth</i>	COUNTRYB
Labour status	
<i>Labour status during the reference week</i>	WSTATOR
Employment characteristics of the main job	
<i>Professional status</i>	STAPRO
<i>Economic activity of the local unit</i>	NACE3D
<i>Occupation</i>	ISCO4D
<i>Country of place of work</i>	COUNTRYW
<i>Region of place of work</i>	REGIONW
<i>Year in which person started working for this employer or as self-employed</i>	YSTARTWK
<i>Month in which person started working for this employer or as self-employed</i>	MSTARTWK
<i>Involvement of public employment office in finding the present job</i>	WAYJFOUN
Main labour status	
<i>Main status</i>	MAINSTAT
Situation one year before survey	
<i>Situation with regard to activity one year before survey</i>	WSTAT1Y
<i>Professional status one year before survey</i>	STAPRO1Y
<i>Economic activity of local unit in which person was working one year before</i>	NACE1Y1D
<i>Country of residence one year before survey</i>	COUNTR1Y
<i>Region of residence (within Member State) one year before survey</i>	REGION1Y
Derived variables	
<i>Age of interviewed person</i>	AGE
<i>ILO work status</i>	ILOSTAT
<i>Economic activity (coded 1 digit)</i>	NACE1D
<i>Economic activity by sector</i>	NACES
<i>Occupation (coded 1 digit)</i>	ISCO1D
<i>Time since person started to work</i>	STARTIME
<i>Education or training received during previous four weeks (formal + non</i>	EDUC4WN
<i>Level of education (3 levels)</i>	HATLEV1D
<i>Economic activity one year before survey (coded 1 digit)</i>	NACE1Y1D
<i>Economic activity one year before survey by sector</i>	NACE1YS

However, Table 3.4 presents national variations in the way in which the length of time in a country is defined in each country's LFS. The approach is not consistent, with some countries recording the date when a person entered the country, and others only doing this when they meet the international definition of an international migrant – a change of address lasting 12 months or more. In some cases, there is no information on the procedure followed.

Table 3.4: Definition of years of residence in national LFS surveys

Country	Definition used for years of residence
Belgium	We suppose that our interviewers take into account the date of the last entrance in Belgium but no instruction is given.
Czech Republic	It means the total length of all stays on the territory
Denmark	In the Danish LFS the variable on years of residence in the country (col. 19/20) is derived by using register-based data from the Population Register. The starting point is the time of registration at the national registration office after last immigration. Thus, in the Danish case the variable reflects how many years the person has been a registered resident in Denmark in the last continuous period. Temporary exits from Denmark do not affect the continuity as the person is still a registered resident in Denmark.
Germany	
Estonia	The date of last entrance in the country.
Greece	
Spain	Date of the last entrance in the country. It must be said that if the person are in the country less than one year, they are asked about their intentions of remaining in the country for at least one year. When the response is affirmative, they are included in the sample. Otherwise, if the total duration of residence (real plus intended) in the country is less than one year, they are out of the scope of the Spanish LFS.
France	Date of first arrival
Ireland	In what year did you take up residence in Ireland?
Italy	Date of the first entrance in the country, excluding possible periods of interruption of residence in the country.
Cyprus	The date of last entrance in the country
Latvia	Date of last entrance in the country
Lithuania	Date of last entrance in the country
Luxembourg	
Hungary	Definition of the starting point is missing from the manual, but we would like to definite as the beginning of the permanent life in the country.
Malta	First entrance into the country
Netherlands	The date of the last entrance.
Austria	We are asking for the starting point of a continuous stay in Austria. However short interruptions should not be taken into account. This is part of the instructions for the interviewers.
Poland	The starting point isn't determined.
Portugal	The starting point is the date of last entrance in the country
Slovenia	From the context of the question can be understood that the last entrance shall be taken into account
Slovakia	The date of registration of their stay in the Slovak Republic
Finland	
Sweden	Date of last entrance in the country. However, there are plans to calculate the total duration of stay by combining information from Population Register (individual stock registers and registers of immigration and emigration).
UK	Date of first arrival
Bulgaria	Don't ask the question
Romania	Date of the first entrance in the country.

Source: http://circa.europa.eu/irc/dsis/employment/info/data/eu_lfs/LFSuserguide_htmlversion/01_Demographic_background/Info_users_YearsResidence.doc

Other shortcomings (for further details see European Commission [2008]) in relation to measuring short-term international mobility include the following:

- In many Member States there is a delay in entering the sample frame and very recent migrants may not be well covered (i.e. those on the shortest short-term international moves may not be included within the scope of the survey).
- The LFS may only cover migrants who have stayed, or intend to stay, for one year or more – hence those migrants who do not stay very long in the country will not be covered (e.g. seasonal workers, those engaged in short-term mobility).
- Collective households (e.g. hostels or communal dwellings provided by employers) are generally not covered. While the proportion of migrants in collective households may not be large, newly arrived migrants are disproportionately more likely to live in collective households.
- Non-response for migrants is considerably higher than for nationals, mainly due to their higher mobility, problems of language and (for some individuals) their illegal status.
- Data on migrants may lack statistical reliability due to small sample sizes.

Hence, issues relating to the coverage of very recent migrants and collective households, relative high levels of non-response in such groups and small sample sizes pose problems in using the EULFS as a source for estimating short-term international mobility, despite the fact that the EULFS is a key source for measuring labour market characteristics across Europe and is a key data source used in anticipation of work being undertaken under the New Skills for New Jobs agenda.

However, of particular relevance for the study of short-term mobility, Commission Regulation (EC) No 102/2007³¹ provided for the addition of an '**ad hoc module**' to the Labour Force Surveys conducted in each country of the EU to provide information on '**the labour market situation of migrants and their immediate descendants**'. The aim was to provide the data necessary to 'monitor progress towards the common objectives of the European Employment Strategy and of the Social Inclusion Process'. The regulation required that the ad hoc module be collected during 2008 and specified a list of questions to be asked. These are:

- Year of acquisition of citizenship
- Country of birth of father
- Country of birth of mother
- Total number of years residence in the host country
- Main reason the person had for migrating (last [i.e. most recent] migration)
- Whether the duration of the current residence permit/visa/certificate is limited (optional for France)
- Whether current access to the labour market is restricted
- Use of facilities for establishing what highest qualification equates to in the host country system
- Need to improve host country language skills to get an appropriate job
- Main help received/needed in the host country in finding current job or setting up own business
- Use of services for labour market integration in the two years following the last arrival

In the UK, for example, the ad hoc module was collected as part of the Spring quarter of the LFS. Data for the ad hoc module will be available as part of the EULFS for 2008. In the UK the first data from analysis of the module was published as part of the co-ordinated release of migration statistics by the Office for National Statistics in late February 2009 (ONS, 2009a). Although in the published analyses 'reason for move' was not disaggregated by length of stay, the data reveal that 45% of those born in the EU14 (i.e. in the EU15 outside

³¹ http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/site/en/oj/2007/l_028/l_02820070203en00030007.pdf

the UK) came to the UK for employment reasons, while amongst those born in A8 countries this proportion rose to 68%, compared with 31% for all born outside the UK. The data provide useful insights into the help received by all individuals (regardless of their length of stay) in finding their current jobs,³² with the least popular methods being migrant or ethnic organisations and the public employment office, with the latter accounting for 3% of those born in EU14 countries and 5% of those born in A8 countries. Most people looked for a job without using any assistance: the proportions in this category were 58% of those born in EU14 countries and 35% of those born in A8 countries. 19% of those born in EU14 countries reported that relatives/friends accounted for the main source of help received, while 11% cited private employment offices as the main source of help. For those born in A8 countries the respective proportions were 29% and 19%. While the main sources of help for those engaged in short-term mobility might be expected to differ from those of all individuals born outside the UK, the published analyses reveal the limited importance of the public employment office as a source of help relative to relatives/friends and private employment offices.

These variables provide a considerable improvement in the information available on labour migration and the situation of migrants. It is possible to identify migrants who are inter-corporate transfers (which might include 'posted workers') and those who migrated for a job which they applied for from outside the country. The module also identifies time limitation on the residence permit/visa/certificate. However, it still leaves the LFS with major deficiencies for the purposes of the study of short-term mobility, viz:

- The actual date of arrival in the host country is not requested
- Information on expected duration of employment (e.g. length of employment contract or secondment) or study in the current migration spell is not requested
- Information on how long a respondent plans to stay in the host country (other than the residence permit/visa/certificate) is not collected.

Without this information, it is not possible to identify people migrating to a country for less than a year for economic reasons. Moreover, there is also a generic problem in that it is difficult for surveys to cover recent movers.

3.2.3 The European Social Survey

The European Social Survey (ESS) is a biennial survey covering over 30 nations designed to chart and explain the interaction between Europe's changing institutions and the attitudes, beliefs and behaviour patterns of the population. The first round of surveys was undertaken in 2002/2003, the second in 2004/2005, the third in 2006/2007 and the fourth in 2008/9.

The questionnaire includes a 'core' module which will remain relatively constant from round to round, plus two or more 'rotating' modules, repeated at intervals. The core module aims to monitor change and continuity in a wide range of social variables, including media use, social and public trust; political interest and participation; socio-political orientations, governance and efficacy; moral, political and social values; social exclusion, national, ethnic and religious allegiances; well-being, health and security; demographics and socio-economics. From the second round, the ESS has collected information on country of birth, citizenship, migration and participation in the labour market.

The survey contains a question on how long a person has lived in their country of residence. This includes the category 'less than one year'. It is thus possible to identify the characteristics of people who have lived in the country for less than a year vis-à-vis those with longer durations of stay (as shown in Table 3.5), while Table 3.6 provides information on migrants and those coming to the country within the last year.

³² Note that the 'current job' may not be the first job on coming to the UK.

Table 3.5: ESS data for the whole EU – people aged 16 to 64 in employment and length of time since migrants first came to the country

<i>Length of time</i>	<i>Aged 16-24</i>	<i>Aged 25-34</i>	<i>Aged 35-49</i>	<i>Aged 50-64</i>	<i>Aged 16-64</i>
Within last year	25	48	30	11	114
1-5 years ago	102	389	283	58	832
6-10 years ago	64	256	291	61	672
11-20 years ago	137	249	468	157	1011
More than 20 years ago	28	298	773	899	1998
All migrants	356	1240	1844	1187	4628
All people aged 16-64	6740	13632	25089	20623	66085
Migrants as a % of 16-64 year old age group	5.3	9.1	7.4	5.8	7.0
People living in country for under 1 year as % of age group	0.4	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.2

Source: European Social Survey 2006/7. Count of weighted responses to the survey.

Table 3.6: ESS data for countries within the EU – people aged 16 to 64 in employment, migrants and those coming to the country within the last year

<i>Country</i>	<i>Aged 16-64 in employment</i>	<i>Migrants in employment</i>	<i>Migrants as a % of 16-64 year olds</i>	<i>Migrants in employment arrived within last year</i>	<i>Migrants within last year as % of migrants</i>	<i>Recent migrants as a % of 16-64 year olds</i>
Austria	1515	108	7.1	1	1.3	0.1
Belgium	1791	158	8.8	1	0.9	0.1
Czech Republic	1139	32	2.8		0.0	0.0
Denmark	1029	57	5.6	1	1.0	0.1
Estonia	152	26	17.0		0.0	0.0
Finland	975	29	3.0	0	1.4	0.0
France	3735	356	9.5	8	2.1	0.2
Germany	14979	1205	8.0	12	1.0	0.1
Greece	1020	140	13.7	3	2.1	0.3
Hungary	1146	20	1.7	1	4.8	0.1
Ireland	686	68	9.9	6	8.3	0.8
Italy	6181	174	2.8	12	7.0	0.2
Luxembourg	49	17	34.5		0.0	0.0
Netherlands	3016	260	8.6	1	0.3	0.0
Poland	6826	56	0.8		0.0	0.0
Portugal	1598	124	7.8	2	1.9	0.1
Slovakia	640	18	2.8		0.0	0.0
Slovenia	344	30	8.6	0	0.4	0.0
Spain	7102	569	8.0	14	2.5	0.2
Sweden	1687	182	10.8	1	0.4	0.0
United Kingdom	10556	999	9.5	51	5.1	0.5
EU 27	66166	4629	7.0	114	2.5	0.2

Source: European Social Survey 2006/7. Count of weighted responses to the survey.

While 7 per cent of people in work aged 16 to 64 were migrants, giving a total sample size for the EU of 4629, only 114 had lived in the country in which they were surveyed for less than a year.

The *advantages* of the ESS are that:

- It covers the whole EU, plus Switzerland, Norway and the Ukraine
- It has considerable detail on labour market activity of the individual, their partners and parents (including industry and occupation, and entrepreneurial activity) in addition to data on political attitudes and community engagement.

The *drawbacks* of this data set are:

- The sample size is too small to permit detailed tables to be generated for individual countries;
- Survey data are only collected every two years;
- The lack of information on future plans of individuals means that it is not possible to unambiguously identify short-term migrants.

3.2.4 Eurobarometer survey on geographical and labour market mobility

Eurobarometer 64.1 (conducted during September/October 2005) provides a valuable source of pan-European data on international migration in Europe, as it contained a module detailing lifetime migration and job-related migration, which could be linked to their demography (and the other modules on health and risk-related topics) (see Vandenbrande *et al.*, 2006). This module investigated attitudes toward labour and residential mobility, including their attitudes about what was most important for their quality of life, their main reasons for moving, what improved and what got worse after the last time they moved to another region or EU country, whether they intended to move to another member state in the near future, their reasons for changing their place of residence, and the most important difficulties they would have to face. There were also questions on current and previous job, occupation, reason for changing jobs, as well as their satisfaction with their current job and professional life. Respondents were asked additional questions about whether they took any training courses to improve their professional skills in the last 12 months, and the main reason why they did or did not. The survey covered 24.6 thousand people, all of whom were EU citizens, with a sample size of around 1000 in most countries and 500 in the smaller countries such as Luxemburg and Malta.

Overall, 4 per cent of respondents had their first job outside the country in which they lived at the time of the survey, 2.1 per cent having first worked in a non-EU country. On the other hand, nearly half of all respondents (47.1 per cent) had their first job in the same village/town/city in which they lived at the time of the survey. The survey asked the year in which people had started work with their current employer. While 10.1 per cent had started during the year of the survey (2005), nearly two-fifths (39.7 per cent) had started in 1995 or earlier. Thus, the survey reveals that while migrants form a substantial percentage of the working population, there is limited geographical mobility amongst the majority of the workforce. However, at the international scale, 5.7 per cent of people had moved to another EU country since leaving the parental home.

The strength of Eurobarometer 64.1 is the amount of information it provides on motivations for migration, but it is not specifically concerned with measuring short-term migration. Indeed, while chapter 3 of 'Employment in Europe 2008' (European Commission, 2008) drew extensively on data from the survey, the definition of 'recently mobile citizens' used was people who had moved within the previous four years. Unless repeated on a regular basis, a disadvantage of bespoke modules (such as that on geographical and labour market mobility) is that they provide only one snapshot and hence do not provide information on trends over time.

3.3 Country-specific data

Given resources available for this study it was not possible to provide a detailed inventory and meta analysis of all sources of statistics for each of the 27 EU Member States and the three EEA states. Instead, more detailed reviews of data sources from a subset of countries are explored here. The countries selected are the **UK** and **Germany** as major host countries for a range of different types of short-term assignees, and **Poland** as a ‘high mobility’ new Member State sender country. The UK has been chosen because it is likely to attract people from across Europe (and the rest of the world) because of a relatively flexible labour market and the chance to improve English language skills. Moreover, the UK was the only large EU economy to allow unrestricted access to workers from new Member States in 2004. Germany has been selected for its geographical proximity to Poland and because of its large economy. The UK and Germany are also interesting examples for this exercise from the perspective of data availability considerations, with the latter having a population register (as outlined below), while the former does not. Some information is also presented for **Spain** – as a southern European country, and for **Finland** – as a Nordic country.

3.3.1 UK

The historical context

The UK has a history of significant migration flows – both inward and outward. The level of immigration that the UK has experienced in recent years has been unlike any witnessed in the last 100 years. Over the period from 1997 to 2006 there was an inward flow of 4.89 million individuals and an outward flow of 3.27 million individuals, resulting in a net in-flow of 1.62 million individuals to the UK. Free movement within the EU, and notably the opening of the UK labour market to migrants from Central and Eastern Europe in 2004, has been one important factor contributing to this increase, as has the more general globalisation of labour markets and mass international travel. However, from policy concerns about the impacts of inflows from Central and Eastern Europe in the period from 2004 to 2007, during 2008 increasing policy emphasis shifted to outflows of these migrants and consequent impacts on the economy and labour market.

Historically, various schemes have been set up to manage migration to the UK to meet specific economic and sectoral requirements. These include the Work Permit scheme (for non EEA migrants filling specific vacancies in the UK) and other schemes focusing on specific sectors at the lower end of the labour market where posts were difficult to fill using local labour. From 2008 onwards existing schemes are being replaced with a points-based system (PBS) to manage migration into the UK from outside the EEA countries.

Data sources: introduction and overview

Currently, there is no single data source that provides comprehensive information on geographical mobility at national or sub-national levels. Inadequacies in data sources have been recognised by Government as a fundamental issue that needs to be addressed (House of Commons Treasury Committee, 2008) and the Office for National Statistics is working towards improvements in the timeliness and robustness of migration and population statistics through the ‘Improving migration and population statistics’ (IMPS) programme. Of particular relevance here is the strand of the IMPS programme concerned with deriving short-term international migration estimates (down to local level). The UK does not have a population registration system and currently, there is a reliance on official data from censuses and surveys and from government administrative sources to measure geographical mobility. These sources have been supplemented with information from local

surveys and records on local service usage in order to build up a picture of the population (especially at local levels) and to inform service development.

Key data sources for measuring geographical mobility: survey and census sources

- The **International Passenger Survey (IPS)** - is the only source which measures flows of people entering and leaving the UK. It is a large, multi-purpose random sample survey (via voluntary, face to face interviews lasting 3-5 minutes) of passengers arriving at, and departing from the main UK airports, sea ports and the Channel Tunnel. The interview contains questions about passengers' country of residence (for overseas residents) or country of visit (for UK residents), the reason for their visit, etc. Migration estimates are based on respondents' initial intentions, which may or may not accord with their final actions. Interviewing is carried out throughout the year, with over a quarter of a million face-to-face interviews are conducted annually. This represents about 1 in every 500 passengers. From 2009 a new survey design is being introduced, with a larger, main migration sample. The IPS is the key source of information in official estimates of international migration.
- The ONS makes estimates of **Total International Migration (TIM)**. This series provides the most accurate estimates of long-term immigration and emigration (according to UN definitions) at a national level. The IPS information on the 'intended' length of stay of migrants is adjusted to take account of 'visitor switchers' (i.e. those who initially intended to stay for less than one year but who subsequently stay longer), and also 'migrant switchers' (i.e. those who intended to stay for more than 12 months but left within a year).
- The **Census of Population** – is undertaken decennially and strives to count the entire UK population. To date (i.e. up to 2001) questions have been asked about country of birth and address one year before the Census. Proposals have been made for modified questions on country of birth and usual residence for the next Census in 2011, and collection of information on year of entry to the UK. While collecting information on immigrants, the Census provides no information on emigrants.
- The **LFS** is a key source for examining migrants (especially labour migrants) to (but not from) the UK at national and regional levels and for examining their distribution and characteristics vis-à-vis other workers. For people born outside the UK, the year of entry to the UK is recorded. In the Spring quarter, the LFS asks about location one year and three months previously. Thus, the LFS can identify geographical moves on the basis of change of address, country of origin or nationality, and can also classify migrants according to their length of time resident in the UK. However, its coverage of short-term movers is weaker than that of long-term migrants – partly because of inherent problems in capturing the most geographically mobile elements of the population in surveys, and also because people in temporary accommodation are excluded.

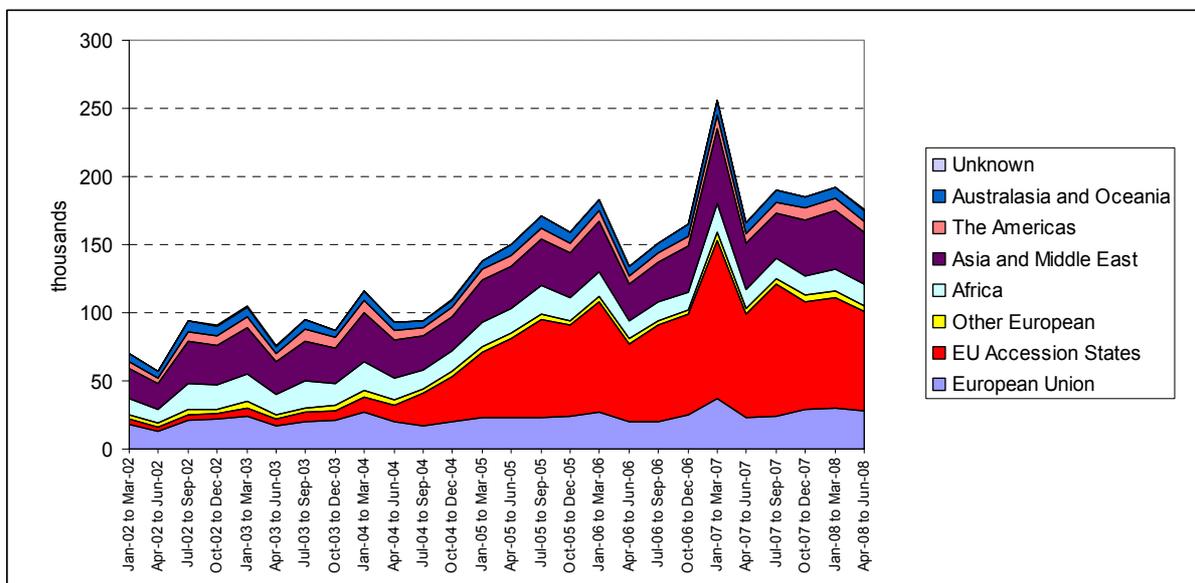
Key data sources for measuring geographical mobility: administrative sources

Administrative sources provide *up-to-date information* (disaggregated to local level) on some in-movers as they register to comply with particular regulations. Most of the administrative data sources only record registration onto a scheme and do not identify when a person leaves the UK (i.e. they provide information on out-flows, but not on in-flows).

- **National Insurance numbers (NINos) allocated to overseas nationals** provide information on all non-UK nationals working legally in the UK. Information is recorded on age, gender and nationality and is disaggregated to local authority level. The number of NINos allocated to overseas nationals in a local authority area should provide a good

indication of the number of persons from abroad arriving to work. Figure 3.3 shows trends in migration to the UK by broad region of the world for the period from 2002 to 2008 and shows how the new EU Member States have been a key source of new labour migrants to the UK. The bottom layer in this Figure shows EU15 nationals, while the layer above depicts NINo allocations to nationals of the Accession countries. It is clear that the latter group has driven the increase in NINo allocations to overseas nationals over the period from 2004. Table 3.7 shows the number of NINOs allocated to people from outside the UK each year from 2002/3 to 2007/8 for the ten most common countries for which NINOs were allocated. EU countries in the 'top ten' include Poland, the Slovak Republic, France and Germany. It is evident from this table that migration ties with countries outside the EU (notably of the 'Old Commonwealth' and 'New Commonwealth') remain strong. The NINo data provide no information on out-migration. The NINo data cover people from all parts of the world – including EU countries. However, no information on out-flows is recorded, so it is not possible to derive estimates of short-term movers from this source.

Figure 3.3: NINo allocations to overseas nationals, quarter 1 2002 to quarter 3 2008, UK



Source: NINo allocations to overseas nationals, DWP.

Table 3.7: Thousands of NINOs allocated to people from outside the UK, 2002/3 to 2007/8, and the ten most common countries for which NINOs are allocated

Nationality	2002/3	2003/4	2004/5	2005/6	2006/7	2007/8	2002/3 to 2007/8
<i>All countries</i>	346.2	373.5	435.4	663.1	705.8	733.1	3257.0
Poland	5.9	11.3	61.1	171.1	220.4	210.7	680.4
India	24.8	31.5	32.5	45.9	48.8	49.8	233.3
Pakistan	16.7	16.8	20.2	22.3	25.0	24.8	125.9
Australia	18.7	17.3	16.5	23.8	24.2	24.1	124.7
South Africa	18.5	18.5	19.2	24.0	16.8	12.8	109.8
Slovak Republic	1.0	1.4	11.1	27.5	28.6	30.0	99.6
France	13.7	13.1	13.2	17.2	20.0	21.8	99.1
Lithuania	1.8	3.8	15.5	30.9	23.9	19.0	95.1
P.R. China	9.5	13.4	12.6	13.0	13.0	14.8	76.2
Germany	9.5	10.0	10.4	13.4	15.1	15.5	73.9

Source: Department for Work and Pensions

- The **Worker Registration Scheme (WRS)** covers citizens of the A8 Central and Eastern European countries which became Member States of the EU in May 2004 who register to work as employees in the UK. Self-employed workers are not required to register and an unknown number of migrant workers do not register. The WRS provides data on nationality (note coverage is for A8 countries only), age (around 80% of A8 migrants are aged 18-34 years), gender, wage rate (the majority earn around the National Minimum Wage or slightly above), sector (administrative and business services,³³ hospitality and catering, agricultural activities and manufacturing display are the sectors where most migrants work), occupation (the majority are concentrated in less skilled occupations), hours worked, whether work is temporary or permanent, planned duration of stay and dependants from the initial application of registered. From July 2007 to June 2008 intended duration of stay for new registrants was as follows:

- less than 3 months – 61%
- 3 to 5 months – 2%
- 6 to 11 months – 3%
- 1 to 2 years – 4%
- more than 2 years – 7%
- do not know – 24%

This indicates that many intend to stay for a short period only. However, information from sub-national surveys of migrant workers in the West Midlands and the South East regions shows that substantial numbers of individuals change their intentions - predominantly, but not exclusively, revising their plans upwards towards longer stays (Green *et al.*, 2007; 2008). WRS data are disaggregated to local authority level and are available on a quarterly basis. Hence, the WRS information provides a broad measure of in-migration of A8 nationals working as employees in the UK. The numbers recorded are likely to represent an under-estimate of total in-flows of A8 migrant workers because the self-employed and those who are working illegally are excluded. There is no requirement to deregister, so the WRS provides no information on outflows or on labour migrant stocks.

- Migrants from outside the EEA are covered by **work permits** and the new **PBS**. Data are available on the number of currently active work permit applications granted, disaggregated *gender, age, sector, occupation, nationality and local authority area*. The **Seasonal Agricultural Workers Scheme (SAWS)** has historically allowed workers from outside the EEA to enter the UK for up to six months to undertake seasonal agricultural

³³ This is a 'catch all' category which includes migrants engaged by agencies (who may be working in a variety of sectors).

work for farmers and growers. From January 2008 the scheme was reserved exclusively for citizens of Bulgaria and Romania.

- Various data on **registration for the use of local services** has been used to derive insights into geographical mobility. However, the coverage of these sources is partial and estimates of the number of international movers by these sources will vary in accordance with the remit of the service provided and the propensity of migrants to make use of that service. Sources include migrants registering for a General Practitioner for medical services (note that registration is required in order to make use of a service), electoral register data and schools census data (covering children of international migrants attending state schools).
- At regional and local level **ad hoc surveys of migrants** have been undertaken to gain insights into the numbers of migrants, their intentions, experiences and aspirations. However, the lack of a comprehensive sampling frame poses difficulties and the robustness of such studies is unclear. Nevertheless, such studies can provide useful information and intelligence on emerging trends (see Green *et al.*, 2008b); Pollard *et al.*, 2008).

The development of e-borders

The UK currently lies outside the Schengen arrangements for passport-free travel. The UK Border Agency (UKBA) is in the process of implementing the e-borders (i.e. electronic borders) programme, the aim of which is: “to electronically collect and analyse information from carriers (including airlines, ferries and rail companies) about everyone who intends to travel to or from the UK before they travel”.³⁴ The e-borders system also involves scanning passports on entry and exit to the UK. Linking these records together should enable identification of the numbers of long- and short-term movers. Some uncertainty remains about the type of information on individuals to be collected and made available from the e-borders system, but it is likely to include, at a minimum, details of age, gender and nationality. It will include the point of origin and destination of an international movement from within the UK. The Code of Practice on data sharing from e-borders (Home Office and HM Revenue and Customs, 2006) mentions the provision of information to the security services and use of the data for monitoring travel trends, but nothing is said about use of the system by the Office for National Statistics (ONS) (i.e. the central statistical agency) to generate improved migration statistics – although work is underway on this topic and the ONS is due to publish a paper in spring 2009 on the potential use of e-borders data for improving migration statistics. It is expected that 95% coverage of e-borders will be achieved in December 2010 (ONS, 2009b).

Short-term immigration estimates

The ONS has been developing short-term immigration estimates since 2006 as part of the IMPS programme. Here ‘short-term migration’ is broadly defined as moves made for more than a few weeks but less than 12 months. The first set of experimental estimates of short-term international migration based on the IPS was published in 2007; these estimates were re-released in 2008 following assessment of the methods used and further estimates were made for 2006 (see Table 3.8 and Table 3.9 for flow estimates and Table 3.10 and Table 3.11 for stock estimates). While these provide estimates of the scale of short-term international mobility, no further information on the characteristics of movers is provided.

³⁴ See <http://www.bia.homeoffice.gov.uk/managingborders/technology/eborders/>. Factors prompting the development of e-borders include migration pressures, an increased security threat, a predicted increase in travellers to the UK, the need to facilitate the arrival of low risk passengers and the need for closer integration of border agencies.

Table 3.8: In-flow of overseas residents into England and Wales by length of stay and reason for visit (in thousands)

Reason for Visit	3-12 month length of stay				1-12 month length of stay			
	mid-2004	mid-2005	mid-2006		mid-2004	mid-2005	mid-2006	
	In-flow	In-flow	In-flow	SE (%)	In-flow	In-flow	In-flow	SE (%)
Employment	59	90	108	12	113	175	208	9
Study	78	70	82	12	218	193	222	7
Employment or Study	138	160	190	8	331	368	429	6
Other	157	175	184	9	791	878	1,008	4
All Reasons	295	335	374	6	1,122	1,246	1,437	3

Source: ONS (2008) *Mid-2006 Short-term Migration Estimates for England and Wales*.

Table 3.9: Out-flow of England and Wales residents by length of stay and reason for visit (in thousands)

Reason for Visit	3-12 month length of stay				1-12 month length of stay			
	mid-2004	mid-2005	mid-2006		mid-2004	mid-2005	mid-2006	
	Out-flow	Out-flow	Out-flow	SE (%)	Out-flow	Out-flow	Out-flow	SE (%)
Employment	28	24	39	16	64	46	79	12
Study	11	9	11	28	28	35	28	19
Employment or Study	39	33	50	14	92	81	107	10
Other	370	358	368	5	2,136	2,319	2,412	2
All Reasons	409	391	418	5	2,227	2,399	2,519	2

Source: ONS (2008) *Mid-2006 Short-term Migration Estimates for England and Wales*.

Table 3.10: In-stock of short-term migrants staying 3-12 months in England and Wales by reason for visit (in thousands) with mean length of stay (in months)

Reason for Visit	3-12 month length of stay						
	mid-2004		mid-2005		mid-2006		SE (%)
	In-stock	Mean Length of Stay	In-stock	Mean Length of Stay	In-stock	Mean Length of Stay	
Employment	20	5.1	36	5.3	48	5.5	12
Study	34	6.0	30	5.8	33	5.1	11
Employment or Study	54	5.6	67	5.5	81	5.4	8
Other	62	4.8	67	4.7	69	4.9	7
All Reasons	116	5.2	134	5.1	149	5.1	6

Source: ONS (2008) *Mid-2006 Short-term Migration Estimates for England and Wales*.

Table 3.11: Out-stock estimate of short-term migrants overseas for 3-12 months by reason for visit (in thousands) with mean length of stay (in months)

Reason for Visit	3-12 month length of stay						SE (%)
	mid-2004		mid-2005		mid-2006		
	Out-stock	Mean Length of Stay	Out-stock	Mean Length of Stay	Out-stock	Mean Length of Stay	
Employment	13	5.5	11	6.0	16	5.8	17
Study	5	5.4	3	4.4	5	6.1	33
Employment or Study	19	5.5	14	5.6	20	5.8	15
Other	155	5.2	150	5.3	157	5.2	5
All Reasons	173	5.3	164	5.3	177	5.3	5

Source: ONS (2008) *Mid-2006 Short-term Migration Estimates for England and Wales*.

Conclusions

There is very little data available on out-migration from the UK. The IPS is the only source of information on outflows. The IPS also measures inflows. It is potentially a useful source for the study of short-term international mobility because information is collected on (intended) duration of stay and reason for moving, although ideally the survey size would be increased. A variety of survey, census and administrative sources also provide data on inflows to the UK – disaggregated by age, gender, sector and occupation, but none of these sources provide information on outflows. The ONS has identified a need for short-term migration estimates and has produced some experimental estimates which it is seeking to improve.

3.3.2 Germany

As indicated above, Germany has been selected for further research on data sources and statistical evidence on short-term labour migration as it relies largely on a population based data register to assess the extent of migration. Unlike some other European countries Germany also upheld restrictions in the free movement of workers in the second stage if the transition period. Furthermore, its geographical location also had some bearing as it has common borders with two of the A8 countries, one of which has been noted for the recent scope of its temporary and / or pendular migration to other EU countries, including Germany. The strengths and weaknesses of data bases are discussed first before presenting the limited evidence.

Data sources: strengths and limitations

- The **population-based register** records data of the entire population migrating to and emigrating from Germany. Within a week of such a migration event taking place the local authority needs to be notified (except in the case of members of foreign armed forces, diplomats and their family members) and a registration or deregistration form respectively has to be filled in. It records details on residence (current, former, main/secondary residence³⁵), gender, marital status, date of birth, nationality/nationalities,^{36 37} religion, date of moving into the dwelling, gainful employment (yes/no)

³⁵ Main residence is used for the annual population estimates.

³⁶ If a person has a dual citizenship, he or she will be registered as German (BMI and BAMF, 2007).

³⁷ Place of birth is entered at local level but not included in aggregated databases in line with national regulations. Therefore, statistics only allow for a differentiation between Germans and foreigners.

and ID number (these latter two variables are only registered on first entry) (see Bilger, and Kraler, 2006). The population-based register contains migration events (i.e. moves occurring within a year), thus the number of moves will be greater than the number of migrants. Furthermore, the database does not capture any information on the (actual or intended) duration of stay nor on the purpose of migration. Another key drawback is that authorities are not necessarily notified when foreigners leave Germany. Deregistration may occur *ex officio* if letters sent out by local authorities come back as undelivered, but empirical studies using the population-based register as a sampling frame indicate that non-deregistration is an issue (Glorius, 2007; Diehl, 2007).. It is therefore argued that statistics over-count the number of foreigners residing in Germany. On the other hand there is an unknown number of migrants who do not comply with the required registration when migrating to Germany. Following a new registration law, which came into effect in 2008, data will be held centrally, with local data from the 5,300 local authorities being transferred directly to the Federal Office of Statistics (DESTATIS) (BMI and BAMF, 2007).

- In addition to the population-based register there is a separate register for foreigners, the so-called **Central Alien Register** (AZR). Following the new Immigration Act, which came into force in 2005, the Federal Authority for Migration and Refugees (BAMF) has assumed responsibility for the AZR. The register includes foreigners who relocate to Germany for more than 3 months. The AZR largely draws on entries from the local population registers which are being copied to the sub-regional foreigner authority upon registration of a foreigner and transferred to BAMF. While EU citizens can register with the local authorities, third country nationals need to pay a visit to their nearest sub-regional foreigner authority.

The AZR contains details of an individual's name, date and place of birth, citizenship, marital status, last place of residence in country of origin, nationality of spouse, emigration/remigration and other administrative data, such as legal status of residence for third country nationals (Bilger and Kraler, 2006). Like the population-based register, it does not provide any details on the purpose of the migration, except for third country nationals, for whom data is available on the nature of migration, including labour migration.³⁸ The AZR is therefore not fit for purpose for research on short-term labour migration within the EU as it allows the identification of short-term migrants but does not provide any information on labour migration of EU citizens.

Drawbacks of the AZR also include its coverage and the extent of non-deregistration as mentioned earlier. As regards the former, states may apply slightly different criteria for coverage (e.g. six States exempt seasonal workers from registration if they spend less than one or two months in Germany); however, this may be subject to change as registration law is now within the jurisdiction of the Federal authority. Furthermore, other statistics collected by a different agency (see below) suggest that seasonal workers, although often required to register, are not included in the population register, as the number of seasonal workers is larger than those of migrants registered in the local population registers. This is obviously less of an issue if a definition of 3-12 months for short-term migration is adopted, as seasonal workers, although allowed to stay for a maximum of four months, may *de facto* stay for less than three months. It should also be noted that the AZR does not include ethnic Germans or naturalised citizens (for further details see Bilger and Kraler [2006]; BMI and BAMF [2007]; Haug [2005]).

- The combined **Micro Census and EU Labour Force Survey** is undertaken by statistical offices and provides detailed data on the employment situation and the migration

³⁸ The categories are as follows: (1) enrolled in higher education institutions; (2) attending school or language courses; (3) came to Germany to take up employment (labour migrant); (4) humanitarian or family reasons.

background on an annual basis.³⁹ However, the survey only allows the identification of migrants who moved to Germany more than a year ago. Furthermore, the current sampling frame (a stratified sample of one per cent of households) is likely to under-represent the transient group of short-term labour migrants; (for EU15 countries see also Marti and Rodenas [2007]). Even if this sub-sample could be boosted, absolute numbers might not be high enough to allow for a detailed analysis.

- Data on **temporary migration schemes for labour migrants** are collected by the Federal Employment Agency. The schemes include a range of sub-groups, of which seasonal workers⁴⁰ and ‘showmen helpers’ (Schaustellergehilfen) are by far the largest group, followed by workers who are employed by foreign companies to deliver a specified piece of work the company has been commissioned to undertake (e.g. in construction). The maximum duration of stay associated with the scheme ranges from a couple of months (e.g. seasonal workers: 4 months; ‘showmen helpers’: 9 months) to up to a few years (e.g. domestic workers: 1-3 years; workers employed on contracts for work: 2 years, exceptionally up to 4 years). While these data indicate the scope and nature of temporary labour migration (note, however, that the seasonal workers data record the number of placements, not the number of seasonal workers) they do appear to provide little, if any, information on demographics (apart from nationality) or actual duration of stay. Note that the data for the workers employed on contracts for work are based on stock data, with monthly records used to calculate a yearly average.
- In line with EU requirements the **2011 Census** is currently being prepared in Germany. A new law (Zensusanordnungsgesetz), which specifies the information to be collected during the census, has now been drafted. Information requested by the EU is likely to include a number of questions on migration (usual residence one year before the census; date of relocation to Germany; whether or not someone has ever lived abroad; and when he or she entered the country) and employment (e.g. employed/not employed/not in work; kind of job; sector). Further information may be collected beyond EU requirements. The census will mainly be register-based, primarily to reduce associated costs. In addition it is expected that 10% of the population will be selected for a survey to gather requested information which is currently unavailable from administrative data sets. The 2011 census will be the first one conducted since the 1980s.⁴¹ The strength of the census data is its coverage, but data become quickly out of date within a ten yearly data collection cycle. Furthermore, results are not expected to become available until eighteen months after the completion of the census.
- In order to improve the information on migration data (particularly motives and intention of stay of migrants) the Federal Institute for Population Research (BIB) recently conducted a **new immigrant survey feasibility study** in two German cities (Munich and Essen). The study was part-funded by the Federal Ministry for Migrants and Refugees (BAMF) and was similar in nature to new immigrant surveys in classical immigration countries. It was designed as a longitudinal study, with the first wave conducted in 2004 and the second one year later. It covered adult (defined as 18 years and over) foreigners and Germans born abroad whose details were entered in the Central Alien Register in Germany less than a year ago, with the second wave focusing on those who still resided in Germany a year later. In order to counteract potential language problems the questionnaire was translated into 12 languages (for details see Diehl, 2007).

³⁹ The Socio-economic Panel (SOEP), undertaken by the German Institute for Economic Research (DIW) and Infratest, also collects information on migration, occupation and intention to stay, but the survey, drawing on a sample of 12,000 households, does not include recent migrants (see Haug [2005]).

⁴⁰ Note the scheme is restricted to the following sectors: agriculture and forestry, food processing (vegetables and fruit, hotel and catering and saw mills.

⁴¹ The last census took place in 1987 in West Germany and in 1981 in East Germany.

The first questionnaire consisted of 80 questions and covered, for example, demographic data, reasons for migration, education, current employment and employment prior to relocation. It thus contains nearly all variables listed in the ideal typology, although the categories used are not necessarily congruent.⁴² The second questionnaire is much shorter (30 questions) and asks for any changes which may have occurred in the meantime, including those relating to the employment situation; repeats some questions, including those on intention to stay / expected duration of stay; and introduces a few questions (e.g. discrimination). For further details see Table 3.12.

Table 3.12: Key variables used in the BIB new immigrant pilot survey (selection)

First wave (80 questions)	Second wave (30 questions)
Demographic data: e.g. age, gender, born in which country, citizenship(s), marital status (<i>family status</i>), number of children and where they live, country of residence prior to relocating to Germany, month and year of relocation to Germany	Demographic data: change in marital status
Reasons for migration	
Migration group: e.g. part of a managed migration scheme, EU citizen etc	
Intention to stay and intended length of stay	Intention to stay and intended length of stay
Education: type and year of qualification, including details on further education and continuing professional development	
Last employment prior to relocating to Germany: e.g. type of job and when last held, country, sector, employed/self-employed	
Current employment: e.g. full-time/part-time work, hours of work, month and year job started, type of recruitment channel, type of job, sector, fixed-term/permanent work, employed/self-employed/not in work, continuity of employer, gross and net salary	Current employment: e.g. full-time/part-time work, same job as in previous survey, type of recruitment channel, type of job, sector, fixed-term/permanent work, employed/self-employed/not in work, gross and net salary
Contact details for second survey, including intentions to migrate within Germany	

Source: Based on Diehl 2007

While the pilot can provide detailed data on labour migrants who intend to stay in Germany for less than a year and to some degree information on whether or not this was the case it cannot be used to assess the number of labour migrants who *de facto* stayed for less than a year as those who had left Germany (14%-15% by the time wave 2 was conducted), were not followed up. It may, however, be possible to do so if those surveyed in wave 1 have provided contact details of an intermediary in Germany or in their home country who could provide information on their current whereabouts.

In line with other studies a key problem encountered by this pilot was that many addresses drawn from the Central Alien Register were out of date or no longer existent (61% of the gross sample). Attrition was particularly high where addresses were provisional in nature (e.g. communal accommodations such as hostels, where many contract or seasonal workers reside, makeshift accommodations, or accommodations for asylum seekers). High attrition was also encountered among EU15 citizens, most likely because of the short-term nature of their migration, as information provided by wave 1 survey participants suggests. Despite these problems, it was concluded that in principle, a new immigrant survey using the Central Alien Register as the sampling base is

⁴² For example motivation in the new immigrant survey covers the dimensions economic, political, family or other reasons, whereas the typology uses business needs, for career advancement, to broaden experience and to satisfy the need for income while fulfilling other objective.

possible. The study achieved a good net response rate of 50% in wave 1 and 84% in wave 2 by employing a range of measures to reduce attrition. It is not known whether the pilot will be taken forward.

Statistical evidence on short-term international labour migration

Despite the limitations of the data sources in terms of coverage, quality and scope outlined earlier, a brief overview of available statistical data is presented for foreigners migrating to Germany, drawing on data from the AZR, data on seasonal workers from the Federal Employment Agency and the new immigrant pilot study, and for Germans migrating abroad. This may nevertheless be illuminating in the absence of any other information.

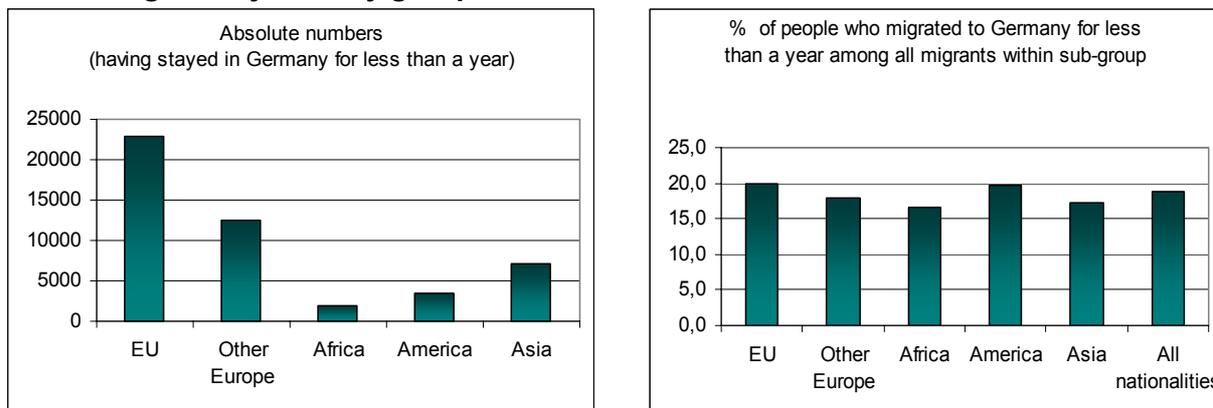
The **Central Alien Register** records around 258,000 foreigners who had left Germany having stayed in the country for less than a year. As Figure 3.4 shows, most came from other EU15, A10 countries and other European countries. The statistical data also suggest that nearly one fifth (19%) of all foreigners who migrated from Germany to another country stayed in Germany for less than a year (note, however, that the extent of non-registration may be more pronounced among short-term movers). Within the EU and the rest of Europe the figures are 20% and 18% respectively but figures vary substantially within these two groups. Most short-term migrants (less than a year) came from two accession countries: Poland and Romania. Compared with their compatriots around 30% of migrating Poles and Romanians had been registered in Germany on a short-term basis.

Following a continuous rise since the mid 1990s the number of **seasonal workers and showmen helpers** peaked in 2004 and since fell to around 303,000 in 2006. Seasonal workers from Poland constituted by far the largest group (78% in 2006) followed by those from Romania and Slovakia, as Figure 3.5 shows. There has been a steep rise in the number of seasonal workers from Romania in 2006. Most seasonal workers are employed in agriculture and forestry (90%).

The administrative data provide little information on demographic characteristics, but some empirical studies on Polish workers in agriculture (by far the largest group among the seasonal workers) have been conducted to fill the gaps. An overview of several studies on Polish seasonal workers in agriculture, undertaken in late 1990 and early 2000 (i.e. prior to the EU expansion in 2004), indicates that most are male; married with children; originate from cross-border areas, areas with ethnic German minorities or areas with high unemployment; and have mainly upper secondary education, a vocational qualification or higher qualifications). According to these studies up to half were neither employed or self-employed prior to taking up seasonal work (among them unemployed people, students, pensioners or housewives) and the remainder used their annual leave to improve their main income through seasonal work, with both groups transferring nearly their entire wage to Poland to sustain themselves and their families or to invest in immaterial and material goods. It was furthermore reported that a substantial group had repeatedly taken up seasonal work in Germany. Social networks and private employment agencies played a pivotal role in matching supply and demand. Limited knowledge of the German language and accommodation on site restricted seasonal workers' opportunities to make contact with locals (Glorius, 2004).

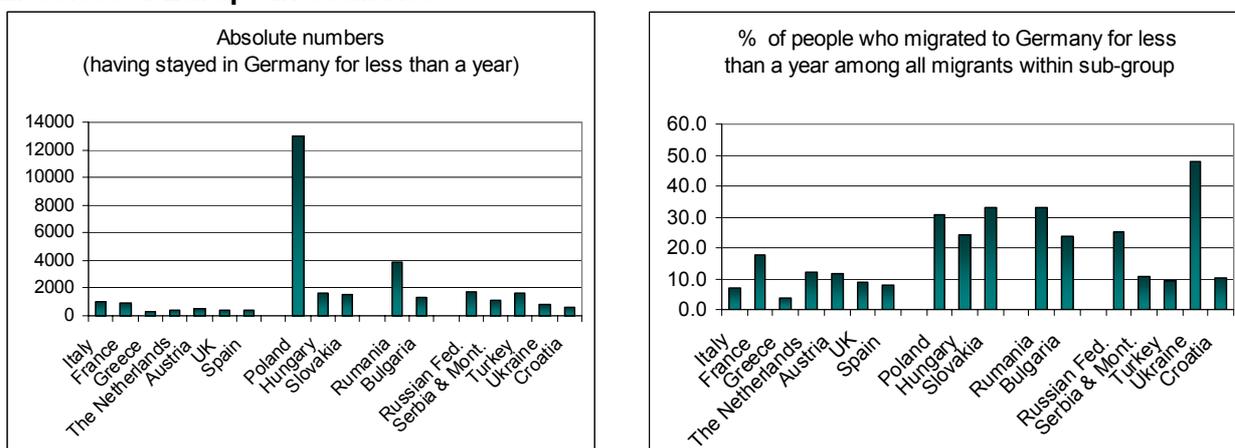
Figure 3.4: Foreigners who left Germany after having stayed for less than a year, 2006

1. All foreigners by country groups



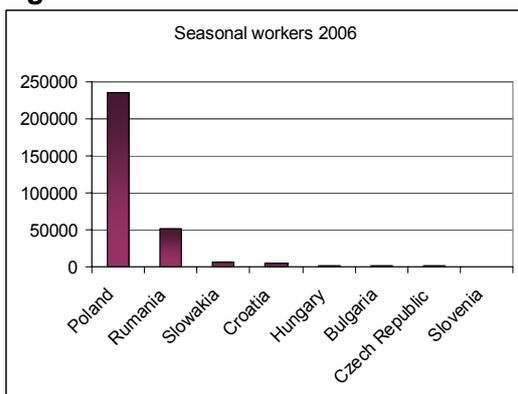
EU includes E15 and A10 countries, as Bulgaria and Romania joined in 2007

2. Selected European countries



Source: BMI and BAMF (2007), drawing on AZR data; own presentation

Figure 3.5: Number of seasonal workers in 2006



Source: BMI and BAMF (2007), own presentation

Some key findings from wave 1 of the *new immigrant pilot study* are worth noting in this context, yet it needs to be borne in mind that the results are not based on a representative sample for Germany. First, the study provides some insight into the motives for migration. Following a prioritisation of answers to multiple-choice questions the study suggests that 37% migrate primarily for family reasons, 25% for economic reasons, 16% for political-

societal reasons and 23% for other reasons, with the latter group mainly comprising students (Diehl and Preisendörfer 2007). Of the entire sample nearly 60% are working between a few hours to full time. Second, around 60% intended to stay in Germany temporarily; of those 17% want to stay on for less than a year and 35% for longer and nearly one in two were undecided. The extent of short-term stays of less than a year would be higher if those seasonal workers who do not have to register could be taken into account in this study. Thirdly, more detailed analysis showed that those groups which were less likely to intend to settle permanently in Germany included labour migrants (economic reasons), migrants in employment, highly skilled migrants and EU15 citizens. It was argued that the socio-economic capital of highly skilled migrants facilitated onward migration and that choice might also play a role in the decision of EU15 citizens as the freedom of movement allows them to change the country of residence without restrictions, whereas migrants from third countries may find themselves in a situation where they have to make a choice (Diehl and Preisendörfer, 2007). In conclusion, the findings of the pilot suggest that short-term labour migrants who stay between 3 months to less than a year may be a small group in relative terms. This rests on the finding that 25% are classed as labour migrants and that a relatively small group indicates that they want to stay on for less than a year, bearing in mind that at the time of the survey respondents had already lived in Germany for a period of up to a year. Yet the high degree of uncertainty about intentions to stay and the fact that intentions are subject to change introduces a high degree of uncertainty.

Data on short-term international labour migration of Germans: The population based register of people relocating to and emigrating from Germany does neither provide any information on the duration of stay (*ex ante* or *ex post*) nor the purpose of migration (except for third country nationals). There are, however, two other sources which provide statistical data on the scope and the nature of short-term labour migration of Germans in certain sub-segments of the labour market.

The Central Agency for International Placements and Placements of Skilled Workers (Zentrale Auslands- und Fachvermittlung, ZAV), previously known as Central Placement Agency (Zentralstelle für Arbeitsvermittlung) reports in its 2006 review that it placed a total of 14,470 people abroad, most of them within Europe (87%), mainly within German speaking countries (BMI and BAMF, 2007). Further details provided for those who had been placed within Europe indicate that around 20% (2,500) took up short-term employment (less than a year); two thirds were clients of the local employment agencies, the majority of which had received unemployment benefits; and most found a job as skilled worker in construction, followed by the metal processing industry, hotel and catering. As regards the age structure the data indicated that most were 40 and under (60%) and about one in ten over the age of 50 (BMI and BAMF, 2007).

Furthermore limited data are available on migration in science and research, an area which has a comparatively high share of staff working temporarily abroad, primarily for reasons of career development and / or advancement. Statistics from the German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD) about German scientists or researchers whose stay abroad has been directly funded by a German funding body indicates that 2,477 (or 61%) of the around 4,000 successful candidates spent less than a year abroad. Overall, the USA proved most attractive (28%) but substantial migration also takes place within the EU/EEA countries, most notably the UK (UK: 12%; France: 6%; and Switzerland: 4%) (BMI and BAMF 2007: 127, 281).

It is interesting to note that in the Netherlands, one of the neighbouring countries which is attractive to German job seekers, some private employment agencies specialise in recruiting foreign workers. In line with common practice among private placement agencies (the dominant model in the Netherlands), the agency would normally issue a 6 month contract

before the jobseeker signs a contract with the employer (Ariana Mirza in Frankfurter Rundschau, 7 February 2009).

Conclusion

A review of data sources on migration and the foreign population, undertaken at the Federal Office for Migration and Refugees in 2005, concluded that the quality is 'unsatisfactory' and 'in need of improvement' (Haug, 2005), and this still holds true to date. The Central Alien Register (AZR) is a key data source for short-term migration of foreigners, yet it does not provide any data on the purpose of migration. In addition, the AZR has other drawbacks in terms of coverage (resident for more than 3 months and some various between states) and quality of the data as non-deregistration in particular is a known problem. Furthermore, administrative data sets exist about the number of people who have a permit for one of the temporary migration schemes, but these do not provide detailed data which would be required for the migration typology set out in Chapter 2.

It is not known whether in future a new immigrant survey will be conducted to fill particular gaps in the data, following a pilot conducted between 2003 and 2006. While this survey would provide data on the purpose of migration; intention to stay and the current and former employment situation, it would not allow the to identification of the sub-set of labour migrants who had left Germany after less than a year in residence, unless they were followed up and expected problems in tracing and attrition can be overcome.

The key data source for the international migration of Germans, the population based register, contains no information on the length of stay or on the purpose of migration.

3.3.3 Poland⁴³

The historical context

Poland has a long history of emigration. At the start of the Cold War the regime imposed restrictive 'exit' policies. These were later relaxed and in the 1970s and 1980s there was significant short-term mobility to other communist countries (mainly Czechoslovakia and German Democratic Republic) and to western Europe. In 1988 freedom of out-movement became unlimited and there was an increase in short-term international mobility. In December 1990 the Polish and German governments concluded a bilateral agreement on seasonal migration and in a very short time seasonal migration became one of the most important migration streams in Poland (with almost 300 thousand persons taking up seasonal employment in Germany in late 1990s). Prior to the EU enlargement in May 2004 a huge migratory potential, which has been activated in the 1990s, was mainly channelled to clandestine short-term employment in western and southern Europe. The accession into EU changed significantly both the scale and characteristics of the outflow from Poland. The migration of Poles to EU15 countries which did not impose transitional restrictions (notably the UK and Ireland) has been a major feature of the geographical mobility in Europe since 2004. Evidence suggests that short-term moves constitute a large proportion of geographical mobility in Poland (Kaczmarczyk and Okólski, 2008).

Data sources: introduction and definitional issues

In practice, the measurement of international geographical mobility from and to Poland is a difficult task. The basic statistical source to assess the scale of international migration is the **central population register**, which includes all residents of Poland. Over any period new

⁴³ This section draws on the published literature and on information provided by Pawel Kaczmarczyk, Centre of Migration Research, University of Warsaw.

'entries' onto the register include 'births' and 'immigrants' (i.e. those who have arrived from abroad (whether of Polish or other citizenship) and who have registered as '**permanent residents**'). New 'exits' include 'deaths' and 'emigrants' (i.e. those who have deregistered as permanent residents due to their departure to another country). In practice, deregistration is generally perceived as unnecessary and so is relatively rare. In Polish official statistical sources the *de facto* population is counted as the total number of 'permanent residents' - irrespective of their actual place of residence (i.e. whether in Poland or in another country). Hence, there is a group of 'permanent residents' (as recorded by the central population register) who have ceased to live in Poland but who are still included in estimates of Poland's population.

'Permanent residents' who have stayed in a foreign country for longer than two months are called '**temporary migrants**'. The stock of temporary migrants is estimated on the basis of data extracted from Population Censuses (conducted in 1988 and 2002) and the micro-census of 1995. Since 1994 the Polish LFS serves as a data source for estimating, at each quarter of the year, the stock of temporary migrants aged 15 years or over. On the basis of a combination of population census and LFS data, supplemented with statistics concerning the stock of Polish migrants in major destination countries, Poland's Central Statistical Office (CSO) estimates the stock of all temporary Polish migrants (see Table 3.13 for the most recent estimate in April 2008). Note, however, that the term 'temporary migrant', as used in these statistics, in no way relates to the duration of stay in the destination country (i.e. there is no upper threshold (i.e. duration cut-off) for being designated as a 'temporary migrant'.

Table 3.13: The stock of temporary migrants from Poland, by major destination countries, in thousands

Destination	May 2002	2005*	2007*	2008*
<i>Total</i>	786	1000	1950	2270
EU24	451	750	1550	1860
Austria	11	15	34	39
Belgium	14	13	28	31
France	21	30	49	55
Germany	294	385	450	490
Ireland	2	15	120	200
Italy	39	59	85	87
Netherlands	10	23	55	98
Spain	14	26	44	80
Sweden	6	11	25	27
United Kingdom	24	150	580	690

* as of January 1st

Source: Kaczmarczyk and Okólski 2008, based on CSO 2008.

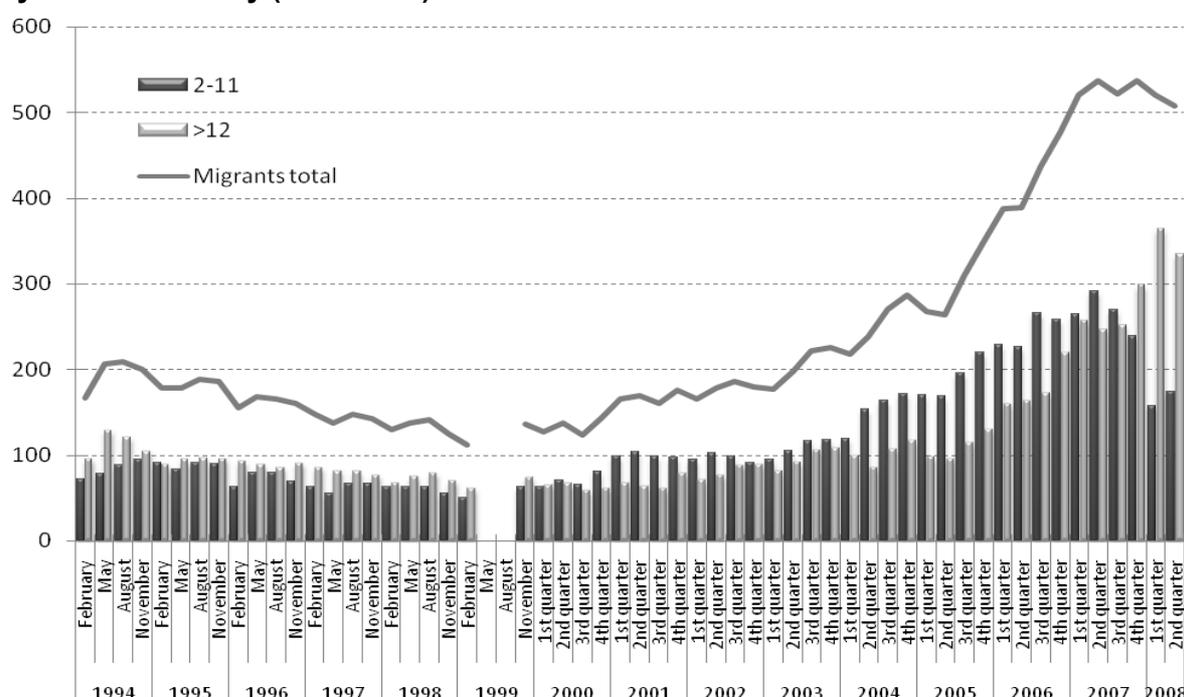
Data sources for measuring short-term international mobility from and to Poland

Key data sources include:

- **Population Censuses** (conducted by the Central Statistical Office in Poland) – these are a detailed source of information, with information on socio-demographic characteristics. The last Population Census was conducted in 2002.
- The Polish **LFS** (conducted every quarter since 2004 by the Central Statistical Office in Poland) measures population and migration dynamics on an ongoing basis. The data are disaggregated by a range of socio-demographic variables (including age and gender), by region, by country of destination and by duration of stay abroad (see Figure 3.6 and Table 3.14, which distinguish 'short-term temporary migrants' [i.e. those whose

stay abroad did not exceed one year] from ‘other temporary migrants’ [i.e. those staying abroad for longer than 12 months]). However, the LFS data on outflows from Poland relate only to persons aged 15 years and older who, at the time of the survey, had been abroad for longer than 2 months (prior to 2007) and 3 months (since 2007) who had at least one household member remaining in Poland (i.e. this household member remaining in Poland provides answers on behalf of the household member living abroad). Hence, since it excludes those migrants who do not have a household member remaining in Poland, the LFS is likely to under-estimate the scale of outflows. Interestingly, the data for the last two quarters displayed in Figure 3.6 (i.e. quarter 1 and quarter 2 of 2008) display a reversal of the previous trend of recent years for short-term migrants to outnumber longer-term migrants. This could reflect more short-term migrants (i.e. those staying abroad for 2-11 months) returning to Poland – reflecting the changing economic differentials between Poland and destination countries), while the number staying for longer than 12 months increases both absolutely and as a proportion of the total. However, more recent data is required to ascertain whether the new pattern revealed here is a clear tendency or short-term variation in the data.⁴⁴

Figure 3.6: Polish citizens staying temporarily abroad according to the Polish LFS by duration of stay (in months)



Source: Kaczmarczyk and Okólski 2008.

⁴⁴ This could be attributable to sampling variation.

Table 3.14: Polish citizens staying abroad for longer than two months (three months since the second quarter of 2007) who at the time of each LFS were members of households in Poland, by duration of stay abroad, country of destination and sex (in thousands), second quarters of 2002-2008 (a)

Country of destination	Duration of stay abroad													
	2-11 months							12+ months						
	Q2 2002	Q2 2003	Q2 2004	Q2 2005	Q2 2006	Q2 2007	Q2 2008	Q2 2002	Q2 2003	Q2 2004	Q2 2005	Q2 2006	Q2 2007	Q2 2008
<i>Total</i>	102	105	153	168	226	291	174	77	92	85	96	163	246	334
Austria	4	2	5	2	4	6	.	1	1	2	4	4	5	7
Belgium	6	4	3	2	1	3	.	1	2	1	2	5	6	6
France	3	6	5	7	5	9	.	1	3	8	6	5	6	.
Germany	45	41	51	47	47	46	29	15	21	19	20	32	41	54
Ireland	-	1	4	9	18	37	18	-	-	2	6	11	27	36
Italy	14	12	18	20	15	20	9	11	13	9	12	15	23	23
Netherlands	4	3	3	5	9	23	17	5	5	3	1	3	9	19
Norway	(b)	(b)	(b)	3	8	6	9	(b)	(b)	(b)	1	6	7	8
Spain	3	4	6	5	5	7	9	2	3	4	4	5	3	15
Sweden	2	1	6	4	3	5	.	-	2	1	2	2	5	.
UK	4	9	18	40	80	102	53	8	8	7	12	41	69	114
USA	9	16	22	11	16	10	9	25	24	24	19	25	29	19
<i>Other</i>	8	6	12	13	15	17	21	8	10	5	7	0	16	33

(.) Less than 5 thousand.

(a) Since the second quarter of 2003, data from the LFS were adjusted on the basis of the 2002 population census. Earlier data were adjusted on the basis of the 1988 population census. Consequently, caution needs to be exercised in comparing data across the two periods.

Source: Kępińska 2008

- **Data gathered by Polish government institutions**, such as the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy, the Ministry of Economy, the Ministry of Health and the Social Insurance Institution – relating to selected categories of migrants only (e.g. the migration of health professionals). These data are not readily available for analysis. In the context of this report the most relevant data are those collected by the Ministry of Labour. From 1990 to 2005 this Ministry was responsible for providing data on Polish seasonal migration to Germany (more specifically, contracts offered by German employers to seasonal workers from Poland). Since 2006 Polish administration ceased to collect this data and therefore it is necessary to make use of the data provided by the German Federal Employment Agency (ZAV).
- **Data on (and from) recruitment agencies that operate in Poland** collected by the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy. These data provide information on the duration of work abroad (see Table 3.15), by gender and by country of destination (the Netherlands, the UK, Germany and Norway were the most important destinations in 2006) (Kępińska, 2007). While these data provide useful insights into geographical mobility, it should be borne in mind that only some emigrants will gain employment abroad via recruitment agencies operating in Poland, and the proportion of total migrants using this recruitment channel is likely to vary by migrant characteristics and by destination country.

Table 3.15: Persons who took up jobs abroad through regular recruitment agencies operating in Poland by sex and duration of work, 2003-2006

Year	Total	Men	Women	Duration of work (in months)		
				0-3	3-12	12+
2003	41,166	34,860	6,306	.	.	.
2004	52,316	44,141	8,175	20,705	30,398	1,213
2005	81,032	61,556	19,476	36,917	36,733	7,382
2006	119,247	87,531	31,716	58,466	52,654	8,127

(.) Not available.

Source: Kepinska 2007

- **Data sources in destination countries** – including registration data in destination countries in the post-accession period and other data relating to specific programmes. However, not all such sources are comprehensive.
- **Data gathered in research projects focusing on Polish migration** – these are not ‘official’ data sources, neither are they comprehensive in terms of their coverage, but they do provide useful intelligence on the characteristics of Polish migrants. Examples include:
 - survey data collected by the National Bank of Poland – set of surveys was conducted in Ireland and in the UK to provide data on mechanisms and scale of remittances (National Bank of Poland, 2008); and
 - ethnosurvey data collected by the Centre of Migration Research at the University of Warsaw in 1995, 1999, 2006 and ongoing – which provide information on migration from Poland by demographic and socio-economic characteristics, on family situation, careers in Poland and abroad, mechanisms of mobility, etc (see Frejka *et al.*, 1998; Jaźwinska and Okólski, 2001).

Data sources for measuring short-term international mobility to Poland (i.e. short-term inflows to Poland)

Key data sources include:

- **Central Population Register** – which provides data on movers to Poland who registered their temporary stay (over 2 months prior to 2006, and over three months from 2006) with a local administration. Information is disaggregated by sex, age, education, source countries, economic activity and geography (i.e. local areas within Poland), spatial distribution. (Note that unless individuals deregister, their actual length of stay is unknown.)
- The **LFS** – is likely to underestimate short-term inflows to Poland. Aside from the fact that some short-term migrants will not be within the scope of the survey, the LFS questionnaire is not available in languages other than Polish and interviewers are not trained to conduct interviews with foreigners.
- Data on **work permits granted to foreigners** compiled by the Central Statistical Office (at the request of the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy) – cover work permits granted to individual foreign applicants and to foreigners working in sub-contracting foreign companies operating in Poland. Since the EU-accession data on work permits do not relate to EU citizens. Data include information on: nationality, main demographic characteristics, size of company, sector of the economy, skill level, spatial distribution and duration of work (‘less than 3 months’ and ‘more than 3 months’ are distinguished).

- Data on **seasonal workers from neighbouring countries** (i.e. Belarus, Ukraine and the Russian Federation)⁴⁵. Information available (compiled by the Ministry of Labour and Social Policy) is based on statements that need to be registered in the local labour office in Poland and include information on sex, age, nationality, sector of economy and duration of work.

Conclusions

Data on out-migration are more limited than that on in-migration. The data sources from Poland indicate that descriptors such as ‘temporary migrants’ may be misleading, in that this category has no upper duration threshold. Insights into inflows to Poland are available from a range of sources – including the central population register, the LFS, data from recruitment agencies – but each source has its weaknesses. Hence, no definitive estimate of short-term international mobility is possible and the amount of disaggregation available is limited.

3.3.4 Spain

The National Statistics Institute (INE) currently provides the following sources on immigration:

- **Census of Population**: This identifies migrants and also yields information on the recent migratory trend of the population.
- **Continuous register**. This collects basic information on the immigrant population of Spain, updated periodically. The Residential Variation Statistics (RVS), based on the register, reflect movements between municipalities and between Autonomous Communities, distinguishing those movements of foreign nationals.
- **Vital Statistics**: The registers of both marriages and births collect information referring to all persons, whether they have Spanish nationality or they are from other countries.
- **Economically Active Population Survey (EAPS)**. The EAPS is carried out quarterly, and collects information regarding active, employed and unemployed persons, according to their nationality. The INE compiles the Migrations Survey (MS), derived from the EAPS, whose objective is to ascertain the intensity and characteristics of the domestic migratory movements within Spain, and of international migrants (encompassing both Spaniards returning to the country and foreign nationals). The Migrations Survey uses Section I of the EAPS questionnaire (in which reference is made to the situation of the interviewee one year ago) to derive information on the characteristics of migrants. Migrants are defined as people who lived in a different part of Spain or another country 12 months before the survey. The survey explicitly excludes foreign immigrants whose stay in Spain will be less than one year.
- The **National Immigrant Survey 2007** was an in-depth survey of migrants to Spain. It obtained considerable information on the family structure of migrant households, collecting details on each household member, on related people and parents of children. It is aimed at studying the demographic and social characteristics of those persons born abroad, as well as detailed information on their migratory itineraries, work and residential

⁴⁵ According to the ordinance of the Minister of Labour and Social Policy (in force since July 2007) seasonal workers from Ukraine, Belarus, and the Russian Federation may be employed without work permits. The only necessary document is the statement of Polish employer stating that he or she is intended to employ person concerned (but they still do need a visa). Initially, maximum duration of work was three months (in the span of six months) and job could be performed only in agriculture. However, in 2007 and 2008 these rules were relaxed: rights to work without permit was extended towards other sectors of economy and maximum duration of work from three to six months (within 12 months).

history, family relations and relations with their country of origin and with the Spanish society, with special emphasis on the study of social relations and personal networks linked to the act of migrating.

The focus of the survey is persons born abroad; aged 16 and over, and residing in family dwellings in Spain at the time fieldwork was conducted (between November 2006 and February 2007). The survey questionnaire is available at:

http://www.ine.es/daco/daco42/inmigrantes/cues_in.pdf (English).

The survey and its methodology are described at:

http://www.ine.es/en/daco/daco42/inmigrantes/inmigra_meto_en.pdf.

The survey collected detailed information on family structure, identifying parents, children and siblings in Spain, the country of origin and elsewhere. Information on nationality, educational attainment and language ability (in other EU languages as well as Spanish) is collected, together with detailed information on housing and housing finance. It covered 21 thousand migrant households through probability sampling in 2270 Census areas.

The survey collects data on the migration history of individuals and their motives for migrating to each country, with dates. These motivations include for employment reasons or to seek work in the country they migrated to. The survey asks about the migration of other family members and the situation of the migrant in their country of origin before moving to Spain. For those in employment, the survey requests details of employment, including industry, occupation and when their job ended. The survey then asks about the migrant's experience in Spain, including job search strategy, type of employment, length of contract, whether they had a promise of a job before migrating to Spain and how they obtained their job (including use of the public employment service). In addition, the survey asks about residential mobility within Spain, the migrant's links with their country of origin and their future plans (over the next 5 years) to stay in Spain, return to their country of origin or move to another country.

However, the definition of the target population of the survey (persons born outside of Spain who, at the time of the survey, were aged 16 years old or more and had resided in Spain for more than one year or intended to stay for more than a year) suggests that the survey would not yield much information on short-term international migrants.

3.3.5 Finland⁴⁶

Finland has a long history of **local population registers** dating from the 17th century. Today local register offices are responsible for maintaining the national **Population Information System**, which includes information on individuals, buildings and property, by storing information on, and changes within, their areas of operation.

According to Finnish law, internal movers within Finland⁴⁷ must submit notification of a move within one week of moving. When notification of a move is submitted, an individual's details are updated simultaneously on the Population Information System by the local register offices. Address details are forwarded automatically from the Population Information System to public authorities, including the local parish, the Finnish Vehicle Administration, the Social Insurance Institution of Finland (KELA) and the tax office. International migrants moving from or to Finland also submit notification of a move at the local register office or online.

Basic data (including name, date of birth, nationality, familial relationships and address) on foreigners residing in Finland are recorded in the Population Information System. Under

⁴⁶ The assistance of Elli Heikkilä and Richard Webster of the Institute of Migration, Turku, Finland, in advising on Finnish data sources, contacts and literature is acknowledged.

⁴⁷ Moving permanently or temporarily staying at another address for at least 3 months.

Finnish law a foreigner is required to register the same information as Finnish citizens if (s)he resides in Finland for at least a year. In practice, foreign citizens residing temporarily in Poland (for less than a year) can also be entered on the Population Information System.

Finnish citizens have **personal identity codes** (i.e. electronic identities). Foreign citizens permanently resident in Finland or whose residence in Finland exceeds one year are issued with a personal identity code. Persons staying in Finland on a temporary basis can also be issued with a personal identity code if the local register office deems it warranted. The personal identity code is needed for pensions and other benefits, and for the payment of wages, salaries and fees. Hence, it is expected that temporary workers would have a code.

No analyses of temporary migration to Finland using the registration files have been uncovered and information on names and addresses of migrants from local register offices is not freely available. Statistics Finland publications only record moves of more than one year (i.e. so called 'permanent international migrants').

3.4 Ongoing statistical data developments

In individual countries attempts are being made to improve statistics on migration. At a cross-country level the ONS in the UK is currently leading a UNECE Task Force (including Austria, Switzerland, the Netherlands, Norway, Slovenia and Australia) on '*The Analysis of International Migration Estimates Using Different Length of Stay Definitions*'. The two main goals of the Task Force are:

- To assess the impact on international migration estimates derived from the use of different duration thresholds to define usual residence.
- To assess the availability of data on short-term migration, explore their accuracy and consider alternative definitions of short-term migration. Associated sub-goals are:
 - to identify how many countries can produce data on short-term migration
 - assess data accuracy and relevance according to different definitions of short-term moves
 - assess the relative importance of short and long-term migration moves and how this has changed in recent years.
 - evaluate the relative importance of different reasons for moving (employment, study, other) in the balance between long and short-term moves.

A set of tables has been designed to collect detailed and comparable data on international migration over the period from 2001 to 2007. Information is also being collected on sources and methods of data collection from participating countries, together with some indication of the accuracy of the estimates provided. A comparative analysis of the data collected is being undertaken with a view to publishing a report later in 2009. Part of the report will focus on the availability of data on short-term migration and the relevance of different definitions of short-term migration.

3.5 Synthesis

The review of statistical data sources confirms the **difficulties of measuring the volume, nature, extent and characteristics of different forms of employment-related mobility of a temporary or fixed-term nature**. It has also underscored the important ongoing work on this subject by the OECD and various EC-funded projects in conjunction with Eurostat and national statistical institutes in seeking to improve international migration statistics on a standardised basis across the EU.

There are important differences in data sources and in the availability of statistics related to short-term international mobility between countries. Overall, there is a relative paucity of

data fit for the purpose of measuring the volume and nature of short-term international mobility and as such it is clear that the typology presented in Section 3 will remain 'ideal' rather than 'operational'. There is a key distinction between **survey sources** which are able to collect information on reasons for mobility and **register sources** which do not collect such information. Register sources should provide more timely estimates of moves than surveys (which tend to be relatively poor at covering short-term moves); however a tendency for individuals not to bother to deregister means that there is **less information on outflows than on inflows**.

The review also confirms the potential dangers in taking variable names (e.g. 'temporary migrants') at face value, without understanding precisely what they mean in the context of different data sources.

4. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

4.1 Conclusions

Ambiguity in conceptualising and measuring short-term international mobility

- A precise and universally agreed definition of what constitutes short-term international mobility is lacking. In practice, the term is used in different ways. This leads to confusion about what it encompasses and a lack of comparability between studies. In this study the definition of a 'short-term international assignment / mobility' adopted was: '*a work-related relocation from one country to another country for a period of less than a year*', with a key focus on moves from one EU country to another EU country. Daily commutes between EU countries were excluded, as were moves/relocations undertaken as part of a vocational education or a higher education programme. However, this definition is open to question. It is clear that student moves have become more significant and also that there is an increasing nexus between student and labour migration and between temporary and permanent migration. In this context any definition of 'short-term international' mobility may be regarded as 'messy'.
- There is evidence that flows of people across international borders are becoming increasingly complex. Short-term international mobility may be undertaken for a variety of reasons – including economic gain, broadening experience, discovery, improving language skills, etc. Any individual mover is likely to have primary and secondary reasons for making a move. In the context of free movement, there may be important differences between intended and actual length of stay: a short-term international move may evolve into permanent migration. In the context of such complexity there is a 'blurring' between different types of move; hence the difficulty in delineating and applying a rigid definition to 'short-term international mobility' – which is a dynamic concept.

The important role of migration policy (at EU and national levels)

- Migration policy helps to set the framework for recording particular types of moves. At the current time there are important developments in migration policy within several EU countries – for example, the introduction of the points-based system for non-EEA migrants in the UK. In some countries these developments have been accompanied by changes in structural and institutional arrangements for policy delivery. New developments also have implications for the structural recording of particular types of movers and will result in new administrative data series. Some of these administrative statistics are not readily available in the public domain. Moreover, in recent years the uneven application across the EU15 of transitional restrictions on movers from accession countries has helped shape the geography of moves from Central and Eastern Europe.

Characteristics of individuals engaged in short-term international mobility

- Migration research indicates that *young adults* are disproportionately mobile. They may engage in short-term international mobility for a variety of reasons – including gaining work experience, to learn and improve foreign language skills, to explore another country.
- With the expansion of *higher education* and the *increase in opportunities for study abroad*, it is likely that greater numbers of highly educated young people will have experience of living abroad. It might be expected that this might lead to a greater culture of international mobility, leading to greater willingness to consider, and to undertake, short-term international mobility in future.
- There are *circuits of international mobility* associated with employees – mainly managerial and professional staff – in *transnational corporations*. The evidence suggests that over time there has been a trend towards increasing use of short-term

international assignments vis-à-vis longer-term relocations – partly because of the expenditure involved in moving families. Such moves are often project based and generally, but not exclusively, involve managerial and professional staff. Such moves within the internal labour markets of large transnational corporations may involve destinations in the EU and beyond, and also involve non-EU nationals moving to EU Member States.

- Individuals engaged in short-term international mobility are *unevenly distributed by sector*. Sectors such as *construction* and *agriculture* have traditionally been associated with short-term international movers, due to their specific market requirements. In the context of economic downturn a reduction in short-term international mobility might be expected in construction, whereas agriculture might be less affected.
- Substantial numbers of individuals moving internationally for work purposes *do not know how long they will stay*. Moreover, *intentions regarding length of stay may change over time*. Hence, reliance on information on intended length of stay to measure short-term international mobility may result in either under-counting or over-counting.

EURES advisers

- The *Public Employment Service*, via EURES advisers, in each EU Member State *deals only with a proportion of those individuals who are working abroad* – either as a short-term move or for a longer period. The size of this proportion is unknown and could differ between Member States and over the economic cycle.
- The EURES advisers *do not collect data* on international moves for work purposes. As their title suggests, they have an ‘advisory’ role. While advice provided can be recorded, there is no established mechanism to record or follow up what action individuals take following any advice given.

Secondary data on short-term international mobility

- There is *no single data source that provides comprehensive information* on short-term international mobility at the current time. In part, this reflects that there are considerable *challenges* in collecting data on short-term international mobility. It is also a function of different recording definitions in place in different countries. The implication of these measurement difficulties is that the typology of short-term international mobility presented in this report is largely ‘ideal’, as opposed to ‘operational’.
- *Short-term international movers* (and indeed short-term movers within a Member State) are *difficult to pick up* using *established household surveys* because short-term movers are often outside the sampling frame of such surveys.
- The *EULFS* is the key source of harmonised information on the labour market across the EU. While the *EULFS* covers foreign nationals and those born outside the Member State who are in employment, together with their individual characteristics (age, gender, etc) and industry and occupation of employment, it is likely that coverage of short-term movers will be partial – but it is not clear how partial.
- In practice, *population registers* are better at individuals engaged in short-term international mobility than are surveys, due to the requirement to register at the destination. However, typically, registration systems *do not cover the reason* for an international move, so it is not possible to distinguish between individuals moving for work-related reasons, those moving to join family members and/or for other reasons.
- Although individuals may be supposed to *deregister* when they leave, in practice deregistration is often not followed through, so it is not necessarily possible to estimate the duration of stay (i.e. to distinguish short-term and long-term moves). Hence, how systems operate in principle and in practice confound attempts to measure short-term international mobility.

- The richest available data on short-term international mobility is available from the *Eurobarometer Survey* with a specific focus on geographical mobility.
- The OECD, Eurostat and national statistical agencies are seeking to *improve data* on short-term international mobility.

The principle of free movement and short-term international mobility

- The principle of free movement within the EU means that it should be possible to move between Member States without providing details of a reason for moving or providing information about intended length of stay – indeed, information on short-term moves of individuals from outside the EU into the EU is generally better (because of requirements for work permits) than for short-term moves of EU nationals (where such permits are not required). However, for economic management, service planning and delivery Member States need details about population stocks and flows – including nationals of other EU member states.
- Currently, within the EU there are tensions between the contradictory philosophies of Schengen and the strictures of e-borders. Currently, within the EU, two Member States other than the UK are considering similar arrangement to e-borders. One is the Republic of Ireland (which like the UK lies outside the Schengen passport-free travel zone). The other is Spain which requires advance passenger information (supplied by the carrier) from all flights arriving from non-Schengen countries.⁴⁸

4.2 Recommendations

Introduction

- It is clear that the ideal of improved data on short-term international mobility will be *challenging* to achieve. However, there are a number of possible ways forward for deriving improved *information* and *intelligence*.

Information

- Given that the EULFS is a key source of information on the labour market across Member States, it is an obvious vehicle for collecting information on ‘reason for move’ of those moving geographically (as utilised in the ad hoc EULFS module on ‘the labour market situation of migrants and their immediate descendants’ in 2008). Here information was collected on the ‘main reason’ for moving, but it would be possible to make a distinction could be made between ‘all reasons’ and the ‘main reason’ for moving. It would be possible to draw on the experience of the Eurobarometer Survey on geographical mobility to identify the most appropriate question(s) to use.
- For updated in-depth information on short-term international mobility the most obvious way forward would be repeat the *Eurobarometer Survey* on geographical mobility on a regular basis. This might involve a core module of questions to be asked each survey, together with a separate tranche of questions on a particular topic associated with geographical mobility (e.g. the economic downturn, language issues, etc). While there is scope for using experience of Migration Surveys in some Member States for identifying suitable topics and questions, it makes sense to build upon the experience of the ad hoc EULFS module noted above.
- For the Eurobarometer to be used for monitoring short-term international job-related migration on a regular basis, it is necessary to include a number of questions which identify migrants of 3-12 months duration and the motivation for their migration. Thus, at the time of interview, it is important to ask – as a minimum:

⁴⁸ Other countries already collecting advance passenger information include the USA, Canada and Australia.

- the actual month and year of arrival in the country (in the current spell);
- the main reason for moving (identifying company-directed and 'posted' migration) – for example:
 - (1) for employment under the direction of an employer
 - (2) for employment, job found before migrating other than code '1'
 - (3) for employment, no job found before migrating
 - (4) for study
 - (5) for international protection
 - (6) accompanying family / family reunification
 - (7) family formation
 - (8) other
- when the individual's current spell of employment (or study) in the country is likely to end – for example:
 - (1) less than 3 months
 - (2) more than 3 months but less than 12 months
 - (3) 1-2 years
 - (4) 3 years or more
 - (5) do not know
- the expected duration of stay in the country.

In combination, these questions would identify people in the country for less than a year, migrating for employment reasons and planning to stay for between 3 and 12 months.

Additionally, in order to assess the role of the public employment service in facilitating migration it would be useful to ask movers about:

- the sources of help used in finding a job (ideally distinguishing):
 - (a) sources used before moving; and
 - (b) sources used in the host country (i.e. at the destination)
 - for example:
 - (1) friends and family
 - (2) public employment service
 - (3) private employment agencies
 - (4) Internet
 - (5) press
 - (6) migrant organisations
 - (7) other
 - (8) none

Ideally, a full set of questions relating to economic position (before and after moving), characteristics of employment – by sector and occupation (before and after moving), individual and household circumstances would also be asked, in order that the types of people involved in short-duration employment-related mobility could be identified and relationships with education, job history and the general economic climate analysed. However, there is considerable pressure on the Eurobarometer to include questions covering topical issues, and hence these suggestions are for a minimum *core* number of questions which could be added to each survey, rather than the ideal set required to study the phenomenon in depth.

- As noted above, there is a range of ongoing work on developing statistics on short-term migration and on harmonising international migration statistics. This work endorses the measurement difficulties highlighted above regarding short-term moves, and also between 'temporary' and 'permanent' moves. It is recommended that a 'watching brief' is kept on this ongoing work on the practicalities of developing existing data sources and deriving estimates of short-term international mobility being undertaken by OECD, Eurostat and National Statistical Offices.

- In theory there is scope for using *linked administrative statistics* to derive information on the volume and characteristics of international moves (including short-term moves). This might involve linking of social security numbers (required for legal working in Member States) with income tax, benefit and other records. In practice systems of linked administrative records are in place in the Nordic countries (see the example of Finland in 3.3.5). However, there are considerable challenges in some Member States relating to data sharing, confidentiality and data protection which mean that progress on this front is likely to be slow in some countries.

Intelligence

- Consideration could be given to whether the data recording requirements of EURES advisers could be amended to enhance information currently collected on numbers of enquiries and also whether it would be feasible to conduct small follow-up surveys of some clients in order to find out whether and how they acted upon the information provided by EURES advisers.
- Given the fact that many of those individuals involved in short-term international mobility are young and/or highly educated, it may be possible to consider whether and how to tap into their ICT literacy to conduct Web surveys on motivations, changing intentions, etc. While it would not be possible to derive comprehensive information on a consistent basis using such an approach, it may be a useful avenue to explore to derive intelligence on emerging trends and issues.
- Consideration could be given to whether and how to make greater use of labour market intermediaries (other than EURES) who play an important role in the recruitment of migrant workers. While private sector recruitment agencies may be unwilling to divulge detailed statistics on placements (for commercial in confidence reasons), nevertheless such agencies may be a useful source of intelligence on current and emerging trends, and on changing geographical, sectoral and skills patterns in short-term international mobility.
- Sectoral case studies might be one avenue of collecting information and intelligence about short-term international mobility in specific sectors.

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