

# The Labour Mobility in the European Union: Economic and Social Determinants

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***Abstract.** East and Central European countries are, most of them, migration countries for 18 years now and controversies on this subject are constantly emerging in the context of European Union enlargements. This paper aims to analyze some of the determinants of intra-European mobility and which are the interest destination countries for the migrant workers. The analysis is based upon a factorial model which includes variables concerning the differential of labour cost and life and work conditions between European receiving and origin countries, in the decision of moving abroad.*

**Key words:** international mobility; European labour markets; migration determinants.

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**JEL Codes:** J01, J61.  
**REL Codes:** 12E, 12G.

### 1. Macroeconomic evidences: European mobility and foreign labour force

The evolution of the last wave of the globalization didn't been without contradictions, but contrarely, the process is asymmetric and non-uniform, especially between countries with large development differences. One of the most important paradoxes of globalization process is international migration. As it has been noticed by Faini, even from the end of the last century, "*International migration is the absentee in the current wave of globalisation, particularly in Europe*" (Faini, de Melo, Zimmermman, 1999, p. 1). This tendency is still present nowadays, "international migration seems to be, currently, excluded from the new globalization process" (Tapinos, Delaunay, 2000). In a world where distance and time have reduced (up to the edge in some fields), concerning the geographical mobility, we take part to a reinforcement of territorial dimension of the countries. The opening of frontiers for free passing of individuals wasn't connected with the liberalization of commercial and financial markets, but contrarely, the states imposed sequentially a growing number of barriers for human flows, espacially regarding the labour market access. Far from creating a global market, diversity, segmentation, the surplus or lack of human capital are some specific characteristics of labour markets, in some fields and countries.

Despite the large number of barriers some ways were found in order to force the frontiers, the growth of migratory flow being a reality. From 2002, between 1.5 and 2 milion immigrants set their home on

European territory, but the estimations indicate a decrease of its population with 50 million people by 2060. So, immigration can be a double challenge for the Europe, because it is a key-element in relaunching European demographics and a key-element for the dynamics of the economy (Barrot, 2008). For this reason, Europe must promote the open door policy for foreign labour force, for the immigrants that arrive legally. In a concisely presentation, the situation of the working immigrants in the European Union is the following: on January the 1<sup>st</sup> 2007 on the European territory, EU-27, there were over 27.9 million non-national people, among which 97.5% were on the EU-15 territory (25,823 million people in 2006) and only 7.5% on the territory of the 12 states that acceded the European Union in 2004 and 2007. Moreover, in five member states there was a massive concentration of foreigners, approximately 74.9% (20.897 milion people); for example: 7.3 milion people in Germany; 4 milion in Spain; 3.5 milion in France; over 3.4 milion in United Kingdom; 2.7 milion in Italy. In 2007 the foreign population represented 5.64% form the total population of the EU (non-national population from the EU and from countries outside the EU). This average comprises a large interval of the foreign population in the EU-27, from 38.2% in Luxemburg, to 20% in Latvia and 18% in Estonia, 9.8% in Austria, 9% in Spain, 8.9% in Germany and 8.5% in Belgium, 8% in Greece and 7.3% in Ireland, approximately 5.3-5.6% in Sweden, France, United Kingdom, to 4.5% in Italy, and countries where the presence of foreigners is very low (Slovakia 4.7%), close to 0.0%: Romania 0.12%, Bulgaria 0.34%. (Eurostat, 2008).

Some comparations: population, net migration, GDP level in UE-27

Table 1

Country	Population 01.01.2008	Net migration 2007	GDP/cap, 2007 Current prices	PIB/ cap (PPP) 2007
	thousands	totals	USD	USD
Austria	8331.9	31382	45,181.1	38,398.6
Belgium	10666.8	62.327	42,556.9	35,272.9
Bulgaria	7640.2	-1.397	5,186.4	11,302.5
Cyprus	794.6	12784	27,326.6	46,864.6
Czech Republic	10345924	83.945	17,069.7	24,235.5
Denmark	5475.8	23.071	57,260.9	37,391.8
Estonia	13.409.3	160	15,850.7	21,094.1
Finland	5300.5	13877	46,601.8	35,279.5
France	63753.1	71000	41,511.1	33,187.7
Germany	82201.8	47.802	40,415.4	34,181.1
Greece	11215.0	41000	28,273.2	29,172.1
Hungary	10045.0	14042	13,762.2	19,026.5
Ireland	4419.8	64394	59,924.4	43,143.9
Italy	59618.1	494315	35,872.4	30,448.3
Latvia	2270.9	-642	11,984.7	17,416.0
Lithuania	3366.3	-5244	11,354.3	17,661.1
Luxembourg	483.8	6001	104,673.2	80,457.3
Malta	410.6	2014	18,088.0	53,359.3
Netherlands	16404.3	-1644	46,260.6	38,485.9
Poland	38115.6	-20485	11,041.2	16,310.7
Portugal	10617.6	19500	21,018.8	21,700.8
Romania	21518.6	745	7,697.2	11,386.5
Slovak Republic	5401.0	6793	13,857.4	20,251.1
Slovenia	2025.8	14134	22,932.7	27,204.8
Spain	45283.2	701948	32,066.9	30,120.3
Sweden	9182.9	53978	49,654.8	36,494.3
United Kingdom	61186.0	174603	45,574.7	35,134.3
UE-27	497481.6	1910403		

Source: Eurostat; IMF *World Economic Outlook*. Database for April 2008.

In a large number of the EU countries, the majority of these foreigners have their origin in other EU member states (in 19 from 25 for which there is data, for the beginning of 2006): Latvia 99.4%; Luxemburg 95%, Belgium 77.1%; Slovenia 97.4%, Slovakia 84.1%, Austria 86.8%, Germany 81.1%. In six states (Greece, France, Italy, Portugal, Spain) the percentage of european foreigners ranged between 30.2-47.6%. Even if the number of foreign population on the EU territory is not so big, if we take into consideration the total population of the EU, it is still important because the population growth is due to the migrants and not to natural growth, this being surpassed by the first one.

In 2006 the foreigners represented 6.6% from the total population of the EU-15 and only 2.0% from that of the new member states NM-12. By total EU-27, the proportion of foreigners was very clearly divided on different countries. Analizing the dynamics of the population within EU-27 in the last years, even if there is a tendency for growth in all the old member states (with the exception of Germany) and in some of the new ones (Czech Republic, Slovenia, Slovakia), per total the data indicates a decrease of the population within the EU. So, if on January the 1st 2008, the population of the EU-27 was of 497,482 milion people, for 2050 the demographic

projections display a decrease of approximately 470-480 million persons, after growing until 2025 (Eurostat, 2008).

A simple conclusion leads to the necessity of attracting more foreign labour force. For the Central and Eastern European (CEE) countries, with an important migrant potential, the access to the EU represented the critical point of the human mobility towards the developed poles of the Union. The drawing of labour force outflows from Central and Eastern Europe, generally of all migrants, indicates an intensification of this phenomenon in the period precursory the access to the EU. Moreover, starting with the XX Century, a diversification of the destinations and types of migration can be noticed, prevailing the migration for work or family reunification. Besides the achievement of bigger wages in other place than the origin country, other motivations for migration decision include human-social components: the necessity of having a secure job, improvement in life quality, a larger flexibility to face the requirements of employment, job satisfaction etc. On the other hand, the economic development of the new member states and their recent statute of communitarian states indicate them as potential destinations for immigrants from outside the EU and European continent.

The migration of labour force has become more and more visible during the last ten years, inclusive in the EU, even if

the expectations regarding mobility within the Union suggested a larger amplitude of the phenomenon. Once the restrictions regarding the free movement around the Union were staved off, totally or partially, the phenomenon obtained new valences through different dimensions, motivations, forms and effects on the countries of destination and origin, but also on those only transited and migrants themselves. Have migrated both unskilled workers, especially for the agricultural activity, hard and dangerous jobs, and also highly skilled workers, specialised in IT, medicine, economy etc.

In 2005, in France there were 1456.4 thousand foreign persons, representing 5.3% from the total labour force; in Spain 1688.6 thousand people, representing 8.1% from the total working population; in Germany 3832 thousand persons, representing 9.3% from the total labour force, in UK 1504 thousand people, representing 5.4% from the total working population, in Italy 1479.4% persons, representing 6.0% from the total labour force (in 2003); for Switzerland the statistics show that over 830.1 thousand persons, representing 20.9% from the total labour force. These destination countries for the migrants are also the favourite destination of the workers arriving from the Eastern and Central Europe, like Poland, Romania, viewed as countries of origin, exporting migrants.

## Nationals and foreigners on EU–27 labour market. Employment and unemployment rate

Table 2

Country	Economical active population, 2006 Thousand	Foreign workers in some EU countries, 2005		Employment rate, 2005 (%)		Unemployment rate, 2005 (%)	
		Foreigners Thousand	% foreign labour force	Nationals	Foreigners	Nationals	Foreigners
Austria	4124	418.0	12.0	68.3	61.5	4.5	11.8
Belgium	4686	453.3	9.1	61.9	51.8	7.4	16.0
Bulgaria	3238	..	..	..	..	..	..
Czech Republic	5202	151.7	2.9	68.3	61.5	7.9	6.9
Denmark	2904	109.3	4.0	76.3	55.8	4.7	10.0
Estonia	687	..	..	..	..	..	..
Finland	2673	53.0	2.1	68.8	50.6	8.3	20.5
France	27886	1456.4	5.3	63.5	52.2	8.8	17.8
Germany	41112	3823.0	9.3	66.6	53.5	10.6	19.8
Greece	4880	324.6	6.7	59.8	68.0	9.9	8.1
Hungary	4247	62.9	1.5	56.7	66.2	7.2	..
Ireland	2078	..	..	67.0	68.7	4.1	6.3
Italy	24627	1479.4	6.0	..	..	..	..
Luxembourg	206	196.2	62.6	60.9	67.3	3.3	6.0
Malta	162	..	..	..	..	..	..
Netherlands	8365	287.5	3.4	67.5	71.6	4.5	12.0
Poland	16959	..	..	..	..	..	..
Portugal	5587	271.4	4.9	57.4	59.9	7.5	11.8
Romania	10042	..	..	..	..	..	..
Slovak Rep	2680	6.2	0.2	64.6	72.3	16.4	..
Slovenia	1007	..	..	..	..	..	..
Spain	21586	1688.6	8.1	62.5	69.8	9.1	11.6
Sweden	4602	..	..	73.5	56.9	8.4	16.5
U.K.	29636	1504.0	5.4	72.1	62.3	4.3	8.5

..not available

**Source:** Eurostat “*The Enlarged EU. A Statistical Handbook*”, 2007-2008; OECD “*International Migration Outlook*”, 2007.

The number of foreign workers (from the member states and other countries) in the EU is considered to be approximately 15 millions. According to statistics, in present, even if it exists a general model of migration determined by the necessity of acquiring a good job, better paid, in places with high social and economic standards, behind the phenomenon have appeared strong connections between determinants of different nature: social, educational or regarding working and life conditions. On the other hand, there are many constraints due to numerous accretions and economic and social characteristics, including, and this is very important, a certain educational background.

## 2. Economic and social determinants of intra-european economic mobility

The configuration of new migration flows from Central and Eastern Europe (CEE), towards European destinations, that is, North-Western and South-Western Europe, come as a result of the process of liberalisation initialised by the European Union’s (EU) eastward expansion in 2004 and 2007. The opening of frontiers, albeit gradual, for workers from the 12 new member states has proven to be a contributing factor to the improved operation of European labour markets.

The migratory population is differentiated, based on various objectives: if migration aiming at family reunification is main objectif in an American context, labour migration has increased on the European continent. In this regard, from all immigration flows in some Western European countries (e.g. Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Sweden, the United Kingdom) the data indicates that 30-40% of those who migrate do so in order to find a job, with better pay compared to that in home markets. EU countries have become an important source for migrant workers. Despite some temporary restrictions imposed on labour originating in new EU member states, some 50-75% of mobile workers from these origins benefit from full freedom of movement (OECD, 2007).

Still, differentiated liberalisation of workers' access from new EU member states to old member states shapes new mobility flows, defining a migration from CEE towards two main areas of destination: 1) *North-Western Europe* and 2) *South-Western Europe*.

The methodological issues concerning the analysis stages are:

a) the countries analyzed are the member states of the EU-27,

b) influence variables of migration behaviour include economic determinants and components related to work and living conditions or job satisfaction. The analysis is based on a set of four measurement indicators of the working and family conditions (WCFL), a job content and satisfaction (JCS), the hourly labour force

costs and the dimension of the labour market in the countries receiving working immigrants (active economical population, AEP),

c) the identification of the most powerful correlations between the variables of influence,

d) the cluster type analysis and establishing the starting points and of those of destination for working immigrants,

e) establishing correlations between the stock of foreign labour force (from the ECE countries group on the markets of the two destination groups identified (North – West and South – West Europe) and the main motivational factors identified in the migration behaviour.

So that the influence variables used in the analyse are the following:

a. Composite Index as proxy for work conditions and family life (WCFL);

b. Composite Index as proxy for Job content and satisfaction (JCS);

c. Indicator on labour force hourly cost (LFHC);

d. Active economic population as proxy for labour market dimension (AEP);

e. Stock of the foreign labour force by origin country (FLFS).

Statistical analyse is based upon the standardized values of influence variables in order to establish its factorial values and cluster analysis. The standard values of each influence variable for the country/country-gruping is based on the folowing relation:

$$z_i = \frac{\bar{x}_i - m}{\sigma} \quad (1)$$

where:

$x_i$  is the average value in country  $i$  for each variable considered;

$m$  is the EU–27 average of the variable under consideration;

$\sigma$  the standard deviation.

1) *Factor F1* groups wage costs by hour (LFHC). The costs of labour force represent about 2/3 of the cost of goods and services and has a direct effect upon the enterprise and country's competitiveness, especially upon the unemployment of less qualified labour force. Its structure contains three elements: wages, social dues in employer charge and other costs (training, recruitment etc.). There are huge differences between the UE–27 countries regarding the cost of a working hour: as recent surveys reveal, the cost of a working hour in Romania was of only 2.48 euro whilst in UE–15 it reached over 25 euro. This might prove to be an essential driver in the decision of migrating,

the main reason of the migrant worker being the possibility of better earnings in another country, doing another job.

Nevertheless, it is not the countries that have a high cost per hour are not those ones towards which most Eastern and Central-European workers have headed. Other factors play an important role as well.

There is a growing relationship between the cost per hour and the level of development, the dynamic of this cost being sustained in the euro area but, lately, in the new member states as well. We are regarded the cost per hour as being an indicator directly related to the emigrant worker's potential, as compared to the GDP/capita, even if the actual wage cost of its structure is not equally distributed in all countries, given the fact that the level of protection and the social expenses required differ. Also, labour productivity, exchange rate, qualifications and skills influence the level of this essential element when taking into account the migration option.

**Labour force cost by hour, 2006**

Table 3

	UE15	BE	BG	CZ	DK	DE	EE	EL	IE	ES	FR	IT	CY	LV
€/h	25.1	31.58	1.65	7.14	31.98	27.7	5.5	15.37	21.95	15.77	30.31	23.39	11.98	3.41
	LT	LU	HU	MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	RO	SI	SK	FI	SV	UK
	4.21	31.98	6.34	8.69	27.41	26.67	6.03	10.97	2.68	11.29	5.33	27.37	32.16	24.47

Source: epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu

2) *Factor F2* groups living and work conditions (WCFL), along with job content and satisfaction (JCS) in various countries.

Factor 2 can be defined as synthesising the qualitative aspect of labour and working, based on standardized values.

### Working and family life conditions (WCFL)

The inclusion of an social variable in the analysis in order to quantify the more and more complexe role of life and working conditions in migration decision start up from a composite index as proxy

of these conditions and takes in consideration seven questions of the *Fourth European Working Conditions Survey* (EWCS 2005), such as: usually working days per week or long working days. Also, includes some aspects of life conditions, presented in the table 4:

Work conditions and family life (WCFL)

Table 4

Nr. crt.	Nr. survey	Component loadings	Dates for (%s)		
			UE-27	RO	BG
1	Q18.	Working hours fit family/ social commitments well or very well?	79.4	73.8	73.7
2	Q19.	Contacted about work outside normal working hours?	22.1	16.4	11.3
3	Ef4c.	Caring for and educating your children every day for an hour or more?	28.8	38.4	35.6
4	Ef4d.	Cooking and housework	46.4	52.0	46.3
5	Q9a	% this more than one job	6.2	5.8	5.3
6	Q14e_ef	Long working days	16.9	36.3	24.3
7	Q8b	% usually working five days per week	65.1	44.2	63.0

Source: EUROFOUND, EWCS 2005.

According to European Commission data, in EU-15 a proportion of 79.8% of the population enjoys life/work balance, as opposed to 73% of those living in new member states. Concerns for time spent on household chores vary from 30% in the Czech Republic, Greece to 40% in Germany, 50% and over in Belgium (54.4%), Denmark (57%), Ireland (58%), France (51.5%), Slovenia (55.1%), Romania (52%), United Kingdom (57.9%) etc. There are large differences in the time allocated for children's education (every day an hour and more), a correlation with daily occupations being observed. So, 14.9% percent of people in Spain, 18% in Germany, 20.1% in Czech Republic are citing this as a daily activity, going up to 36.1% in Ireland, or 42% in Hungary, 45% in Netherlands, 34.7% in Poland, 40.6% in Portugal.

The working conditions are extremely different in EU countries. If we take the specific case of Romania, a country which registered large outflows of labour in recent years, work conditions here show that, for example, 36.3% of people in this country work overtime, against an average of just 16.9% in EU-27.

On the other hand, while 65% of those in EU-27 member states reported working five days a week, this percentage was at 44.2% in Romania, given the higher number of those who exceed this number of working days per week in this country.

Thus, in Romania 51% of labour works over 40 weekly hours. One of the main reason for more hours being worked here compared to the average European member state are the number of daily hours, with 36% of Romanians working in excess of 10 hours a day. That compares to a

15-16% doing so in the EU–25, and 20% in new member states. Moreover, EWCS data shows that in the period 2001-2005 the average working week has grown in Romania, from 45.9 to 46.4 hours, while the EU–15 average registered a declining working week, from 38.2 to 37 hours while in the NMS12 the decrease was from 44.4 to 42.8 hours per week. The same situation is reflected in working time distribution: 24.3% of Romanians work night shifts. Then, about 40% work Sundays and 68% on Saturdays, compared to 28%, and 53%,

respectively, for the EU average. However, Romanians appear to benefit from more flexible working hours, as just 46% declare to have a set starting and finishing time for their work programme, as opposed to 61% of the average in EU member states (EWCS 2005).

### Content and job satisfaction (JCS)

To determinate the composite index JCS we are using the data from seven questions from EWCS study:

### JCS Index

Table 5

Nr. crt.	Nr. survey	Component loadings	Dates for (%)		
			UE-27	RO	BG
1	Q36	Satisfied or very satisfied with working conditions	82.3	58.8	66.6
2	Q37a_ef	I might lose my job in the next 6 months	13.7	18.5	22.9
3	Q37b_ef	I am well paid for the work I do	43.2	24.1	28.4
4	Q37c_ef	My job offers good prospects for career advancement	31.0	18.4	25.3
5	Q23a	Meeting precise quality standards	74.2	68.0	60.4
6	Q23b	Assessing quality for own work	71.8	59.8	55.7
7	Q27	Job skills match need more training	13.1	11.5	5.5

Sursa: EUROFOUND, EWCS 2005.

In terms of the perceived work content and satisfaction of European nationals, 82% of all those in EU–27 appear happy with their working conditions, the proportion being higher in the more economically advanced member states. For example, 92.7% of those in the United Kingdom, 89.6% of Austrians, 89.2% of Germans, and 89.5% of Belgian respondents agree with that (EU–15 average is almost 60%). However, a different picture appears at the level of new member states, where just about 60% are satisfied with their work conditions, whilst

in Romania and Bulgaria this percentage drops even lower, to 53% of all respondents. The relatively low satisfaction with working conditions is complemented by the 19.2% of those in new EU members fearing to lose their job, as opposed to the 13% EU average.

The same situation is reflected in the case of the satisfaction with pay for work undertaken: while in the EU–25 almost 45% consider salary to be appropriate, in Romania and Bulgaria only a 24% and 28%, respectively, consider their pay appropriate.

The statistical method conduct to a taxonomy of analysed contries based on the following correlations:

- *Work and life conditions* directly correlated with the answers to questions Q18, Q19, Ef4c, Q9a, Q14e\_ef, Q8b), and
- *Content and job satisfaction* correlated with the answers to questions Q36, Q37a\_ef, Q37b\_ef, Q37c\_ef, Q23a, Q23b, Q27.

The method supposes, like in the case of hourly wage costs, to calculate the standardized values  $z_i$  for the two variables based on the relation 1.

### EU-27 labour market dimension (AEP)

Labour market capacity must not only to attract but also to integrate in a grater proportion the foreign workers looking for a job. Many countries offer wage conditions, occupational and life standards that could satisfy the needs of labour force. But, the access on the labour markets are limited by the general macroeconomic conditions, such as economic active population. In order to see the labour markets more attractive upon its dimension, we are using an indicator based on economical active population

**Economical active population for some EU countries (AEP, thousand)**

Table 6

BE	BG	CZ	DK	DE	EE	EL	IE	ES	FR	IT	CY	LV	LT
4686	3238	5202	2904	41112	687	4880	2078	21585	27866	24627	378	1167	1593
LU	HU	MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	RO	SI	SK	FI	SV	UK	
206	4247	162	8365	4124	16959	5587	10042	1007	2660	2673	4602	29636	

**Source:** Eurostat, “*Statistical portrait of the European Union 2008 – European Year of Intercultural Dialogue*”, European Commission.

### Correlations matrix of influencing variables

The correlation matrix between the standardized values of the variables (LFHC, WCFL, JCS, AEP) depicts the stronger correlations that can establish the main motivational determinants of migration process. Using a method like Principal Component Analysis (PCA), that suppose to eliminate the countries with a weak factorial correlation, we obtained a R-square coefficient  $R^2=0.502$  for all the countries in the survey, using the standardized values. The calculation of the correlation matrix for the standardized

values associated with the investigated countries lead to the following values:

**Correlations Matrix**

Table 7

	WCFL	JCS	LFHC	AEP
WCFL	1			
JCS	0,571901912	1		
LFHC	0,42766589	0,74982	1	
AEP	0,005704416	0,196223	0,307106	1

The results in the matrix indicate the existence of certain correlations, namely:

- a strong direct correlation between variables WCFL and JCS ( $R^2 = 0.571$ ), justifying the *Factor 2* (the same

- qualitative nature of both variables)
- a strong direct correlation between variables LFHC and JCS ( $R^2 = 0.749$ ) justifying the taxonomy of countries in report of the two factors: *Factor 1* (quantitative,

hour labour force cost) and *Factor 2* (qualitative, WCFL and JCS)  
 Based on establishing the type of correlation and the hierarchy of correlation coefficient values we identified two essential factors (main components), thus:

**Factor 1 and Factor 2 values**

Table 8

	UE15	BE	BG	CZ	DK	DE	EE	EL	IE	ES	FR	IT	CY	LV
F1	0.432	1.0205	-1.699	-1.200	1.057	0.668	-1.350	-0.453	0.1454	-0.416	0.905	0.276	-0.761	-1.539
F2	0.137	0.316	-0.491	-0.671	0.543	-0.054	-0.334	-1.029	0.144	0.106	0.466	-0.175	0.337	-0.491
	LT	LU	HU	MT	NL	AT	PL	PT	RO	SI	SK	FI	SV	UK
F1	-1.467	1.057	-1.273	-1.060	0.642	0.574	-1.301	-0.852	-1.606	-0.823	-1.365	0.638	1.073	0.374
F2	-0.539	0.743	-0.381	-0.049	0.238	0.050	-0.511	0.394	-0.857	-0.395	-0.570	0.055	0.164	0.632

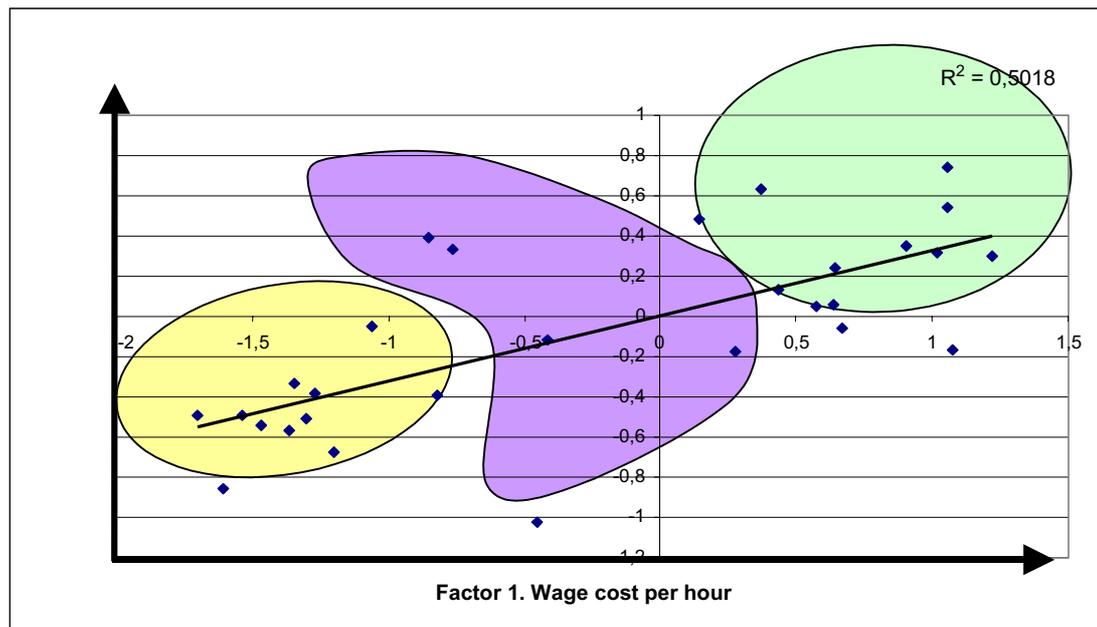
Source: own calculations.

**The correlation between the Factor 1 (LFHC) and the Factor 2 (WCFL+JCS)**

A triad which we have supposed earlier in relation to recent migration flows can be identified, with three poles corresponding to the groupings of countries A, B, and C. The arrows in figure 1 indicate the direction of labour mobility, which can

be seen as a functions of the two factors plotted here (work conditions, family and job satisfaction on one hand, and wage costs on the other hand) (Hiriş, Son, Şipoş, 2008). The graphical representation of grouping the countries is made based on the correlations between essential factors, namely:

**Factor 2. Work conditions, family life and job satisfaction**



**Figure 1.** The migration determinants correlation and countries grouping

The figure depicts the motivational triad of labour mobility within the European Union:

i) Countries in *area C* can be characterized by factors related to relatively low wages, and one related to relatively low satisfaction with the quality of life and work conditions. Countries included here are all the new EU member states in CEE. Their nationals have a propensity to move:

- to countries in area B, on the basis of higher wages and generally stronger work and life satisfaction.
- to countries of area A, offering the potential to improve income even stronger than in area B, whilst at the same time experiencing better living and working conditions compared to home countries (but not necessary compared to area B).

ii) On the same grounds, *group B* is attractive as a destination from those in area C, but countries here could themselves

represent a source for migrants wishing to improve income levels in area A. The EU member states represented here are those of South-Western Europe, and particularly Spain and Italy, which were identified earlier as strong poles of new immigration flows. The potential of onward movement of migrants towards A present, but probably weakened in this instance, as a consequence of comparable levels of satisfaction with work and living conditions in area B and A (with the possible exception of Greece). Indeed, the recent experience of South-North European migration is of low flows, particularly after income disparities between area A and B has passed a ratio of 4:1.

iii) *Area A* represents the EU-15 member states of North-Western Europe, with generally higher income prospects compared to both group B and C, and standards of work and life satisfaction above those in area A, and occasionally,

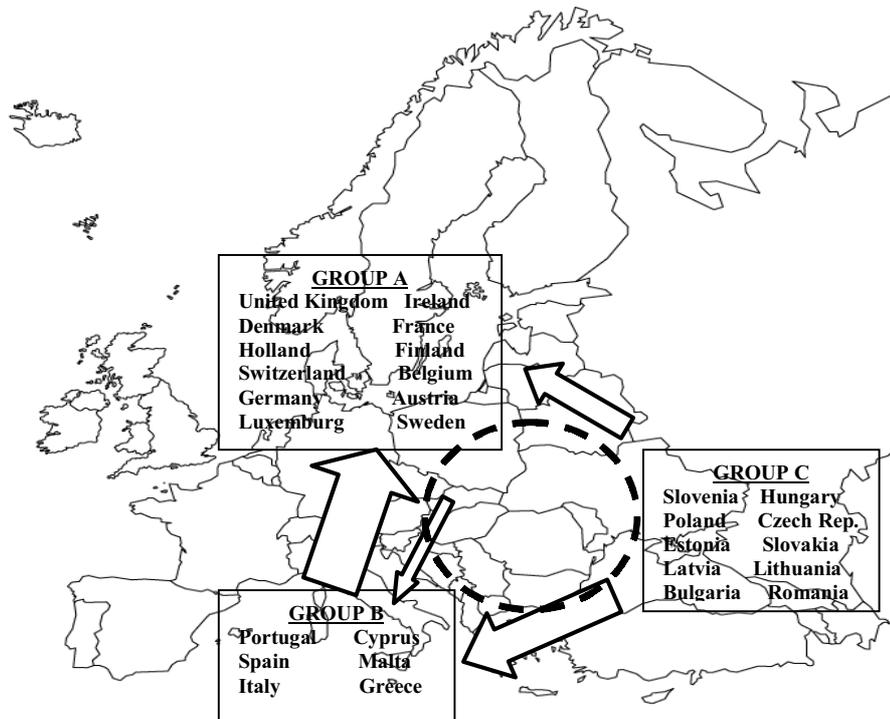


Figure 2. The motivational triad of migration in Europe

above those in area B. It is as such an attractive region to workers in countries of CEE, representing however a weaker pull force for those initially arriving or originating in member states of area B.

In a geographical perspective, the triad identified can be depicted as in figure 2.

Romania and Bulgaria are situated, like other east and central-European countries, in the area from left-down, where are concentrated the countries with a low level of work cost and of life and work conditions. There are an important number of Romanian workers migrating in the same group countries (i.e Hungary), specially neighbouring countries and offering a bigger salary.

Summarizing that there is a clear pole for present and further emigration pressures, in area C, based on

considerations of both low income and general work and life satisfaction. On the other hand, we have two potential poles of immigration attractive to area C nationals, which are driven to countries in group A, and B, respectively. While area B captures migrants wishing to improve their relative income capacity, but also supports immigration on principles of improved life and work satisfaction, wage expectations are still perceptibly lower here than in area A (Hiris, Son, Sipos, 2008). The result of the study confirms the fact that the income differential can be seen as main determinant in decision of a some part of European workers to taking advantage of employment opportunities from other countries, in order to offer them higher incomes in comparison to those obtained in their native countries.

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