The Story of UK Migration

A Compilation of the Literature on Immigration and Emigration in the UK and the Implications for Hampshire

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## Glossary

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Introduction

This report aims to bring together existing recent literature on migration into and out of the United Kingdom (UK) to explore its impact on population, policy, the economy, the community, planning and services. The report will also look at how these trends have, and are affecting life across Hampshire.

Migration is part of the UK’s history. It can have large social and economic impacts on individual countries and affect different communities in different ways. Recent focus has been on migration from Accession 8\(^1\) countries, but migration flows and stocks from other countries are still an important part of overall migration to the UK. At the local level migration can influence the size and make up of the population, which in turn can impact on service provision and delivery.

Historically, the UK has had a larger number of emigrants than immigrants, with large numbers of people migrating to the United States (US) and the colonies (Geddes, 2003). However, in the last decade, this trend has reversed with more immigration than emigration, and with the origin countries becoming more diverse. It has been estimated that as much as 6 % of the working age population came to the UK during the last decade (CLG, 2009d).

Trends in the number of UK residents born overseas have increased considerably over the last few decades. During the period between 1971 and 2001 this was largely a result of immigration from the new and old commonwealth countries of India, Pakistan, the West Indies, Australia and Canada. However, since 2004, immigration from Accession 8 (A8) and Accession 2\(^2\) (A2) European Countries has been an increasing trend (CLG, 2009d).

As a result of this new migration phenomenon, much of the recent literature has centred on the migration of A8 and A2 nationals to the UK. This has resulted in the focus of this report being largely centred on these migrants. However, the wider pool of immigrants are also covered as well as those people who choose to leave the UK.

\(^1\) Ten countries joined the EU in 2004 - Poland, Slovakia, the Czech Republic, Slovenia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania and Estonia. These countries became known as A8 countries. Malta and Cyprus also joined in 2004 and when combined with the A8 are known as A10 countries (IDEA, 2007).

\(^2\) Bulgaria and Romania joined the EU in 2007 and are known as A2 countries (IDEA, 2007).
Defining Migrants and Migration

Migrants and migration are terms that are widely used, but their meaning can vary between datasets and contexts. In order to analyse migration and migrants, it is important to understand what the various terms mean.

Migration is the event of moving - a change of usual address across an administrative boundary. The administrative boundary used in the definition of migration may vary and might be a village, town, district or country. A migrant is a person who has moved (Raymer and Willekens, 2008).

Migration estimates are often given as either stocks or flows. Immigration can be described as the flow of migration into a receiving area, and emigration the flow of migration from an area (Raymer and Willekens, 2008), i.e. the number of people entering or leaving a country over a given period of time. The stock of migrants is used to describe the number currently resident in an area.

The UN definition of an international migrant is someone who changes his or her country of usual residence for a period of at least a year. This is distinct from a short term international migrant which is someone who changes his or her country of usual residence for at least three months but less than a year, and excludes those where the movement is for recreation, holiday, visiting friends or relatives, business, medical treatment or religious pilgrimage (ICoCo for LGA, 2007).

Migrants can enter the UK legally through 4 main routes – free movement within the EU, as Asylum seekers or refugees, through a points based system and for family formation and unification (IPPR, 2010). Each of these methods will be included in this report. However, it should be noted that not all migration is legal.

In recent years, migration for shorter periods and circular migration have become more prominent. Circular or rotation migration is where migrants move between one country and another (IPPR, 2008a). It can be either between their country of origin and one host country or between different host countries. Seasonal migration is an example of circular migration (IPPR, 2008b).

Types of Migrant and Push and Pull Factors

Migration is often analysed in terms of "push-pull factors". Push factors are those negative factors which drive people to leave a country, whilst positive pull factors are those which attract them to their new country (De Beer, 2008).

Some people are also more likely to migrate than others and characteristics of potential migrants (for example – age, gender and education) impact upon their likelihood to migrate and the direction of migration. Different types of immigration and emigration are affected by various push and pull factors. For example, migration for employment reasons is affected by the labour market in both the host and origin countries, whilst asylum migration is affected by political turmoil in the country of origin and asylum policies in the destination country (De Beer, 2008).
Data Issues

This report draws not only on theories and policies relating to migration to and from the UK, but also on data to help demonstrate the impacts of these in terms of the estimated number and trends of migrants.

There are many data sources available that relate to migration, including National Insurance Number Allocations (NINO), Worker Registration Scheme (WRS) for A8 migrants, NHS registrations from abroad (Flag4), the International Passenger Survey (IPS), the UK decennial Census, the School Census, Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA) count of students, Seasonal Agricultural Workers Scheme (SAWS), Electoral Registers and the Labour Force Survey (LFS). However, it should be noted that all these data sources have limitations when used for estimating migration. None were designed specifically to measure migration and most likely fail to capture all flows and stocks. These sources are especially limited in recording emigration as there are no de-registrations from the datasets (ICoCo for LGA, 2007).

Estimates of immigration, emigration and stocks of migrants in the UK are often produced using a combination of these sources, so it is therefore important to understand that there are limitations attached to them. Please refer to the appendix for more information about each of these data sources and the specific limitations of each.
Relevant Policies Relating to International Migration into the UK

The trends in international migration are largely a result of the policies put in place to either encourage or deter people from coming to the UK. This section charts the reasons behind migration policies bought in since the end of the Second World War and where possible, their effects on migration numbers during this period.

Post-Second World War Migration Policies

Following the Second World War a number of policies were introduced – firstly to encourage migration into the UK to help with reconstruction, and then to work in the growing fields of the NHS and the car industry (Geddes, 2003). Many such migrants helped sustain the economic boom of the time not just in the UK but across much of Western Europe, by taking on jobs that nationals were not willing to do (Freeman, 1978 cited in Messina and Lahav, 2005).

However, it had been assumed – wrongly as it turned out - that these migrant workers would return home when they were no longer needed. By the late 1970s it was clear that this was not the case as the migrant population had evolved to include women, children and older people. In 1961, one sixth of immigrants were women and there were few children. By 1971 women and children accounted for 75 % of immigrant arrivals (Winder, 2004). Because many of these workers came from former colonies, they held passports for the UK and so had the same rights as those born in the country (Geddes, 2003).

In the 1970’s policies began to tighten up the rules on who was eligible to migrate to the UK. Citizens of the UK and colonies that were born in the UK or had a parent or grandparent born, adopted, registered or naturalised in the UK, had the right to live in the UK, whereas citizens of independent Commonwealth countries no longer had the right. This essentially meant that all non-patrial Commonwealth citizens would be treated the same as any other foreign immigrants (Dummet, 2001).

In the 1980’s policies were introduced which further limited access by the New Commonwealth (Hatton and Price, 1999).

Asylum Seeker and Refugee Policies

Migrants are generally motivated by the desire for a better life, however, a significant number migrate from fear of persecution. Policies regarding asylum seekers and refugees in some respects mirror those for general immigration, but with tighter controls.

Political changes across Europe during the 1980’s, followed by the war in the former Yugoslavia, and political and social turmoil in Romania in the early 1990s, led to a large rise in the number of refugees in Europe. The 1990s was dominated by migration to the UK for asylum (Van Wissen and Jennissen, 2008). These asylum seekers came from Eastern Europe, Africa, and the Middle East (IER and BMG, 2008). As the number of applications for Asylum rose, European countries created stricter migration policies to limit numbers (Van Wissen and Jennissen, 2008). In the UK in the 1990s, a series of Asylum and Immigration Acts were passed to speed up
processing of applications and to remove those with illegitimate claims (Winder, 2004).

Current Migration Policies

Recent changes to UK migration policy include a single UK Border Agency (UKBA) and a Points-Based System (PBS) for migrants from outside the EEA and Switzerland. The PBS is designed to allow migrants that have financial assets, high level skills or skills needed by the economy to work in the UK (IPPR, 2009). There are five tiers to the PBS which set out who can migrate:

Tier 1 – Highly skilled individuals to contribute to growth and productivity.

Tier 2 – Skilled workers with a job offer to fill gaps in UK labour force.

Tier 3 – Low skilled workers from outside the EEA - remains closed.

Tier 4 - The student tier. To make the student route simpler and more robust against abuse.

Tier 5 – Allows people to work in the UK for a limited period of time (maximum of 1 to 2 years) to satisfy primarily non-economic objectives e.g. entertainers, athletes or ministers of religion (UK Border Agency, 2010a).

There is also a Borders, Citizenship and Immigration Act, which requires all migrants that want to gain citizenship and stay permanently in Britain to speak English and obey the law (CLG, 2009a). The process of gaining citizenship is speeded up for migrants that contribute to the community (CLG, 2008).
Accession 8 Migration to the UK

The report now turns to look at specific migration, firstly that from the Accession 8 countries to the UK.

In May 2004 the Treaty of the Accession to the European Union (2003) between the existing 15 EU member states and 10 new states came into force (European Commission, 2009a). 10 EU countries joined the EU in 2004, 8 of these became known as the A8 countries - Poland, Slovakia, the Czech Republic, Slovenia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania and Estonia – and Malta and Cyprus – known as A10 when combined with the A8. In January 2007, Romania and Bulgaria joined the EU and became known as the A2 (European Commission, 2009b).

Under EU law a person has the right to live and work freely within any EU Member State. The UK, along with Ireland and Sweden, were the only EU15 countries who decided not to place any restrictions on free movement between the new A8 countries and EU Member States at the time of accession. This, in part, led to more A8 nationals registering to work in the UK than expected (IER for LGA, 2008). Other reasons why the UK saw more A8 migrants than expected were:

- Predictions on the numbers of migrants were based on permanent migration flows, whereas a high proportion of A8 migration has been for short periods.
- A higher number than expected were working in the UK before the accession, some already working in the UK and resident as students, but many would have been irregular migrants that registered after accession and so increased the official numbers.
- Migrants were attracted by a strong economy and low unemployment.
- There was active recruitment of A8 nationals by UK employers (IPPR, 2008b).

The UK placed restrictions on migrants from A2 countries (Bulgaria and Romania) which joined the EU in 2007, which is probably why the number of migrants coming to the UK from these two countries have been much lower than predicted (IER for LGA, 2008).

As National Insurance Number (NINO) allocation data which records the nationality of registrants existed before the A8 countries joined the EU in 2004, it is possible to compare the rise in allocations before and after the accession. In 2002 A8 countries accounted for 3.4 % of the NINO allocations to overseas nationals in the South East. By 2008 this figure had risen to 35.8 %. In 2002 South African, Indian and Philippino migrants were the largest proportions of NINO allocations. Old and New Commonwealth Countries as well as the EU15 countries also featured prominently. In 2008 Poland had the largest proportion of all countries’ allocations (17.8 %), followed by India with 5.8 % (DWP, 2009).
Reasons for A8 migration to the UK

Although research has suggested that migrant groups in general have a higher propensity to be in full time education in the UK (Riley and Weale, 2006 cited in CLG, 2009b), this does not seem to be true for A8 migrants where economic reasons are the main motivation behind their migration, with social and cultural factors coming second. 83 % of respondents in the South East Migrant Worker Survey reported that their main reason for coming to the UK was to work and earn money (IER and BMG, 2008). A survey in Southampton asked 14 professionals that work with A8 migrants in various capacities the reasons why Polish professional migrants came to the UK, the main reason given was to work or to find work (Southampton City Council, 2007).

Other reasons listed in the Southampton survey included higher wages, to better themselves, for the adventure, and to make some money to send home to Poland. It was cheaper to come to the UK than it was to go to other parts of Poland, and England was the second most attractive destination after the US (Southampton City Council, 2007).

In general, the A8 countries did not have linguistic or cultural ties to the UK before their accession. However, Poland was more closely linked with the UK, and had the largest pre 2004 population. Some Polish refugees settled in the UK after the Second World War and this link may explain why the majority of A8 nationals migrating to the UK have been Polish (IPPR, 2008b). In the South East Migrant Worker Survey, for example, respondents from Poland were more likely than other nationalities to say that a reason for their migration was that they knew someone in the UK (IER and BMG, 2008).

Length of Stay in the UK

Many migrants are uncertain about how long they are coming to the UK for. The ease of migrating to and from the UK to A8 and A2 countries means that migrants can come and go with relative ease. The respondents to the South East Migrant Worker Survey were asked how long they planned to stay in the UK, both before they arrived and at the time of the survey. The percentage of respondents who planned to stay less than three years decreased from before arrival to their current situation and the percentage of people without plans for how long they intended to stay increased from 24 % before arrival to 38 % when the survey took place. The percentage of respondents planning to settle permanently in the UK increased from 14 % to 23 % at the time of the survey (IER and BMG, 2008). The uncertainty around migrant’s intentions for length of stay is a challenge for local areas trying to adapt to the arrival of migrants and to plan for future numbers and needs (IER and BMG, 2008).

It is possible that the mean length of stay in the UK for A8 migrants will continue to rise in the future, if the current stock of migrants stay for long periods of time. This would suggest that the stock of A8 migrants will continue to grow. However, as other countries remove their restrictions to A8 migrant movement and in 2011 when all restrictions across the EU have been removed, there is likely to be a reduction in inflows of A8 migrants to the UK (CLG, 2009b).
Whether a migrant chooses to stay in the UK depends on the economic conditions in the UK, their home country and any other would be migration country. The attraction of the UK to A8 migrants may be weakening due to the economic downturn, changing exchange rates, rising economic development in the home countries and the relaxing of restrictions in other EU countries (IER and BMG, 2008).

**Demographic Characteristics of A8 Migrants.**

A8 migrants seem to have specific demographic characteristics. In 2007, Southampton City Council reported that the majority of A8 migrants come to the UK for work and were of young working age, with only a few bringing dependents with them.

Nationally, 43% of A8 migrants in the WRS from May 2004 – March 2009 were 18-24 years old and a further 38% were aged between 25-34. Some 8% declared that they had dependants with them. A slightly higher proportion were male (56%), compared to 44% female (UK Border Agency et al, 2009).

These characteristics, particularly their age will impact upon their aspirations, labour market flexibility, accommodation needs and preferences, and their need for services. As the majority of A8 migrants come to the UK for employment and are young and mostly single, a large number make few demands on education, health and social care services. This makes them net contributors to the economy (CLG, 2008). However, as the majority of A8 migrants are in the reproductive age groups, if they remain in the UK longer term and have children, this is likely to put pressure on maternity, pre-school and school services (IER and BMG, 2008).

A8 migrants are more likely to be employed in lower skilled occupations and less likely to be in managerial and professional occupations than other migrant groups and the UK resident population, though not necessarily due to having lower skill levels (CLG, 2009b). However, compared to the UK population and other migrant groups, the participation rate in the labour market of the working age A8 population is high (CLG, 2009b).

A8 migrants tend to be concentrated in particular industry sectors, with 40% of those that registered between July 2004 and March 2009 employed in Administration, Business and Management, 19% in Hospitality and Catering, and 10% in Agriculture (according to the WRS). They are also concentrated by specific occupation types, with 28% employed in general occupations such as Process Operatives (other factory worker), 8% as Warehouse operatives, 6% as Packers, 6% as Kitchen and Catering Assistants and 6% as Cleaners/Domestic Staff (UK Border Agency et al, 2009).

**Geographical Distribution of A8 Migrants**

Many migrants from A8 countries are settling in areas that have not had large immigrant populations in the past. Post-war migration was largely concentrated in London, the Midlands, the North West and Yorkshire, as migrants came to work for the NHS, textiles and the car industry (Geddes, 2003). Since then, international migration has been largely driven by family reunification. However, A8 migration is
primarily for employment and so migrants are going wherever the jobs are (IDeA, 2007).

London has always been a popular destination for international migrants, however, London’s proportionate share of migrants has fallen. Between 1986 and 2000 49% of the migrant population that arrived in the UK lived in London. However, this had dropped to 36% of arrivals between 2001 and 2006 (GLA, 2008 - Data from the Annual Population Survey 2006). Migrants from EU25 are 24% of London’s migrant population, but one third of the population outside of London, indicating that EU migrants are more dispersed and less focused on London (GLA, 2008).
Short Term and Circular Migration

Historically, migrants did not have the financial or logistical arrangements necessary for short term migration (IPPR, 2008b). However, short term and circular migration has increased in recent years and it is thought that only about a quarter of migrants that arrived in the UK in 2008 were still here in 2009 (IPPR, 2009). Short term and circular migration has increased because:

- A8 and A2 migrants have a propensity to migrate temporarily and circulatory.
- Changes to migration policies see many people coming to the UK with a work permit and as such are much less likely to settle permanently.
- There has been a growth in international students, a large proportion of which return home after studying.
- There has been a rise in low cost air travel so the geographical areas available for short term migration have widened.
- The growth in electronic communications has improved networks between countries (IPPR, 2008b: IER and BMG, 2008).

As A8 countries are relatively close to the UK, the ability for A8 migrants to migrate for short time periods or circularly is greater than for migrants coming from further afield. The reduced barriers to international short term migration mean that short term moves that used to occur largely within a country may now also occur much more across countries (IER and BMG, 2008). There is evidence that labour migrants from the EU are internally mobile within the UK, particularly those involved in seasonal work (Pillai et al 2007; Spencer et al 2007 both cited in IPPR, 2008a).

These patterns make the migration flows between Europe and the UK very complicated with migrants able to come over repeatedly to work for a few months a year for many years. The things that drive super mobility, such as labour market demand, demographic factors, intra-EU mobility, the expanding international student market, and economic integration are likely to get stronger in the future and so migration patterns may become even more complex in years to come (IPPR, 2008a).
Immigration from Outside the EU

Immigration from outside the EU is part of the UK’s history, stemming from the immigration following the Second World War to help with reconstruction, and then to work in the NHS and the car industry (Geddes, 2003). This immigration and the policies of the time led to stocks of migrant communities living in the UK and has formed the multicultural society of the UK today.

Immigrants that came to help the UK after the Second World War came first from Western and Eastern Europe. However, in the 1950s and 60s, when the ‘Cold War’ started and Western Europe grew economically, cheap and flexible labour began to be sought from Ireland and the New Commonwealth (West Indies, Africa and Asia) (IER for LGA, 2008). Though policies tried to stop these flows during the 1960s and 1970s, the flows continued until the early 1970s and afterwards at a slower pace (IER for LGA, 2008).

Many foreign-born residents in the UK are from Asian Commonwealth countries – India and Pakistan (which make up the majority), Bangladesh, Malaysia, Singapore and Sri Lanka (CLG, 2009b). Migrants from the other 14 countries of the original EU15 are also prominent in the UK. This group is dominated by Irish citizens, but there are large numbers of German, French, Spanish and Italian nationals (CLG, 2009b). At relatively smaller numbers, the UK also has stocks of migrants from other new Commonwealth countries - African Commonwealth, especially Kenya, Nigeria and Zimbabwe and the old Commonwealth - Australia, Canada, New Zealand and South Africa. There are also residents from the Caribbean - mainly Jamaica and China, Hong Kong and the US (CLG, 2009b).

As total migration levels increase so does migration for family formation or reunion. Visas are granted for spouses, fiancé(e)s, partners and dependents of UK nationals and in 2009 50,000 of these were issued (Data from Home Office, 2009 cited in IPPR, 2010).

During the 1990s and start of the 21st Century, asylum seeker flows were a large part of the increase in immigration to the UK. The number of applications increased from approximately 20,000 annually in the early 1990s to 80,000 in 2000. These flows have since settled down at around 25,000 annually since 2005, as the asylum system has improved and some conflicts ended (Data from Home Office, 2008 cited in IPPR, 2010).

Outside of family formation and asylum seeker flows, immigration from outside the EEA and Switzerland is now controlled by the Points-Based System. Nearly 100,000 visas were given to migrants and their dependents through tiers 1 and 2 and other work permits/visas in 2009. 400,000 Student visas and temporary work/study visas were also granted in 2009 (Data from Home Office, 2009 cited in IPPR, 2010).
Emigration

Whilst immigration to the UK has been shaping the population here, UK emigration to other countries has helped shape those populations.

Emigration is part of the UK’s migration history. In the last two centuries, the old settler colonies of Australia, Canada, New Zealand and South Africa have been the main destinations of British emigrants (IPPR, 2006). During the 1960s many British people emigrated to these countries and in 1964 there was net emigration of 17,000 people (Winder, 2004).

IPPR (2006) research suggests almost one in ten British nationals live all or part of the year overseas. Numerically this equates to approximately 5.5 million British nationals living permanently overseas and 500,000 British people living abroad for parts of the year, the majority in second homes. The number of UK-born people leaving the UK increased considerably in the last decade. Common destinations for UK-born emigrants are Australia, New Zealand, Spain, France and Portugal (CLG, 2009; IPPR, 2006) though 112 countries are estimated to have a British population of greater than 1000 people (IPPR, 2006).

Migrating abroad for retirement is a popular trend, and the UK government is estimated to be paying over £2 billion each year to over a million state pensioners living abroad. In addition to this, annual payments of several hundred million to foreign health systems are paid to care for pensioners living in Europe (IPPR, 2006). As the UK’s population ages, it has been suggested that the number of pensioners living abroad could grow to 3.3 million by 2050 (IPPR, 2006).

In 2008, 175,000 British citizens were reported to have left the UK while a further 85,000 returned to the UK from overseas. Non-British citizens also emigrate, and an estimated 255,000 left the country during 2008 (ONS, 2009). An IPPR (2009) report noted that since 1975, at least 61,000 immigrants have left the UK each year. They report that emigration of immigrants is a growing phenomenon and the overall rate of re-migration could reach 200,000 or more a year over the next two years, and over 150,000 each year over the next five years.

The main reasons for the rise in re-migration are thought to be the increasing numbers of temporary student visas, and short term labour migration of A8 nationals. Return migration is linked to personal factors, such as being homesick, while re-migration to a third country is linked to economic factors (IPPR, 2009).

Reasons for emigrating are usually tied up with pull factors from destination countries, rather than negative push factors from the UK. These include work, family ties abroad, quality of life, value for money, climate, and recreation. Overseas adventure is also an attraction – particularly for young adults emigrating temporarily (IPPR, 2006).
Migration and the Economy

The migration of large numbers of people can impact on various aspects of social and economic life in both the host and origin countries. This report will now turn to literature that has investigated the various social and economic impacts of UK migration, focusing largely on the recent A8 migration.

The Economic Costs and Benefits of Migration

Migration can have both benefits as well as costs to a local area, depending on a number of factors including the age of migrants and their reasons for migrating. For example, migration can ease labour and skills shortages and increase employment (IER for LGA, 2008). However, it can also negatively affect the existing population by increasing unemployment and economic inactivity, and depressing wage rates (IER for LGA, 2008). Migrants often take on lower skilled jobs (ICoCo for LGA, 2007: CLG, 2009b) and as such the migrant might gain through increased wages compared to those paid in their home country and the employer might gain through motivated staff, whilst the existing low paid and low skilled workforce may have to compete with migrants for jobs (Audit Commission, 2007: ICoCo for LGA, 2007: Equality and Human Rights Commission, 2009).

Evidence suggests that migration positively impacts on the economy at the National level, but less is known about the local level (CLG, 2008). CLG suggests that in the longer term migration will benefit all local communities, by encouraging innovation, entrepreneurship and increase demand for goods and services as well as output and productivity. However, there may be costs of increased migration at the local level in the short term, as services adapt to cope with increased demand (CLG, 2008).

A report by IPPR in 2008 found evidence to suggest that A8 migrants have reduced inflation, lowered the natural rate of unemployment, eased bottlenecks in the labour market and increased the flexibility of the labour force. Migrants tend to go to areas where there is work and so aid regional development and prevent labour shortages (IPPR, 2008b). Many migrants are making a positive contribution by opening bank accounts and using other goods and services that support the economy. Trade has increased both to and from the A8 and A2 countries since the accession, and trade links are likely to continue between migrants and the UK once they have returned to their home country (IPPR, 2008b).

A8 and A2 Employment in the UK

A8 and A2 working age nationals were more likely to be in employment in the UK in 2007 than UK nationals - 84 % compared to 76 %. This was among the highest percentages for all foreign nationals living in the UK (IPPR, 2008b – data from the LFS). This is unsurprising given that their primary motivation for migration is to work. However, 89 % of A8 nationals earned less than £400 a week before tax whilst working in the UK, compared to just over half of UK-born workers. The Labour Force Survey (LFS) shows that A8 and A2 migrants are also working longer hours than UK-born workers and are prepared to travel further for work than other low paid workers (IPPR, 2008b).
In the South East Migrant Worker Survey of A8 and A2 migrants, the majority of respondents were in employment (96%), and for many of the respondents their job in the UK was their first experience of employment. Only two-thirds of these people were working before they came to the UK (18% were students and 16% were unemployed before they came). Polish responders to the survey were the most likely to have been unemployed before coming to the UK (54%) (IER and BMG, 2008).

The Types of Employment undertaken by A8 and A2 Migrants and Barriers to employment

In terms of the type of employment undertaken by migrants – generally they concentrate at either end of the occupation distribution, occupying either low skilled or professional occupations. The concentration of migrants in occupations also varies by country of origin, with A8 and A2 migrants focusing on the low skilled jobs (CLG, 2009d). This occurs often because these jobs are harder to fill with UK-born workers, and require fewer qualifications and English language skills (IER for LGA, 2008).

A8 and A2 migrants with high levels of education are still likely to work in low-skilled and poorly paid jobs (CLG, 2009d; CLG, 2009b; IPPR, 2008b). Whilst migrants from elsewhere in the EU and other countries largely occupy higher skilled and higher paid jobs (CLG, 2009d). The Southampton City Council survey found that migrant workers were working in a wide range of unskilled jobs but that most were qualified to do other jobs. This can be because of language barriers, employers not recognising qualifications and the migrant’s willingness to get any job (Southampton City Council, 2007). This means that there is a pool of high skilled labour that is not being used in either the UK or their home country (IPPR, 2008b).

44% of respondents to the Migrant Workers Survey were working in a different occupation to that which they did at home or wanted to do when they migrated. The reasons they gave were that their English was not good enough for the occupation they wanted, or they could not find or get the job they wanted or that the job they are doing was all that was available (IER and BMG, 2008).

Migrants see working in the UK in low skilled jobs as attractive for a short period, as they can earn more than in high skilled jobs at home. This allows migrants to build up money to invest when they return home (IPPR, 2008b). However, as the economies of the A8 and A2 countries grow, this attraction might well reduce in the long term and migrations, for this reason at least, might decline (IPPR, 2008b).

Migrant Dense Sectors and Competition with UK-born Workers

Migrant dense sectors are those where there is a greater propensity for migrant workers to be employed than UK-born workers. They are not a new phenomena, as migrants have always tended to address labour shortages and work in sectors with low barriers to entry (IER and BMG, 2008). Most competition between migrants and UK-born workers however, is likely to occur in the low skilled and low wage jobs. (Equality and Human Rights Commission, 2009). This is due to those job tending not to need good English language skills, or local experience (Equality and Human Rights Commission, 2009).
One area at risk from negative effects of a high migrant workforce are teenage workers. This is due to the lower skilled jobs that teenagers are often seeking in order to get into the labour market. In fact the Equality and Human Rights Commission reports that a US study found immigration to have much larger effects on teenage employment than adult employment (Equality and Human Rights Commission, 2009).

In higher skilled jobs it can be more difficult for migrants to substitute UK-born workers as qualifications are not always recognised. However, where they do, this can be seen in a more positive light where the competition helps aid the sharing of ideas (Equality and Human Rights Commission, 2009).

In the longer term though, migrant workers may do better economically than some domestic workers, possibly because they will move to jobs that are more skilled, once their English has improved (ICoCo for LGA, 2007), as they hold the skills but not the experience or language skills.

There is some evidence to show that for some migrant dense sectors migrant populations have displaced UK-born workers. For example, IER and BMG (2008) used the LFS to show that employment of migrants in migrant dense sectors increased by almost 50 % from 2002-2007, while the employment of UK-born workers in migrant dense sectors fell by 7 %. In the manufacturing sector, the number of migrant workers increased by 83 % while UK-born workers declined by 15 %. In terms of migrant dense occupations, the study also showed that the employment of migrants rose by 52 % from 2002-2007, whilst the employment of UK-born declined by 6 % (IER and BMG, 2008).

What is less clear is whether this displacement is voluntary or not (IER and BMG, 2008). Job replacement may happen through natural job turnover, with UK-born workers choosing to work in more attractive conditions or jobs with greater cultural value. However, evidence from IER and BMG (2008) shows a rise in UK-born unemployment in migrant dense occupations. Such a finding suggests that at the occupational level at least, there is some evidence of involuntary displacement of UK-born workers by migrant workers (IER and BMG, 2008).

Seasonal tourism and agricultural work is often undertaken by migrant workers and can suffer labour shortages at peak times (International Organisation for Migration, 2005). Research commissioned by the Migration Advisory Committee found that 84 % of peak season agricultural workers were foreign born in April 2008 (Migration Advisory Committee, 2008 cited in Equality and Human Rights Commission, 2009).
The Economic Downturn and Migration

Over the past couple of years the UK along with much of the rest of the world has faced an economic downturn. This section addresses how this is affecting migration in the UK.

Economic conditions in the UK, along with other destination countries as well as origin countries will vary over time and as such the UK will become a more or less attractive destination. An example of how economic changes affect migration to the UK can be seen in migration to the UK from Lithuania. Between 2004 and 2007 the number of Lithuanian migrants coming to the UK has fallen. The most probable reason for this decline is the falling unemployment rate in Lithuania (from 11.4 % to 4.3 % during the same period) and Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita rising from 51 % of the EU average to 60 % (IPPR, 2008b).

The large gap in the earnings potential in the UK and A8 countries has also been quoted as a factor in A8 migration (IPPR, 2008b). However, a reduction in the financial gains of coming to the UK may make the UK a less attractive destination in the future (IER for LGA, 2008). There was high unemployment in much of central and Eastern Europe at accession but unemployment has since fallen. There are now more employment opportunities (and skills shortages in some sectors) in the origin countries (IPPR, 2008b).

It is expected that immigration levels will fall as a result of the recession and associated reduction in job opportunities (CLG, 2009a and 2009d). CLG report that there is a real risk that UK net migration will fall significantly during and after the downturn, as the attractiveness of the UK declines relative to other destinations (CLG, 2009d). A8 migrants that work in sectors that are reliant on consumer’s having disposable incomes, may move on (CLG, 2009d). It should be noted however, that migration is a complex process, so it is hard to predict if and how far migration might fall during the downturn and how it will change once the downturn is over. However, evidence from the WRS suggests the number of A8 migrants who registered to work in the UK during 2009 was lower than in any previous year (WRS data). Migrants are still coming to the UK but a higher proportion are now thought to be those who are coming for non-economic reasons - family reunification, humanitarian protection, as well as to study, learn English and for the experience (CLG, 2009a; CLG, 2009d). As such their motivation for coming to the UK is largely unaffected by the UK’s economic situation, although it may well be affected by the economic situation in their country of origin, both nationally and individually.

In terms of numbers, it is anticipated that non-British immigration will decrease or stabilise whilst re-migration will increase. IPPR (2009) expect net migration will fall during the next two to five years, but not to the extent that there will be net emigration (IPPR, 2009). The downturn is not expected to cause an exodus of migrants to leave the UK (CLG, 2009d) and the stock of A8 migrants in the UK may continue to rise, but at a slower rate (CLG, 2009a). Migrants that are already in the UK may not have an incentive to leave, unless they are attracted by improved economic situations in their country of origin or in other destination countries. Since much of Eastern
Europe and other popular migrant destination countries are also suffering in the downturn this would seem unlikely at the present time (CLG, 2009d). The A8 migrants that are most likely to leave the UK are those in sectors vulnerable to the economic downturn and those without ties (e.g. children in schools) or definite plans to stay in the UK (CLG, 2009a).

CLG (2009d) report that the geographical location of A8 migrants has become slightly more focussed on London since the downturn began, as the decline in the number of WRS inflows is greater in other regions, though the figures for the South East and East also remain relatively high. Given the circular nature of the migration of A8 migrants, and their migration for primarily economic reasons, migrants may arrive when there are lots of jobs to go round and return home when things get more difficult. A statement backed up by the Equality and Human Rights Commission whose research suggests migrants will come back to the UK when the economy recovers (Equality and Human Rights Commission, 2009).

CLG (2009d) commissioned the National Institute for Economic and Social Research (NIESR) to examine the impact of the economic downturn on migration. They suggest that migrants coming from the A8 are likely to see the largest fall in numbers as their net inflows are large compared to their stock in the UK. It is thought that migrants from other countries will be less responsive to the UK’s economic problems (CLG, 2009b). Oxford Economics forecast that UK net migration could be around 100,000 in 2009 and stabilise at around 90,000 after 2013 (compared to 250,000 in 2004 and 237,000 in 2007) (CLG, 2009d). These figures suggest the recent high levels of net migration may be over, as other nations compete for migrants and the pound and UK job market are not expected to be so attractive over the forecast period (CLG, 2009d).

The sharp downturn in UK activity and rise in unemployment that has resulted in these reduced projections for migrant numbers may have longer-term economic consequences. NIESR project that the labour force will reduce by 23,000 in 2009 because of lower migration and be 200,000 fewer in 2015, compared to their 2008 (pre-downturn) forecasts (CLG, 2009b).

Employers in migrant dense sectors may find it difficult to address labour shortages if the level of A8 and A2 migration drops, particularly in manufacturing, agriculture, hospitality and health and social care. CLG (2009d) suggest migrant workers may make up as much as a quarter of all those in current employment in UK agriculture. They suggest that agriculture may be the sector most dependent on Eastern European workers and at risk if the numbers migrating to the UK decline.

There are obviously other factors influencing the attractiveness of the UK to A8 and A2 migrants that are not economic, such as culture and language. English is a global language that attracts people that want to learn it and those that can speak it. This attraction will remain despite the changes in origin and other destination countries (IER and BMG, 2008).
The Impact of Migration on Services and Planning

Migration can impact on services and planning at both the national and local level. In order to cope with current levels and plan for future challenges it is important to understand both the stock and flows of migrants, as well as the types of migrants coming to an area. However, as mentioned previously, accurate data on numbers and trends particularly at the local level is hard to come by which makes planning for service provision and delivery much harder. However, a large pool of those migrants that do come to the UK, come for work or study and are young, fit, and without dependents. As such these migrants tend to make little demand on public services (Audit Commission, 2007; iCoCi, November 2007; IER and BMG, 2008).

In 2009, the Government created a £70 million Migration Impacts Fund, the aim being to reduce the pressure that high levels of in-migration might have on local public services. The fund is paid for by migrants through their visa fees. Examples of how the money is being spent include - providing more multilingual teachers in schools, reducing anti-social behaviour, and increasing GP registrations (CLG, 2009a).

Migrants and Welfare Benefits

Migrants from within the EEA and other countries are entitled to income related benefits (such as contribution based benefits like Jobseekers Allowance), once they have worked and made National Insurance contributions. A8 and A2 migrants can claim income related benefits after they have been employed for a year and are entitled to child benefits and tax credits as soon as they start working. However, they lose this entitlement if they become unemployed before working for 12 months (IPPR, 2008b). These benefits largely fit the entitlements that British nationals who live and work in other EU countries are entitled to (IPPR, 2008b).

Only migrants that can prove they have a right to reside in the UK can claim any income related benefits. Evidence suggests that the majority of migrants have not claimed benefits, and those that have tended to claim tax credits and child benefit (IPPR, 2008b). The LFS in 2007 suggests that a very similar proportion of A8 and A2 migrants claimed child benefit and tax credits to the UK population (IPPR, 2008b). Migrant claimants of other benefits are thought to be much lower than the UK-born population (LFS and IPPR calculations, 2008). CLG (2008) reports that less than 1% of applications for income related Jobseekers Allowance, Income Support and Pension Credit during the previous four years were from EEA nationals.

Migrants and Housing

The private rented sector is the main supply of housing for migrants (iCoCo for LGA, 2007; CLG, 2008; IER and BMG, 2008; CLG, 2009a). The South East Migrant Worker Survey found that 85% of respondents were renting from a private sector landlord and just 3% were living in social rented housing (IER and BMG, 2008). CLG estimates that in England in 2006/7, 6% of mainstream lettings to new social housing tenants were to foreign nationals. Many of these people would have lived in the UK for a long time and have children and spouses that are UK nationals. However, IER and BMG (2008) report that there had been a considerable increase in
A8 migrants on South East council waiting lists. They also found that in some LAs more than half of the applications for emergency accommodation had been from migrants. Under the new earned citizenship proposals, migrants will only be eligible for social housing once they have become British citizens or permanent residents (CLG, 2008).

Private renting is a mobile tenure with higher levels of residential turnover. The Centre for Housing Policy at the University of York completed a review of the private rented sector and concluded that the effects of migration vary between areas, according to how the area traditionally absorbs migrant households. In areas with low housing demand, migrants have occupied existing housing whilst in areas of higher demand, properties have been adapted to HMOs so that they can house more migrants (CLG, 2009a).

Migrant workers employed in hospitality or seasonal agricultural work sometimes have accommodation arranged by their employer, which can soften the impact on local housing demand. 2% of respondents to the South East Migrant Worker Survey were living in this type of accommodation, but this research was carried out in the winter and a larger percentage would be expected over the summer (IER and BMG, 2008).

Migrants and Homelessness

Homelessness is an emerging problem among A8 and A2 migrants, with a Homeless Link report published in February 2009 finding that 25% of London’s rough sleepers are A10 nationals, a rise from 18% from the previous year (CLG, 2009a). Southampton City Council (2007) reported that the Southampton Homelessness team thought that there were between 6 and 10 homeless Polish people in Southampton and that there are normally around 10 people sleeping rough in total. However, IDeA (2007) report that the number of A8 migrants that have become homeless is very small compared to the number contributing to UK growth.

Migrants and Schools

Whilst the majority of international migrants are (at least initially) without family ties, some do either come with families or go on to have families after arriving (Audit Commission, 2007: ICoCo for LGA, 2007). LAs have noted the following impacts on their schools:

- The need for translation and interpretation services when children and parents do not speak much English.
- Numeracy and literacy issues as children in some countries do not start school until aged 7.
- Cultural differences and awareness (among migrants and hosts)
- The unanticipated number of children (ICoCo for LGA, 2007).

A sudden influx or continuing flow of migrant children poses pressures on schools. Areas with pupil churn during the school year may show static annual school population counts, but additional costs are caused by the churn (ICoCo for LGA,
The impact on schools is a particular issue as migrants often live in clusters and favour particular schools (IER and BMG, 2008).

12% of the school population in 2009 were pupils with English as an Additional Language (EAL) and 3.4% of primary schools had 70% or more EAL pupils (CLG, 2009a).

**Migrants and Health Care**

As previously noted, the majority of economic migrants are young and fit and so tend to make little demand on health services (Audit Commission, 2007; ICoCo for LGA, 2007; IPPR, 2008b). Their health needs and impact often starts with maternity services and child care (ICoCo for LGA, 2007).

One area where A8 migrants have been found to put pressure on health services is in the use of the accident and emergency services for non-emergency health issues, as some migrants are unaware of the UK system (as their home country has one combined system) (Audit Commission, 2007; ICoCo for LGA, 2007). Another report suggests that many short term migrants do not register with a GP in the UK, instead they carry on using services in their country of origin (IER and BMG, 2008).

However, 55% of respondents (65% of females and 49% of males) to the South East Migrant Worker Survey reported being registered with a GP, and this rose to 74% for female respondents aged 15-34. Registrations were lower amongst younger men and those who had been in the UK for a shorter time, while registrations were higher among those that had migrated with their family (IER and BMG, 2008).
What these Trends mean for Hampshire

Many of the trends and issues discussed in this report will have implications for Hampshire’s population, economy and service provision. Migration is important for local areas because of its impact on the size and composition of the population, and pockets of Hampshire have and will continue to be affected by migration. In the same way as they vary nationally, the social and economic impacts of migration vary across the county.

With the exception of Rushmoor’s Ghurkha population (former soldiers in the British Army and their families), Southampton’s Second World War Polish community, and the cities experience of international students, Hampshire has not been a major destination for migrants in the past. This has meant that for many parts of Hampshire, A8 migration has been their first experience of migration.

The wider geographic dispersal of A8 migrants means that their impact on Hampshire is likely to be greater than previous waves of migration to the UK. Research suggests Southampton is a popular destination (Southampton City Council, 2007). Migration is not a random event, and there are networks between origin and destination locations. As A8 migration becomes a more established flow to the UK, more networks may open up in Hampshire and migrants may disperse to other areas.

Future migration into Hampshire will depend on the push and pull factors and the attractiveness of other destinations both in the UK and internationally. As the main motivation for A8 migration is economic, the decision to come to Hampshire will be influenced by the availability of jobs within the county, as will their decision to stay.

As the South East Migrant Worker Survey highlighted, migrants are happier to work for lower wages in a high cost region, so they may continue to be attracted to Hampshire. However if the economic downturn continues to affect the employment of the UK-born population, they may be forced to take on jobs that were previously unattractive leaving fewer jobs available for migrants.

The impact of the economic downturn has varied across the UK and will also vary across Hampshire. In April 2010, the unemployment rate in Hampshire (including Portsmouth and Southampton) was 2.8 %, while the South East figure was 3 % and the National rate was 4.1 % (HCC 2010 – Data from ONS). This suggests that Hampshire has not been hit as hard as other parts of the country, and so migrants may be more likely to stay in Hampshire than return home or go elsewhere in the UK. However, the individual circumstances of migrants will vary and influence their migration decisions.
Future Trends

The future of migration flows is uncertain, including whether the UK will be a net receiver or loser of migrants, the numbers involved and the length of stay (IER and BMG, 2008).

If the financial push and pull factors that prompted A8 migration to the UK reduce, then the numbers of A8 migrants that come to the UK may decline and more may return home. CLG (2009b) suggest that the stock of A8 migrants in the UK may peak relatively soon and the gross inflow of A8 migrants to the UK will stabilise, whilst return migration will remain relatively high. This is because other EU countries will relax their restrictions after 2011 and A8 nationals will have a greater choice of destinations.

Emigration from the UK to A10 countries may increase over time, as links are formed because of trade and personal connections between the countries. There is evidence that UK residents are buying holiday homes in these countries and as the UK population ages, more people may be looking for retirement properties in these areas (IPPR, 2006 cited in IPPR, 2008b).

IPPR (2008b) identified factors that they think will lead to fewer migrants from A8 and A2 countries coming to the UK and cause more migrants to return home:

1. Economic development in sending countries
2. Diversion to alternative destinations as a result of restrictions in other EU member states being lifted
3. Devaluation of the pound sterling

IPPR (2008b) conclude that fewer A8 migrants will come to the UK in the future, and that many existing migrants will go home or somewhere else. They suggest those that stay will move up the labour market, resulting in the socio-economic profile of these A8 and A2 migrants becoming more like the UK (IPPR, 2008b).

In terms of migration from other countries, CLG (2009b) project that the rates of migration from the non-Indian Asian commonwealth (especially Bangladesh and Pakistan) will remain low, so will their return migration rates, so their stock in the UK population is likely to accrue. Return migration rates to India however, are projected to be higher as the economy there is expected to grow relatively rapidly.

The Number of asylum seekers and refugees has settled down following a peak in 2000 (IPPR, 2010). However, new conflicts or environmental issues could result in numbers swelling again in the future.

Migration is a very dynamic process and a large number of factors work to push or pull people to and from their country of origin to a new destination. A key and uncertain factor affecting migration trends in the UK during the coming years will be the economic situation of host, destination and alternative countries, particularly for A8 migration (CLG, 2009b). However, it is likely that migrants will continue to come
and go for family reunion, humanitarian protection, study, retirement and life experience in spite of economic conditions (CLG, 2009a).
Conclusions

Migration is a very complex and fluid process. The lack of robust data on the numbers of migrants, particularly at the local level, adds to the complexities. Nevertheless, this report has attempted to highlight how migration in the UK has changed over time, including the policies that have impacted on those trends and possible effects of the current economic downturn on current and future patterns.

Whilst the report has focussed largely on the recent A8 migration and its impacts, migration from outside the EU as well as emigration has also been covered to give a full picture of migration.

The migration of people into and out of the UK is not a recent phenomena. Looking back as far as the post war era, there is evidence of specific migration policies – initially to allow people to move to the country for work, and then as numbers swelled, much more towards policies that aimed to restrict and limit numbers where possible. These policies have helped shape the British population and society we have today.

Over time, the national origins of migrants have become more diverse. Shifting from largely Commonwealth and Western European areas to today’s migrants coming from almost anywhere in the world.

The recent A8 migration allowed free movement of these new members to settle and work in the UK. However, the initial numbers involved were much higher than anticipated and this has resulted in challenges and opportunities for local areas. The IPPR (2008b) concluded that the migration from A8 member states has been one of the most important social phenomena in recent years, and is probably one of the most concentrated voluntary migrations in the world at present. This migration has allowed migrants to earn money and to learn new skills (IPPR, 2008b), and from the point of view of migrants, the enlargement of the European Union has been a success.

There are similarities between the migrants that came to the UK in the 1950s and A8 migrants, as both were willing to do unskilled work. However, there are also differences. Many of the migrants from the 1950s settled in the UK – perhaps not always through choice, but because circular and temporary migration was much more difficult because of geographical distances and policies involved. The recent A8 migrants, however, have enjoyed freedom of movement within the EU allowing them the opportunity to migrate without the need to commit permanently to life in the UK (IPPR, 2008b).

There are signs that the flow of new accession state migrants is slowing. Whether this is solely a result of the economic downturn or due to more complex reasons only time will tell. However, restrictions that some EU countries placed on A8 migrants are due to end in the coming year which will mean more opportunities and competition for A8 migrants in other destinations countries.

Emigration, though also part of UK migration history is now a smaller part of the UK migration story. Up until the early 1980’s however, the country had net emigration
Today emigration is largely as a result of people moving overseas in retirement. But there is also a fair proportion of emigrants who migrate at a young age – often to countries such as Australia to start a new life and others who have second homes overseas and spend part of the year abroad. Emigrants are also made up of re-migrating migrants largely due to the growing trend of short term and circular migration particularly of A8 migrants.

Understanding migration is likely to remain hampered by poor quality data particularly at the local level. New sources in the coming years such as data from the electronic borders (e-borders) scheme and the 2011 census will provide some new information. The e-borders scheme is being set up with an aim of collecting data from every passenger travelling into or out of Britain. Whilst the purpose of the scheme is to aid national security, the information gained may well shed more light on emigration at least at the national level. Complicating the data issue is the growing complex nature of migration itself. It is likely that EU migration will, in particular, increasingly become a complex mix of people migrating for short periods for purely economic reasons before moving home or to another country and returning when work allows, against others who choose to settle more longer term in the country.

This report has presented a picture of the ever-changing story of UK migration. Whilst these migrations have formed hugely important social trends at the time and can have large implications at the local level, it is worth highlighting that only 3% of the world’s population live outside their country of birth (CLG, 2009b – data compiled by the UN in 2005). This relatively small percentage shows that international migration is not a normal event in most people’s lives and that the majority of people are born, live and die in a relatively small geographical area (Hammar et al, 1997 cited in Geddes, 2003).
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Appendix

Data Sources used to measure Migration

At the present time there is no single data source that provides comprehensive information on migration at the national or local level. As a result a number of proxy datasets are used to try to estimate migration. In order to make the most appropriate use of those data sources and understand the figures that are given it is important to be aware of their uses and limitations.

Those datasets that help provide a picture of migration include: the Census, the International Passenger Survey (IPS), Labour Force Survey (LFS), the School Census, GP registrations from abroad (Flag4), National Insurance Number Allocations (NINO), Worker Registration Scheme (WRS) for A8 migrants, UK Higher Education Statistics Authority (HESA) count of students, Electoral Registers and the Seasonal Agricultural Workers Scheme (SAWS). Each of these sources is detailed below in terms of what its main reason for collection is, how it can be used to estimate migration and what the gaps in its estimates of migration are that users should be aware of.

Census and Survey Data Sources

Census

The Census is a 10 yearly compulsory questionnaire covering the whole population that provides a snapshot of the characteristics of the population at that point in time. It aims to cover the whole population and can provide detailed socio-economic information at the very local level. The information is used to help plan for services and allocate funding. It is the most reliable and comprehensive data source for migration. The Census provides information on internal migration and international migrant in-flows, but not international out-flows. In the 2001 Census the country of birth statistic was used for measuring migrant stocks (ICoCo for LGA, 2007), and will again be used for the 2011 Census. The Census also asks where residents were living one year before the Census, and this includes addresses outside the UK which can be used to give an estimate of the in-flow of migrants in the year prior to census year. The main limitation is that the Census is only carried out once every ten years, so it is not up to date. In 2011 more questions on length of stay and nationally will be added to aid migration information and understanding.

International Passenger Survey (IPS)

The International Passenger Survey (IPS) is a survey of passengers arriving or leaving from UK air and sea ports and the channel tunnel. More than 250,000 people are interviewed annually, but only a very small number of these are international migrants, around 4,000 a year (ICoCo for LGA, 2007). Its measurement of out-migration is unique, but the small sample sizes mean that data is not produced below Government Office Regions. The IPS is used by ONS to produce estimates of international migration (IER and BMG, 2008). The main limitations of the IPS other than its sample size, are that it does not cover all types of migration, it excludes land routes between the UK and the Irish Republic and excludes most asylum seekers and
their dependents (IER for LGA, 2008). The survey also collects information on respondents initial intentions which may or may not turn out to be what they end up doing both in terms of location and duration of stay.

**Labour Force Survey (LFS)**

The Labour Force Survey (LFS) is carried out by ONS and is a rolling quarterly survey of 60,000 households that collects information on the population and labour market. In terms of migration information, the survey contains questions on country of birth, nationality, ethnicity, current address, address one year ago and date of arrival in the UK (ICoCo for LGA, 2007). Like all sample data, the LFS is subject to sampling error (IPPR, 2008b) which means it is unable to provide robust estimates much below the national level. It is also known to be less able to capture mobile populations (IER and BMG, 2008) i.e. those people who have been living at an address for less than one year and those born outside the UK.

**Administrative Data Sources**

Administrative data sources can often provide much more up-to-date information at the local level on some migrants as they are often obliged to register in order to comply with certain laws (IER for LGA, 2008).

It should be noted that for the majority of these schemes the incentive is to register but not to de-register and as such they are often not suitable for estimates of migrant stocks.

**National Insurance Numbers (NINO)**

National insurance numbers are unique to an individual and are usually required when a person is looking for work or to claim benefits in the UK. Data is collected on age, gender and nationality and is available by calendar year down to LA level. The data provide a good indication of the number of overseas nationals in a local authority who have arrived for work and therefore the numbers who are economically active. NINOs are much less useful as a basis for estimating stocks because they do not record de-registrations or changes of residence within the UK. They are also only captured for those migrants who take up employment or claim benefits – so will exclude those not working or needing benefits. Figures are coded to the location of the applicant at the time of registration, so ‘gateway’ areas may have higher numbers and destination areas lower numbers, than expected (ICoCo for LGA, 2007: IER and BMG, 2008).

**Worker Registration Scheme (WRS)**

The Worker Registration Scheme (WRS) is available at LA level and was introduced to regulate access to the labour market for A8 nationals. A2 migrants are not covered by the scheme. A8 migrants have to register to gain employment in the UK, but it excludes the self employed. Data is produced by date of birth, gender, nationality, wage rate, sector, occupation, hours worked, whether the work is temporary or permanent, planned length of stay (but not actual length of stay) and dependents for the first job in the UK. The data is grouped by address of the first employer rather than the actual address of the applicant, and applicants could live and work in
different areas. A8 nationals are required to re-register for subsequent jobs until they have worked for 12 months so could appear on the register several times. There is again no requirement to de-register when they leave and so the data source is less suitable to estimating migration stocks. Furthermore, information on intended length of stay should be used with caution as actual length of stay may be somewhat different. It should be noted that the WRS was set up as a temporary scheme so is unlikely to be a permanent data source (ICoCo for LGA, 2007: IER for LGA, 2008).

Seasonal Agricultural Workers Scheme (SAWS)

The Seasonal Agricultural Workers Scheme (SAWS) was bought in to allow workers from outside the EEA to work for farmers in seasonal agricultural work for a period of up to six months. The scheme has been in operation since the end of the Second World War when it was bought in to aid labour shortages. It allows a fixed quote of workers, which for the period 2010-11 at the national level was set at 21,250. Workers are paid at least the Agricultural Minimum Wage and are provided with accommodation by the farmer/grower they work for. Since 2008 the scheme has been solely for the use of Bulgaria and Romania citizens (A2 nationals). SAWS data are of most interest to areas where seasonal work in agriculture is considerable. SAWS workers are also covered by NINO data (IER for LGA, 2008: UK Border Agency, 2010b).

Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA)

The Higher Education Statistics Agency (HESA) monitors students, staff and finances of higher educational establishments. It provide a record of students living in the UK, including those whose country of usual residence is outside the UK, and students of UK Higher Education institutions that are studying abroad. Students provide their age, gender, expected length of stay and country of domicile. Nationality is requested but is not mandatory and as such coverage is often weak. It is possible to gain estimates of both stock and flows in terms of student migration from this data (IER for LGA, 2008).

NHS Flag4

The NHS records all patients registered with GPs in England and Wales through the Patient Registration Data System (PRDS). A Flag4 status is applied if a new registration is to someone whose previous address was outside the UK and they have lived outside the UK for more than three months. Age and gender are recorded, but nationality and country of birth are not routinely recorded. This data source provides an indication of international migration to the UK and is particularly useful for capturing immigrants with their dependents. It may be less useful for short term migrants and young males as they may be less likely to register. There is also often a time lag between arrival and registration. The flag is lost as soon as the migrant moves again within the UK and so areas with high churn may not see this reflected in the figures, particularly as the measurement of flag4s is taken as an annual snapshot (ICoCo for LGA, 2007: IER for LGA, 2008).
The School Census

The School Census is a count of all children in maintained education in the UK – Nursery, Primary, Middle, Secondary, Special Schools, Colleges, and Academies. The census is carried out each term and includes each pupil’s age, ethnicity, first language and home postcode. It can be used to help identify areas with high levels of migrants whom have children (using the proxy measure of first language other than English). However, the data does not record date of arrival in the UK and is only useful for measuring migrants that have children (ICoCo for LGA, 2007: IER for LGA, 2008).

Electoral Register

The Electoral Register records people resident in each local authority who are aged 18 or older and are eligible to vote and who chose to register to vote. Those without any voting rights are not added to the register. A known limitation is that this source tends to under record migrants in areas with high migration or high numbers of temporary residents. It also excludes those aged under 18 (ICoCo for LGA, 2007).