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People in the EU: who are we and how do we live?

2015 edition

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Foreword of Commissioner Thyssen

Europe's ambition is to make sure that more than 500 million people can fully participate in society. Equipping our citizens for modern working life, providing more job and education opportunities and ensuring adequate social protection so that nobody is left behind is at the heart of EU policies. Good policy-making takes into account many different factors that impact the lives and work of individuals and families. We have to know who the people in the EU are, where they live, how they live, what their skills are and their level of mobility. We need to know more about different population groups — children, elderly, disabled, single parents, and migrants — so that we can design, adapt and improve our policies. That is why I attach great importance to this publication by Eurostat. It provides a vast amount of information that helps us understand the demographic, social and economic situation of people in the EU. It shows how diverse people are in Europe; looking at their geographical distribution, age, origin, mobility, educational background, employment, housing, as well as the changing patterns of household and family structure.

This data will help us translate the 10 Juncker Commission priorities into targeted policies and concrete actions. This is about increasing employment and economic growth taking into account the education and training needs of current and future workers, improving worker mobility across Europe, removing barriers that may prevent women in particular from reaching their full potential in education and employment. This is also about managing the current migration crisis learning from the patterns of past migration from outside the EU and examples of successful social and economic integration of third country nationals.

Population and housing censuses have long been an essential statistical instrument. They will continue to play a central role in gathering information on people's lives, while taking full advantage of new data sources. Providing a better understanding of the different aspects of the lives of individuals and families will help the European Commission and Member State governments in their joint efforts to create prosperity for everybody in Europe.

I would like to thank Eurostat and the Member States' National Statistical Institutes for the close long-term collaboration that has made it possible to have this wealth of high quality and independent statistics.

Marianne Thyssen
Commissioner
Employment, Social Affairs, Skills and Labour Mobility
European Commission

Foreword of Eurostat's Director-General

This publication *People in the EU: who are we and how do we live* presents a detailed picture of the population, families, households and housing in the EU. The publication is based on data collected under the 2011 EU programme of population and housing censuses. For many topics, these census data are supplemented by data taken from a wide range of official social statistics that are freely available on the Eurostat website.

The population and housing census offers a uniquely rich snapshot of the population, combining demographic, social and economic variables at a level of geographical detail that is often not available in other data collections. A wide range of analyses are possible, providing information on how and where people live, study, work and move. This reliable and impartial statistical information is vital for evidence-based decision-making across many important policy areas, as well as for students, researchers, administrators and the citizen generally.

With this publication I hope to also encourage you to visit Eurostat's website and in particular the on-line Census Hub, a tool designed to allow you to quickly specify and extract statistics for your particular needs. Moreover, I would invite you to interact with the infographic 'You in the EU', which can also be accessed through the Eurostat website. You can compare your life, your living conditions and your work with those of others in your country and in the EU.

Walter Radermacher
Director-General, Eurostat
Chief statistician of the European Union

Abstract

People in the EU: who are we and how do we live? draws on the results of the population and housing census that was conducted across the Member States of the European Union (EU) and the countries of the European Free Trade Association (EFTA) in 2011. In addition, the publication presents a wide range of official social statistics from Eurostat databases in order to paint a detailed picture of the population, households and housing in the EU.

A number of topics are covered in this publication, ranging from an overview of the demographic situation in the EU and its Member States, to a portrait of EU households and family structures, geographic mobility in the EU or the increasing ageing of our societies. *People in the EU: who are we and how do we live?* concludes with a look at the future demographic challenges potentially facing the EU in the coming years.

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For more information please consult

Eurostat website: http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat
Statistics Explained: http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained
Census Hub: https://ec.europa.eu/CensusHub2

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The editors of this publication would like to thank the Eurostat colleagues who were involved in its preparation.

Introduction

Introduction

People in the EU: who are we and how do we live? presents a snapshot of the EU population as captured by the 2011 Census and other Eurostat data sources.

How do people live, work and learn in the EU in the 21st century? What are the most common family and household structures, and how are they changing? What are housing conditions like across the EU Member States? How many of us are migrants from another country? How long have we lived here? How frequently do we move to another region or country? What are the attributes of active aging? And finally, what will the population of the EU be like as we look ahead 60 or more years?

Eurostat has data freely available on all of these topics and more. Each chapter aims to provide a comprehensive and up-to-date summary of these phenomena, helping us to understand more about how people live in today's Europe.

The core content of each chapter is a set of main statistical findings presented alongside tables, figures and occasional maps that have been selected to illustrate the wide variety of statistical information that is available. Links are also provided to the relevant parts of Eurostat's website where further information can be found.

Demographic change in the EU

The challenges

Demographic change — together with geopolitical uncertainties, globalisation and climate change — is recognised as one of the most significant challenges currently facing Europe. In recent decades, the structure and profile of the EU's population has changed considerably, due in part to: lower birth and fertility rates; changes in patterns of family formation; shifts in the roles of men and women; greater geographic mobility; higher levels of migration; and increases in life expectancy.

These demographic changes have led to the role of the family becoming generally weaker, and have given rise to a decline in the average size of households, different forms of living arrangements (consensual unions or registered partnerships) and record numbers of people living alone. As a result, there are considerable differences in the way that we live today compared with say 50 years ago and it is likely that the pace of change will quicken in the coming decades, as the EU's population grows progressively older.

Policy responses

With an ageing population, policy attention has focused on the contribution the elderly can make to both economic life and civil society. An active elderly generation has the potential to influence a range of policy areas, including public finances, labour markets, housing, health and social care. Most EU governments have already looked at ways of encouraging a higher proportion of the elderly to remain in the labour market, while they have also examined and introduced a raft of pension reforms (often with the goal of improving the medium and long-term financial viability of these systems). However, policy initiatives linked to population ageing extend beyond the domain of public finance and pensions, to issues influencing people's lives by providing reforms that strengthen family relationships and inter-generational cooperation.

The year 2006 was declared European year of workers mobility, while 2008 was declared European year of intercultural dialogue. More recently, the European year of active ageing and solidarity between generations in 2012 highlighted the contributions that older people can make to economic development and to society in general, focussing on three main areas:

- creating better job opportunities and working conditions for older people;
- helping older people play an active role in society;
- encouraging healthy ageing and independent living.

In June 2010, the European Council adopted the Europe 2020 growth strategy with the goal of the EU becoming a 'smart, sustainable and inclusive economy'. The strategy addresses demographic transformations and highlights that Europe's future will depend, at least to some degree, on its ability to capture the potential of its two fastest growing population groups, the elderly and migrants.

The Europe 2020 strategy also identifies the need for increased reconciliation between paid work and family commitments, and the role that this may play in achieving greater social cohesion. The European employment strategy aims to support the Europe 2020 target to increase the employment rate of those aged 20–64 to at least 75 % by 2020; one means of doing so is to encourage older workers to remain in the workforce up to and beyond the minimum age to draw a pension. One of the seven flagship initiatives of the Europe 2020 strategy, the 'Agenda for new skills and jobs' has been designed to empower people by developing their skills, so as to improve their flexibility and security (flexicurity) in the working environment; it includes actions on lifelong learning and e-skills. The Europe 2020 strategy also promotes the active inclusion of vulnerable groups and the provision of decent housing for everyone through the 'European platform against poverty and social exclusion' flagship initiative.

Changes in family structures (more people living alone), labour markets (the increasing participation of women or older persons) and increased spatial mobility (higher levels of inter-regional or international migration), have led to it becoming increasingly difficult for some individuals to combine their working and family lives, providing the support that has traditionally been given to older relatives. This reconciliation (or balancing) of working and family life has received a great deal of policy attention.

Confronting demographic change

In a Communication titled 'The Demographic Future of Europe — from Challenge to Opportunity' (COM(2006) 0571), the European Commission presented its views on demographic challenges facing the EU and provided a range of policy options for tackling these. The Communication stressed the belief that there was a need to act in at least five policy areas, namely:

- supporting demographic renewal through better conditions for families and improved reconciliation of working and family life;
- boosting employment — more jobs and longer working lives of better quality;
- raising productivity and economic performance through investing in education and research; receiving and integrating migrants into Europe;
- ensuring sustainable public finances to guarantee adequate pensions, healthcare and long-term care.

Statistical sources

People in the EU: who are we and how do we live? presents data from a wide range of official sources. The principle source is a population and housing census that was conducted in each of the EU Member States and EFTA countries during the course of 2011; note that each country was able to choose when they carried out their census and some aspects in relation to how the data would be collected and compiled.

Specific survey sources and Eurostat population projections are used to supplement this information from the census, according to the subject matter of each chapter, for example, drawing on information concerning: demography and migration statistics; EU statistics on income and living conditions (EU-SILC); labour market statistics from the labour force survey (LFS); health statistics; statistics on the information society; and tourism.

Population and housing census

A census provides an opportunity to obtain a comprehensive and accurate picture of the population and the housing stock. It is a considerable undertaking, which provides a unique source of data that is invaluable for policy formation, as comparable data are collected for small areas (municipalities) that may be aggregated up through regions, to national and international aggregates. A census may also be used to collect information on the main characteristics of individuals, families, households and the dwellings in which they live, in other words a range of geographic, demographic, social and economic information.

The results of a population and housing census are unique insofar as they provide detailed information down to the level of individual municipalities, while also providing a means to produce cross-tabulations of different variables. The essential features that distinguish a population and housing census from other data collections are:

- individual enumeration — in other words, the characteristics of each individual person and dwelling are separately recorded, allowing the cross-classification of various characteristics;
- simultaneity — the information obtained on individuals and dwellings refers to a specific and unique reference period;
- universality — the census provides data that covers all persons, households and dwellings in precisely defined territorial areas;
- small-area data — the census allows data to be produced for the smallest geographic areas of a country and for small subpopulations, subject to the protection of confidentiality.

Given its scope and magnitude, a population and housing census is generally conducted once every 10 years in Europe, although a few of the EU Member States have decided to conduct an annual census and others have censuses every five years. The latest census for all of the Member States and EFTA countries was conducted in 2011 and it entailed comprehensive administrative preparations by a wide range of public agencies including local, regional and national authorities, as well as national and international statistical agencies.

The 2011 census programme was a major project of the European Statistical System (ESS), designed to provide high-quality, detailed and comparable data on the size and characteristics of the population and the housing stock of Europe. The census is a huge and uniquely rich source of data, providing information that is of use to students, researchers, analysts, policymakers and administrators working in central and local government, academia and the private sector.

Unlike many other statistics, the census can provide information at a detailed geographical level — down to individual municipalities.

These statistics are based on the national census exercises undertaken in EU Member States and EFTA countries during 2011. The national statistical institutes (NSIs) each prepared predefined sets of data and metadata that used harmonised statistical definitions and classifications, which were specified in European statistical legislation; this ensures the comparability and completeness of the statistics. These 2011 European census statistics are the result of extensive planning, close co-operation and consultation between Eurostat and the NSIs. The aim has been to facilitate the widest possible use of the census as a key resource for European social statistics.

For the 2011 exercise, European legislation defined (for the first time) a detailed set of harmonised data to be collected in each EU Member State, based on international guidelines and recommendations prepared by the United Nations, Eurostat and the individual offices of each national statistical authority.

Each EU Member State was free to develop data collection and processing methods that they considered to be best suited to their own administrative practices and traditions. Thereafter, they prepared data sets and metadata based on harmonised statistical definitions and classifications, as specified in the legislation (see below), ensuring comparability between Member States.

For more information on the population and housing census, please refer to the Eurostat website, where census data for all EU Member States and EFTA countries can be accessed via the CENSUS HUB.

LEGAL BASIS: HOW TO ORGANISE A CENSUS

European Parliament and Council Regulation (EC) No 763/2008 on population and housing censuses outlines the topics to be collected, transmission procedures and quality assessments to be undertaken for the census. However, it is concerned with output harmonisation, rather than input harmonisation and each EU Member State was therefore free to assess for themselves how to conduct their census and which data sources, methods and technology were best for their own individual context.

By contrast, certain conditions had to be met to achieve the objective of comparable data and these were detailed in a set of three implementing regulations:

- European Commission Regulation (EC) No 1201/2009 contains definitions and technical specifications for the census topics (variables) and breakdowns (for example, classifications of location, sex, marital status and occupation) that were required;
- European Commission Regulation (EU) No 519/2010 provides details of the data output to be used to transmit data to the European Commission in order to comply with a defined programme of statistical data (tabulations);
- while European Commission Regulation (EU) No 1151/2010 legislates for the transmission of a quality report containing a systematic description of the data sources used and the quality of the census results produced.

Population statistics (demography, migration and population projections)

In contrast to the data from the population and housing census, information on demography and migration is collected every year from the national statistical institutes of 44 European countries (both EU Member States and non-member countries), and is largely based on administrative sources.

Eurostat's population statistics (as used in this publication) generally refer to the situation as of 1 January each year. Different analyses of the overall population numbers are available, covering:

- population structure (statistics by age; age dependency ratios);
- population characteristics (statistics by educational attainment; by marital status; by citizenship);
- by country of birth;
- population change (statistics comparing the population on 1 January of two consecutive years, broken down into its constituent components, namely, natural change and migration);
- population density.

Annual data are collected for vital events (births and deaths). The number of live births is presented according to characteristics of the mother (statistics by age; by educational attainment; by marital status; by citizenship; by country of birth) or of the child (by sex; by birth order). Fertility rates and mean ages at (first) childbirth are calculated on the basis of distributions according to the mother's age. Eurostat also collects data on marriages and divorces, as well as childbirth outside marriage.

Life expectancy is a key indicator used to analyse and compare mortality patterns. Data on the number of deaths are available by characteristics of the deceased (statistics by citizenship; by country of birth; by region of residence).

LEGAL BASIS: COLLECTION OF POPULATION STATISTICS

The legal basis for the collection of population statistics is provided by European Parliament and Council Regulation (EU) No 1260/2013 on European demographic statistics and by an implementing Regulation (EU) No 205/2014 which specifies the classifications and tabulations (breakdowns) of data, deadlines and conditions for data revisions.

European Parliament and Council Regulation (EC) No 862/2007 legislates for the collection of Community statistics on migration and international protection, together with implementing Regulation (EU) No 351/2010 which specifies the definitions of the categories of the groups of country of birth, groups of country of previous usual residence, groups of country of next usual residence and groups of citizenship to be used.

Migration (the number of immigrants and emigrants) is one of two basic components that explain population change in the EU (natural population change being the other). Data is available on the stock of foreign persons residing in each of the EU Member States (statistics by citizenship; by country of birth), as well the flow of immigrants and emigrants into / out of a Member State each year.

Using population statistics, vital events and migration developments, Eurostat produces population projections every three years. These provide information as to the likely future size and structure of the population. EUROPOP2013 (European Population Projections, base year 2013) contains statistical information on population projections through to 2080; statistics for the main scenario provide projections of the population as of 1 January by sex and by age.

While each country collects demography and migration data in its own way (for a detailed repository of the differences please refer to 'Demographic statistics: a review of definitions and methods of collection in 44 European countries'), EU Member States have made efforts to harmonise the main types of data that they collect.

For more information on population statistics, please refer to the Eurostat website.

EU-statistics on income and living conditions (EU-SILC)

EU-statistics on income and living conditions (EU-SILC) provide statistics on income distribution and social exclusion in the EU. EU-SILC is based on a framework that defines a list of primary (annual) and secondary (every four years or less frequently) variables, with microdata collected for income, poverty, social inclusion / exclusion, housing, education, labour and health topics. EU-SILC provides statistics that cover absolute and relative measures, for objective and subjective aspects, in monetary and non-monetary terms, for households and individuals.

LEGAL BASIS: COLLECTION OF DATA ON INCOME AND LIVING CONDITIONS

The main legislation establishing EU-SILC specifying the survey design, survey characteristics and data transmission requirements is European Parliament and Council Regulation (EC) No 1177/2003.

A number of implementing regulations provide for further specifications concerning definitions, fieldwork, sampling practices, permanent variables and quality reports. Furthermore, additional regulations are used to introduce variables that are collected only every four or five years, through a variety of ad-hoc modules.

The reference population of EU-SILC includes all private households and their current members at the time of data collection. Those living in collective households and in institutions are generally excluded. All household members are surveyed, but only those aged 16 and over are interviewed.

For more information on statistics covering income and living conditions, please refer to the Eurostat website.

Labour force survey (LFS) statistics

Labour market statistics measure the involvement of individuals, households and businesses in the labour market. They cover short-term and structural aspects of the labour market, both for the supply and the demand side, in monetary and non-monetary terms. Some of the most widely used statistics in this domain concern employment and unemployment, as provided by the labour force survey (LFS).

LEGAL BASIS: COLLECTION OF DATA ON THE LABOUR FORCE

The legal basis for the collection of data for the labour force survey is Council Regulation (EC) No 577/98 on the organisation of a continuous, quarterly sample survey; this specifies the design, survey characteristics and decision-making processes and has been amended several times (2002, 2003 and 2007).

Implementing regulations specify further detail, in particular on the coding and classifications to be used.

The LFS is the largest European household survey, providing quarterly and annual data on labour participation of people aged 15 and over. It covers residents in private households (excluding conscripts), analysed by labour status (employed, unemployed or economically inactive). The data are analysed according to multiple dimensions (by age; by sex; by educational attainment; permanent / temporary employment; full-time / part-time employment).

For more information on statistics covering the labour force, please refer to the Eurostat website.

Health statistics

European health statistics measure both objective and subjective aspects of the population's health. They cover different kinds of issues that affect everyday lives, including indicators on the functioning of public health care systems, self-reported health indicators, prevalence and incidence rates for a range of diseases, and mortality data by cause of death. Prevalence is the actual number of cases who are alive and suffer from a specific disease; it is best reported as a rate in relation to the total population at risk. Incidence is the rate of new (or newly diagnosed) cases of a particular disease. These statistics are also more meaningful when expressed as a rate (for example, per 100 thousand inhabitants).

Healthy life years, also referred to as disability-free life expectancy, is defined as the number of years that a person may expect to continue to live in a healthy condition (without limitation in functioning and without disability). This indicator is compiled separately for men and women, both at birth and at age 65 and is based on measures of the age-specific proportion of population with and without disability and on mortality data. EU-SILC is used as the source for information pertaining to limitations in activities people usually do because of health problems, while statistics on mortality are based on the annual demographic data.

For more information on health statistics, please refer to the Eurostat website.

Information society statistics

Statistics on the information society track the use of information and communications technologies (ICT), some of the main drivers of economic and social changes in recent years. The data presented in this publication refer to the use of the internet by the elderly. Data are shown for the number of internet users who used the internet at least once a week and the number of internet users who went online every day. Statistics are also presented for a range of online activities (such as online banking or the use made of social networks).

LEGAL BASIS: COLLECTION OF DATA ON THE INFORMATION SOCIETY

The legal basis for the collection of data on the information society is European Parliament and Council framework Regulation (EC) no 808/2004 and framework Regulation (EC) No 1006/2009 which provide for a module covering enterprises, and a module covering households and individuals.

As framework regulations there is the possibility for adjustments to be made in order to collect specific variables each year through a series of ad-hoc modules, thereby meeting the needs of policymakers to collect new indicators on emerging technologies and products in this rapidly evolving domain.

For more information on information society statistics, please refer to the Eurostat website.

Tourism statistics

Tourism statistics are collected by competent national authorities in the EU Member States; they are compiled according to a harmonised methodology established by EU law (see below). Most of the data are collected via sample surveys.

Tourism covers the activity of visitors taking a trip to a destination outside their usual environment,

for less than a year, for any purpose, including business, leisure or other personal purposes. Three main types of tourism are distinguished, according to the origin and destination of visitors: domestic tourism; inbound tourism, and; outbound tourism.

LEGAL BASIS: COLLECTION OF DATA ON TOURISM

The collection of statistical information in the field of tourism is based on European Parliament and Council Regulation (EU) no 692/2011 concerning European statistics on tourism, together with Commission implementing Regulation (EU) no 1051/2011 as regards the structure of the quality reports and the transmission of the data.

These cover, on the one hand, data on capacity and occupancy of tourist accommodation establishments, and on the other, data on trips made by EU residents.

For more information on statistics covering tourism, please refer to the Eurostat website.

The CENSUS HUB

Know more about your area

Do you need to find out more about the population and housing of your city, region or country?

- How many single parent families are there in your area? How many of these are led by a lone father?
- How many elderly residents in your area were born abroad? When did they arrive in the country?
- What proportion of dwellings in your area is over 50 years old? How many of these are unoccupied?
- How does your area compare with other parts of Europe?

There is now an easy and flexible way to get the detailed information that you need — the CENSUS HUB.

The CENSUS HUB, which can be accessed via the Eurostat website, was developed as a tool to allow easy and flexible online access to 2011 census data from all EU and EFTA countries (in total 32 countries). Detailed statistics can be extracted about individuals, families, households and dwellings, by country, region, town or municipality across the EU and EFTA. A summary of the type of information that can be accessed via the CENSUS HUB is presented in Figures 2 and 3.

The CENSUS HUB: a new way of disseminating European statistics

Eurostat has developed an online application called the CENSUS HUB.

The 2011 census data are disseminated in an innovative way designed to maximise the value of these hugely detailed data by offering users great flexibility to define data extractions to meet their needs. Users are not restricted to accessing a small number of pre-defined tables. Instead, they can specify their own cross-tabulations.

The CENSUS HUB provides free access to the wealth of census data and is an easy-to-use tool that can quickly produce customised tabulations. It was set-up by Eurostat, together with ESS members, and provides access to the population and housing census data stored in each EU Member State and EFTA country. The CENSUS HUB is based on the concept of data sharing, whereby each national statistical authority provides access to their data according to standard processes,

LOOKING FOR MORE INFORMATION

Did you know that in 2011:

- the highest proportion of single-person households was recorded in the Norwegian capital region of Oslo (52.9 %);
- the highest share of dwellings built after 2000 in the EU-28 was recorded in the Romanian region of Ilfov (36.8 %), which surrounds the capital of Bucureşti;
- the highest proportion of foreign-born persons with a tertiary level of education was recorded in North Eastern Scotland (81.6 % of the population aged 25 and over);
- there were 60 845 persons who moved from abroad into Inner London-East during the 12-month period prior to the population and housing census being conducted — the highest number in the EU;
- the highest share of elderly persons living alone in the EU was recorded in the Danish capital region of Hovedstaden (42.4 %)?

formats and technologies, while Eurostat provides the infrastructure and interface that allows users to specify, compile and extract data. Each national statistical authority keeps control over their own data, with responsibility for data validation and revisions. Data from the national databases are compiled by the CENSUS HUB, with output either displayed on screen or in spreadsheet-readable files. This whole process takes just seconds.

Structure of the CENSUS HUB system

Data from the population and housing census are available for almost 125 000 municipalities: as such, the CENSUS HUB provides an opportunity for people to learn more about their own town or municipality with data for individuals, families, households and the dwellings in which they live across all 28 EU Member States and the four EFTA countries. A summary of the information available is presented in Figures 1, 2 and 3.

The CENSUS HUB is an easy-to-use, versatile tool that will meet the needs of many different types of users. It can provide information for:

- analysts in central or local government, businesses and non-governmental organisations who can extract background data for their research;
- researchers or demographers who can benefit from the richness of around one billion figures on population and housing in Europe — some at the level of individual municipalities;
- anyone who just wants to learn more about their country, region or municipality, or about anywhere else in the EU.

You can select and arrange the tables as you need and then 'cut and paste' or download the data for use in your reports or studies. The CENSUS HUB also gives access to extensive metadata — explanatory information to help understand the data, including the definitions of the census topics, quality measures and details of the census methodology used in each country. Anyone can use the CENSUS HUB free-of-charge via the internet; it is an easy to use, versatile tool providing access to almost one billion data points.

We invite you to try it! https://ec.europa.eu/CensusHub2

Figure 1: Structure of the CENSUS HUB system

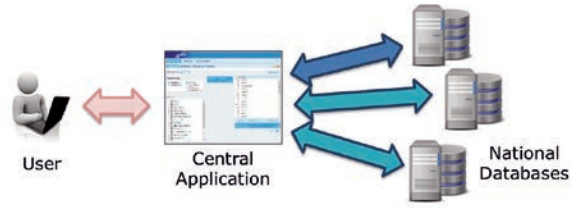


Figure 2: Information available in the CENSUS HUB — data for persons/individuals

Data on persons

Location
- ☑ Usual residence
- ☑ Place of work

Demographic charateristics
- ☑ Sex
- ☑ Age

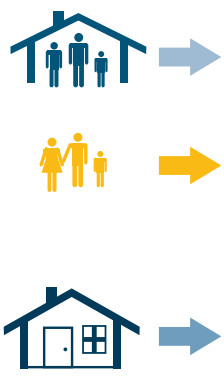
Family & household charateristics
- ☑ (Legal) marital status
- ☑ Household status
- ☑ Family status

Employment & education charateristics
- ☑ Current activity status
- ☑ Status in employment
- ☑ Industry
- ☑ Educational attainment
- ☑ Occupation

Migration & mobility
- ☑ Place of birth
- ☑ Year of arrival
- ☑ Country of citizenship
- ☑ Residence one year before

Housing arrangements
- ☑ Housing arrangements

Figure 3: Information available in the CENSUS HUB — data for households, families and housing



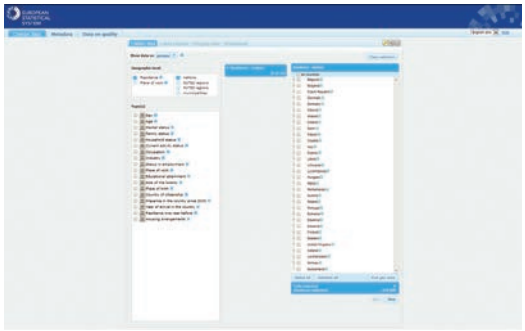
Data on households
- ☑ Type of private household
- ☑ Size of private household
- ☑ Tenure status of households

Data on families
- ☑ Type of family nucleus
- ☑ Size of family nucleus

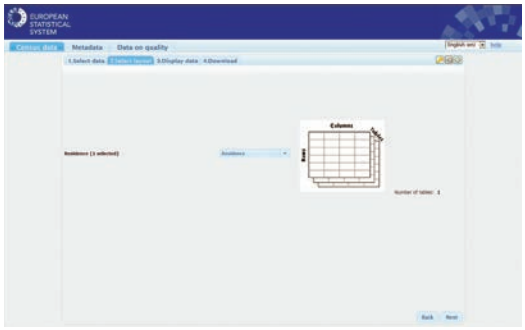
Data on housing units
- ☑ Occupancy status
- ☑ Type of ownership
- ☑ Number of occupants
- ☑ Period of construction
- ☑ Useful floor space
- ☑ Toilet facilities
- ☑ Type of heating

Using the CENSUS HUB

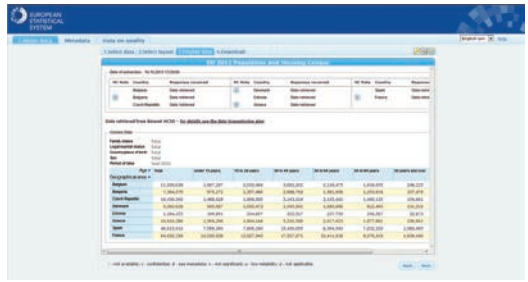
STEP ONE: select the *statistical unit* of interest: *persons, families and households*, or *dwellings*. Then decide whether the results should be based on *place of residence* or *place of work* and choose the level of *geographical detail* (*national level, Nomenclature of territorial units for statistics (NUTS) level 2 regions, NUTS level 3 regions*, or *municipalities*); note that the level of geographical detail depends on the variables and countries selected (some levels are not available for some countries due to their size). The topics (*variables*) to be included in the output table are then presented for selection, together with the *geographical breakdown*. The data selection screen also offers links to detailed methodological information.



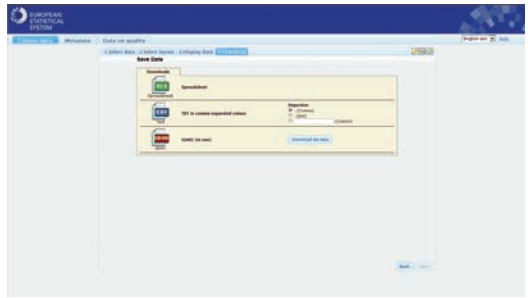
STEP TWO: on the following screen, choose the *layout* of the output table(s).



STEP THREE: visualise the output on screen.



STEP FOUR: select a file format to download the data for further analyses.



Coverage

Data extraction

The production of *People in the EU: who are we and how do we live?* began at the start of April 2015, when the most recent data available was extracted from the CENSUS HUB and from Eurostat's online databases; this information was used to construct tables, figures and maps, and to draft the accompanying analysis. It is possible that some of the data used within *People in the EU: who are we and how do we live?* has already been revised or that an additional reference period has become available for one or more countries since the data were extracted.

Spatial coverage

The chapters generally present data for the EU-28 (a sum / average covering the 28 Member States of the EU), as well as information for individual EU Member States. In tables, the order of the EU Member States follows their order of protocol; in other words, the alphabetical order of the countries' names in their respective languages. In figures, the data are usually ranked according to the values of a particular indicator.

The EU-28 aggregate is only provided when information for all 28 of the Member States is available, or if an estimate has been made for missing information. Any incomplete totals that have been created are systematically footnoted. Time series for the EU aggregate are based on a consistent set of information across the whole of the time period (unless otherwise indicated). For example, although the EU only had 25 Member States since early 2004, 27 Member States since the start of 2007, and 28 Member States since the middle of 2013, time series for the EU-28 refer to a sum / average for all 28 of the Member States for the whole of the period shown, as if all 28 Member States had been part of the EU for the whole period in question. This approach facilitates the interpretation of the data as it is not interrupted by changes in the composition of the EU.

Data are presented at various geographic levels covering national and sub-national areas. At the heart of regional statistics is the NUTS classification, which covers territorial units based on a hierarchy of regions across the EU Member States. The NUTS classification subdivides each Member State into regions at three different levels, covering NUTS levels 1, 2 and 3 (from larger to smaller areas). Data according to local administrative units (LAUs) is even more detailed.

Whenever available, data are also presented for the EFTA countries (Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway and Switzerland) and for the candidate countries (Montenegro, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (1), Albania, Serbia and Turkey). Regional information is also shown for EFTA and candidate countries (when available), based on so-called statistical regions, which follow the same rules as the NUTS (although they have no legal basis in EU law).

More information on the NUTS classification, is available at: http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/nuts/overview

More information on the system of local administrative units (LAUs), is available at: http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/nuts/local-administrative-units

More information on statistical regions for non-member countries, is available at: http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/nuts/statistical-regions-outside-eu

Temporal coverage

Population and housing censuses are generally only conducted once every 10 years in most of the EU Member States. The information presented from this source relates to the 2011 census round; no comparisons have been made with the results from previous census exercises because of changes in methodology.

For the other sources, surveys are generally conducted on a more regular basis, often annually, and this allows some of the tables and figures to show developments over time. Time series for some indicators may extend back a considerable period of time; for example, there are EU aggregates available for demographic indicators that stretch back to the 1960s. It is however more common to find that time series generally span a period of approximately the last 10 years.

Aside from the final chapter on demographic projections, the information presented in *People in the EU: who are we and how do we live?* does not include forecasts. Those tables, figures and maps which present a snapshot of a single reference period are based on the most recent period available when data was extracted. This period may vary between the different sources and, as a result, the reference period used for consecutive tables and figures might be different. This is because there are different methods for data collection, processing and release, all of which involve more or less complex processes that result in a certain amount of time elapsing, which can vary from a few months (as for the labour force survey) to several years (as for the census).

If data for a specific reference period were not available then efforts were made to fill tables and figures with information pertaining to previous reference periods (these exceptions are also footnoted); generally, this process involved going back at least two reference periods, for example, trying to include data for 2011 or 2012 in the event that a value was missing for 2013.

Data presentation

Many of the data sources used in *People in the EU: who are we and how do we live?* contain metadata that provides information on the status of particular values or series / indicators. In order to improve readability, only the most significant information has been included as footnotes under tables, figures and maps.

Estimates or provisional data used in the construction of tables are indicated through the use of an italic font for the value(s) in question. In figures and maps, estimates and provisional values are footnoted. In a similar vein, all breaks in series are footnoted.

The following symbols and formatting are used, where necessary:

- *Italic* data value is provisional or estimated and is therefore likely to change;
- : not available, confidential or unreliable value;
- – not applicable.

The term billion is used to signify a thousand million.

(1) The name of the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia is shown in tables and figures as FYR of Macedonia — this does not prejudge in any way the definitive nomenclature for this country, which is to be agreed following the

1

Demographic changes — profile of the population

Introduction

Statistics on the structure of the EU's population and those measuring the change in the number of inhabitants have received growing attention from policymakers in recent decades, as it has become apparent that demographic developments — such as increasing life expectancy, falling fertility and migration — will play an increasing role in political, economic and social life.

Global population developments: setting the scene

The world's population has grown considerably in the last 60 years: according to the United Nations, the number of inhabitants increased from 2.5 billion in 1950 to pass 7 billion at the end of October 2011. As of 1 January 2015, the world's population was estimated to be 7.3 billion inhabitants, and is forecast to continue rising, albeit at a slower pace, through to the early 2060s when the number of inhabitants is projected to top 10 billion. Most of the population growth over the next 50 years is expected to take place in some of the world's poorest developing countries.

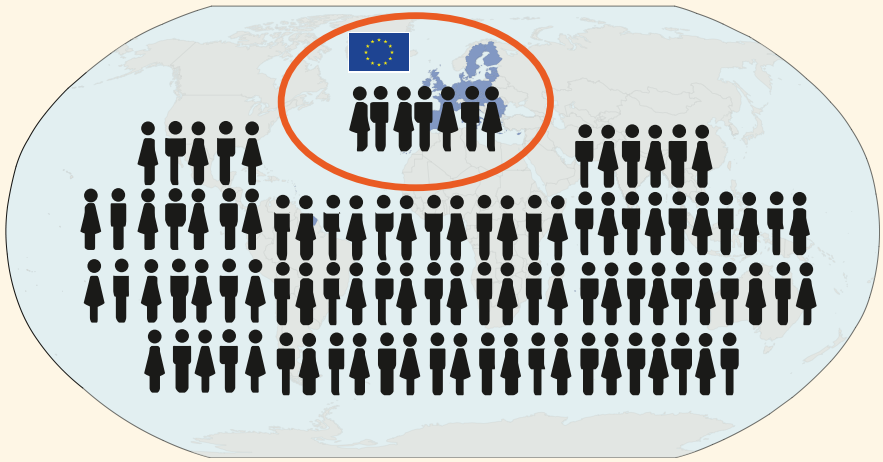
EU population structure and historical developments

Against this background of rising global population, there has been a considerable slowdown in the pace of population expansion within the EU. This pattern has been repeated in most other developed world economies. Nevertheless, aside from Japan, the EU is the world's most rapidly ageing region.

There were 506.8 million inhabitants in the EU-28 as of 1 January 2014. This equated to just over 7% of the world total, compared with a share that was almost twice as high some five decades earlier. The pace of population growth in the EU-28 is expected to slow further, such that within the next 30–40 years the total number of inhabitants in the EU-28 is projected to stagnate and subsequently decline.

The population of the EU-28 on 1 January 2014 was 1.7 million higher when compared with a year before. Population growth in the EU-28 during 2013 was faster than in 2012, when the EU-28's population had increased by 1.1 million inhabitants.

There were 506.8 million inhabitants in the EU-28 as of 1 January 2014. This equated to just over 7% of the world total.



The number of inhabitants in the EU Member States on 1 January 2014 ranged from 80.7 million in Germany to 0.4 million in Malta. Germany, France, the United Kingdom and Italy together comprised more than half (54 %) of the total EU-28 population on 1 January 2014.

The pace at which the EU's population was growing slowed considerably during the 1960s, 1970s and early 1980s

During the period 1960 to 2014, there was almost continuous growth in the EU-28's population, although the rate of population change slowed considerably during the 1960s, 1970s and early 1980s, falling from 1.02 % growth in 1962 (equivalent to an absolute increase of 4.2 million inhabitants) to 0.21 % growth in 1983 and 1984. During the period 1980 to 2013, the demographic situation was characterised by much lower population growth and in 2011 the EU-28's population declined (a 0.1 % reduction, equivalent to a reduction of nearly 440 thousand inhabitants).

The median age of the EU's population rose by six years during the period 1994 to 2014

The median age is the age that divides a population into two parts of equal size, such that there are as many persons who are older than the median age as there are persons that are younger. This indicator provides one measure for analysing ageing populations.

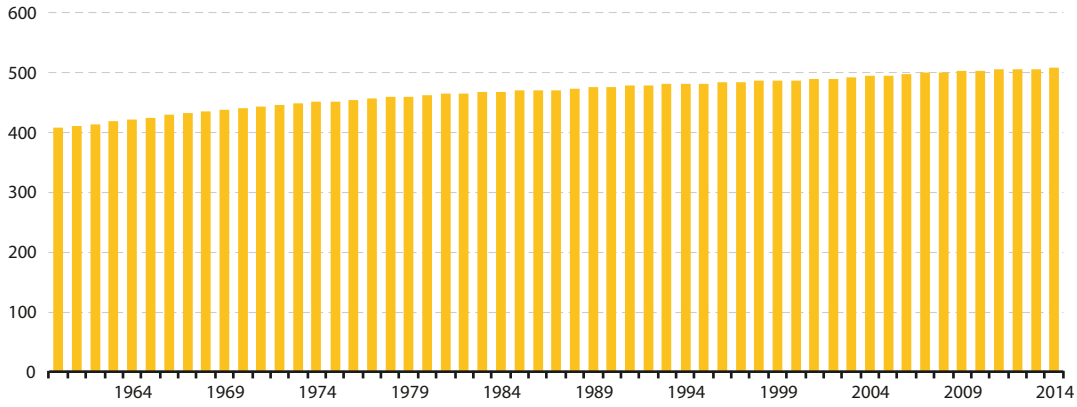
In 1994, the median age of the EU-28's population was 36.2 years, while some 20 years later, it had risen by six years to 42.2 years; over the same period the median age in every EU Member State also increased.

In 2014, the median age in the EU Member States ranged from a high of 45.6 years in Germany down to 36.1 years in Ireland. This gap (9.6 years) between the highest and lowest median ages could be contrasted with results of a similar analysis for 1994, when the difference was 8.0 years, ranging from a high of 38.4 years in Sweden down to a low of 30.4 years in Ireland.

Less young people and more elderly persons

Figure 2 provides further evidence of the process of population ageing that is currently underway in the EU. The two pyramids show a comparison of the structure of the EU's population in 1994 and 2014, with the five-year age band recording the highest share of total population moving from those aged 25–29 years old in 1994 to those aged 45–49 years old in 2014.

Figure 1: Total population, EU-28, 1960–2014 ([1])
(millions)

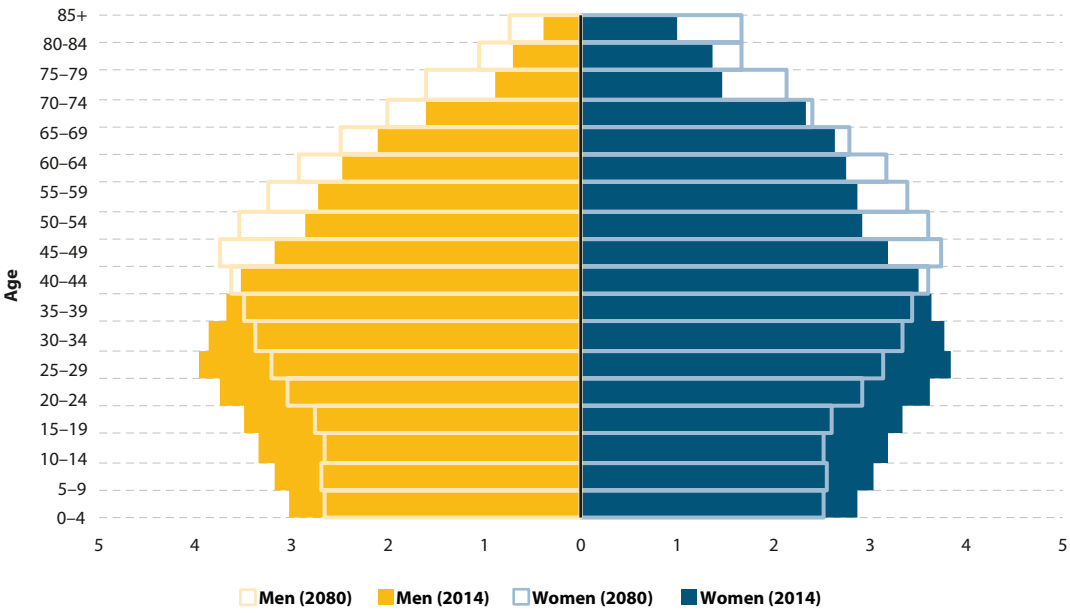


([1]) Population: as of 1 January. Excluding French overseas departments up to and including 1997. Breaks in series: 1998 and 2010–12. 2012–14: provisional.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: demo_gind)

Europeans are living longer and healthier lives: increasing life expectancy may be linked to medical advances and greater health awareness. This development is evident in the rising share of elderly persons in the EU's population, as shown by the growing size of the bars at the top of the age pyramid for 2014; this is sometimes referred to as 'ageing at the top' of the population pyramid.

The EU is also experiencing historically low fertility rates, below the natural replacement level (an average of 2.1 children per woman in developed world economies). With fewer children being born, the relative share of young people in the EU's population has decreased, as witnessed through the narrowing of the pyramid base between 1994 and 2014; this process is known as 'ageing at the bottom' of the population pyramid.

Figure 2: Population structure, by age and sex, EU, 1994 and 2014 ([1])
(% of total population)



([1]) As of 1 January. 1994: EU-27. 2014: EU-28; provisional.
Source: Eurostat (online data codes: demo_pjan and demo_pjangroup)

Population change in the EU

Population change occurs as a result of two factors:

- the difference between the number of births and the number of deaths — otherwise known as the natural change in population;
- the difference between immigration and emigration, or the number of people coming into an area minus the number of people leaving the same area — otherwise known as net migration.

Natural population change had a diminishing role in EU demographic developments from the 1990s onwards as births and deaths became broadly balanced

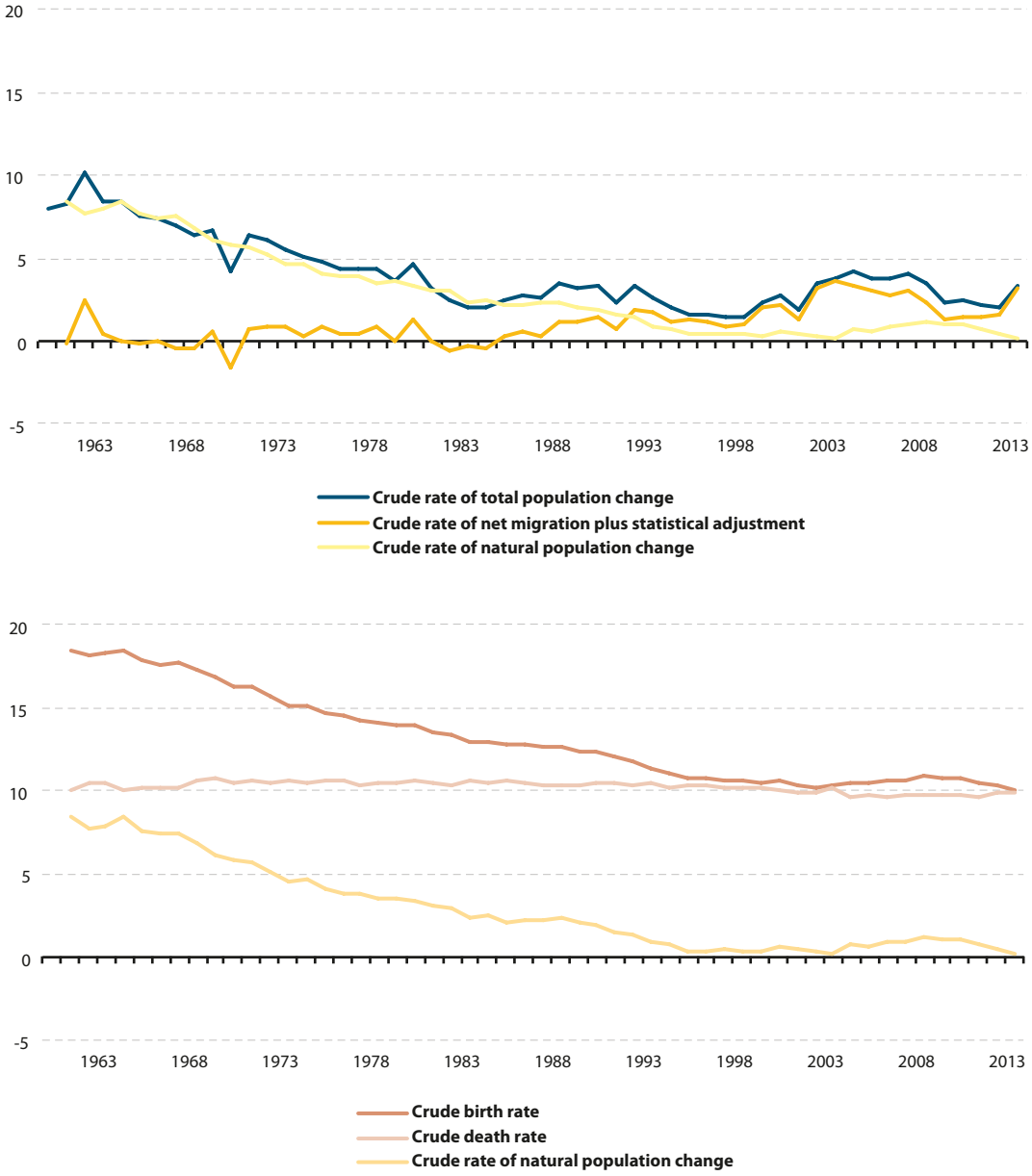
During the last 50 years there was a considerable change in the composition of the EU-28's population change (see Figure 3). In the 1960's, 1970s and 1980s, natural population change accounted for the vast majority of the overall change in total population, with the crude birth rate considerably higher than the crude death rate.

However, from the 1990s onwards, the role of net migration became increasingly important as a driver of EU population change, as births and deaths became broadly balanced (implying a low rate of natural population change). Indeed, during the period 2011 to 2013, net migration plus statistical adjustment contributed more than 80 % to total population growth in the EU-28, compared with just less than 20 % from natural change.

This overall pattern of modest growth of the EU's population, driven increasingly by changes in migratory flows, hides a range of demographic situations among the EU Member States. Between 2004 and 2013, the population of 11 EU Member States fell. In absolute terms, by far the biggest reductions were recorded in Germany (1.76 million fewer inhabitants) and Romania (1.57 million fewer inhabitants). During the same period, the highest overall increases in population numbers were recorded in the United Kingdom (a gain of 4.51 million inhabitants), Spain (3.96 million), France (3.54 million) and Italy (3.29 million).

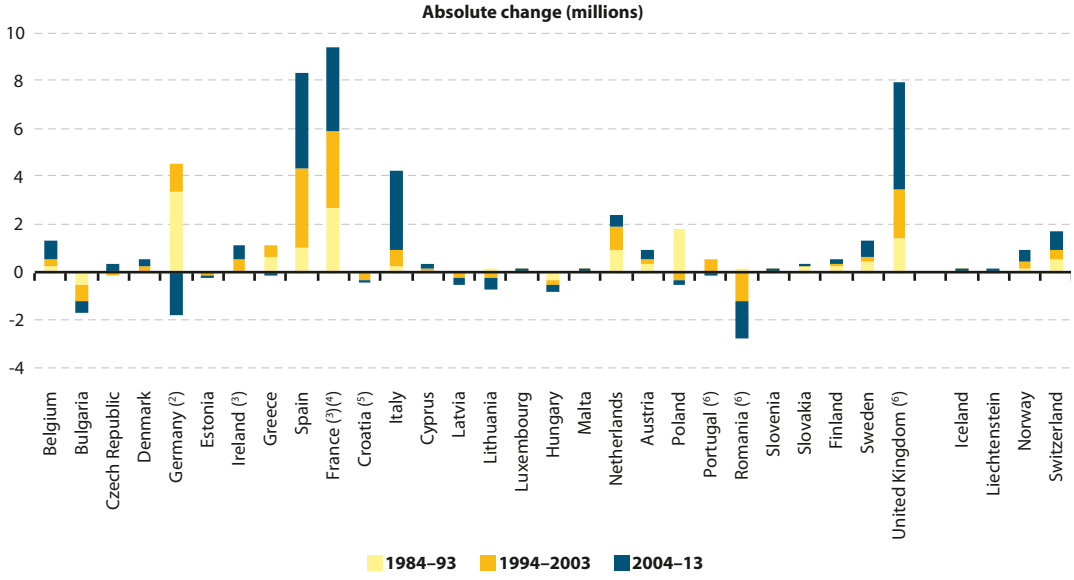
Figure 4 shows the absolute change in numbers of inhabitants over the last three decades for which data are available, and also provides information on the rate of population change for the same three periods. Between 2004 and 2013, the highest population growth rates were recorded in Luxembourg (where the population expanded by 20.8 %), Cyprus (18.7 %) and Ireland (14.3 %), while the biggest contractions were registered in the Baltic Member States of Latvia (– 12.1 %) and Lithuania (– 13.4 %).

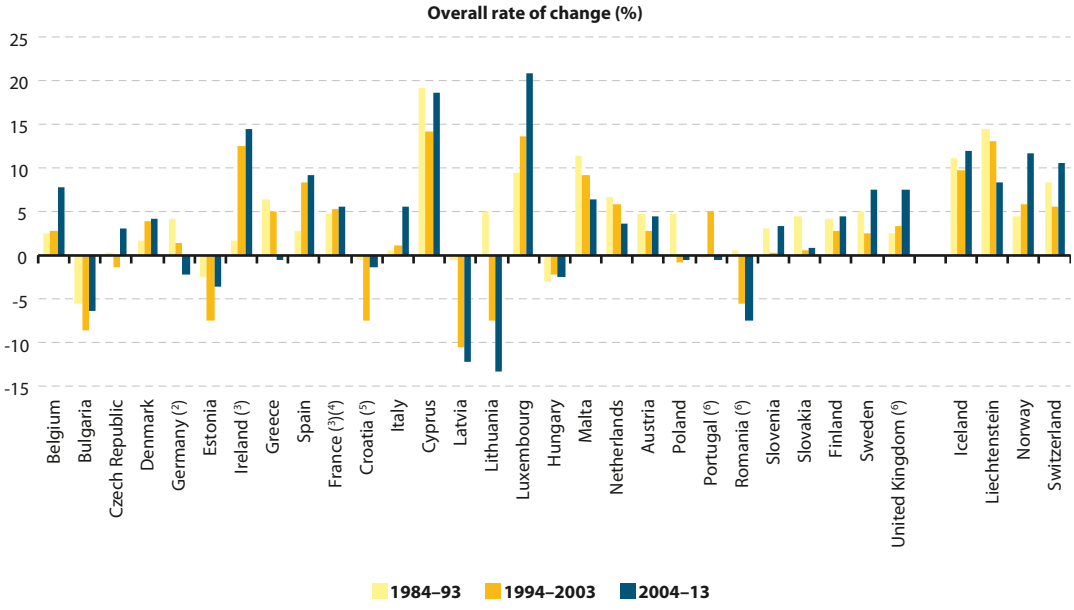
Figure 3: Crude rates of population change, EU-28, 1960–2013 ([1])([2])
(per 1 000 inhabitants)



(1) The crude rates are the ratio of the change during the year to the average population in that year. In the context of the demographic balance net migration is calculated as the difference between total change and natural change of the population and thus it includes an adjustment that cannot be explained by either natural change or migration.
([2]) Breaks in series. 2013: estimates.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: demo_gind)

Figure 4: Population change, 1984–2013 (1)





(1) Population change or population growth in a given year is the difference between 1 January of that year and 1 January of the following year.
(2) 2004–13: break in series.
(3) 1 January 2014: provisional.
(4) 1984–93: metropolitan France.
(5) 1 January 1984 and 1 January 1994: estimates.
(6) 1 January 2014: estimates.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: demo_pjan)

Natural population growth accounted for the majority of the population increase recorded in Slovakia, the Netherlands, France and Ireland...

Analysing the components of population change at a national level, it is possible to use a typology based on eight different groups (overall population growth or population decline, each accompanied by one of four measures that cover the relative importance of natural population change and / or net migration), see Table 1.

During the period 1 January 2004 to 1 January 2014, at least 70 % of the increase in the number of inhabitants in Slovakia, the Netherlands, France and Ireland could be attributed to natural population change (more births than deaths). By contrast, the majority — at least 70 % — of the increase in the populations of Italy, Austria, the Czech Republic, Luxembourg, Spain, Slovenia, Sweden, Belgium and Cyprus could be attributed to net migration. In Italy there was a negative natural population change (with slightly more deaths than births over the period 2004 to 2014), but this was completely offset by net migration, which accounted for 108 % of the total population change. Denmark, Malta, Finland and the United Kingdom were each characterised by population growth that was somewhat more balanced, and although the majority of their population growth was attributed to net migration, a relatively high proportion of their population growth could also be attributed to natural increases.

...while deaths outnumbered births in Germany, Croatia and Hungary, as net migration rebalanced, to some degree, the size of their total populations

Among the 11 EU Member States that recorded a decline in their total number of inhabitants during the period 1 January 2004 to 1 January 2014, Poland was unique insofar as it was the only Member State that recorded a natural increase in its population, which was exceeded by the negative level of net migration (in other words, there were more emigrants than immigrants). Germany, Croatia and Hungary each reported a natural decrease in their population numbers, which was re-balanced, to some degree (but not fully), by net migration. The seven remaining EU Member States were characterised as having a negative natural population change that was compounded by negative net migration.

Table 1: Contribution of natural change and migration to population change, 2004–14 ([1])

Demographic drivers	EU Member States, EFTA countries and candidate countries
Growth due:	
only to natural change	Montenegro, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Albania
more to natural change	Ireland, France, the Netherlands, Slovakia, Iceland, Turkey
more to net migration (and adjustment)	Belgium, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Spain, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Malta, Austria, Slovenia, Finland, Sweden, the United Kingdom, Liechtenstein, Norway, Switzerland
only to positive net migration (and adjustment)	Italy
Decline due:	
only to natural change	Germany, Croatia, Hungary, Serbia
more to natural change	Bulgaria, Portugal
more to net migration (and adjustment)	Estonia, Greece, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania
only to negative net migration (and adjustment)	-

([1]) Based on data from 1 January 2004 to 1 January 2014. Belgium, Germany, Luxembourg, Hungary, Poland, Slovenia, Switzerland, Montenegro and Serbia: breaks in series. Ireland and France: 1 January 2014, provisional. Portugal, Romania, the United Kingdom and Albania: 1 January 2014, estimate.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: demo_gind)

Childbirth

As noted above, most of the EU's population growth in the 1960s and 1970s was due to natural population increase, in other words, the number of births outstripping the number of deaths. The gradual decline in the number of births in the EU may be attributed to women / couples choosing to have fewer children and to the postponement of childbirth (which may, at least in part, be linked to increasing educational and labour market opportunities for women). Indeed, it is now relatively commonplace for Europeans to have no children or a relatively small family composed of a single child or two children.

The total number of births includes both live births and stillbirths. A live birth is the birth of a child that shows any sign of life. A stillbirth is the expulsion or extraction from the mother of a dead foetus after the time at which it would normally be presumed capable of independent extra-uterine existence (outside the uterus or womb); this is commonly taken to be after 24 or 28 weeks of gestation.

The crude birth rate is the ratio of the number of live births during the year to the average population in that year; the value is expressed per 1 000 inhabitants. Historically, the crude birth rate has been a leading factor in determining population growth: it reflects both the level of fertility and the age structure of the population.

The number of live births in the EU-28 peaked in 1964 at 7.8 million; thereafter, the number of births began to gradually fall, passing below 7 million in 1972, below 6 million in 1987, and reaching almost 5 million in 2002. There was a brief period (2003 to 2008) when the number of live births in the EU-28 started to rise again, returning to 5.5 million by 2008. This came to an end with the onset of the financial and economic crisis — as the number of births tends to decrease during periods of economic hardship — and was followed by a resumption of the pattern of declining numbers of births; the latest figures available show that the number of live births in the EU-28 had provisionally declined to 5.1 million by 2013. The EU-28's crude birth rate peaked at 18.5 live births per 1 000 inhabitants in 1964, but had fallen to 10.0 live births per 1 000 inhabitants by 2013.

Over the last 50 years the biggest reductions in crude birth rates were recorded in southern and eastern EU Member States

Figure 5 presents developments for the crude birth rate across the EU Member States during a 50-year period. In 2013, the highest crude birth rates were recorded in Ireland, France, the United Kingdom, Sweden, Luxembourg and Belgium. By contrast, the lowest birth rates were principally recorded in a number of southern and eastern EU Member States, as well as in Germany and Austria.

This overall pattern of declining birth rates was repeated for each of the EU Member States during the period 1963 to 2013. As birth rates in the EU fell they tended to converge: for example, the birth rates of Portugal, Cyprus, Spain and Malta fell rapidly from initially high levels. By contrast, there was a relatively small change in crude birth rates between 1963 and 2013 in Luxembourg, Hungary and Sweden.

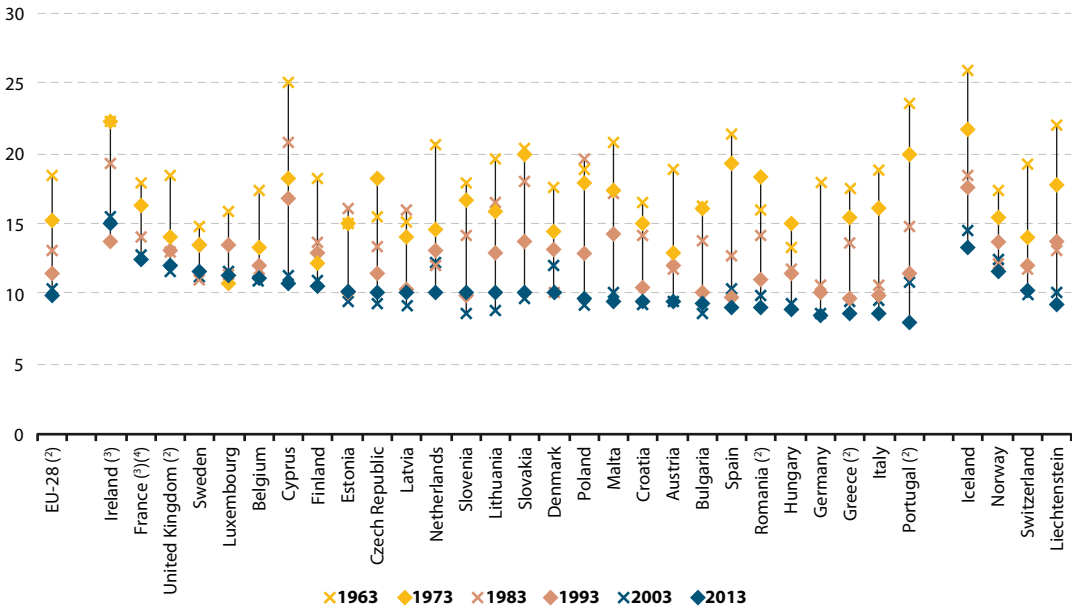
An analysis of the development of crude birth rates during the period 2003 to 2013 shows that there is some evidence to suggest there has, in a few EU Member States, been a departure from the pattern of persistently declining rates. Indeed, the crude birth rate rose between 2003 and 2013, principally in Slovenia, the Baltic Member States, the Czech Republic, Sweden, Slovakia, Poland, Bulgaria and the United Kingdom. By contrast, birth rates continued to fall in the majority of the Member States, with some of the largest contractions recorded among those Member States that already had some of the lowest birth rates in 2003, for example, Portugal, Spain, Greece, Italy and Romania. The crude birth rate also fell at a rapid pace (during the most recent decade for which data are available) in the Netherlands and Denmark, such that their rates moved closer to the EU-28 average by 2013.

The decline in the number of births may, at least in part, be explained by women delaying childbirth: between 2003 and 2013, the mean age of women at childbirth in the EU-28 rose by 1.1 years, to reach 30.3 years.

The vast majority of women gave birth to either one or two children and larger families are becoming increasingly scarce. Within the EU-28, some 82.6 % of the live births in 2013 were first or second children, while births of third children accounted for 11.8 % of the total and those of fourth or subsequent children for 5.6 %. Across the EU Member States in 2013, the highest proportion of births ranked fourth or subsequent among the total number of births was recorded in Finland (10.4 %), followed by the United Kingdom (9.5 %), Romania (9.4 %) and Ireland (9.0 %).

Figure 6 illustrates the increase in the mean age of women at childbirth in the EU Member States. During the period 1983 to 2013, the postponement of childbirth was most apparent in three eastern and one southern EU Member State, as the average age of women at childbirth rose by 5.4 years in the Czech Republic, by 4.8 years in Greece and by 4.7 years in both Hungary and Slovenia. By contrast, the average age of women at childbirth rose, between 1983 and 2013, by no more than two years in Lithuania and Ireland, and by less than three years in the Netherlands, Sweden, the United Kingdom, Romania and Finland.

Figure 5: Crude birth rates, 1963–2013 ([1])
(per 1 000 inhabitants)

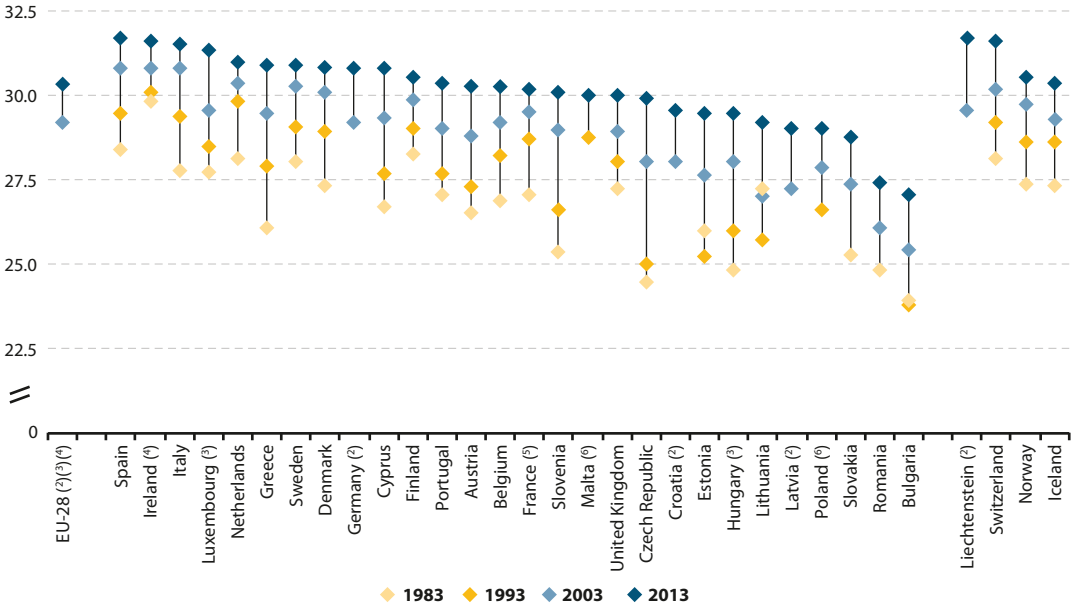


([1]) Ranked on the crude birth rate for 2013.
([2]) 2013: estimate.
([3]) 2013: provisional.
([4]) 1963–93: metropolitan France.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: demo_gind)

The total fertility rate is the mean number of children that would be born alive to a woman during her lifetime if she were to conform to the age-specific fertility rates for a given year throughout her childbearing years. Demographers suggest that a fertility rate of 2.1 is required in developed world economies to maintain a constant population (in the absence of any migration); this rate is often referred to as the natural replacement rate. As shown above, Europeans have been having considerably fewer children in recent decades; in 2013, the EU-28's total fertility rate was 1.55 children per woman.

All of the EU Member States recorded fertility rates in 2013 that were below the natural replacement rate (Figure 7). Some of the highest fertility rates were found in the western and northern EU Member States: France and Ireland had rates of just less than 2.00 live births per woman, followed by Sweden (1.89) and the United Kingdom (1.83). By contrast, the fertility rate did not rise above 1.40 children per woman in six southern EU Member States (Portugal, Spain, Cyprus, Greece, Malta and Italy), three eastern EU Member States (Poland, Slovakia and Hungary), and Germany.

Figure 6: Mean age of women at childbirth, 1983–2013 ([1])
(years)

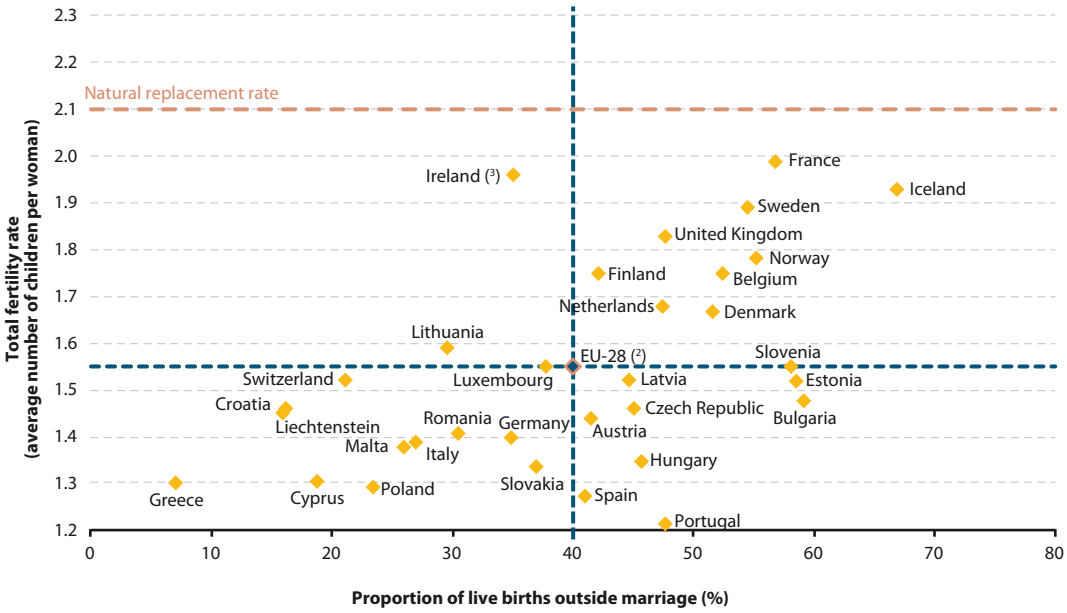


([1]) Ranked on the mean age of women at childbirth for 2012. Note the y-axis is cut.
([2]) 1983 and 1993: not available.
([3]) 2003–13: break in series.
([4]) 2013: provisional.
([5]) 1983 and 1993: metropolitan France.
([6]) 1983: not available.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: demo_find)

Figure 7 shows that the EU Member States with the highest fertility rates tended to record some of the highest shares of live births outside of marriage. These patterns may be explained, at least to some degree, by changing attitudes to flexible family norms and increased gender equality, the balance in government policies between providing child support and encouraging traditional family values, and the impact of religious and family values on everyday lives.

Three different groups of countries can be broadly identified (the top-left quadrant being almost empty). The first group is composed of France, the United Kingdom, the Nordic Member States (as well as Iceland and Norway), Belgium and the Netherlands, where both the total fertility rate and the proportion of live births outside marriage were close to or above the EU-28 average (top-right quadrant). Most of the southern EU Member States — Portugal and Spain were the exceptions — were in the opposite quadrant (bottom-left), with their fertility rates and the proportion of live births outside marriage close to or below the EU-28 average; they were joined by Luxembourg, Germany, Poland, Slovakia, Romania and Croatia, as well as Liechtenstein and Switzerland. The third group of countries (bottom-right quadrant) also had fertility rates that were close to or below the EU average, but had a higher than average proportion of births outside marriage. This group was composed of the four remaining eastern EU Member States (Slovenia, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic and Hungary), the two remaining Baltic Member States (Estonia and Latvia), as well as Austria, Portugal and Spain. Ireland and Lithuania did not quite fit into any of these three main groups, recording above average fertility rates but below average proportions of births outside marriage.

Figure 7: Live births outside marriage and total fertility rate, 2013 ([1])



([1]) EU-28, Belgium, Estonia, Ireland, Cyprus, Austria, the United Kingdom and Iceland: 2012 instead of 2013 for proportion of live births outside marriage.
([2]) Total fertility rate: provisional.
([3]) Provisional.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: demo_find)

Foreigners and foreign-born populations

Humans have always moved across the planet, from the beginnings of mankind, through tribal and religious migrations, empire building, colonialism and slavery, to more modern forms, which are often based on increased mobility, the search for work, a desire to improve living standards (economic migration), and to escape conflict or oppression (asylum). Today, immigration is one of the most contentious issues in the EU: while some regions are characterised as having built vibrant, diversified and inclusive migrant communities, migrant integration constitutes an important challenge in others.

Net migration (the number of immigrants minus the number of emigrants) increased rapidly at the start of the 1990s and has been the principal driver of EU population change since then (Figure 3). Migratory flows in the EU operate at three different levels: inter-regional migration (flows within the same Member State), intra-EU migration (flows between EU Member States) and extra-EU migration (flows between non-member countries and the EU). Within individual EU Member States, there are examples of considerable movements in population between regions (for example, from southern Italy to northern Italy, or from eastern Germany to western Germany). Within the EU, the free movement of individuals is enshrined in law as a fundamental freedom. Examples of recent migratory patterns include the flow of people leaving some Member States following their accession to the EU in 2004 or 2007, or migrants leaving those economies most seriously affected by the financial and economic crisis.

Migration from non-member countries is generally restricted (quotas) or employer-driven, in other words, migrants need to have a job offer before they can enter the host economy. International migrants have the potential to increase economic output, often filling skilled posts where there is a lack of qualified labour, for example, in the health sector, or various disciplines linked to science, technology, engineering or mathematics. Some EU Member States are characterised by higher levels of non-economic international migration, principally concerned with family reunification, study or humanitarian reasons.

Migrants tend to leave regions that are characterised by low standards of living, or peripheral and rural regions with relatively few job opportunities in order to seek work in urban areas (in particular, capital cities). The age structure of migrant populations tends to be younger than average, and therefore has the potential to lower the median age of the population, increase the proportion of working-age people and raise fertility rates. While recipient regions may benefit from these aspects of immigration, those regions characterised by outward migration are likely to see their relative share of the elderly within the total population rise.

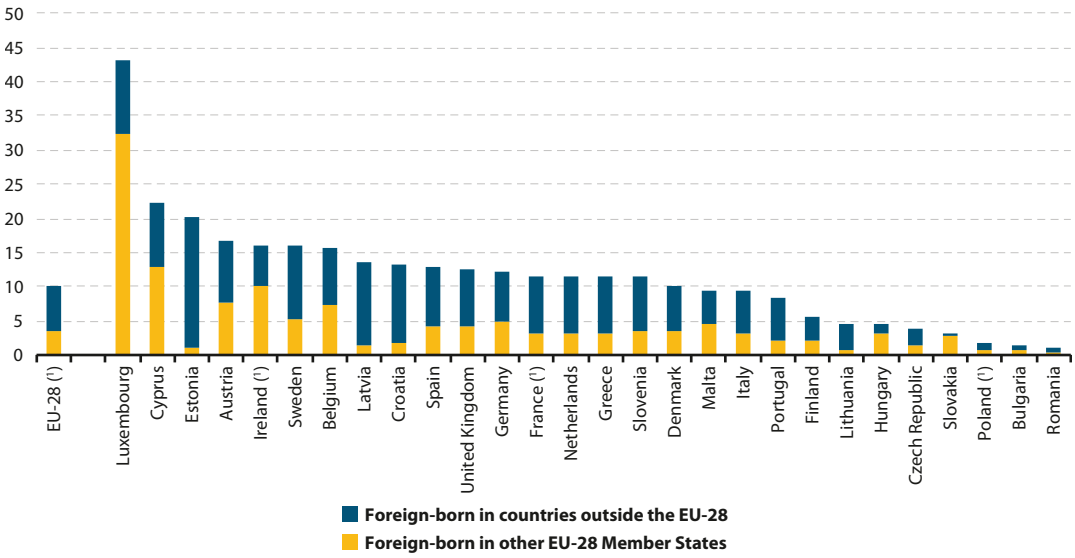
Foreign-born populations from outside the EU were almost twice as large as those from other EU Member States

When referring to foreign populations, an important distinction should be made between people who were born in a foreign country and those who are foreign citizens. As citizenship can change over time, it is considered useful to analyse this information by country of birth, as shown in Figure 8, which presents data on the stock of foreign-born persons living in the EU; note that data for Croatia are not available.

In absolute terms, the largest numbers of foreign-born people living in the EU Member States on 1 January 2014 were found in Germany (9.8 million), the United Kingdom (8.0 million), France (7.7 million), Spain (6.0 million) and Italy (5.7 million), considerably ahead of the Netherlands which had the sixth highest number of foreign-born inhabitants, at 2.0 million.

Foreign-born people living in the EU-28 accounted for 10.2 % of the total population on 1 January 2014, with the share of people born outside the EU almost twice as high (6.6 %) as that for people living in an EU-28 Member State other than the one where they were born (3.5 %). Luxembourg had, by far, the highest proportion (43.3 %) of its population made up of people born abroad, followed by Cyprus (22.3 %) and Estonia (20.2 %), while those born in a foreign country accounted for approximately one in six persons in Austria, Ireland, Belgium and Sweden. By contrast, there were seven EU Member States where the foreign-born population accounted for less than 5 % of the total number of inhabitants; these included Lithuania, Hungary, the Czech Republic and Slovakia, while Poland and Bulgaria had shares of less than 2 %, and Romania a share that was just above 1 %.

Figure 8: Share of foreign-born population, 1 January 2014
(% of total population)



(1) Provisional.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: migr_pop3ctb)

There are considerable differences in the composition of the foreign-born populations of the EU Member States. On 1 January 2014, less than 15 % of the foreign-born populations of Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania and Croatia were from other EU-28 Member States. By contrast, the only EU Member States to report that more than half of their foreign-born population was composed of people from other EU-28 Member States were Luxembourg, Ireland, Cyprus, Slovakia and Hungary.

Just over three quarters of the migrants arriving in Luxembourg were citizens of other EU Member States...

In 2013, there were an estimated 1.7 million immigrants to the EU from countries outside the EU-28 and a similar number of immigrants (1.7 million people) from other EU-28 Member States (in other words, people who moved from one EU Member State to another). Thus, about 3.4 million people in total immigrated to one of the EU-28 Member States in 2013, while at least 2.8 million emigrated.

Figure 9 presents information on the rate of immigration, as measured by migrant flows in 2013, according to citizenship. Those EU Member States that had a relatively high proportion of foreign-born inhabitants were often the same Member States that received the highest number of immigrants (relative to their population size) in 2013. Luxembourg and Cyprus again featured at the top of the ranking, with 38.3 and 19.8 immigrants per 1 000 inhabitants. At the other end of the scale, there were less than 3 immigrants per 1 000 inhabitants in the Czech Republic, Bulgaria, Croatia and Portugal, while this ratio fell to 1.0 immigrant per 1 000 inhabitants in Slovakia.

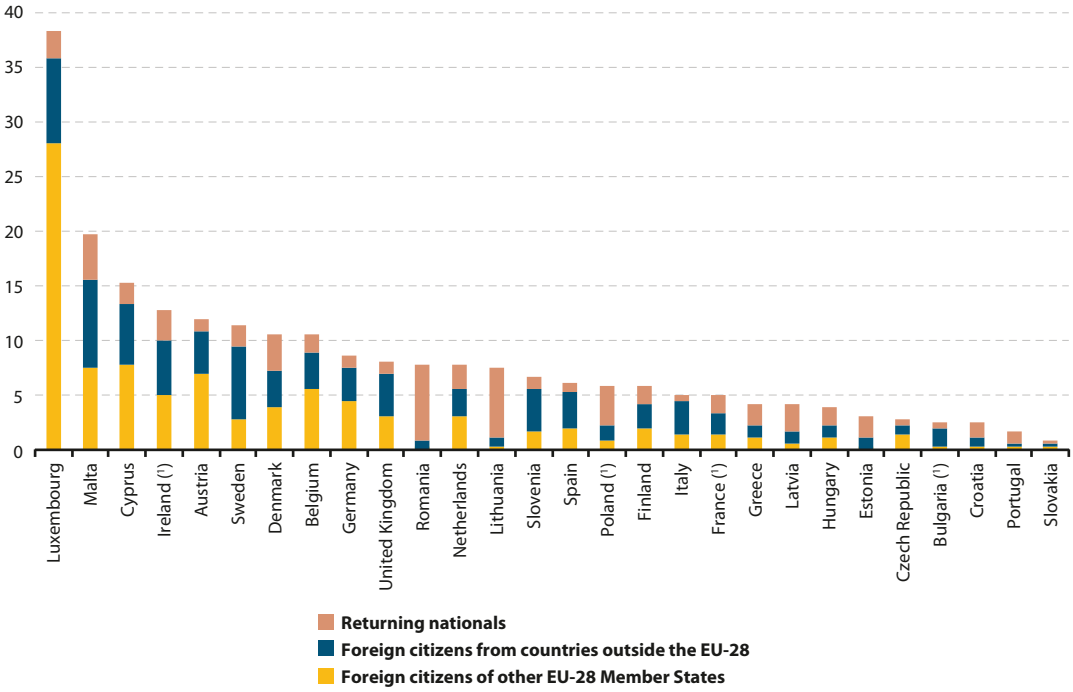
Approximately three quarters (73.7 %) of the immigrants arriving in Luxembourg in 2013 were citizens of other EU-28 Member States; this was the highest proportion among any of the EU Member States. There were only four other Member States — Austria, Belgium, Germany and Cyprus — where citizens from other EU-28 Member States accounted for more than half of the total number of immigrants. By contrast, less than 1 in 10 immigrants arriving in Portugal, Bulgaria, two of the Baltic Member States (Estonia and Lithuania) and Romania in 2013 were citizens from one of the other EU-28 Member States. A similar analysis shows that foreign citizens from outside of EU-28 accounted for 60–70 % of total immigration in Slovenia, Bulgaria and Italy, and for more than half of the total in Spain and Sweden.

...while returning nationals accounted for close to 90 % of the migrants arriving in Romania and Lithuania

Figure 9 also suggests that some forms of migration in the EU are temporary (or maybe even seasonal), as witnessed by migrants returning to their country of origin. In 2013, the relative share of returning nationals in the total number of immigrants was highest in Romania (90.4 %), Lithuania (86.2 %), Portugal (69.2 %), Estonia (60.2 %), Poland (59.7 %), Latvia (57.6 %) and Slovakia (51.9 %). These were the only EU Member States to report shares of return migration that were above 50 %. By contrast, returning nationals accounted for less than 10 % of all immigrants in 2013 in Luxembourg, Austria and Italy.

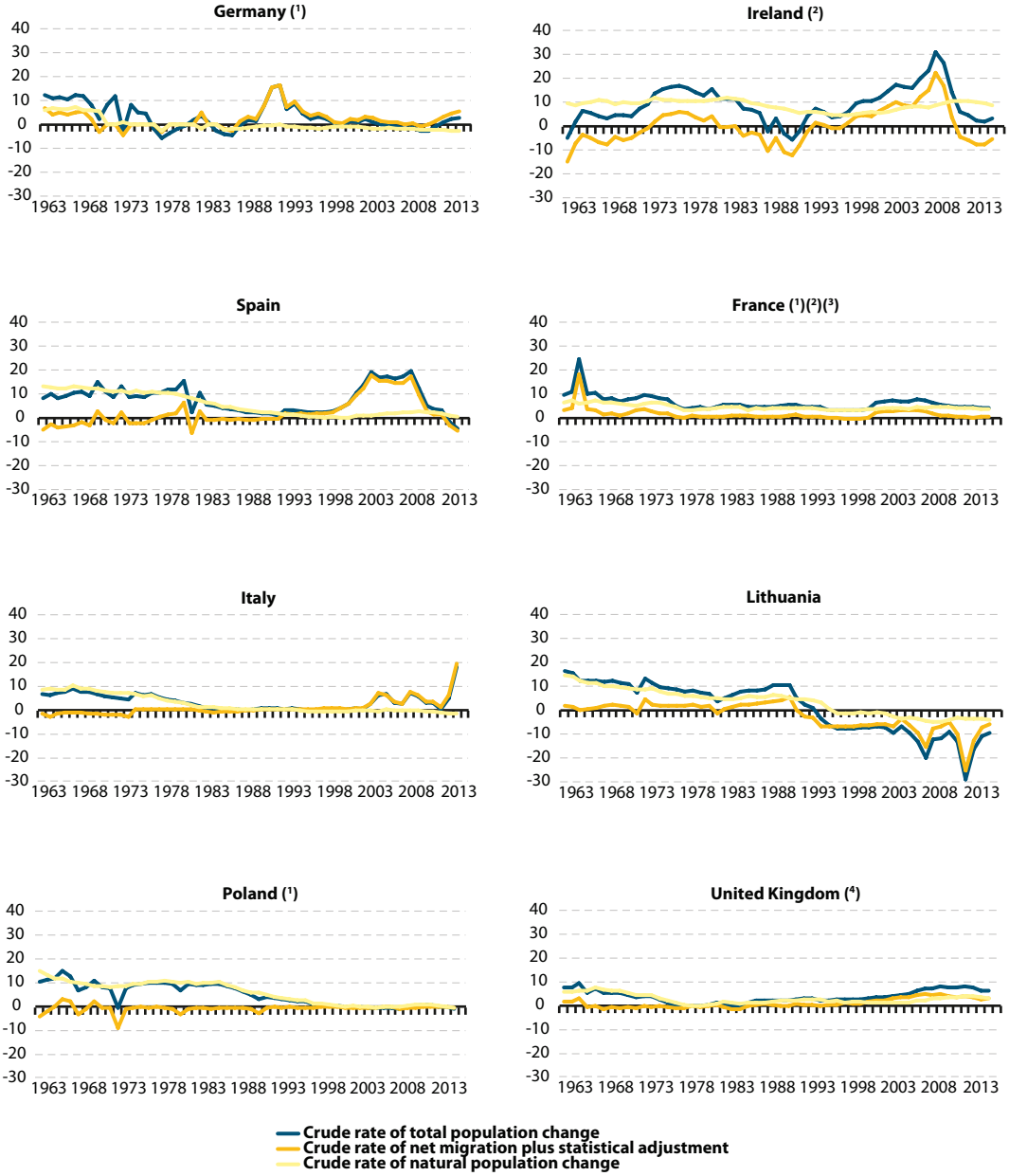
The information presented in Figure 10 shows longer-term developments for crude rates of net migration (together with similar information on total population change and natural population change). Many of the figures show specific developments that have driven demographic and migratory patterns. For example, the fall of the Berlin Wall and reunification in Germany at the end of the 1980s / start of the 1990s, the end of the housing bubble and the onset of financial and economic crises in Ireland and Spain in 2007–08, or the accession of Lithuania to the EU in 2004.

Figure 9: Share of immigrants, by citizenship, 2013
(per 1 000 inhabitants)



(1) Provisional.
Source: Eurostat (online data codes: migr_imm1ctz and migr_pop3ctb)

Figure 10: Crude rates of population change, selected Member States, 1960–2013
(per 1 000 inhabitants)



(1) Breaks in series.
(2) 2013: provisional.
(3) 1960–97: Figures refer to metropolitan France, excluding overseas departments.
(4) 2013: estimates.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: demo_gind)

An ageing population

The preceding sections have already alluded to the on-going process of population ageing in the EU, both as a result of relative and absolute increases in age. This has been seen through changes in the EU's population structure, whereby the relative share of the elderly has risen as fertility rates have fallen and less young persons are born. There has also been an absolute increase in the number of elderly persons as a result of increased longevity (higher life expectancy). While the number of older people is growing and accounting for an ever-increasing share of the total population, at the same time, the homogeneity of this group is being altered, reflecting an increasingly diverse group of people, with a wide range of lifestyles, physical and mental capabilities. Many older people live in single-person households with or without close family support or in extended families, while others are admitted to institutional care.

Statistics on population ageing are monitored increasingly within political, economic, social and cultural contexts, for example: to analyse the effects of this phenomena on the sustainability of public finances and welfare provisions; with respect to active ageing, which has become a central pillar of policy development, providing greater opportunities for the elderly to continue working, volunteering, participating and contributing to society, with the dual purpose of increasing economic output and each individual's quality of life.

There were slightly fewer than 5 million deaths in the EU-28 in 2013

The number of deaths in the EU-28 has remained relatively stable, generally at just under 5 million each year since the 1970s, rising just above this level in 1985, 1993, 1995 and again in 2012; in 2013, the total number of deaths in the EU-28 numbered 4.995 million. The EU-28 crude death rate — which measures the number of deaths per 1 000 inhabitants — was 9.9 in 2013.

The most commonly used indicator for analysing mortality is life expectancy at birth: this is the mean number of years that a person can expect to live, at birth, if subjected to current mortality conditions (age-specific probabilities of dying) throughout the rest of his / her life. Life expectancy can also be calculated at any specific age, and a commonly used measure is life expectancy at age 65.

Life expectancy rose in the EU in advance of most other regions of the world, as a function of economic development, improved lifestyles and advances in healthcare and medicine. These changes have resulted in continuous and rapid increases in life expectancy at birth across the EU. Indeed, over the past five decades, life expectancy at birth has increased by about 10 years for both men and women and this development is expected to continue with an increasing share of very old persons (considered here as those aged 85 and over) in the EU's population.

Life expectancy at birth in the EU-28 was estimated at 80.6 years in 2013 (Table 2); 83.3 years for women and 77.8 years for men. This indicator is only available from 2002 onwards for the EU-28 as a whole, but even during this relatively short period there was an increase of 2.9 years, with a gain of 2.4 years for women and 3.3 years for men.

As people live longer, interest in the life expectancy of older generations has increased: Table 2 also shows life expectancy at age 65, by sex. In 2013, upon reaching the age of 65, men in the EU-28 could expect to live an additional 17.9 years on average, while women could expect to live an additional 21.3 years. Between 2002 and 2013, the increase in EU-28 life expectancy for men and women at the age of 65 was 2.1 and 1.8 years respectively.

Table 2: Life expectancy at birth and at age 65, EU-28, 2002–13 ([1])
(years)

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Life expectancy at birth	77.7	77.7	78.4	78.5	78.9	79.1	79.4	79.6	79.9	80.3	80.3	80.6
Males	74.5	74.6	75.2	75.4	75.8	76.0	76.3	76.6	76.9	77.3	77.4	77.8
Females	80.9	80.8	81.5	81.5	82.0	82.2	82.3	82.6	82.8	83.1	83.1	83.3
Life expectancy at age 65	17.8	17.8	18.3	18.3	18.7	18.9	19.0	19.2	19.4	19.7	19.6	19.8
Males	15.8	15.8	16.3	16.4	16.8	16.9	17.1	17.3	17.5	17.8	17.7	17.9
Females	19.5	19.3	19.9	19.9	20.4	20.5	20.6	20.8	21.0	21.3	21.1	21.3

([1]) Breaks in series.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: demo_mlexpec)

Significant differences in life expectancy are observed between the EU Member States. In 2013, Romania, Bulgaria and two of the Baltic Member States (Latvia and Lithuania) recorded the lowest life expectancies at birth for men, each below 72 years, with the lowest level recorded in Lithuania (68.5 years). By contrast, the highest life expectancies — above 80 years —were recorded in Cyprus, Sweden, Spain and Italy (where the peak value of 80.3 years was recorded). For women, the range was somewhat narrower, from less than 79 years in Latvia, Romania and Bulgaria (where the lowest level was recorded at 78.6 years), to 85 or more years in Cyprus, Italy, France and Spain (where the peak value of 86.1 years was registered).

The number of elderly people in the EU-28 rose, over the last decade, at a rate that was almost six times as fast as for the overall population

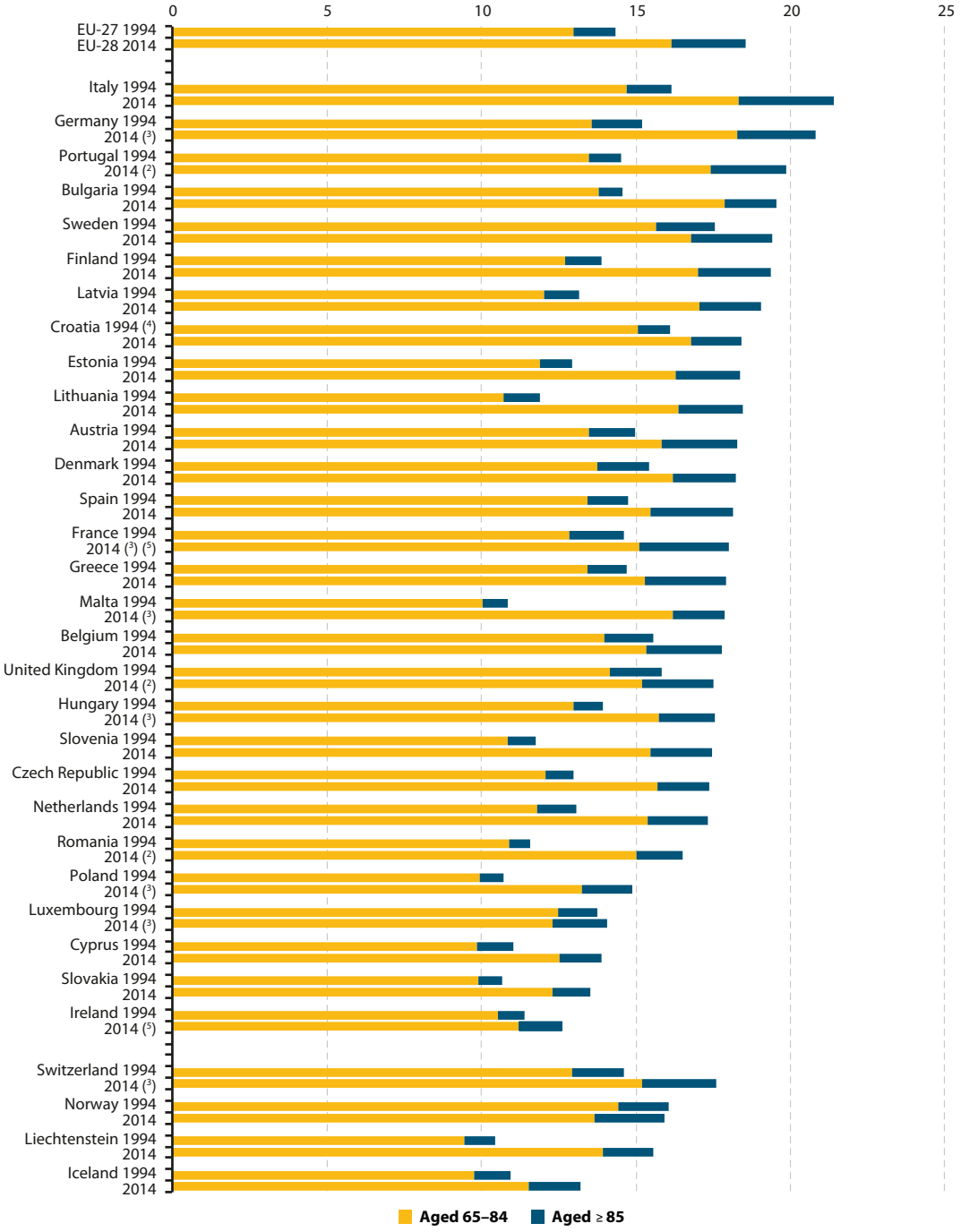
On 1 January 2014, there were almost 94 million persons aged 65 and over in the EU-28. Figure 11 shows that they accounted for an 18.5 % share of the EU-28 population: 16.1 % of the population were aged 65–84 years and an additional 2.4 % of the population aged 85 and over. The elderly accounted for a relatively high share — upwards of 20 % — of the total population in Italy and Germany. By contrast, less than 15 % of the population in Poland, Luxembourg, Cyprus, Slovakia and Ireland was composed of people aged 65 and over.

A lengthy time series is not available for the EU-28 (note that the data for 1994 in Figure 11 is for the EU-27). However, a comparison is available for the period 2001 to 2014, when the number of elderly people in the EU-28 rose by 21.8 %, while the overall population of the EU-28 increased, during the same period, by 3.8 %.

Looking in more detail at the very old (those aged 85 and over), they accounted for the highest share of the population in Italy (3.1 %), France (2.9 %), Spain (2.7 %), Germany and Sweden (both 2.6 %). By contrast, those aged 85 and over accounted for no more than 1.5 % of the total population in Romania, Ireland, Cyprus and Slovakia.

Between 1 January 1994 and 1 January 2014, there was almost no change in the share of the very old in the Cypriot population (up 0.1 percentage points), while in the majority of the EU Member States the share of the very old rose by 0.4–1.2 percentage points. There was a more rapid increase in the proportion of very old people in four southern EU Member States, with a rise of 1.3 percentage points in Spain, 1.4 points in both Greece and Portugal, and 1.6 points in Italy.

Figure 11: Share of population aged 65 and over, 1994 and 2014 ([1])
(% of total population)



([1]) As of 1 January. ([2]) Estimate. ([3]) Break in series. ([4]) 2001 instead of 1994. ([5]) Provisional.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: demo_pjangroup)

Age dependency ratios are based on comparisons of those parts of the population that are generally economically inactive (the young and / or the old) with those of working age (defined here as people aged 15–64). The old-age dependency ratio is the ratio of older dependents (those aged 65 and over) to those of working age; values are expressed in percentage terms, in other words, per 100 persons of working age. Such ratios can be used to analyse the pressures on the 'productive' part of the population to provide for dependents. Higher dependency ratios imply an increased burden on those of working age to provide for government expenditure related to education and / or health, pensions and social care, in other words services most used by the young and the elderly.

Note that dependency ratios ignore the fact that those aged 65 and over are not necessarily 'dependent'. As mentioned above, an increasing share of the elderly population remains economically active and a growing number continue working beyond statutory or conventional retirement ages. By contrast, there are many people aged 15–64 years who remain outside of the labour force (broadly defined as those in work and those seeking work), as an increasing share of young people continue their studies into their twenties, some people choose to retire early, others cease to work due to illness or disability or to care for others, while some simply choose to be economically inactive.

Since reaching a peak at 336.7 million in 2011, the working-age population in the EU-28 has been shrinking not only as a share of the total population but also in actual numbers. The European Commission has stated that '... raising employment levels... is arguably the most effective strategy with which countries can prepare for population ageing', for example, by raising the employment opportunities available to young people, women and older persons. Indeed, one of the Europe 2020 targets is to raise the employment rate among those aged 20–64 to 75 % by 2020.

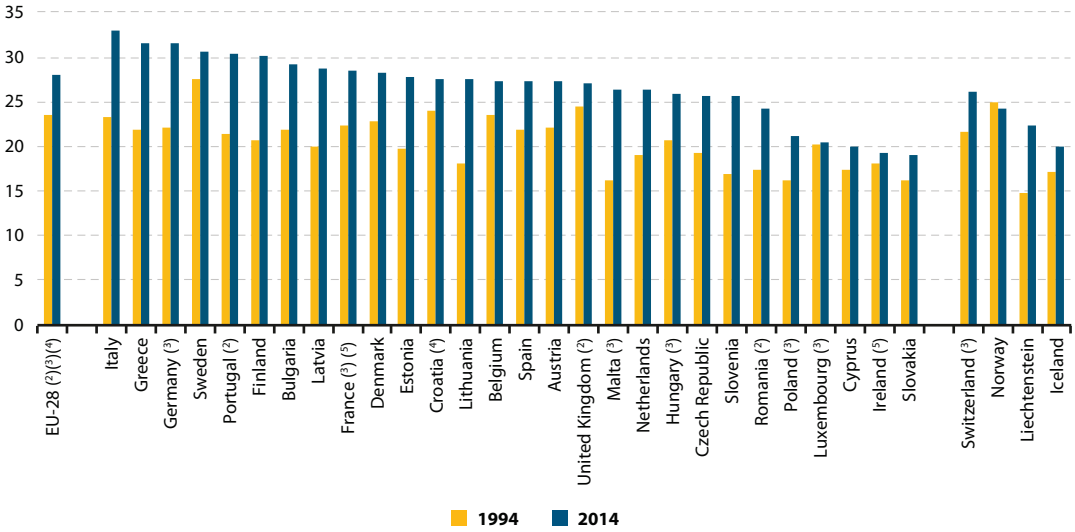
Life expectancy in the EU is predicted to continue rising during the next 30–40 years and as a result old-age dependency ratios will also probably increase (given there is no rapid change in fertility rates or patterns of net migration). The old-age dependency ratio of the EU-28 was 28.1 % in 2014; in other words, the EU had slightly more than 3.5 persons of working age for each person aged 65 years or over who could potentially contribute towards paying taxes and social security payments that would allow government expenditure on a range of benefits and services that provide support to the elderly.

Across the EU Member States, the old-age dependency ratio peaked at 33.1 % in Italy (where there were approximately three persons of working age for each person aged 65 and over); rates were also higher than 30 % in Greece, Germany, Sweden, Portugal and Finland. By contrast, the old-age dependency ratio was less than 20 % (more than five persons of working age for each person aged 65 and over) in Cyprus, Ireland and Slovakia.

The pace and implications of population ageing can be seen in Figure 12. Between 1994 and 2014, the old-age dependency ratio rose by at least eight percentage points in four southern EU Member States (Malta, Greece, Italy and Portugal), the three Baltic Member States, Finland, Germany and Slovenia. The largest increase (10.1 percentage points) was in Malta, where there were 6.1 persons of working age for each elderly person at the start of 1994, a ratio that had fallen to 3.8: 1 by the start of 2014.

By contrast, the process of population ageing and the burden on the working age population was considerably less marked in a number of other EU Member States. For example, the old-age dependency ratio was almost unchanged between 1994 and 2014 in Luxembourg, and rose at a relatively slow pace in Ireland, the United Kingdom, Cyprus, Slovakia and Sweden; the main demographic driver in Ireland and Slovakia was natural population change, while population growth in the other four Member States was principally driven by net migration.

Figure 12: Old-age dependency ratio, 1994 and 2014 ([1])
(% of the population aged 65 and over relative to the population aged 15–64 years)



([1]) As of 1 January.
([2]) Estimate.
([3]) 1994: Figures refer to metropolitan France, excluding overseas departments; break in series.
([4]) 2001 instead of 1994.
([5]) Provisional.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: demo_pjanind)

2

Changing family life — portrait of household and family structures

Introduction

The average size of households in the EU has been shrinking in recent decades. This pattern may be attributed to a range of factors, including: a rising share of people living independently; an increase in the share of the elderly living alone; declining fertility rates; higher divorce rates; and a shift in household structures away from extended families living together under the same roof towards more households being composed of 'nuclear' families, single-parent families and single persons.

In the context of social surveys and the population and housing census, private households include single persons living alone and groups of people, not necessarily related, living in the same accommodation. A private household comprises persons resident in the same dwelling, where this dwelling is not an institution. In the EU statistics on income and living conditions (EU-SILC) survey, a private household is defined as a person living alone or a group of people who live together in the same private dwelling and share expenditures, including the joint provision of the essentials of living.

A household-dwelling unit consists of the permanent occupants of a dwelling collected on the basis of 'usual residence', in other words, the place where the respondent normally lives (aside from temporary absences for the purposes of recreation, holidays, visits to friends and relatives, business, medical treatment or religious pilgrimage). An institutional household comprises persons who have board, lodging, care or nursing at an institution. Institutional households include, for example, student halls of residence, old people's homes, nursing homes, military barracks, prisons or religious institutions; the data presented in this chapter generally focuses on private households.

Families and other groups of people may pool their incomes to a greater or lesser extent: this is known as the 'housekeeping concept', which allows a distinction to be made between boarders and lodgers: boarders take meals with the household and are generally allowed to share / use the household's facilities (housekeeping, common expenses, or a shared living / sitting room or dining area) and are therefore considered as members of the same household; by contrast, lodgers rent or hire part of a dwelling for their exclusive use and therefore belong to a different household.

Household size

Household composition: number of persons

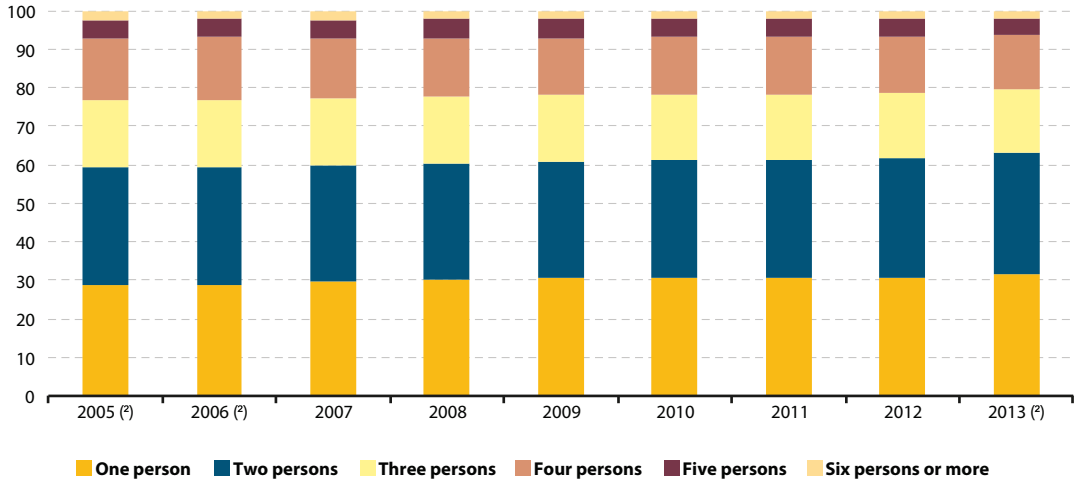
According to the population and housing census conducted in 2011, there were 495.6 million people in the EU-28 living in a private household; this equated to 98.7 % of the total population. The remaining 6.7 million persons (1.3 % of the population) were living in institutional households or were homeless.

Almost two thirds of all households in the EU were composed of one or two persons

Fresher data is available from EU-SILC and this can be used to provide an analysis of household composition. In 2013, the two most common types of household were those composed of a single person or those composed of two persons. They each accounted for almost one third (31.6 %) of the total number of households (see Figure 1). Larger households were less common and accounted for a decreasing share: one sixth (16.6 %) were composed of three persons and 13.9 % by four persons, while households with more than four persons were relatively rare, those with five persons accounted for 4.4 % of the total and those with six or more persons for 2.0 %.

Between 2005 and 2013 the share of EU-28 households that were composed of one or two persons rose from 59.2 % to 63.2 %. By contrast, the relative importance of the other household types (by size) fell, with the biggest reduction — a fall of two percentage points — recorded among those households composed of four persons.

Figure 1: Distribution of households by size, EU-28, 2005–13 (1)
(% of all households)



(1) EU-27: 2005–09.
(2) Estimates.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: ilc_lvph03)

Average household size

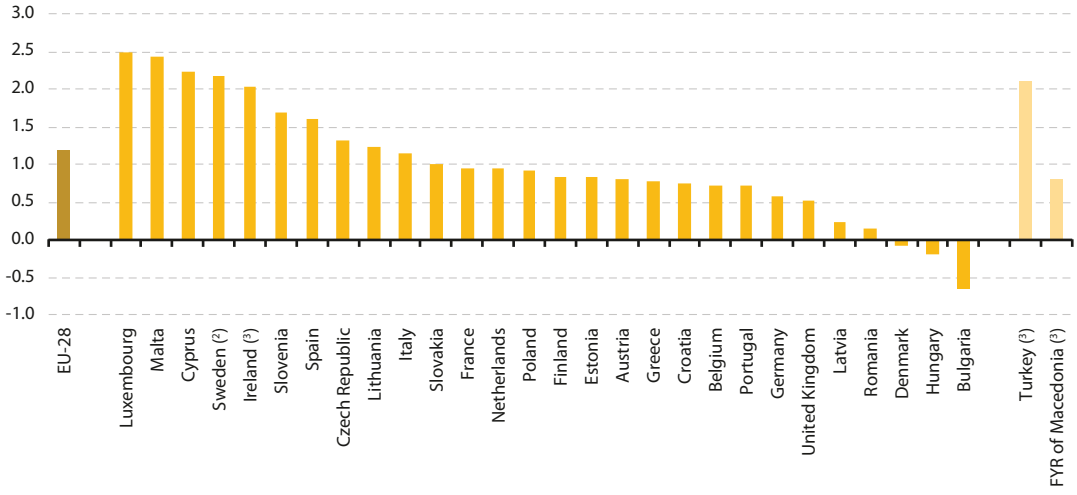
Households in the EU had an average size of 2.4 persons

According to EU-SILC, the average size of private households in the EU-28 was 2.4 persons in 2013. This ratio ranged from highs of close to three persons in Slovakia, Romania (2012 data), Poland, Cyprus and Croatia, down to averages of no more than two persons in Germany and Denmark. In those EU Member States that joined the EU in 2004 or more recently, households tended to be somewhat larger in size, while they were, on average, smaller in most of the western and remaining northern EU Member States.

With the average size of private households decreasing and the total population of the EU-28 continuing to grow (albeit at a relatively slow pace), it is evident that there was an increase in the overall number of households. According to the EU's labour force survey (EU-LFS), the total number of private households within the EU-28 rose from 195 million in 2005 to 214 million by 2013, equivalent to average growth of 1.2 % per annum (see Figure 2). In Luxembourg, Malta, Cyprus, Sweden and Ireland there was a relatively fast expansion in the number of households (increases of at least 2 % per annum), whereas household numbers fell marginally in Denmark, Hungary and, at a somewhat faster pace in Bulgaria (– 0.6 % per annum).

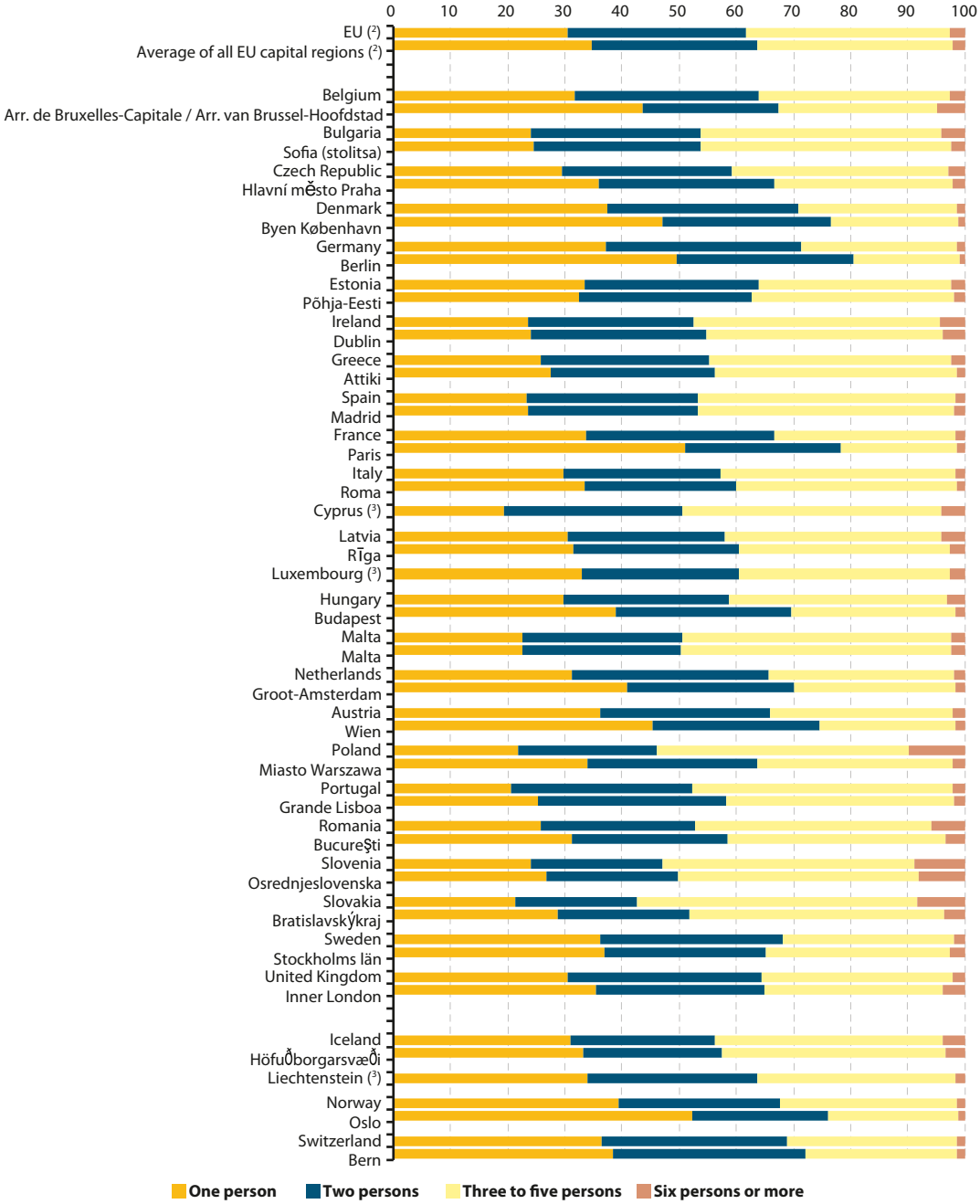
More detailed information is available from the population and housing census, and this may be used to analyse the differences between national averages and capital cities in relation to the distribution of occupants per dwelling (see Figure 3). The general pattern that may be observed across EU Member States is that there tends to be a higher (than the national average) proportion of dwellings inhabited by single persons in capital cities. Among the 23 EU Member States for which data are available (Croatia, Lithuania and Finland, not available; Cyprus and Luxembourg, no

Figure 2: Annual average change in the number of households, 2005–13 ([1])
(% per annum)



([1]) Breaks in series for all Member States other than: Croatia, Italy, Hungary, Malta, Romania and Slovenia.
([2]) 2009–13.
([3]) 2006–13.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: lfst_hhnhtych)

Figure 3: Distribution of occupants per dwelling, national averages and capital regions, by NUTS level 3 region, 2011 ([1])
(% of all dwellings)



([1]) Croatia, Lithuania and Finland: not available. ([2]) Excluding Croatia, Lithuania and Finland. ([3]) For NUTS 3 regions / regions at statistical level 3: no distinction between the national average and the capital region.

Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC54)

distinction made between national and regional data at this level of detail), only Estonia and Malta reported that a slightly higher share of dwellings at a national level were inhabited by single persons (the difference was no more than one percentage point). In contrast, a considerably higher share of the dwellings in the capitals of Belgium, Poland, Germany and France were inhabited by single persons (when compared with the national average for each of these countries), with differences in excess of 10 percentage points; this gap peaked at 17.3 points between Paris and the French national average.

Single-person households

In 2013, single-person households accounted for almost one third (31.7 %) of the private households in the EU-28. Single-person households include those where a person lives alone in an individual, separate housing unit. They also include units where a single person lives independently, as a lodger, in a separate room (or rooms) in the same housing unit as other occupant(s) — for example, a self-contained flat within a residence that is occupied by other people. One of the main driving forces behind the fall in the average size of households has been an increase in the proportion of people living alone, which may be linked to a wide range of factors, including a reduction in the longevity of relationships (including higher divorce rates).

DID YOU KNOW?

In 2011, the highest proportion of single-person households was recorded in the Norwegian capital region of Oslo (52.9 %).

For more information: refer to the CENSUS HUB

Figure 4 illustrates developments for four different types of single-person households during the period 2005 to 2013, based on information from EU-SILC. The relative share of all four types of single-person household rose over the period under consideration (note, there is a break in series in 2009 as a result of a change in the composition of the EU aggregate).

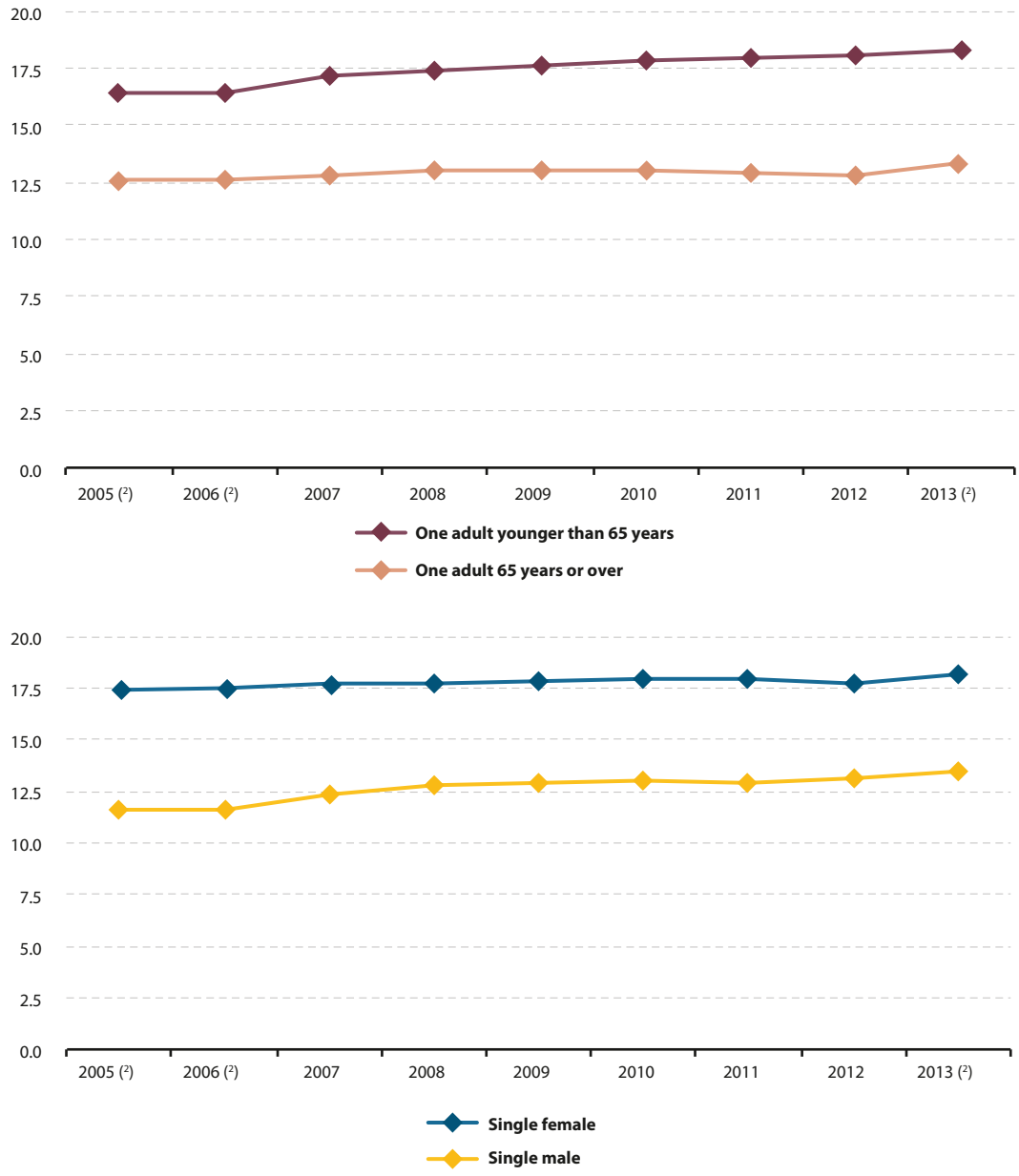
Differences between EU Member States

The proportion of households made up of people living alone in the EU is split geographically insofar as more people in the northern and western EU Member States tend to live alone, while lower shares of single-person households are recorded in most of the southern and eastern EU Member States.

Almost half the households in Denmark were composed of people living alone

In 2013, almost half (47.4 %) of all the households in Denmark were composed of a single person, while relatively high shares — around 40 % — were recorded in the other Nordic Member States (as well as Norway) and in Germany. By contrast, single-person households accounted for one in five (20.0 %) households in Portugal, with a similar share (20.8 %) recorded for Cyprus.

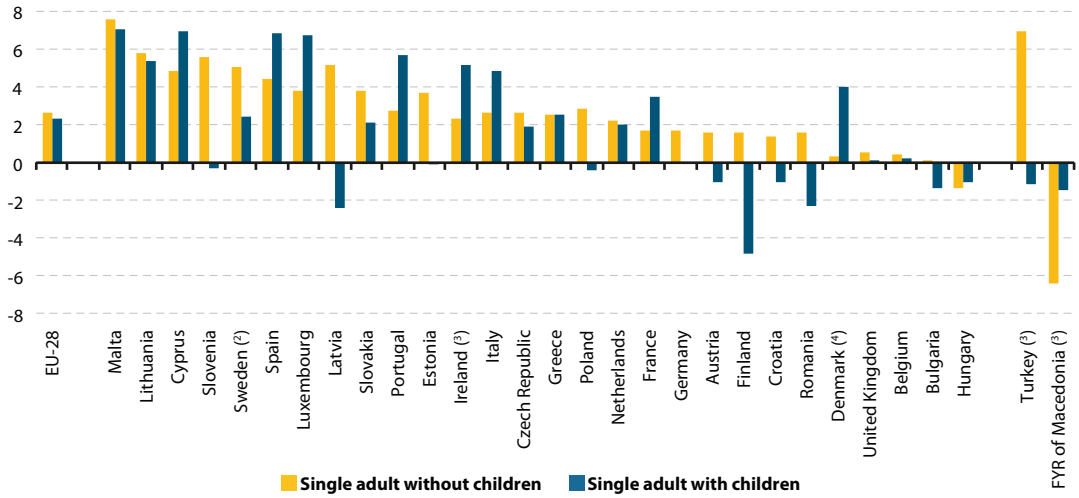
Figure 4: Share of single-person households, EU-28, 2005–13 ([1])
(% of all households)



([1]) EU-27: 2005–09.
([2]) Estimates.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: ilc_lvph02)

Figure 5 presents the change in the number of single-person households between 2005 and 2013; it is based on information from the EU-LFS. The number of single-person households in the EU-28 rose, on average, by 2.6 % per annum over this period. Hungary was the only EU Member State to report a fall in its number of single-person households, while there was no change recorded in Bulgaria. By contrast, the most rapid expansions in numbers of single-person households were recorded in Malta (up 7.6 % per annum) and Lithuania (5.8 % per annum). As such, there was a pattern of catch-up, insofar as some of the fastest growth rates were recorded among those EU Member States that displayed a relatively low proportion of single-person households.

Figure 5: Annual average change in the number of single-adult households, 2005–13 ([1])
(% per annum)



([1]) Breaks in series for all EU Member States other than: Croatia, Italy, Hungary, Malta, Romania, Slovenia and Sweden.
([2]) 2009–13.
([3]) 2006–13.
([4]) 2010–13.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: lfst_hhnhtych)

Differences between the sexes

More women than men lived on their own

In 2013, a higher proportion of women (18.2 %) were living alone than men (13.5 %). This may, in part, be attributed to women outliving their (opposite sex) partners and therefore being more likely to live alone in old age, but also reflects a higher proportion of young women (than men) choosing to leave the parental home, while a larger proportion of young men stay longer at home with their parent(s). A high share of young adults (aged 18–24) in the EU-28 continued to live in the parental home: in 2013, some 84.6 % of young men were living with their parent(s), while the share for young women was 74.0 %.

A more detailed analysis by sex (again based on data from EU-SILC) reveals that women from the Nordic Member States and Baltic Member States, as well as those from Germany, were most prone to live alone, while women from Ireland, Malta, Cyprus and Spain tended to be less likely to live alone. Households composed of single women accounted for more than twice as many households as those occupied by single men in Portugal, Latvia, Hungary and Slovakia and the proportion of households composed of women living alone was higher than the corresponding proportion for men in all but one of the EU Member States; the exception was Luxembourg where a relatively high degree of the population was born in another EU Member State which may, at least in part, explain this phenomenon (with a high number of relatively young male economic migrants arriving in search of (temporary) work).

The highest proportions of households composed of men living alone were recorded in many of the same EU Member States that recorded the highest shares of women living alone, namely, the Nordic Member States and Germany, although the proportion of households composed of men from the Baltic Member States who were living alone was lower than the EU-28 average. Men living alone accounted for less than 7 % of all households in Slovakia and Portugal.

Growing old

According to EU-SILC, single-persons aged 65 and over accounted for 13.4 % of all private households in the EU-28 in 2013. Their share rose to 18.6 % in Romania and was higher than 15 % in the Baltic Member States, Italy, Croatia and Finland. At the other end of the range, there was a relatively low likelihood of the elderly living alone in Cyprus (7.4 % of all households) and Spain (9.9 %).

More detailed information is available from the population and housing census and this shows that there were 20.6 million persons aged 65–84 years who were living alone in the EU-28 in 2011; an additional 4.7 million persons aged 85 years and over were living in single-person households. Combining these figures, the elderly population aged 65 and over accounted for almost 4 out of every 10 (39.0 %) single-person households in the EU.

Almost half of the people living alone in Croatia were aged 65 and over

The proportion of single-person households accounted for by the elderly (aged 65 and over) peaked at 49.3 % in Croatia, while shares of at least 45.0 % were recorded in Portugal, Italy and Lithuania. By contrast, the elderly accounted for less than one third of the single-person households in Cyprus, the Netherlands and Luxembourg (where the lowest share was reported, at 27.5 %).

A regional analysis

As noted above, capital cities and metropolitan areas often recorded some of the highest concentrations of single-person households, while the lowest proportions were generally recorded in more rural areas.

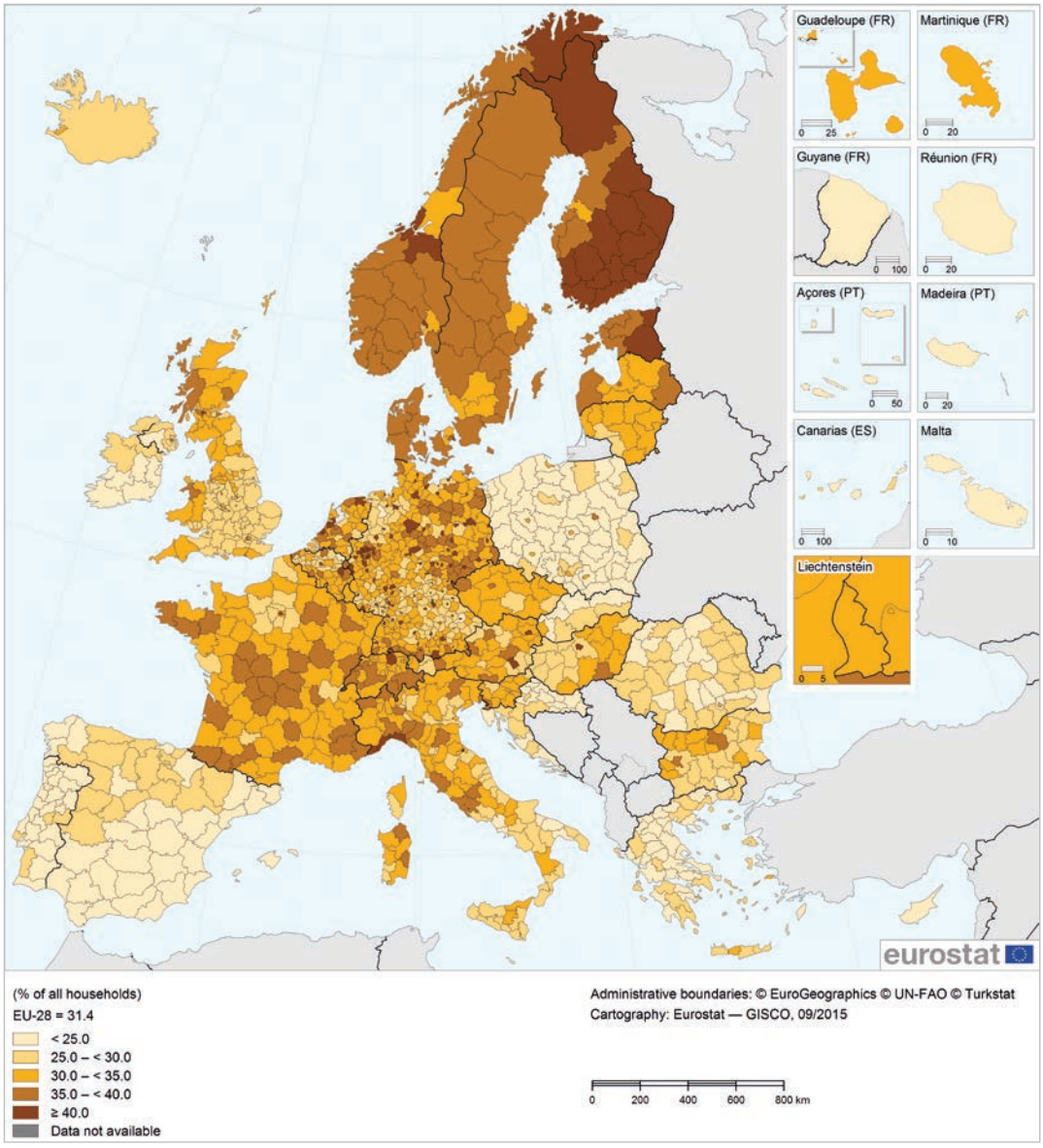
Single persons constituted more than 50 % of the households in Paris and four German cities

A more detailed analysis of single-person households is presented in Map 1. It is based on information from the population and housing census for 1 315 NUTS level 3 regions. In 2011, there were five regions in the EU where single-person households accounted for more than half of the total number of households, four of these were in Germany, namely: München, Kreisfreie Stadt; Flensburg, Kreisfreie Stadt; Regensburg, Kreisfreie Stadt; and Würzburg, Kreisfreie Stadt; while the fifth was the French capital, Paris. However, the highest proportion (52.9 %) of single-person households was recorded in the Norwegian capital region of Oslo.

By contrast, there were just four regions in the EU where single-person households accounted for less than 15 % of the total number of households, all of which were located in northern Portugal, namely: Tâmega, Ave, Entre Douro e Vouga, and Cávado.

The information collected in the population and housing census allows an even more detailed analysis at the level of municipalities (although information at this level is only available for a restricted set of EU Member States). It is interesting to note that even within individual cities there were considerable differences in the proportion of single-person households. For example, in 2011, within the municipalities of Arrondissement de Bruxelles-Capitale / Arrondissement van Brussel-Hoofdstad, their share ranged from a high of 63.9 % in the central municipality of Ixelles / Elsene down to a low of 36.9 % in the western municipality of Berchem-Sainte-Agathe / Sint-Agatha-Berchem. In a similar vein, single-person households across the municipalities of Inner London accounted for between 68.8 % of all households in Queenhithe (a central area between the City and the river Thames characterised by office space and apartments) and 16.7 % of all households in East Ham (a municipality to the east of the Olympic Park characterised by terraced housing).

Map 1: Share of single-person households, by NUTS level 3 region, 2011
(% of all households)



Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC49)

Other types of household

Eurostat has developed a common classification of household types which is applied across a range of social surveys. The classification is constructed by reference to the number of adults (their age and gender), and the numbers of dependent children living with them (with a distinction made between those aged under 25 and those aged 25 and older). The information that follows is derived from the population and housing census and covers 1 315 NUTS level 3 regions in the EU, describing the distribution of different household types across these regions.

One-family households

A one-family household, sometimes referred to as a nuclear household, is defined as a household composed of a single family nucleus, in other words, a married / co-habiting couple (with or without children), a single father with children, or a single mother with children.

The highest proportion of one-family households — close to or above 80 % — was recorded in the northern Portuguese regions of Tâmega, Ave, Entre Douro E Vouga and Cávado (all close to Porto). There were 10 other regions where the share of one-family households was between 75 and 80 %; these included four other Portuguese regions (Pinhal Litoral, Baixo Vouga, the Região Autónoma Dos Açores and Dão-Lafões), three Spanish regions (Toledo, Cádiz and Murcia), and a single region from each of Italy (Barletta-Andria-Trani in Puglia), Greece (Pieria, to the south west of Thessaloniki), and Ireland (Mid-East, which surrounds Dublin).

Two or more family households

There were 27 out of the 1 315 regions in the EU where the share of two or more family households was in double-digits. Among these the vast majority were either in Poland or Slovakia, although there were also a couple of regions from each of Croatia and Romania. Four of these 27 regions reported that at least one in five households was composed of two or more families; all four of these were in Slovakia, namely, Kosický Kraj, Banskobystrický Kraj, Presovský Kraj and Trnavský Kraj.

Multi-person households

There were five regions in the EU where the share of multiperson households (composed of unrelated individuals) was in double-digits; all of these were in urban areas of the United Kingdom, namely: Inner London-East; Inner London-West; Outer London-West and North West; Nottingham; and Brighton and Hove. Among the 30 regions in the EU with the highest share of multiperson households composed of unrelated individuals, some 27 were regions in the United Kingdom, the three exceptions being Hlavní Mesto Praha (8.4 %), Byen København (7.7 %) and Heidelberg, Stadtkreis (also 7.7 %).

Families

There have been considerable changes in the household composition and living arrangements of Europeans: this is particularly true in relation to patterns of family formation, with traditional boundaries becoming increasingly blurred and different types of family nuclei becoming more common. The average age at which people get married has risen, as an increasing proportion of young people begin their adult lives by living alone or cohabiting, rather than leaving the parental home when they are ready to marry.

Marriage

The crude marriage rate was almost halved in the EU-28 between 1964 and 2011

Eurostat's annual demography data collection provides information in relation to marriages. It shows that there were 2.1 million marriages in the EU-28 in 2011, while the corresponding Figure back in 1964 had been 3.4 million. Expressed in relation to the total population, the crude marriage rate fell from 7.9 to 4.2 per 1 000 inhabitants between 1964 and 2011 (see Figure 6).

In 2012, the highest crude marriage rates among the EU Member States were recorded in Lithuania (6.9 marriages per 1 000 inhabitants), Malta (6.7) and Cyprus (6.7), while Latvia, Romania, Sweden, Poland, Finland and Denmark each recorded crude marriage rates that were between 5.0 and 5.5 marriages per 1 000 inhabitants. By contrast, the lowest crude marriage rates were registered in Bulgaria (at 2.9 marriages per 1 000 inhabitants), while Spain, Italy, Slovenia, Luxembourg and Portugal each recorded crude marriage rates that were between 3.3 and 3.5 marriages per 1 000 inhabitants.

The increase in the share of people who delay getting married until after the age of 30 may be linked, at least in part, to some young adults considering cohabitation as a form of 'trial marriage', while others consider marriage only once they have decided to start a family.

DEFINING FAMILIES AND CHILDREN

Traditionally, the family has been defined as a group of people who are linked through blood or marriage, typically centred on a married couple and their dependents. However, within the population and housing census a broader definition is applied. A family 'nuclei' is constituted when two persons (of either sex) choose to live together as a married couple, in a registered partnership, or in a consensual union, whether or not they have children; single parents with children also constitute a family unit, while people living alone do not, nor do groups of unrelated people who choose to share a house together (for example, students).

The family concept, as defined above, therefore limits relationships between children and adults to direct (first-degree) relationships, that is between parent(s) and child(ren). A child is a blood, step- or adopted son or daughter (regardless of its age or the marital status of its parents) who has their 'usual' residence in the household of at least one of its parents, and who has no partner or children of their own.

In 2012, the mean age at first marriage for men was at least 30 years in all but three of the EU Member States, the only exceptions being Bulgaria (29.9 years in 2011), Lithuania (29.0 years in 2011) and Poland (28.7 years). Men from the Nordic Member States (as well as Iceland and Norway) were most likely to defer getting married, with the highest mean age at first marriage recorded in Sweden (35.9 years), while the average age at first marriage for men was at least 33 years in Spain, Italy, Austria, Ireland and France.

The same countries also recorded the highest average ages for first marriage among women, peaking at 33.3 years in Sweden. The average age of women at first marriage was consistently lower than that recorded for men in each of the EU Member States, with the difference between the genders generally within the range of 2–4 years, falling to 1.8 years difference in Ireland.

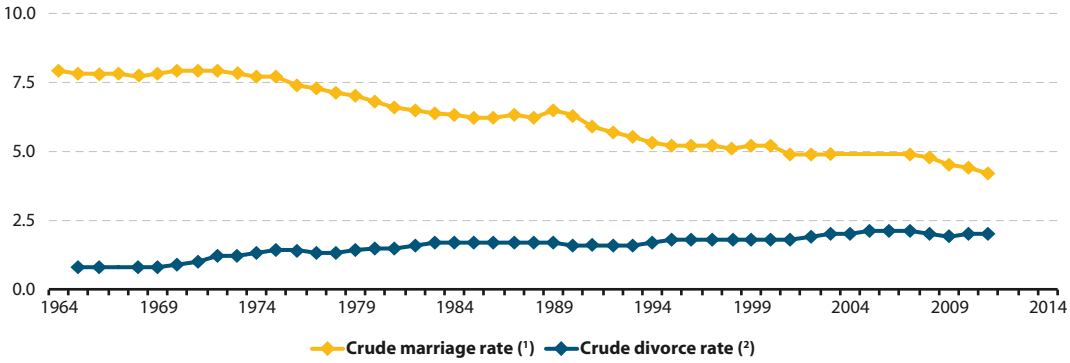
Almost three quarters of all family nucleii were married couples

More detailed information on different family units may be obtained from the population and housing census that was conducted in 2011. This shows that although marriage has become less prevalent, it remains a widespread institution. Indeed, almost three quarters (71.2 %) of all families in the EU-28 were composed of married couples. Put another way, registered partnerships, consensual unions and lone parent families accounted for just over one quarter (28.8 %) of all family nuclei.

Marriage remained a common form of family structure in many parts of Germany, as well as several of the southern and eastern EU Member States, including Greece, Croatia, Cyprus, Malta, Portugal and Romania. By contrast, it was less common as an institution in the Baltic Member States, France, Slovenia, Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom.

Map 2 provides information on the share of married couples in the total number of families for NUTS level 3 regions. There were only five regions out of 1 315 across the EU where married couples accounted less than half of all families in 2011, they included three French overseas regions of Guadeloupe, Martinique and Guyane and two urban regions from the United Kingdom (Glasgow City and Inner London). These regions recorded some of the highest proportions of lone parent families (see below for more details). By contrast, married couples accounted for between 50 % and 60 % of all families in a number of capital city regions — Byen København, Rīga, Põhja-Eesti (which includes Tallinn), Paris, Groot-Amsterdam, Stockholms län and Budapest.

Figure 6: Crude marriage and divorce rates, EU-28, 1964–2014
(per 1 000 inhabitants)



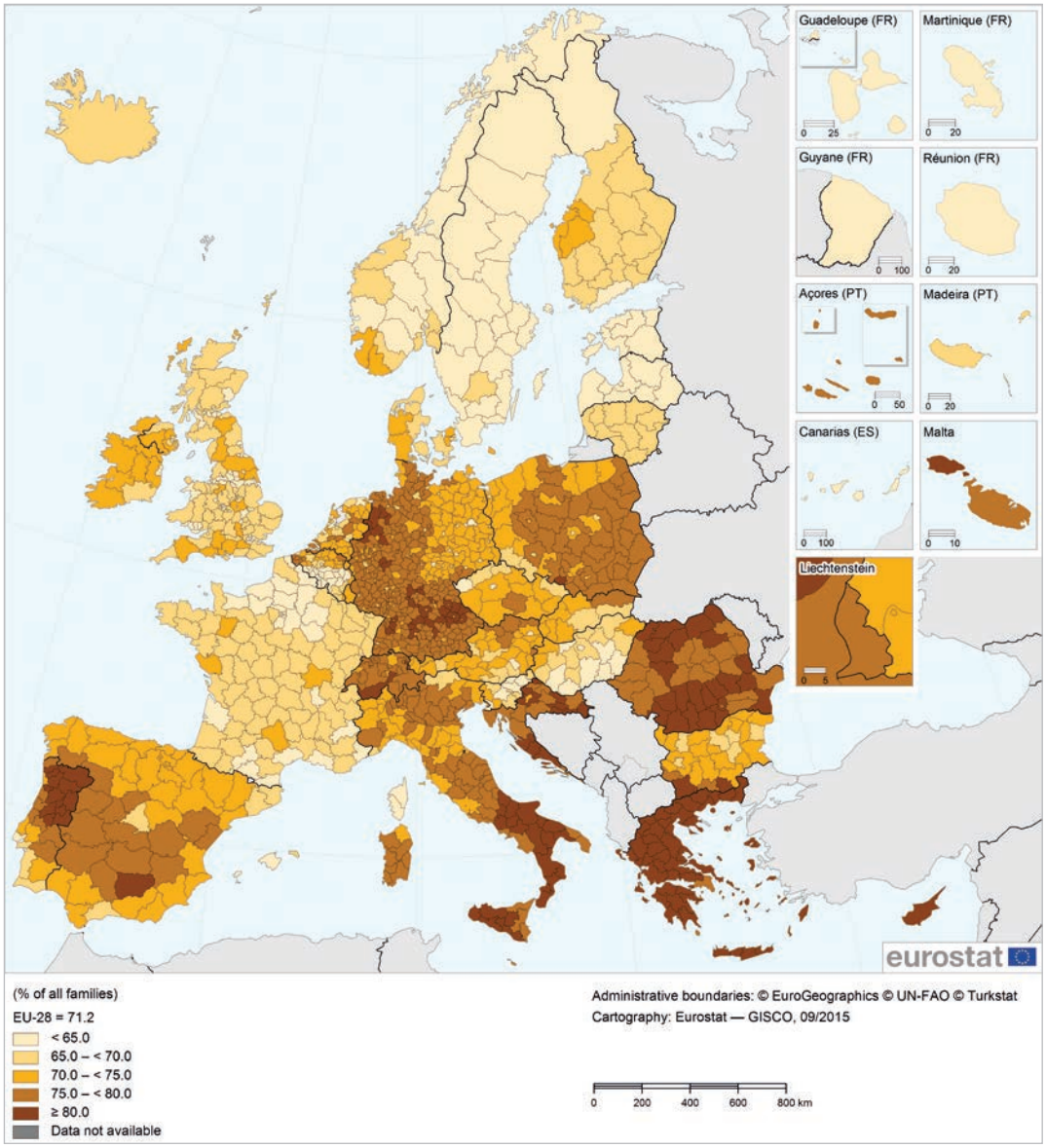
(1) Breaks in series: 1998 and 2003. 2004–06: linear estimation for missing values.
(2) Break in series: 1998. 1967: linear estimation for missing value.
Source: Eurostat (online data codes: demo_nind and demo_ndivind)

Divorce

Crude divorce rates in the EU rose by 150 % between 1965 and 2011

It has been legal to seek a divorce in all 28 of the EU Member States since legislation was introduced in Malta in October 2011. The lowest divorce rates in the EU are often recorded in those Member States where adherence to religious (Catholic and Orthodox) and traditional family values form the foundations for many families.

Map 2: Share of married couples among all families, by NUTS level 3 region, 2011 ([1])
(% of all families)



([1]) Share of married couples in the total number of families (married couples, registered partnerships, consensual unions, lone father families and lone mother families).
Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC52)

The information presented in this section on divorces is derived from Eurostat's annual demography data collection. There were almost one million divorces in the EU-28 in 2011: the crude divorce rate stood at 2.0 divorces per 1 000 inhabitants, which marked an increase of 150 % when compared with the rate in 1965.

Crude divorce rates peaked in Lithuania and Latvia in 2012, at 3.5 and 3.6 divorces per 1 000 inhabitants. Their rates were considerably higher than in any of the other EU Member States, as the next highest rate was recorded in Denmark (2.8). By contrast, the crude divorce rate was below 1.5 divorces per 1 000 inhabitants in Croatia, Greece (2010 data), Slovenia and Malta, and to less than 1.0 divorce per 1 000 inhabitants in Italy (2011 data) and Ireland.

DID YOU KNOW?

In 2011, the highest share of female divorcees across level 3 regions was recorded in the Latvian capital city of Riga, where 16.1 % of the female population was divorced.

The highest share of male divorcees was recorded in the Czech region of Karlovarský Kraj, where 11.9 % of the male population was divorced.

For more information: refer to the CENSUS HUB

Alternatives to marriage?

Table 1 shows a further selection of data from the population and housing census. It shows that people living in some of the EU's northern and western capital cities — including Byen København, Berlin, Groot-Amsterdam and Inner London — were much less inclined to be married. This pattern of married couples accounting for a lower share of all family units than the national average was repeated for each of the EU's capital city regions. It is therefore not surprising to find that the share of families constituted by consensual unions was generally higher than the national average in most of the EU's capital cities, although this was not the case in Belgium, the Baltic Member States, Slovenia, Slovakia and Sweden.

Detailed information from the population and housing census shows that while married couples accounted for 47.0 % of all family units in the municipality covering the city of Amsterdam, within the surrounding areas the proportion of couples who were married was considerably higher. For example, in three municipalities to the north of Amsterdam (Waterland, Zeevang and Edam-Volendam) 75 to 80 % of families were composed of married couples. A similar analysis for Inner London-West reveals that the share of married couples in family units peaked at 72.3 % in Knightsbridge and Belgravia, while fewer than 45 % of family units in Kentish Town, Kilburn, King's Cross, Queen's Park and Shepherd's Bush Green were composed of married couples.

The proportion of lone mothers was higher than the national average for each of the EU's capital regions

Each of the EU's capital cities was also characterised by a relatively high proportion of lone mother families (single mothers who live with at least one child). This was particularly true in Arrondissement de Bruxelles-Capitale / Arrondissement van Brussel-Hoofdstad, Berlin, Groot-Amsterdam and Inner London, where the share of lone mother families in the total number of families was at least 5 percentage points higher than the national average.

Capital regions were also characterised by a high proportion of same-sex couples

There has been an expansion in the proportion of people living together in a consensual union (as opposed to being married), while several EU Member States have legislated to provide legal recognition of registered partnerships, civil unions and same-sex marriages.

With the results of the Irish referendum in May 2015, the number of EU Member States which legally recognise same-sex marriage rose to 11 (Belgium, Denmark, Spain, France, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Portugal, Sweden and the United Kingdom already have laws in place; while Ireland and Finland are in the process of introducing the necessary legislative changes).

Table 1: Analysis of different types of family nuclei, national averages and NUTS level 3 capital city regions, 2011
(% of all families)

	Capital city region	Married couples		Registered partnerships		Consensual unions		Lone father families		Lone mother families	
		National average	Capital city region	National average	Capital city region	National average	Capital city region	National average	Capital city region	National average	Capital city region
EU–28	–	71.2	–	0.2	–	12.6	–	2.6	–	13.4	–
Belgium	Arr. de Bruxelles–Capitale / Arr. van Brussel–Hoofdstad	67.8	61.9	4.3	3.6	11.8	10.2	2.9	3.7	13.1	20.6
Bulgaria	Sofia (stolitsa)	71.6	66.2	–	–	13.7	15.3	2.9	2.8	11.8	15.8
Czech Republic	Hlavní město Praha	69.7	63.4	0.0	0.1	8.9	11.0	4.0	4.6	17.4	20.9
Denmark	Byen København	67.9	51.4	0.3	0.8	19.6	30.6	2.2	2.5	10.0	14.7
Germany	Berlin	75.1	63.1	0.1	0.4	12.1	17.9	2.0	2.3	10.7	16.3
Estonia	Põhja–Eesti	52.5	51.6	:	:	23.7	23.6	2.2	2.2	21.6	22.7
Ireland	Dublin	69.7	64.6	–	–	12.2	14.7	2.4	2.4	15.7	18.3
Greece	Attiki	82.2	79.2	0.0	0.0	2.4	3.1	2.5	2.4	12.9	15.2
Spain	Madrid	71.6	68.8	–	–	12.2	14.4	3.4	3.3	12.8	13.6
France	Paris	64.7	56.8	–	–	20.8	25.2	2.3	2.9	12.1	15.1
Croatia	Grad Zagreb	78.9	74.7	–	–	4.0	5.6	2.7	2.9	14.4	16.7
Italy	Roma	76.6	70.1	–	–	7.5	7.7	2.8	4.1	13.1	18.1
Cyprus	Kýpros	83.9	83.9	–	–	6.2	6.2	1.2	1.2	8.7	8.7
Latvia	Rīga	53.6	51.4	–	–	13.1	10.7	4.3	4.6	29.1	33.4
Lithuania	Vilniaus apskritis	67.0	65.8	–	–	8.6	7.8	3.4	3.7	21.1	22.6
Luxembourg	Luxembourg	74.8	74.8	2.3	2.3	7.8	7.8	2.6	2.6	12.5	12.5
Hungary	Budapest	65.3	59.6	0.0	0.0	14.9	16.2	2.6	3.1	17.1	21.1
Malta	Malta	80.1	79.6	–	–	3.5	3.6	2.5	2.5	14.0	14.3
Netherlands	Groot–Amsterdam	69.8	56.8	1.2	1.5	18.5	25.1	1.8	2.3	8.7	14.3
Austria (1)	Wien	70.0	63.6	:	:	13.9	15.6	2.4	3.1	13.7	17.7
Poland	Miasto Warszawa	74.9	68.5	–	–	2.9	5.6	2.8	3.4	19.4	22.5
Portugal	Grande Lisboa	73.8	64.8	:	:	11.3	16.4	2.0	2.5	12.9	16.2
Romania	Bucureşti	80.2	77.0	–	–	5.8	7.3	3.0	2.5	11.0	13.2
Slovenia	Osrednjeslovenska	64.0	63.1	–	–	10.8	10.1	4.1	4.6	21.1	22.2
Slovakia	Bratislavský kraj	72.0	70.8	–	–	6.6	5.9	3.6	3.9	17.8	19.4
Finland	Helsinki–Uusimaa	66.0	62.7	0.1	0.2	21.5	23.1	2.1	2.0	10.3	12.0
Sweden	Stockholms län	60.0	57.7	0.1	0.1	26.8	25.8	3.1	3.6	10.0	12.7
United Kingdom	Inner London (2)	64.7	48.9	0.2	0.9	16.6	22.2	2.6	3.2	15.8	24.7
Iceland	Höfuðborgarsvæði	63.4	62.1	–	–	17.0	16.3	2.7	2.6	16.9	19.0
Liechtenstein	Liechtenstein	77.4	77.4	–	–	9.8	9.8	2.0	2.0	10.9	10.9
Norway	Oslo	63.9	58.6	–	–	20.8	25.0	3.4	2.9	11.9	13.5
Switzerland	Bern	76.5	76.9	0.3	0.2	14.1	14.7	1.4	1.2	7.8	6.9

(1) Same–sex registered partnerships are included under married couples.
(2) Average of: Inner London – West (NUTS UKI11); and Inner London – East (UKI12).
Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC52)

In some of the other EU Member States, marriage continues to be defined as a union between a man and a woman, effectively prohibiting the legalisation of same-sex marriages; these are generally eastern or southern EU Member States, although there are a range of on-going legislative proposals to introduce or strengthen the legal basis for same-sex partnerships and / or marriages in a number of Member States.

Table 2 provides a selection of the limited set of information that is available from the population and housing census, detailing those NUTS level 3 regions with the highest proportion of same-sex couples. Note that recent legislative changes within this domain have sometimes been enacted since the last population and housing census and as a result there are relatively few official statistics on same-sex partnerships and same-sex marriage. For example, same-sex marriage was introduced after the census of 2011 in Denmark, France, Luxembourg and the United Kingdom.

In the Belgian capital city region, same-sex couples accounted for 7.0 % of all registered partnerships (compared with a national average of 3.0 %) and for 0.5 % of all marriages (compared with a national average of 0.3 %). Same-sex couples accounted for a relatively high proportion of registered partnerships and marriages in a number of predominantly urban arrondissements (NUTS level 3 regions) in the Flemish region, while they were generally less common in rural regions, especially in the south of the Walloon region.

A similar pattern was observed in the Czech Republic, Hungary and the United Kingdom, as same-sex couples accounted for a relatively low share of those living in a consensual union in rural and isolated regions, and for a relatively high proportion of those living in a consensual union in urban areas and, in particular, capital city regions. Some 2.7 % of those living in a consensual union in the Czech capital city region of Hlavní město Praha were same-sex couples (compared with a national average of 1.7 %), while same-sex couples accounted for 1.0 % of those living in a consensual union in the Hungarian capital region of Budapest (compared with a national average of 0.4 %). Within the United Kingdom, less than 2 % of consensual unions in the remote Scottish regions of the Orkney Islands, the Shetland Islands, and Caithness & Sutherland and Ross & Cromarty were constituted by same-sex couples. This could be compared with the situation in Inner London, where same-sex couples accounted for more than 10 % of those living in a consensual union, which was also the case in the southern coastal city of Brighton and Hove.

Table 2: Share of same-sex couples, selected NUTS level 3 regions, 2011 ([1])
(% for each type of family nuclei)

	Ranking	Share (%)
Belgium (marriage)		0.3
Arr. Veurne	Fifth highest	0.5
Arr. Gent	Fourth highest	0.5
Arr. De Bruxelles-Capitale / Arr. Van Brussel-Hoofdstad	Third highest	0.5
Arr. Antwerpen	Second highest	0.5
Arr. Oostende	Highest	0.6
Belgium (registered partnerships)		3.0
Arr. Oostende	Fifth highest	3.6
Arr. Leuven	Fourth highest	3.7
Arr. Veurne	Third highest	3.7
Arr. Antwerpen	Second highest	4.0
Arr. de Bruxelles-Capitale / Arr. van Brussel-Hoofdstad	Highest	7.0
Czech Republic (consensual union)		1.7
Středočeský kraj	Third highest	1.7
Jihomoravský kraj	Second highest	1.7
Hlavní město Praha	Highest	2.7
Hungary (consensual union)		0.4
Csongrád	Third highest	0.4
Győr-Moson-Sopron	Second highest	0.5
Budapest	Highest	1.0
United Kingdom (consensual union)		5.9
Belfast	Fifth highest	8.6
Outer London - West and North West	Fourth highest	9.0
Inner London - West	Third highest	11.2
Brighton and Hove	Second highest	12.3
Inner London - East	Highest	12.9

([1]) Optional question within the census: only a selection of regions from those EU Member States providing data have been included. Regions in **bold** typeface are capital city regions. Note: since 2011 the law concerning marriage and registered partnerships between same-sex couples has been modified in several EU Member States.

Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC52)

Raising children

More than half of all married couples had dependent children living at home

Although there has been a steady increase in the proportion of children born out of wedlock, marriage remains the most common form of family unit for raising children. The population and housing census conducted in 2011 shows that 55.8 % of all married couples in the EU-28 had children who were still living at home in the parental house (irrespective of their age); this share ranged from a low of 46.5 % in Finland up to a high of 74.4 % in Slovenia.

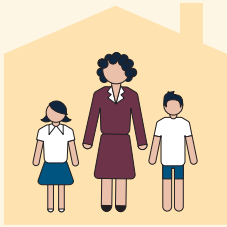
Slightly less than half (46.4 %) of all couples living in a consensual union in the EU-28 had children who were living at home, while some 42.3 % of couples living together as a registered partnership had children who were living at home; note that registered partnerships are restricted to same-sex couples in some of the EU Member States and this may, at least in part, explain why a relatively low proportion of these couples have children living at home.

Figure 7 supports the view that some people choose to formalise their union as they start a family; this pattern was most apparent in Greece, Cyprus, Malta, Ireland, Croatia and Spain, where a much higher proportion of children were born into families constituted by a married couple. These figures may be explained, at least to some degree, by the prominence of traditional religious values among some families. By contrast, the proportion of couples living in a consensual union with children still living at home was higher than the corresponding share for married couples in Slovenia, Bulgaria, Estonia, France and Sweden.

Lone parent families accounted for 16 % of all families in the EU

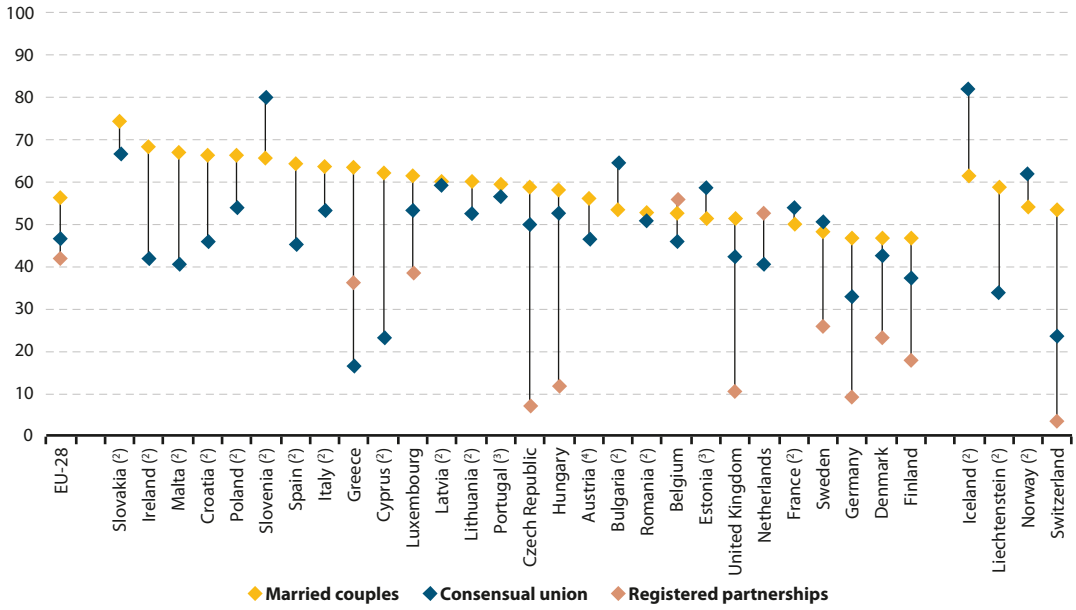
The population and housing census shows that families composed of lone parents (either a single mother with children or a single father with children) accounted for 16.0 % of the total number of families in the EU-28 in 2011 (see Map 3). These were predominantly lone mother families, as they accounted for 13.4 % of all families, compared with 2.6 % for lone father families. The differences between the sexes were most pronounced in the Baltic Member States, Poland and Slovakia, where the share of lone mother families was at least 15 percentage points higher than the corresponding share of lone father families. By contrast, the smallest gender gaps were recorded in Denmark, Germany, Cyprus, the Netherlands and Sweden.

As noted above, the highest proportions of lone parent families were often recorded in those NUTS level 3 regions where the share of married couples in the total number of families was particularly low. This was the case in Latvia, several French overseas regions (Martinique, Guadeloupe and Guyane), as well as some urban regions in the United Kingdom (Belfast, Liverpool, Glasgow Central and Inner London-East); relatively high rates of lone parent families were also recorded in Lithuania, Hungary, Poland and Slovenia. By contrast, lone parent families accounted for a relatively low proportion of all families in the Netherlands and Cyprus, as well as selected regions from northern Belgium, Denmark, Germany, western France, Finland and Sweden.



Families composed of lone parents accounted for 16 % of the total number of families in the EU-28 in 2011. However in a few regions, this could be up to 60 %. Among lone parents families, 4 out 5 was a lone mother family.

Figure 7: Share of families with children living at home, 2011 (1)
(% for each type of family nuclei)

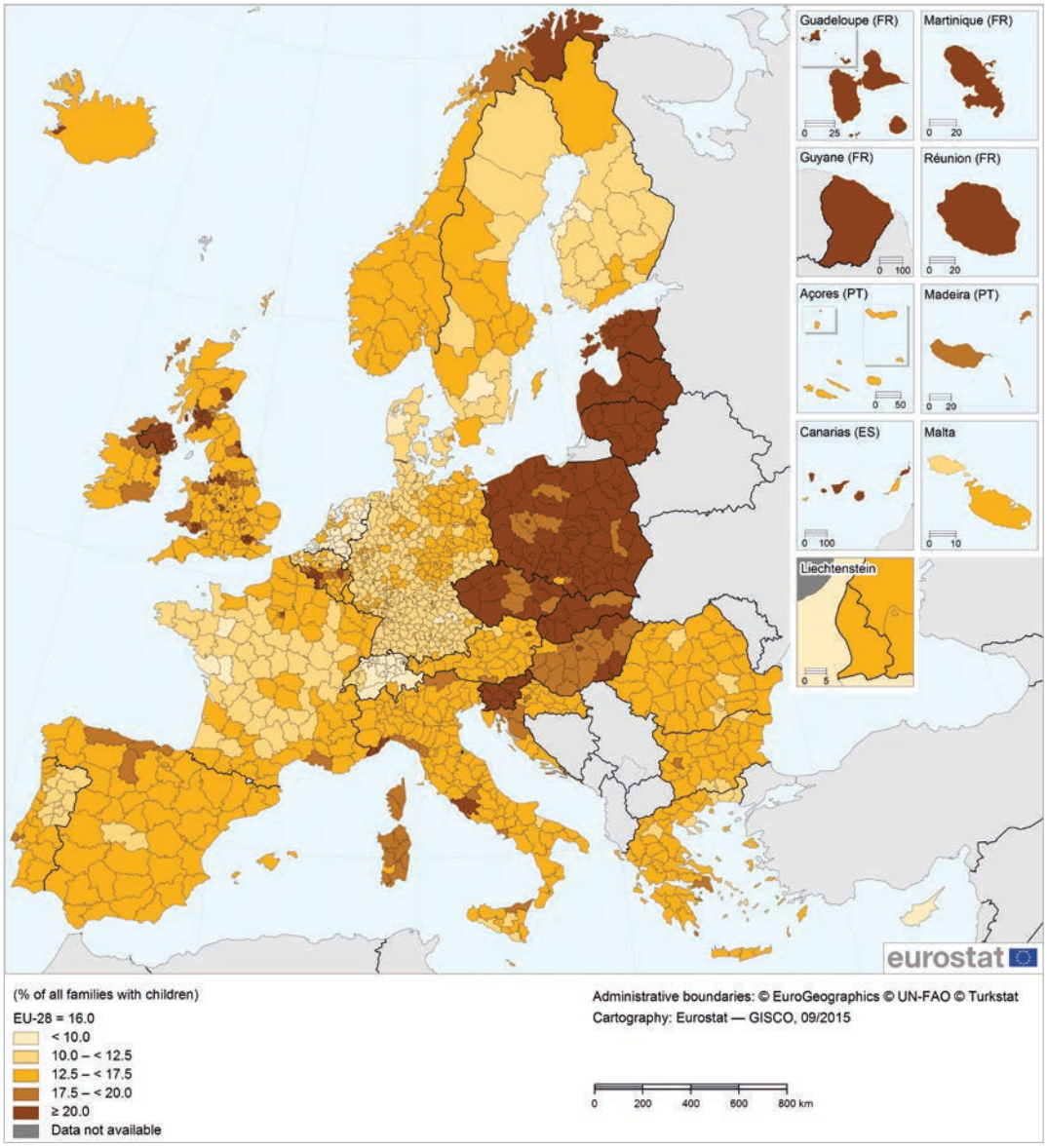


(1) Children of any age (including adults) still living at the parental home.
(2) Registered partnerships: not applicable.
(3) Registered partnerships: not available.
(4) Same-sex registered partnerships are included under married couples.
Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC52)

The population and housing census also provides a more detailed analysis at the level of municipalities. There were five municipalities across the whole of the EU where the proportion of lone mother families rose to over 30 % of the total in 2011, they included: three French overseas regions (Martinique, Guadeloupe and Guyane), Rīga (the capital of Latvia) and Belfast (Northern Ireland). There were four municipalities in the EU where the share of lone father families was above 5 %. All four of these were in Spain: two municipalities from the Canary Islands (La Gomera and Fuerteventura) and the two autonomous cities of Ceuta and Melilla.

Belfast — which had one of the highest proportions of lone parent families in the EU, at 34.6 % — recorded considerable differences in the proportion of lone parent families between its municipalities. More than 60 % of all families in the northern and western municipalities of New Lodge, Falls, Ardoyne and Whiterock were lone parent families, a share that fell to less than 15 % (in other words, just below the EU average) in the eastern and southern municipalities of Finaghy, Cherryvalley, Stranmillis, Malone and Stormont. By contrast, in the Dutch NUTS level 3 region of Noord-Overijssel — which recorded the lowest share (7.7 %) of lone parent families in the EU-28 — there were relatively small differences in the proportion of lone parent families, ranging from 10.1 % in the regional capital of Zwolle, down to a 5.3 % share in the municipality of Staphorst.

Map 3: Share of lone parent families, by NUTS level 3 region, 2011 ([1])
(% of all families with children)



([1]) Appenzell Innerrhoden (CH054): confidential.
Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC52)

3 Home comforts — housing conditions and housing characteristics

Introduction

Most people spend a considerable proportion of their time at home: participating in family life, relaxing, socialising with friends, eating and sleeping, while an increasing proportion of the population now works from home. For those who decide to buy a home, it is likely to be the single, most expensive purchase that they make during the course of their lives and for those who rent it probably accounts for a substantial share of their monthly expenditure. Homes are highly durable and require extensive financial and material investment to build and maintain, such that property owners in the EU often have a considerable amount of their personal wealth 'locked-up' in bricks and mortar.

Looking from a wider perspective, macroeconomic developments have, in some cases, been linked to fluctuations in property markets, as witnessed when so-called 'housing bubbles' burst in several EU economies at the onset of the global financial and economic crisis. Demographic changes also influence housing markets: evolving family structures and an increasing proportion of elderly people will probably result in a continued increase in the number of households, with the result that a growing number of homes will be required to house a relatively unchanged number of inhabitants.

Housing development and infrastructure planning are often conducted at a regional or even a national level, while more local levels of public administration often decide what can be built and where. Given the considerable investment that is required, it is often quite difficult to make rapid changes to the type and the number of houses that are made available to those looking for a new home.

Housing characteristics

The age of dwellings

A building is defined as any independent structure containing one or more dwellings covered by a roof and enclosed within external walls; a permanent building is expected to be structurally stable for a period of at least 10 years. A dwelling is a room or a suite of rooms in a permanent building designed for habitation by a private household. The most common forms of dwelling include detached houses, semi-detached or terraced houses, flats or bedsits. Dwellings should have separate access either to the road or to a communal space within a building (a staircase, corridor or passageway). Dwellings may be classified as occupied, secondary, seasonal or unoccupied. They are considered to be occupied if they provide the 'usual place of residence' to one or more persons.

DID YOU KNOW?

In 2011, the highest share of dwellings built after 2000 in the EU-28 was recorded in the Romanian region of Ilfov (36.8 %), which surrounds the capital of Bucureşti.

For more information: refer to the CENSUS HUB

The first section of this chapter is based on information from the population and housing census that was conducted in 2011. It provides an analysis of the stock of dwellings available across the EU analysed according to when they were built.

More than half of the dwellings in Bulgaria, Italy, Romania and Slovakia were built during the period 1946 to 1980

Table 1 presents information on the EU's housing stock (measured in terms of numbers of dwellings) according to their period of construction, with data at a national level and information for capital city regions.

Less than 1 in 10 dwellings in Finland, Slovakia, Greece and Cyprus were built before 1946. By contrast, more than one third of the housing stock in Denmark, Belgium and the United Kingdom was constructed prior to 1946. In most of the EU Member States, a considerable share of the total number of dwellings was built during the post-war period, between 1946 and 1980: some 45–50 % of the housing stock in Germany, the Baltic Member States, Greece, Hungary, Finland and Sweden was constructed during this period, a share that rose to 50–60 % in Italy, Slovakia, Bulgaria and Romania. By contrast, a handful of EU Member States experienced a period of high construction rates during the period 1981 to 2008, some of them associated with 'housing bubbles'. These Member States — for example, Ireland, Greece, Spain, Cyprus and Portugal — are consequently characterised by a higher proportion of relatively new dwellings: at least 43 % of their dwellings were built post-1980.

There are a number of constraints that may delay or prevent the expansion of the EU's housing stock. For example, some urban areas may already be overcrowded with a simple lack of space being a major constraint for new developments, while in suburban and rural areas, planning permission (especially for 'greenfield sites') may be refused. Property developers are likely to favour new constructions in those regions where they believe demand will be buoyant, while regions characterised by sluggish economic growth and less job opportunities may be characterised by lower levels of new construction.

Within the EU's capital city regions, there was a considerable variation in the age of the housing stock. More than half of all dwellings in Byen København, Paris, Inner London and Arrondissement de Bruxelles-Capitale / Arrondissement van Brussel-Hoofdstad were constructed prior to 1946, while 40–50 % of the dwellings in Sofia (stolitsa), Attiki, Vilniaus apskritis, Grande Lisboa and Helsinki-Uusimaa were built post-1980. Almost one fifth of the total housing stock in the Irish, Croatian and Polish capital city regions was constructed during the period 2001 to 2011, which can be compared with less than 5 % in the Belgian, Danish, German and French capital city regions.

Post-2000, there was a rapid expansion in the number of new dwellings being constructed in Ireland, Greece, Spain, Poland and Portugal

Map 1 provides a more detailed analysis concerning the proportion of dwellings that were built after 2000 in each of the 1 315 NUTS level 3 regions of the EU. Germany accounted for more than half of the regions reporting that fewer than 5 % of their dwellings were constructed during the period 2001 to 2011; the majority of these regions were located in the Ruhr valley, Rheinland-Pfalz, Sachsen and Sachsen-Anhalt. There was also a relatively low level of new constructions in most Bulgarian, Baltic and Swedish regions, as well as a few regions in Italy (Piemonte, Liguria, Napoli and parts of Sicily) and the United Kingdom (the north-east of England and Wales).

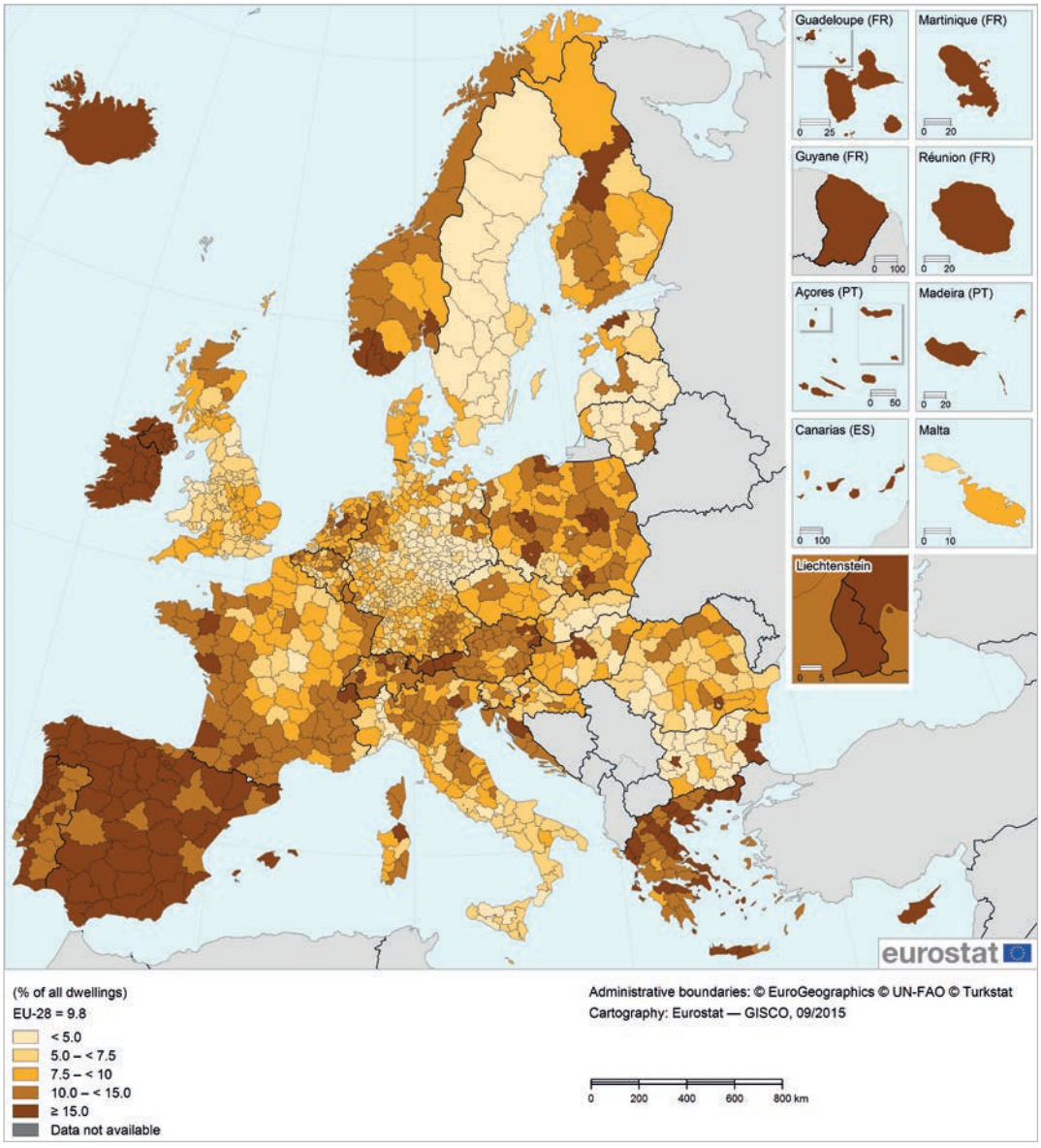
There were three regions in the EU-28 where more than one third of the total stock of dwellings was constructed during the period 2001 to 2011, they were: Cyprus (considered as a single region at this level of the NUTS), the autonomous Spanish city of Melilla, and the Romanian region of Ilfov, whose development is linked to the expansion of the commuter belt around Bucharest. More generally, the highest levels of new construction (as measured by the proportion of dwellings built after 2000) were registered in Irish, Greek, Spanish, Polish and Portuguese regions, while there were also pockets of high levels of recent construction activity in Bulgaria (principally in the capital city and on the Black Sea coast), France (principally western regions), Austria (around the capital city and in the Tyrol) and the United Kingdom (principally in Northern Ireland).

Table 1: Distribution of dwellings by period of construction, national averages and NUTS level 3 capital city regions, 2011
(% of all dwellings)

	Capital city region	Before 1946		1946–1980		1981–2000		2001 onwards	
		National average	Capital city region	National average	Capital city region	National average	Capital city region	National average	Capital city region
EU-28	–	22.3	–	44.1	–	22.1	–	9.8	–
Belgium	Arr. de Bruxelles–Capitale / Arr. van Brussel–Hoofdstad	37.1	51.7	38.2	37.0	16.5	7.1	8.2	4.1
Bulgaria	Sofia (stolitsa)	10.5	5.6	55.4	45.8	25.5	33.2	8.6	15.4
Czech Republic	Hlavní město Praha	19.0	29.4	37.1	30.4	20.5	20.7	7.7	7.4
Denmark	Byen København	34.1	68.1	44.6	21.8	14.0	5.7	7.2	4.4
Germany	Berlin	24.3	42.3	46.5	36.3	23.1	19.2	6.1	2.1
Estonia (1)	Põhja–Eesti	17.0	12.0	47.1	47.3	22.8	23.2	9.4	15.2
Ireland	Dublin	13.3	13.9	22.9	30.8	20.7	20.2	22.0	18.0
Greece	Attiki	7.6	2.4	47.8	55.1	29.1	27.1	15.5	15.3
Spain	Madrid	11.1	8.0	43.0	50.3	24.7	24.2	18.5	14.9
France	Paris	28.7	59.7	37.0	26.0	23.9	11.7	10.4	2.5
Croatia	Grad Zagreb	13.6	13.7	42.5	43.3	23.6	22.3	11.0	17.0
Italy	Roma	20.7	12.3	51.4	60.1	19.8	20.4	7.9	7.1
Cyprus	Kýpros	3.0	–	24.6	–	36.1	–	34.1	–
Latvia	Rīga	22.7	23.5	46.6	48.4	24.3	21.7	5.1	6.1
Lithuania	Vilniaus apskritis	13.5	12.7	49.6	43.3	28.9	30.2	6.2	12.6
Luxembourg	Luxembourg	21.8	–	31.5	–	21.6	–	14.0	–
Hungary	Budapest	20.3	33.2	48.3	38.0	21.7	17.3	9.7	11.6
Malta	Malta	13.0	13.5	23.2	24.3	23.4	24.1	8.7	9.1
Netherlands	Groot–Amsterdam	18.9	32.7	41.9	29.7	26.4	25.0	9.5	10.1
Austria (2)	Wien	25.5	42.4	40.1	35.4	22.7	14.6	11.7	7.6
Poland	Miasto Warszawa	19.1	10.3	43.0	49.1	22.7	16.1	11.4	17.8
Portugal	Grande Lisboa	10.7	9.8	37.1	46.0	36.0	31.4	16.3	12.8
Romania	Bucureşti	11.2	7.7	59.1	60.3	19.0	23.3	8.0	5.5
Slovenia	Osrednjeslovenska	21.3	16.6	45.0	47.9	25.0	23.7	8.7	11.8
Slovakia	Bratislavský kraj	8.2	8.7	52.6	48.0	21.5	23.5	5.8	11.3
Finland	Helsinki–Uusimaa	9.6	12.1	48.7	44.3	29.7	29.8	10.7	12.8
Sweden	Stockholms län	24.3	23.8	47.7	44.1	12.3	12.4	4.6	6.8
United Kingdom (3)	Inner London (4)	37.8	57.7	39.7	26.6	15.6	10.4	6.9	5.3
Iceland	Höfuðborgarsvæði	11.5	10.3	44.5	42.9	25.1	27.1	18.9	19.6
Liechtenstein	Liechtenstein	9.7	–	38.0	–	33.1	–	16.0	–
Norway	Oslo	16.8	31.0	41.3	38.7	23.2	20.0	12.7	10.0
Switzerland	Bern	26.6	32.3	41.1	41.2	21.5	18.3	10.8	8.2

(1) Also comprises dwellings in uncompleted buildings, in those case where a residential building is under construction.
(2) Before 1945 instead of before 1946. 1945–1980 instead of 1946–1980.
(3) Low reliability.
(4) Average of Inner London - West (NUTS UKI11) and of Inner London - East (UKI12).
Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC53)

Map 1: Share of dwellings built after 2000, by NUTS level 3 region, 2011 (1)
(% of all dwellings)



(1) Regions in the United Kingdom: low reliability.
Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC53)

The average size of dwellings

The average size of dwellings across EU Member States is likely to reflect, at least to some degree, population density and housing concentration in urbanised areas, but may also reflect variations in the price of land and housing, income distribution, as well as the housing stock available for rent or for purchase. For example, in France and the United Kingdom, a relatively high share of the population lives in single family homes, while in Germany and Italy it is more common for people to live in flats.

DID YOU KNOW?

In 2011, some 42.4 % of all dwellings in the Norwegian region of Hedmark Og Oppland had at least 150 m^2 of useful floor area; this was the highest share across any of the level 2 regions in the 31 countries for which data were collected.

In the same year, just over one quarter (25.3 %) of the dwellings in the Romanian region of Sud-Muntenia had less than 30 m^2 of useful floor area — the highest share of very small dwellings.

For more information: refer to the CENSUS HUB

Rural dwellings in Luxembourg and Austria were, on average, 46 m^2 larger than those in cities

An ad-hoc module that formed part of the EU statistics on income and living conditions (EU-SILC) survey in 2012 shows that the average size of a dwelling in a rural area of the EU-28 was, on average, larger than the average size of dwellings in towns and suburbs or in cities. In 2012, dwellings in a rural area measured an average of 103.8 m^2, which was 5.0 m^2 more than in towns and suburbs, and 14.3 m^2 more than in cities.

The average size of dwellings in Cyprus, the Benelux countries, Portugal and Denmark was relatively large, while dwellings were often much smaller in the eastern EU Member States and the Baltic Member States. Figure 1 shows that the average size of dwellings was consistently higher in rural areas than in cities for each of the EU Member States (subject to data availability). The biggest overall differences were recorded in Luxembourg and Austria (where dwellings in rural areas were, on average, 46 m^2 larger than those in the cities), followed by the Netherlands, Germany and Denmark where rural dwellings averaged 30–40 m^2 more area than those in cities. At the other end of the scale, there was almost no difference between the average size of dwellings in rural areas and cities in Bulgaria or Romania, as dwellings in rural areas were, on average, 1.1 m^2 and 3.8 m^2 larger than those in cities.

Information from EU-SILC confirms that living space per capita has generally increased in most EU Member States, as demographic changes have resulted in smaller household sizes, while most individuals aspire to have more space to live in.

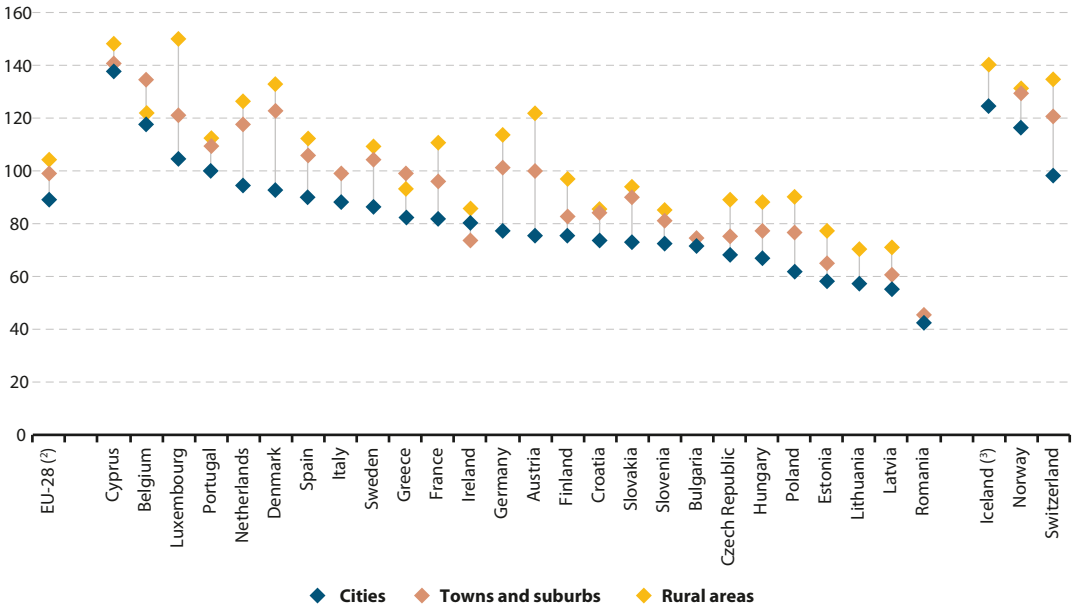
More than half of the dwellings in Rīga, Łódź and Brăila had less than 50 m² of useful floor space…

Useful floor space is defined as the living area available within a dwelling, as measured by floor space inside the outer walls of a building, excluding areas where people generally do not live, for example, cellars and attics, or common spaces such as foyers, corridors, lifts and stairwells in multi-dwelling buildings.

Table 2 presents information relating to the NUTS level 3 regions that exhibited the highest proportion of dwellings having less than 50 m² of useful floor space and those with the highest proportion of dwellings having at least 150 m² of useful floor space; this information is also derived from the population and housing census.

In 2011, capital city regions often recorded the highest proportion of dwellings with less than 50 m² of useful floor space. This was true in the Czech Republic, Denmark, Latvia, Hungary, the Netherlands, Austria, Portugal and Sweden (note that there are 11 Member States for which data are not available at this level of detail). In some regions, a majority of dwellings provided less than 50 m² of useful floor space to their occupants: among those shown in Table 1, this was the case for the third-largest Polish city of Łódź (54.3 %), the Latvian capital of Rīga (55.7 %) and the eastern Romanian city of Brăila (77.1 %). By contrast, fewer than 1 in 10 dwellings in the Danish capital of Byen København had less than 50 m² of useful floor space.

Figure 1: Average size of dwellings, by degree of urbanisation, 2012 ([1])
(m²)



([1]) Ranked on average size of dwellings in cities. Malta and the United Kingdom: not available.
([2]) Estimates.
([3]) Towns and suburbs: not applicable.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: ilc_hcmh02)

…while just over one third of the dwellings in Midden-Limburg had more than 150 m² of useful floor space

Given the premium that is often paid for living in a capital city, it is perhaps not surprising to find that none of these featured among those EU regions recording the highest proportion of their dwellings with at least 150 m² of useful floor space. Just over one third (33.8 %) of all dwellings in the Dutch region of Midden-Limburg had at least 150 m² of useful floor space, which was almost twice as high as the national average for the Netherlands (17.9 %), and was also the highest proportion in the whole of the EU among NUTS level 3 regions. The proportion of dwellings with at least 150 m² of useful floor space was also relatively high — above 30 % — in the northern German region of Vechta and the western Danish region of Vestjylland. By contrast, in Estonia, Greece, Hungary and Romania every region reported that less than 10 % of its dwellings had at least 150 m² of useful floor area.

Table 2: Distribution of dwellings by useful floor space, selected NUTS level 3 regions, 2011 ([1])
(% of all dwellings)

	Proportion having < 50m² of useful floor space			Proportion having ≥ 150m² of useful floor space		
	Region with highest share		National average	Region with highest share		National average
EU ([2])	Brăila (Romania)	77.1	14.5	Midden–Limburg (the Netherlands)	33.8	10.4
Czech Republic	**Hlavní město Praha**	25.4	20.5	Moravskoslezský kraj	15.1	12.9
Denmark	**Byen København**	7.6	4.4	Vestjylland	30.7	20.5
Germany	Greifswald. Kreisfreie Stadt	30.8	11.4	Vechta	32.0	10.4
Estonia	Kirde–Eesti	50.0	37.1	Lääne–Eesti	9.1	7.2
Greece	Samos	22.8	9.6	Zakynthos	8.8	6.0
Spain	El Hierro	12.2	3.9	Toledo	19.6	10.0
Italy	Imperia	13.8	6.7	Mantova	22.9	11.3
Latvia	**Rīga**	55.7	44.6	Pierīga	15.5	6.7
Luxembourg		–	4.9		–	25.8
Hungary	**Budapest**	32.8	15.9	Pest	6.7	3.9
Netherlands	**Groot–Amsterdam**	13.3	3.5	Midden–Limburg	33.8	17.9
Austria	**Wien**	22.8	12.0	Innviertel	21.1	10.1
Poland	Miasto Łódź	54.3	33.0	Krakowski	19.5	9.6
Portugal	**Grande Lisboa**	13.3	9.9	Baixo Vouga	27.7	17.0
Romania	Brăila	77.1	63.4	Ilfov	6.1	1.3
Slovenia	Zasavska	34.1	21.0	Gorenjska	10.1	7.3
Sweden	**Stockholms län**	15.3	9.5	Kronobergs län	17.6	10.5
Iceland	**Höfudborgarsvædi**	8.4	6.8	**Höfudborgarsvædi**	16.3	16.1
Liechtenstein		–	6.3		–	22.9
Norway	**Oslo**	19.1	7.3	Sogn og Fjordane	46.5	32.9

([1]) Belgium, Bulgaria, Ireland, France, Croatia, Cyprus, Lithuania, Malta, Slovakia, Finland and the United Kingdom: not available. Regions in bold typeface are capital city regions.
([2]) Average based on those EU Member States for which data are available.
Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC54)

Average number of occupants

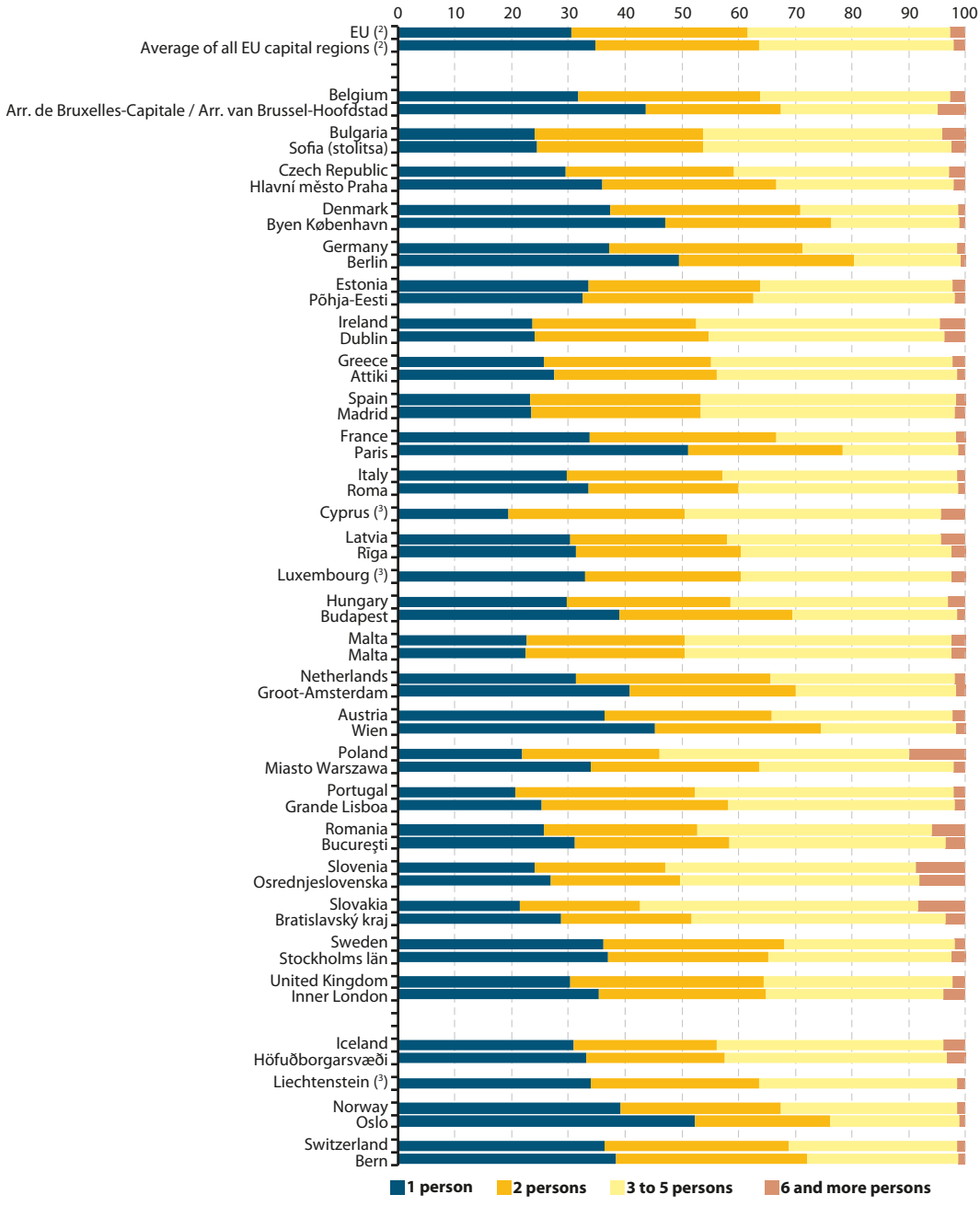
In Oslo and Paris, more than half of all dwellings were occupied by single persons

Figure 2 is also based on a detailed set of data from the population and housing census relating to the average number of occupants per dwelling in the EU Member States and in each of their capital city regions (based on NUTS level 3 regions). In 2011, more than one third (34.7 %) of the dwellings in EU capital cities were occupied by a single person, a share that was 4.3 percentage points higher than the average for the whole of the EU (no data for Croatia, Lithuania and Finland).

In Paris, single persons occupied over half (51.1 %) of all dwellings; this share was even higher in Oslo, reaching 52.2 %. The proportion of dwellings occupied by single persons in Paris was 17.3 percentage points higher than the average across the whole of France, which was the widest gap among those EU Member States for which data are available. There were also large differences (10 percentage points or more) in the occupancy of dwellings by single persons between capital regions and national averages in Germany, Poland and Belgium; this was also the case in Norway.

At the other end of the spectrum, the proportion of dwellings that were occupied by six or more persons was generally much lower in the EU's capital city regions. This may reflect, at least in part, property developers converting large properties into multiple dwellings (bedsits, flats / and apartments), in order to meet the demand from an increasing number of people who would like to live in the EU's capital cities. For example, almost 1 in 10 (9.9 %) dwellings across the whole of Poland were occupied by six or more persons, compared with 2.1 % of the dwellings in the Polish capital city region of Miasto Warszawa. Equally, a relatively high proportion of those who move to capital cities (often for work) tend to be relatively young and may initially live alone upon arriving in a new city. After a few years, they might decide to move house having met people with whom to share or a partner with whom they would like to start a family. As life progresses, it is relatively common for people to settle down and look for alternative accommodation and / or lifestyle changes, which may lead to them moving out of the capital city to suburban areas (or even further afield). There were, however, four EU Member States where the national average for the proportion of dwellings occupied by six or more persons was below that recorded for the capital city region; this was the case in Spain, Sweden, the United Kingdom and Belgium.

Figure 2: Distribution of occupants per dwelling, national averages and capital regions, by NUTS level 3 region, 2011 (1)
(% of all dwellings)



(1) Croatia, Lithuania and Finland: not available. (2) Excluding Croatia, Lithuania and Finland. (3) For NUTS 3 regions / regions at statistical level 3: no distinction between the national average and the capital region.

Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC54)

Unoccupied dwellings

There are many regions in the EU that suffer from a shortage of housing and this problem will probably become exacerbated as a result of increased demand for single and two-person dwellings as family units continue to fragment. As a result, policymakers are increasingly turning their attention to unused properties, with the goal of freeing these up for use.

Occupancy statistics from the population and housing census refer to whether or not a dwelling was occupied by its 'usual' resident. Dwellings are therefore classified as being unoccupied if they are reserved for seasonal or secondary use (such as holiday homes) or if they are vacant (dwellings which may be for sale, for rent, for demolition, or simply lying empty and unused).

Almost one in six dwellings in the EU was unoccupied

Map 2 presents further information from the population and housing census for the proportion of conventional dwellings that stood unoccupied in each of the 1 315 NUTS level 3 regions of the EU in 2011. On average, 15.8 % of the dwellings across the whole of the EU-28 remained unoccupied. The vast majority of regions with fewer than 5 % of their dwellings unoccupied were located in the United Kingdom, with the only other regions being Bremen and Hamburg in Germany, and five Dutch regions (Noordoost-Noord-Brabant, Arnhem / Nijmegen, IJmond, Flevoland and Oost-Zuid-Holland).

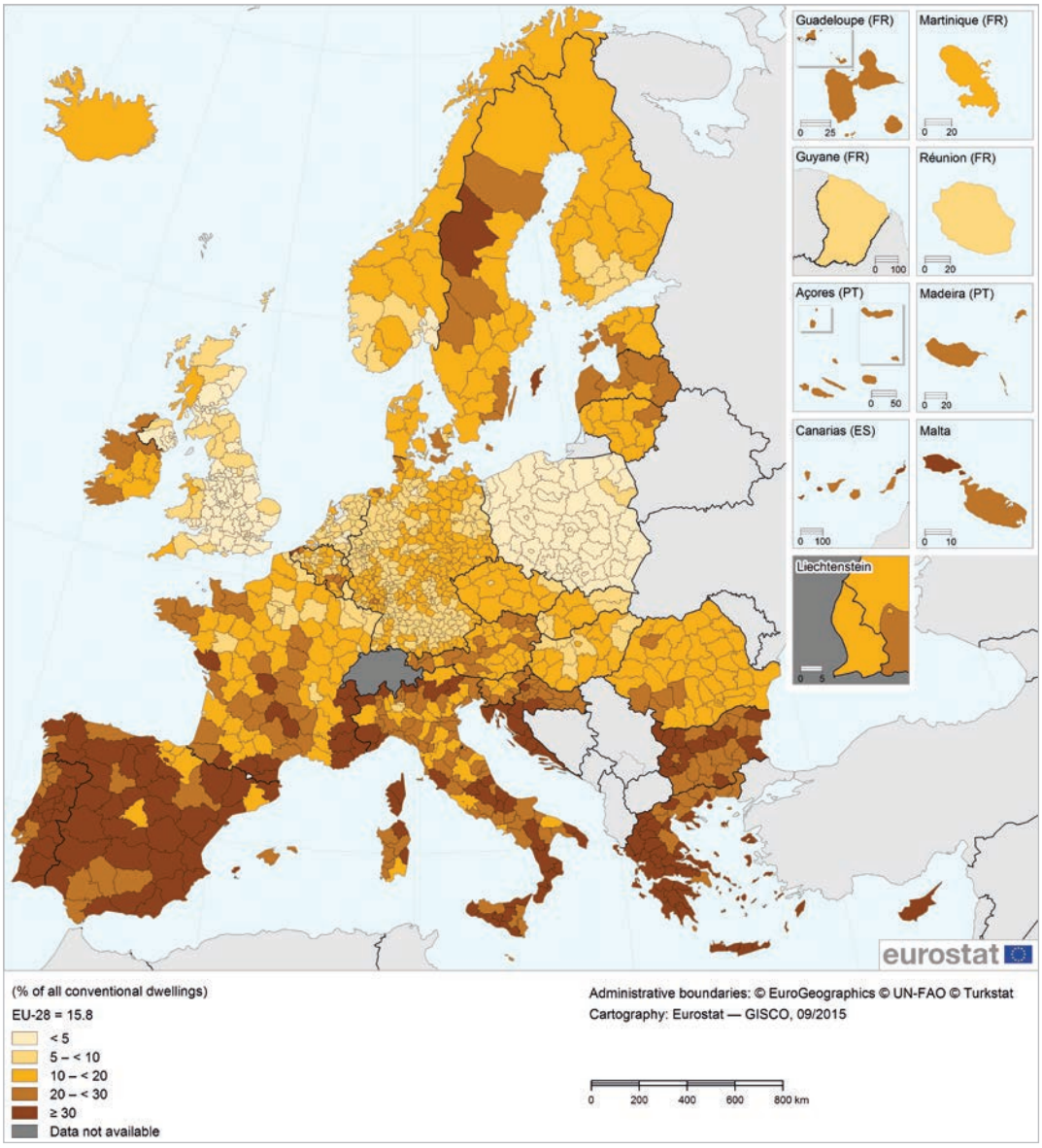
There were only three NUTS level 3 regions in the United Kingdom which had more than 6.6 % of unoccupied dwellings. Each of these three regions was characterised as being a relatively sparsely-populated area and a popular holiday destination, namely: Cornwall and the Isles of Scilly (where 10.2 % of dwellings remained unoccupied), Gwynedd in north-west Wales (13.8 %), and Lochaber, Skye and Lochalsh, Arran and Cumbrae and Argyll and Bute in the west of Scotland (16.1 %).

By contrast, the Scottish region of West Lothian (located to the west of Edinburgh) registered the lowest share (1.9 %) of unoccupied dwellings in the United Kingdom, while Thurrock and Outer London-East and North East — neighbouring NUTS level 3 regions on the northern shores / banks of the Thames estuary — recorded the second and third lowest shares of unoccupied dwellings in the United Kingdom, around 2 %. The population and housing census provides more detailed information at the level of municipalities and this shows that in 2011 no more than 1 % of the dwellings in the West Lothian municipalities of Craigshill, Linhouse, Murieston, East Calder and Middleton (all located in and around the town of Livingston) were unoccupied.

There were 23 (out of the 1 315) NUTS level 3 regions across the EU where the share of unoccupied dwellings in 2011 rose above 50 %. Almost half of these were in Greece, while there were three regions from each of Spain and Croatia, two from each of Italy and Portugal, and a single region from Belgium, France and Malta. Many of these regions were popular holiday destinations, for example, the mountainous regions of the Hautes-Alpes (France) and the Valle d'Aosta / Vallée d'Aoste (Italy), or the summer destinations of the Kyklades (which include Mýkonos and Santoríni) in Greece, or the Algarve (Portugal).

The population and housing census can be used to provide an even more detailed analysis for municipalities. For example, in the Hautes-Alpes more than four out of every five dwellings were unoccupied in the ski resorts / municipalities of Megève, Morzine and Châtel. In the Algarve, a similar pattern was observed, with more than 80 % of dwellings unoccupied in the coastal municipalities of Monte Gordo, Armação De Pêra and Cabanas De Tavira. By contrast, in Faro — which is the commercial and administrative centre of the Algarve region — the ratio of unoccupied dwellings fell to around 30 % of the total.

Map 2: Share of unoccupied dwellings, by NUTS level 3 region, 2011 ([1])
(% of all conventional dwellings)



([1]) Swedish regions: data on unoccupied dwellings refers to dwellings without registered occupants. Norwegian regions: low reliability.
Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC53)

Table 3: Share of owner-occupied and rented dwellings, selected NUTS level 2 regions, 2011 ([1])
(% of all dwellings)

	Owner-occupied dwellings			Rented dwellings		
	Region with the highest share		National average	Region with highest share		National average
EU ([2])	Sud–Vest Oltenia (Romania)	97.7	64.3	**Wien (Austria)**	75.7	29.4
Belgium	Prov. Limburg	75.0	65.0	**Région de Bruxelles–Capitale / Brussels Hoofdstedelijk Gewest**	61.4	34.1
Bulgaria	Severozapaden	86.7	81.7	**Yugozapaden**	22.7	18.3
Czech Republic	Střední Čechy	66.5	55.9	**Praha**	34.0	22.4
Denmark	Sjælland	61.5	52.5	**Hovedstaden**	43.3	39.0
Germany	Saarland	62.2	45.4	**Berlin**	74.6	49.4
Estonia		–	82.0		–	8.7
Ireland	Border, Midland And Western	72.9	69.7	**Southern And Eastern**	27.6	26.3
Greece	Dytiki Makedonia	80.6	73.2	**Attiki**	26.6	21.7
Spain	País Vasco	84.2	78.9	Ciudad Autónoma de Melilla	24.1	13.5
France	Bretagne	66.6	57.7	**Île de France**	49.3	39.7
Croatia	:	:	:	:	:	:
Italy	Friuli–Venezia Giulia	77.1	71.6	Campania	19.1	13.1
Cyprus		–	69.0		–	18.8
Latvia		–	68.7		–	13.2
Lithuania		–	88.6		–	5.3
Luxembourg		–	62.9		–	24.4
Hungary	Észak–Alföld	93.7	91.6	**Közép–Magyarország**	9.2	7.1
Malta		–	60.4		–	19.9
Netherlands	Zeeland	64.5	55.6	**Noord–Holland**	49.3	42.4
Austria	Burgenland	75.7	51.9	**Wien**	75.7	40.0
Poland	Świętokrzyskie	89.0	77.1	Dolnośląskie	24.5	18.0
Portugal	Centro	80.8	72.5	**Lisboa**	27.3	19.9
Romania	Sud–Vest Oltenia	97.7	94.7	**Bucureşti – Ilfov**	5.2	3.2
Slovenia	Vzhodna Slovenija	78.6	78.0	Vzhodna Slovenija	10.4	9.3
Slovakia	Stredné Slovensko	86.6	86.1	Stredné Slovensko	2.7	2.3
Finland	:	:	:	:	:	:
Sweden	Småland med öarna	53.2	42.2	Västsverige	36.9	34.4
United Kingdom	Cheshire	73.1	64.3	**Inner London**	63.1	34.3
Iceland		–	71.3		–	14.1
Liechtenstein		–	51.1		–	47.2
Norway	Agder og Rogaland	71.5	62.8	**Oslo og Akershus**	25.2	22.8
Switzerland	Ostschweiz	43.3	36.3	Zürich	62.4	56.2

([1]) Note that other ownership models exist in some countries (cooperative ownership or other types of ownership). Regions in bold typeface are capital city regions.
([2]) Excluding Croatia and Finland.
Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC41)

Home ownership

Property markets in the EU display considerable differences in relation to tenure status, in other words, the proportion of people who rent or own their home. Many people have aspirations to own their property, but the patterns of home ownership in the EU are quite varied. Generally there has been an increase in home ownership, with a preference to move into single-family dwellings that have more internal and external space. This has tended to result in the expansion of low-density housing in suburban areas around some of Europe's largest cities.

Ownership: tenure status

Some 30 % of the population rented their home…

According to the EU-SILC survey, 70 % of all households in the EU-28 were owner-occupied in 2013, while 30 % were lived in by tenants (renting at either a market price or a reduced price). The highest home ownership rates were recorded in the eastern EU Member States and the Baltic Member States. For example, upwards of 90 % of the dwellings in Romania, Lithuania and Slovakia were owner-occupied. By contrast, the highest proportions of rental properties were in Germany (47.4 %), Austria (42.7 %) and Denmark (37.0 %).

…while just over one quarter were owner-occupants with an outstanding mortgage or housing loan

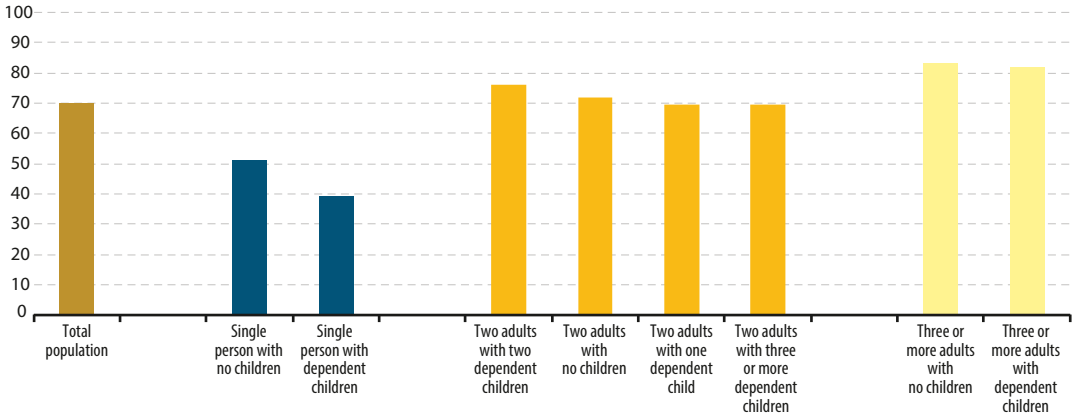
The EU-SILC survey also provides more detailed information on housing tenure. For example, in 2013 some 42.7 % of the EU-28 population lived in an owner-occupied household where there was no outstanding mortgage or housing loan, while owner-occupants with a mortgage or housing loan accounted for 27.3 % of the EU-28's population. The share of the population with a mortgage or loan was below the EU-28 average in each of the eastern EU Member States and Baltic Member States, as well as in Greece, Italy, Cyprus, Malta and Austria. Indeed, less than 10 % of the population lived in an owner-occupied household with a mortgage or loan in Slovenia, Slovakia, Latvia, Lithuania, Croatia, Bulgaria or Romania; this could be contrasted with the situation in Sweden and the Netherlands, where 61.4 % and 60.0 % of the population were owner-occupants with a mortgage or housing loan. These high rates of owner-occupancy in the eastern EU Member States reflect, to a large degree, privatisation policies during the early 1990s that resulted in the transfer of property rights and the widespread sale of formerly state-owned housing stock.

Figure 3 provides an overview of tenure status in the EU-28, presenting the proportion of owner-occupied dwellings in 2013 for a range of different household types; this data is also taken from EU-SILC. It shows that when three adults lived together they were far more likely to be living in an owner-occupied dwelling (more than 80 %), while a much lower proportion of single persons lived in owner-occupied dwellings (less than 50 %). This was particularly true for single persons living with dependent children, as less than 4 out of every 10 (39.1 %) of these households were living in an owner-occupied dwelling.

It was more common for people living in urban areas to rent their home…

Regional information on tenure status may be provided from the population and housing census conducted in 2011. Of the 272 NUTS level 2 regions in the EU, those with the highest rates of owner-occupancy in each of the EU Member States were characterised as being largely rural regions, while the regions with the highest shares of rented dwellings were often capital city regions (see Table 3). The highest share of owner-occupied dwellings (97.7 %) was recorded in the Romanian region of Sud-Vest Oltenia, while more than 9 out of 10 dwellings in the Hungarian region of Észak-Alföld were also owner-occupied.

Figure 3: Share of owner-occupied households, EU-28, 2013 (1)
(% of owner-occupied dwellings for each type of household)



(1) Estimates.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: ilc_lvho02)

By contrast, just over three quarters (75.7 %) of the dwellings in the Austrian capital city region of Wien were rented, the highest share for any NUTS level 2 region, while more than half of the properties in the capital city regions of Berlin (74.6 %), Inner London (63.1 %) and the Région de Bruxelles-Capitale / Brussels Hoofdstedelijk Gewest (61.4 %) were also rented.

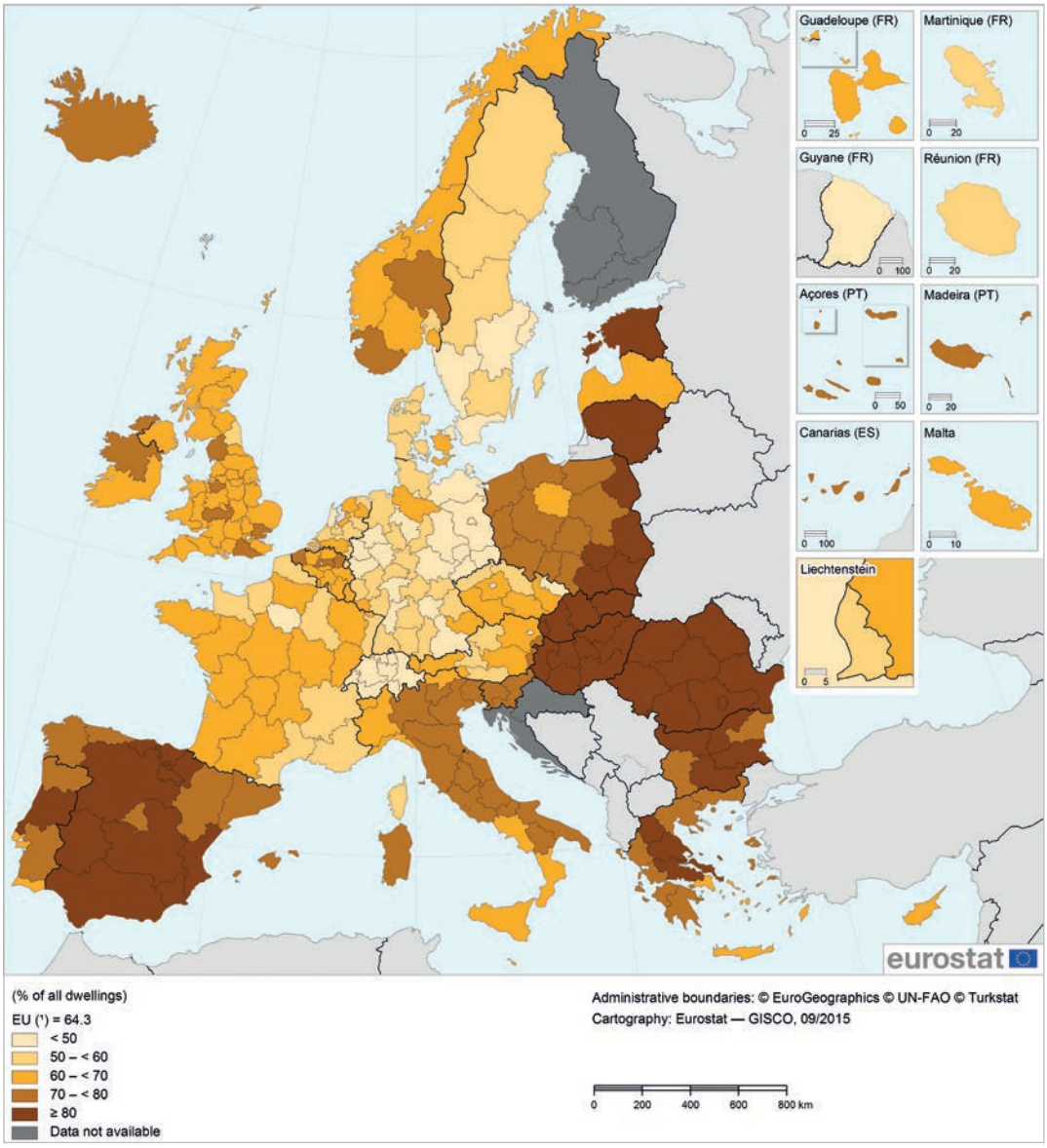
…especially in Germany and Austria

A more detailed regional picture derived from the population and housing census is provided in Map 3, which presents the proportion of dwellings that were owner-occupied in 2011 for 272 NUTS level 2 regions. Note that besides owner-occupied and rented dwellings, other ownership models exist in some of the EU Member States (for example, cooperative ownership), while some respondents to the census did not provide information on the tenure status of their dwelling; as such, the sum of owner-occupied dwellings and rented dwellings does not necessarily add up to 100 %.

Almost every region in Hungary and Romania posted an owner-occupancy rate that was above 90 %; the only exception was the Hungarian capital city region, with 89 % of dwellings in Közép-Magyarország occupied by their owners.

At the other end of the range, there were 14 regions where less than 40 % of dwellings were owner-occupied. The lowest rates for owner-occupancy were recorded in the German and Austrian capital cities, 15.3 % in Berlin and 19.0 % in Wien. Of the remaining 12 regions, seven were from Germany (Hamburg, Mecklenburg-Vorpommern and Bremen from the north; Leipzig, Dresden and Chemnitz from the east; Düsseldorf in the Rhine-Ruhr metropolitan region), while the other five regions were all capital city regions, those of Sweden, the United Kingdom, Belgium, Denmark and the Czech Republic.

Map 3: Share of owner-occupied dwellings, by NUTS level 2 region, 2011
(% of all dwellings)



(1) Excluding Croatia and Finland.
Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC41)

Costs and deprivation

Two of the most extreme examples of poverty and social exclusion in society today are linked to housing: homelessness and housing deprivation.

Housing costs

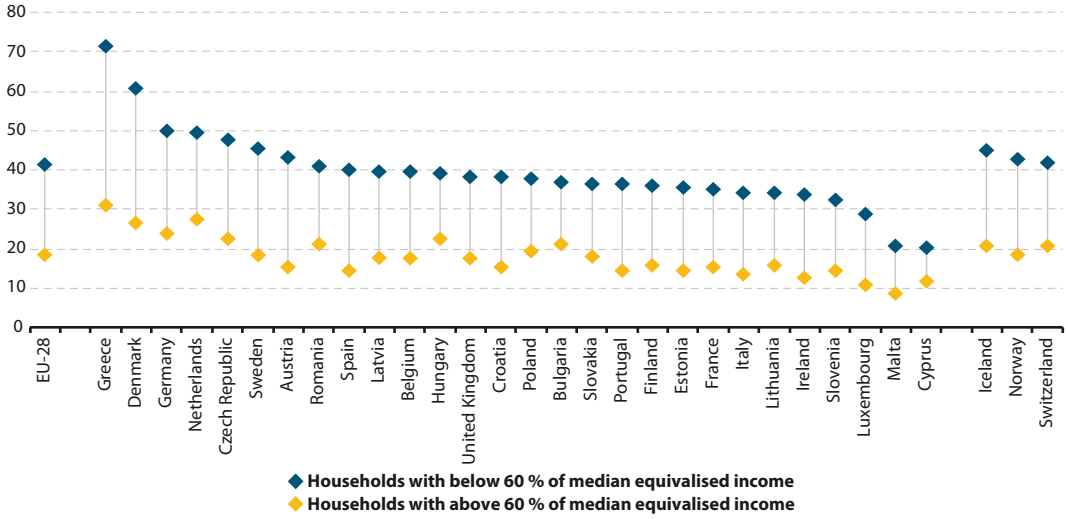
Housing costs refer to monthly costs that are connected to living in a property. For owner-occupants, they include mortgage interest payments (net of any tax relief), insurance of the property, taxes, and a variety of costs for running the household (such as council services, maintenance and repairs, or the cost of utilities including water, electricity, gas and heating). For tenants, housing costs cover their rental payments, and similar costs to those incurred by owner-occupants (when these have to be paid by the tenant).

Housing costs represent a significant proportion of many household budgets — especially for people who live on relatively low incomes. According to EU-SILC, in 2013, housing costs accounted for a 41.0 % share of disposable income for those people living in EU-28 households under the poverty threshold, in other words, with less than 60 % of the median equivalised income (see Figure 4). As might be expected, people with a higher level of income (those living in households above the poverty threshold) used a smaller proportion of their disposable income for housing, some 18.6 %.

Greeks and Danes on relatively low incomes faced housing costs that accounted for the majority of their disposable income

Housing costs accounted for 71.0 % and 60.6 % of the disposable income available to the Greeks and Danes who were living in households under the poverty threshold, while in Germany and the Netherlands these costs accounted for approximately half of disposable household income for people in the same group. Housing costs as a proportion of disposable income were lower in

Figure 4: Housing costs as a share of disposable household income, by household type, 2013
(% of disposable income)



Source: Eurostat (online data code: ilc_mded01)

the remaining EU Member States for those people living in households under the poverty threshold.

As noted above, people with a higher level of income (those living in households with above 60 % of the median equivalised income) tended to use a smaller proportion of their disposable household income for housing costs; this pattern held across all of the EU Member States. A comparison of the relative importance of housing costs between different income groups shows that people on low incomes in Greece, Denmark, Austria, Sweden, Germany and Spain faced particular hardship in terms of paying for their housing costs when compared with people on higher incomes, as the housing costs of the latter accounted for a much lower share of disposable income.

Severe housing deprivation

Housing deprivation is a measure of poor amenities: the indicator of housing deprivation shows the proportion of the population living in dwellings with a leaking roof, or no bath / shower, or no indoor toilet, or in dwellings that are considered too dark; this information comes from EU-SILC.

One of the key dimensions in assessing the quality of housing is the availability of sufficient space. Overcrowded dwellings are defined as those households which do not have a minimum number of rooms at their disposal, equal to: one room for the household; one room per couple in the household; one room for each single person aged 18 or more; one room per pair of single people of the same gender between 12 and 17 years of age; one room for each single person between 12 and 17 years of age and not included in the previous category; one room per pair of children under 12 years of age.

The severe housing deprivation rate is calculated as the percentage of the population that lives in dwellings which are considered to be overcrowded, while also exhibiting at least one of the housing deprivation measures referred to above.

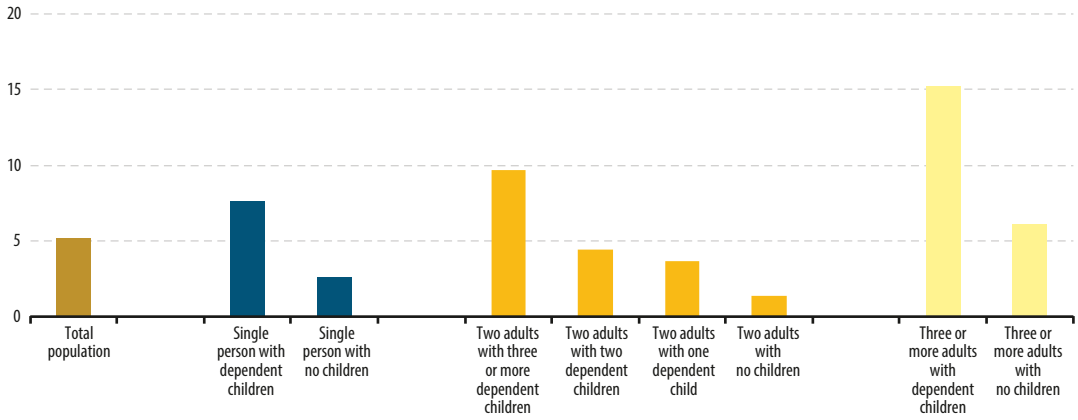
Just over 1 in 20 people faced severe housing deprivation

The severe housing deprivation rate provides an alternative way of measuring housing pressures. In 2013, according to EU-SILC, severe housing deprivation in the EU-28 touched approximately 1 in 20 persons, or 5.2 % of the population. The severe housing deprivation rate peaked at 23.0 % in Romania and reached double-digit levels in Hungary, Latvia, Bulgaria and Poland. By contrast, less than 1 % of the population in Belgium, the Netherlands or Finland was touched by severe housing deprivation.

Households with dependent children have a higher risk of severe housing deprivation

Housing deprivation in the EU-28 varies considerably according to the type of household that people live in. As Figure 5 shows, the risk of severe housing deprivation rose for each type of household when having dependent children. The lowest severe housing deprivation rates (1.4 %) were recorded for those living in a household composed of two adults without children. The risk of severe housing deprivation was slightly more than three times as high (4.4 %) for those living in a household composed of two adults with two dependent children, rising to almost seven times as high (9.7 %) for those living in a household composed of two adults with three or more children. A relatively small proportion (2.6 %) of people living alone faced severe housing deprivation, although here too the addition of at least one dependent child led to the risk of severe housing deprivation rising almost threefold (7.6 %). By contrast, households with the highest risk of severe housing deprivation were characterised by the presence of three or more adults. Some 6.1 % of people living in a household with three or more adults and no children faced severe housing deprivation, a share that rose to 15.2 % among those living in a household composed of three or more adults with dependent children.

Figure 5: Severe housing deprivation rate, by household type, EU-28, 2013
(% of population)



Source: Eurostat (online data codes: ilc_mdho06a and ilc_mdho06b)

While the risk of housing deprivation varied considerably according to household type, there were also considerable disparities between EU Member States: for example, severe housing deprivation rates for those living in a household composed of two adults with three or more children peaked at 69.2 % in Bulgaria, 47.0 % in Romania and 35–36 % in Latvia, Hungary and Lithuania, while rates for those living in a household composed of a single adult with dependent children peaked at 30.2 % in Hungary, 27.0 % in Romania, 23.3 % in Bulgaria and 21.2 % in Latvia.

In the Baltic Member States, Bulgaria and Romania the share of dwellings without an indoor flushing toilet exceeded 10 %

As noted above, one of the criteria for severe housing deprivation is the lack of an indoor toilet. The population and housing census provides a similar indicator (to that collected within EU-SILC), with information relating to the proportion of dwellings that were without an indoor flush toilet facility, as presented in Table 4; the census has more detailed information providing for a regional analysis.

In 2011, slightly less than 3 % of all dwellings in the EU (excluding Croatia and Finland) did not have an indoor flush toilet facility. The proportion of dwellings without an indoor flush toilet was zero in Belgium, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Sweden and the United Kingdom, rising to just above 10 % in Estonia and close to 20 % in the other two Baltic Member States of Latvia and Lithuania, before peaking at 26.4 % in Bulgaria and 38.1 % in Romania.

There is often a high degree of investment in infrastructure in capital city regions (defined here in relation to NUTS level 2 regions) and it is therefore not surprising to find that the proportion of dwellings without an indoor flush toilet facility was generally lower than the national average in these capital city regions. This pattern held across most EU Member States, although there were exceptions, as Austria and to a lesser degree Poland both recorded more dwellings without an indoor flush toilet facility in their capital city regions. In the Austrian capital of Wien some 6.0 % of dwellings were without an indoor flush toilet facility, compared with 2.2 % across the whole of Austria.

Table 4: Proportion of dwellings without an indoor flush toilet facility, selected NUTS level 2 regions, 2011 ([1])
(% of all dwellings)

National average		Capital city region		Region with highest proportion	
EU ([2])	2.7	–	–	Sud–Vest Oltenia	55.4
Bulgaria	26.4	Yugozapaden	13.0	Severozapaden	44.0
Czech Republic	2.5	Praha	1.1	Severozápad	4.0
Denmark	0.7	Hovedstaden	0.6	Sjælland	0.8
Germany	0.8	Berlin	0.1	Chemnitz	4.1
Estonia	11.4	–	–	–	–
Ireland	0.2	Southern and Eastern	0.1	Border. Midland And Western	0.2
Greece	0.4	Attiki	0.0	Anatoliki Makedonia. Thraki	2.4
Spain	0.6	Comunidad de Madrid	0.5	Ciudad Autónoma de Ceuta	5.7
France	0.2	Île de France	0.1	Guyane	20.9
Italy	0.1	Lazio	0.1	Molise	0.3
Cyprus	1.0	–	–	–	–
Latvia	19.4	–	–	–	–
Lithuania	19.0	–	–	–	–
Hungary	5.6	Közép–Magyarország	2.5	Észak–Magyarország	9.2
Malta	0.6	–	–	–	–
Austria	2.2	Wien	6.0	Wien	6.0
Poland	3.5	Mazowieckie	3.9	Lubelskie	8.7
Portugal	1.6	Lisboa	0.7	Alentejo	2.3
Romania	38.1	Bucureşti – Ilfov	6.4	Sud–Vest Oltenia	55.4
Slovenia	3.7	Zahodna Slovenija	2.7	Vzhodna Slovenija	4.6
Slovakia	5.2	Bratislavský kraj	0.9	Východné Slovensko	6.3
Iceland	0.1	–	–	–	–
Liechtenstein	0.0	–	–	–	–

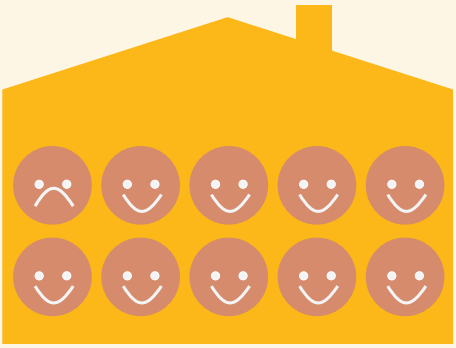
([1]) Note that for some countries there is a residual category of "not stated": this has not been taken into account in the data presented. Belgium, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Sweden, the United Kingdom, Norway and Switzerland: according to the results of the census, all dwellings had an indoor flushing toilet facility. Croatia and Finland: not available.
([2]) Excluding Croatia and Finland.
Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC41)

Table 4 also provides information on those NUTS level 2 regions with the highest proportion of dwellings that did not possess an indoor flush toilet facility. Among the 272 different regions for which data are available, those with the highest proportions were principally located in rural areas (Molise or Alentejo), geographically remote areas (Anatoliki Makedonia, Thraki; the Ciudad Autónoma de Ceuta; Guyane), regions characterised by relatively low standards of living (Severozapaden), or regions in the process of urban regeneration (Chemnitz).

Lack of satisfaction

One tenth of the EU's population was unsatisfied with the dwelling in which they lived

Figure 6 presents information relating to housing satisfaction, derived from EU-SILC. It shows that approximately 1 in 10 persons across the EU-28 had a low or very low level of satisfaction with the dwelling in which they resided in 2012. The information presented confirms that households with children tended to be less satisfied with their home, while those living as a couple tended to be the most content.

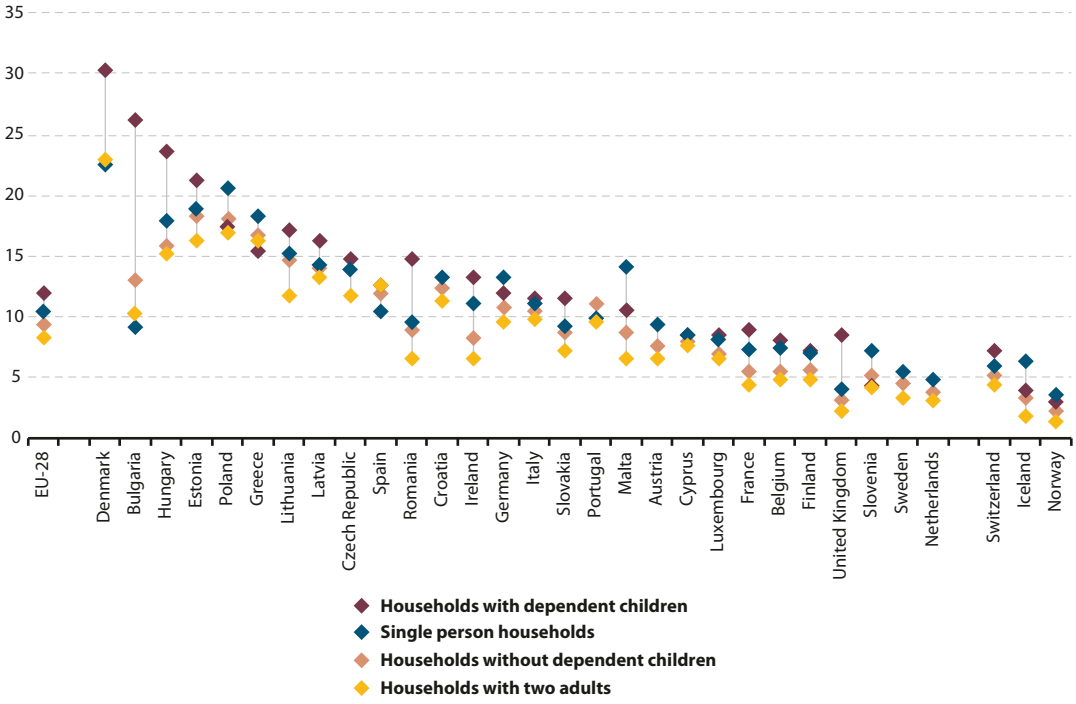


One tenth of the population in the EU-28 was unsatisfied with the dwelling in which they lived in 2012.

There were wider divergences when analysing the results by EU Member State, as just 3.6 % of the population in the Netherlands had a low or very low level of satisfaction with their dwelling, while in Denmark the level of discontent was seven times as high (26.3 %). The proportion of the population expressing that they had a low or very low level of satisfaction with their dwelling was relatively uniform in most of the EU Member States, irrespective of the household type. Nevertheless, there were some exceptions and these were often linked to the presence of children in the household. For example, in Bulgaria some 26.1 % of the population living in households with dependent children had a low or very low level of satisfaction with their dwelling, compared with 13.0 % of the population living in households without children. Romania, Ireland, France and the United Kingdom were also characterised by relatively high shares of people living in households with dependent children reporting that they had a low or very low level of satisfaction with their dwelling.

In a few cases — the Netherlands, Poland, Slovenia, Croatia, Greece and Portugal — the share of the population expressing a low or very low level of satisfaction with their dwelling was higher among those living in households without children (than those with children). The differences were however generally quite small, the biggest being recorded in Portugal, where 10.9 % of the population living in households without dependent children expressed the view that they had a low or very low level of satisfaction, compared with 9.5 % of those living in households with dependent children.

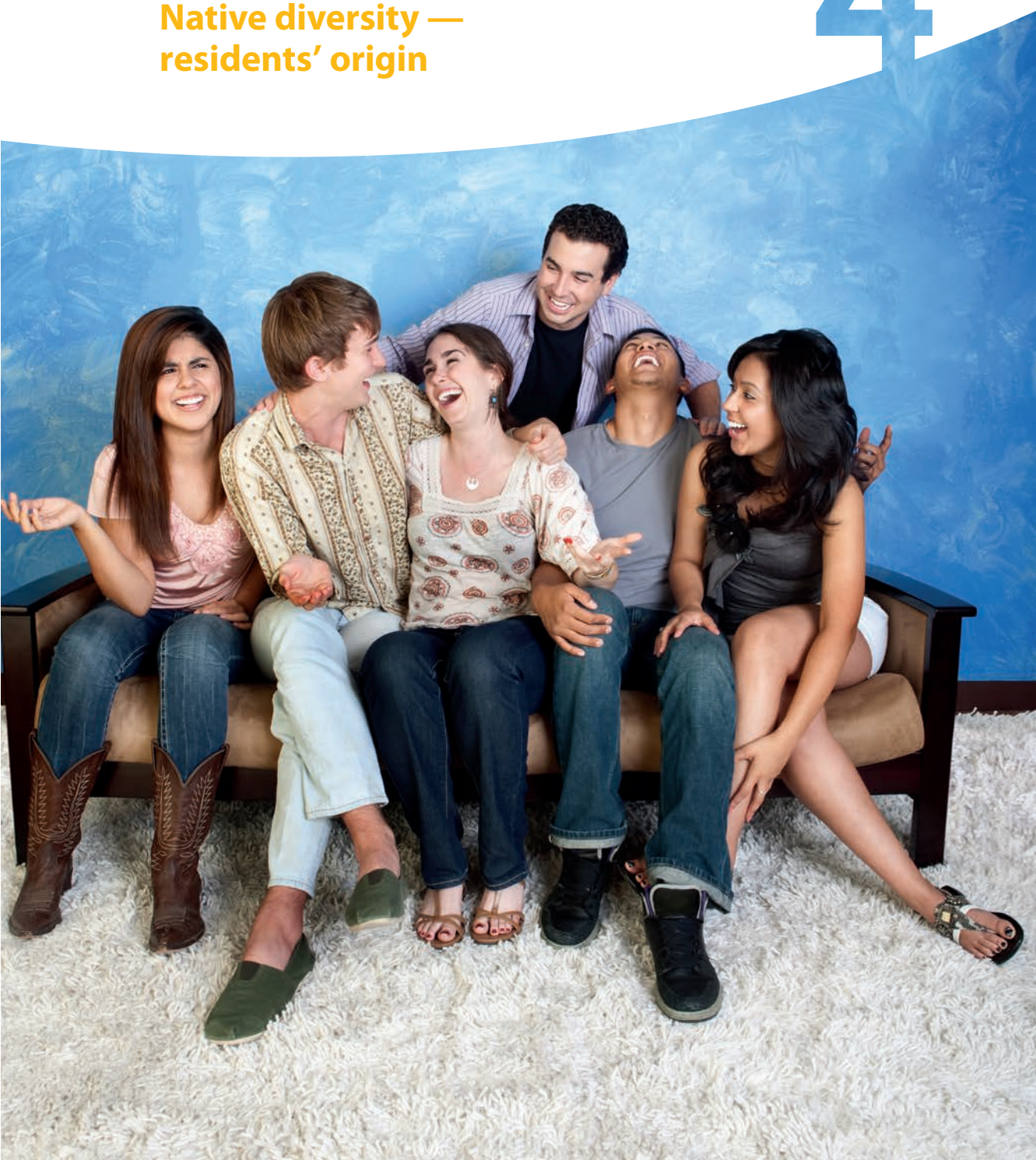
Figure 6: Proportion of persons expressing they have a low or very low level of satisfaction with their dwelling, by household type, 2012 ([1])
(% of population)



([1]) Ranked on proportion of the total population expressing they have a low or very low level of satisfaction with their dwelling.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: ilc_hcmp04)

4

Native diversity — residents' origin



Introduction

Beyond its intrinsic value, cultural diversity has the potential to contribute to economic growth, job creation, innovation and competitiveness. With freedom of movement across the European Union, EU residents have a range of options to expand their horizons and to increase their social and cultural interactions through study, work, travel for business or for leisure, or shopping across borders.

The EU promotes intercultural dialogue, the exchange of views and opinions between different cultures, and diversity across European society, encompassing linguistic, political, religious, ethnic, and sexuality differences. Language provides a good example of the wide range of diversity in the EU, insofar as there are 24 official languages and more than 60 regional and minority languages, together with more than 100 migrant languages.

History provides evidence as to the importance of protecting minorities and allowing different identities to flourish. EU policies promote a pluralistic approach, human rights and equality with the goal of ensuring an open, tolerant and equal society for all.

Within the context of this chapter, cultural differences are analysed through a comparison of migration statistics, using information broken down by citizenship and by place of birth to provide a more detailed description of a range of socioeconomic measures. Migration is influenced by a combination of economic, political and social factors: either in a migrant's country of origin (push factors) or in the country of destination (pull factors). Historically, the relative economic prosperity and political stability of the EU are thought to have exerted a considerable pull effect on immigrants. In destination countries, international migration may be used as a tool to solve specific labour market shortages. However, migration alone will almost certainly not reverse the ongoing trend of population ageing currently being experienced in many parts of the EU.

Approximately half of all foreign-born people living in EU Member States were from elsewhere in Europe

According to the population and housing census, there were almost 51 million people resident in the EU-28 in 2011 who had been born outside of the Member State where they were living (excluding stateless persons and those whose place of birth was unknown), representing approximately 10 % of the EU-28 population.

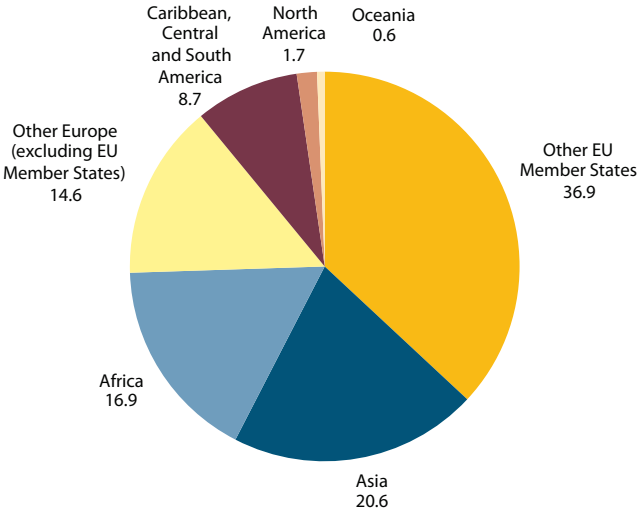
Figure 1 shows that Europeans accounted for approximately half of all the foreign-born people who were resident in an EU Member State. More than one third (36.9 %) of foreign-born residents — some 18.8 million persons — were born in other EU Member States, while 7.4 million (14.6 %) were born in other European countries outside of the EU. Residents in the EU Member States who were born in Asia made up 20.8 % of the foreign-born total, while EU residents born in Africa made up 16.9 % of the total and residents born in the Caribbean, Central and South America made up 8.7 %. There were relatively small shares for those born in North America (1.7 %) and Oceania (0.6 %).

The EU Member States have a long tradition of receiving immigrants from other European countries and considerably further afield. For example, post-war immigration in Belgium saw a flow of migrant workers from Italy, Portugal and Spain to work in the industrial economy, while in the United Kingdom migrants from the Indian sub-continent or the Caribbean contributed to economic regeneration in the 1960s. More recently, there have been substantial migrant flows between EU Member States following successive expansions of the EU, while political instability, wars and human rights abuses have resulted in an increasing flow of migrants from outside the EU many of whom are seeking asylum.

Almost 9 out of 10 (89.4 %) of the EU-28 residents in 2011 were native-born

Figure 1 shows the place of birth of the 10.6 % foreign-born EU-28 residents

Figure 1: Foreign-born residents, by place of birth, EU-28, 2011 ([1])
(% of foreign-born population)



([1]) Excluding stateless persons and those whose place of birth was unknown.
Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC15)

Foreign-born residents from countries outside the EU

Table 1 provides more information from the population and housing census in relation to the 20 largest foreign-born communities living in EU Member States in 2011. It focuses on EU residents who were born in non-member countries (in other words, those outside the EU). This information covers the stock of foreign-born residents and not the flow of migrants for a single year.

The Moroccan community was the largest foreign-born community in the EU

In 2011, the top 20 foreign-born communities from outside the EU numbered 18.5 million residents in the EU-28, which was equivalent to 3.7 % of the EU-28 population. These 20 communities together accounted for 58.3 % of the foreign-born residents from outside of the EU.

The largest foreign-born community from a country outside of the EU was composed of EU residents born in Morocco. There were 2.3 million people born in Morocco who lived in the EU-28 in 2011, which equated to 7.2 % of all foreign-born residents from non-member countries or 0.5 % of the total EU-28 population. The largest Moroccan community in any of the EU Member States was in France, although Moroccan-born residents in Belgium accounted for a higher share of the total population.

The second and third largest foreign-born communities resident in the EU-28 were composed of people born in Turkey and Russia (2.1 million and 1.8 million persons), while there were in excess of one million residents living in the EU originating from each of Algeria, Ukraine and India. It is interesting to note that there were more Chinese-born residents living in the EU-28 (827 thousand) than American-born residents (584 thousand).

Table 1: Top 20 foreign-born communities living in the EU-28, 2011

Born in	Persons born outside the EU living in the EU-28 (number)	Share of all persons born outside the EU living in the EU-28 (%)	Share of total EU-28 population (%)
Morocco	2 286 910	7.2	0.5
Turkey	2 076 128	6.5	0.4
Russia	1 812 243	5.7	0.4
Algeria	1 510 847	4.8	0.3
Ukraine	1 090 642	3.4	0.2
India	1 061 826	3.3	0.2
Bosnia and Herzegovina	955 780	3.0	0.2
Albania	902 689	2.8	0.2
Kazakhstan	876 747	2.8	0.2
China	826 095	2.6	0.2
Pakistan	744 669	2.3	0.1
United States	583 604	1.8	0.1
Tunisia	529 343	1.7	0.1
Brazil	522 280	1.6	0.1
Ecuador	517 797	1.6	0.1
Colombia	505 697	1.6	0.1
Switzerland	488 699	1.5	0.1
Serbia	429 365	1.4	0.1
Philippines	404 978	1.3	0.1
Argentina	396 399	1.2	0.1

Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC28)

Marriages

This next section analyses one particular aspect of demographic diversity, namely, the proportion of marriages where at least one of the spouses is of a different nationality to the country in which they reside.

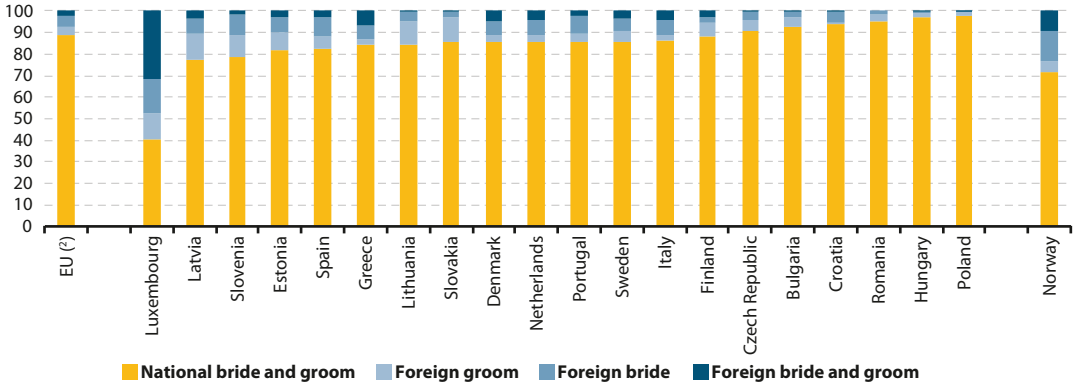
Marriages involving at least one foreigner accounted for 11 % of all marriages in the EU

Eurostat's annual demography data collection provides information on, among others, marriages and divorces. Slightly fewer than 9 out of every 10 (89.0 %) marriages that took place in 2012 in the EU-28 were formed by a bride and groom who were both nationals of the Member State in which they were married, while 5.0 % of marriages involved a foreign bride, 3.7 % a foreign groom, and 2.3 % both a foreign bride and groom. Note that this information is based on data for only 20 of the EU Member States and excludes Germany, France and the United Kingdom (see Figure 2 for coverage).

Luxembourg was the only EU Member State where marriages between a bride and groom who were both nationals accounted for less than half (40.5 %) of all marriages, while such marriages accounted for fewer than four out of every five marriages in Latvia and Slovenia (77.6 % and 78.9 % respectively). By contrast, more than 19 out of every 20 marriages in Romania, Hungary and Poland were formed by spouses who were both nationals of the Member State where the marriage took place.

The proportion of marriages between spouses from different EU Member States may be expected to increase as a result of increased integration, freedom of movement, as well as cross-border labour and education opportunities. A very low proportion of marriages in most of the Member States that joined the EU since 2004 involved two foreign spouses. With the exception of Croatia, the proportion of marriages that involved a foreign groom was higher than the proportion involving a foreign bride in each of the Member States that joined the EU since 2004; this pattern was particularly evident in the Baltic Member States and Slovakia. By contrast, with the exception of Finland, a higher proportion of marriages involved foreign brides in those EU Member States that were already members of the EU before 2004.

Figure 2: Marriages, by citizenship of the bride and groom, 2012 ([1])
(% of marriages)



([1]) Excluding stateless persons and those whose citizenship was unknown.
([2]) Average based on information available for the 20 EU Member States shown.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: demo_marcz)

Foreign-born residents from another EU Member State

Almost one third of all residents in Luxembourg were born in another EU Member State

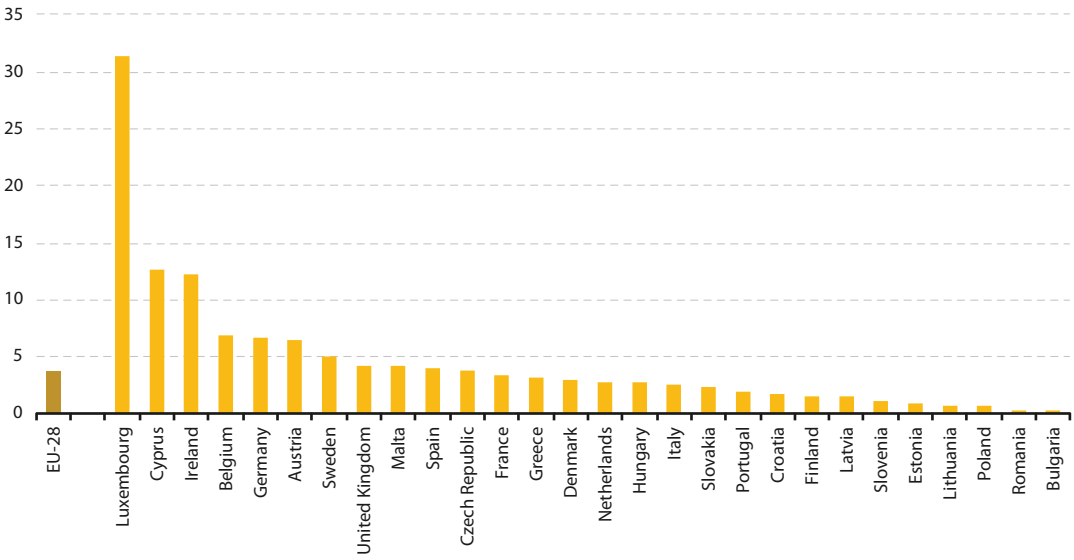
The population and housing census provides information on foreign-born residents living in the EU. In 2011, those residents born in a different EU Member State to the one in which they were residing numbered 18.8 million, or 3.7 % of the EU-28's population (see Figure 3). Residents born in another EU Member State accounted for more than 1 in 20 residents in Sweden (5.1 %), Austria (6.5 %), Germany (6.6 %) and Belgium (7.0 %), while this share rose to more than 1 in 10 residents in Ireland (12.1 %) and Cyprus (12.7 %). Furthermore, almost one third (31.4 %) of the total population of Luxembourg was born in another EU Member State. By contrast, less than 1 % of the residents in each of Estonia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania and Bulgaria were born in another EU Member State.

DID YOU KNOW?

Across level 3 regions in 2011, the highest proportion of foreign-born residents was recorded in the Swiss city of Genève, with a 48.2 % share of the total number of residents. Among the EU Member States, the highest regional share among NUTS level 3 regions was recorded in Inner London-West, at 43.9 %.

For more information: refer to the CENSUS HUB

Figure 3: Share of the population having been born in another EU Member State, 2011
(% of population)

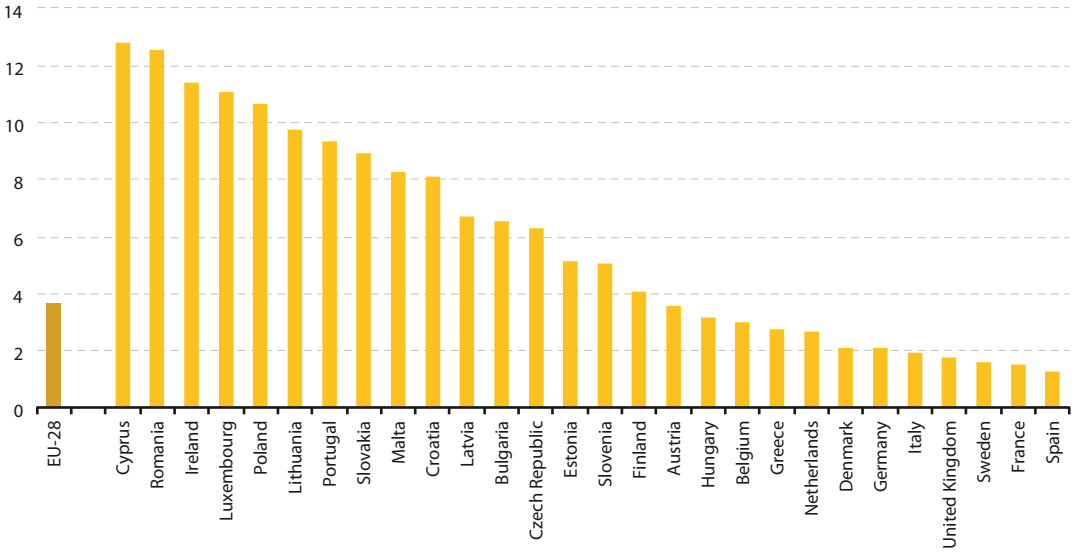


Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC28)

More than 10 % of those born in Cyprus, Ireland, Luxembourg, Poland and Romania lived abroad in another EU Member State

Figure 4 (also based on information from the population and housing census) shows the opposing situation, namely, the share of the native-born population who had emigrated to live abroad in another EU Member State. In 2011, this proportion peaked at 12.8 % in Cyprus and 12.5 % in Romania, while double-digit shares were also recorded for those born in Ireland, Luxembourg and Poland. By contrast, the five largest EU Member States in population terms — Germany, France, the United Kingdom, Italy and Spain — recorded some of the lowest shares, as 2.1 % of the native-born population from Germany was living abroad in another EU Member State (the highest share among these five Member States), falling to 1.2 % of those born in Spain. Among the other EU Member States, Sweden (1.6 %) and Denmark (2.1 %) also reported that a relatively low share of their native-born populations were living abroad in other EU Member States.

Figure 4: Share of native-born population living abroad in another EU Member State, 2011
(% of population)



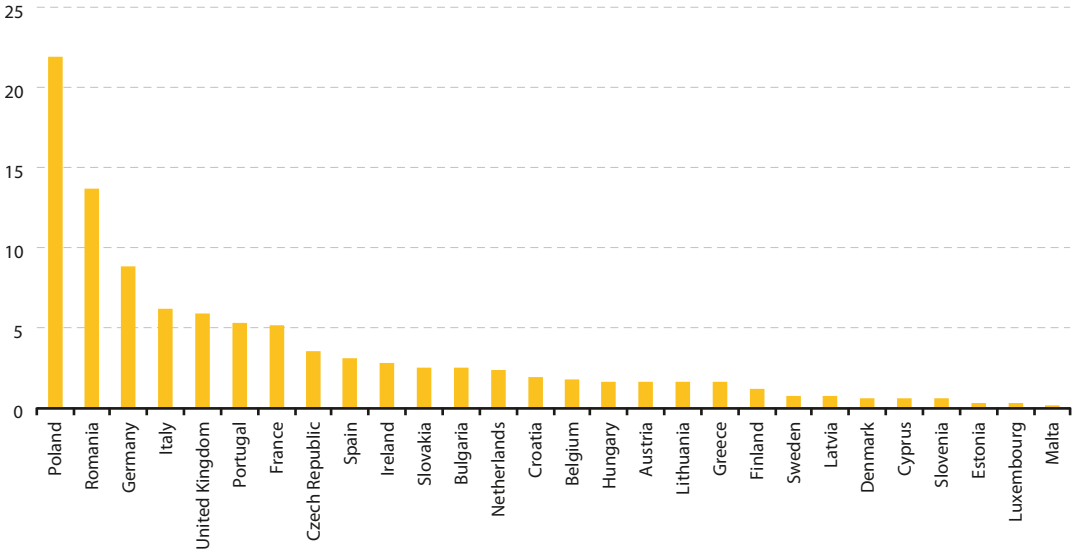
Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC28)

More than one in five residents living in an EU Member State but born in another Member State originated from Poland

Following the fall of communism in much of Eastern Europe, a new wave of migration into the EU from eastern neighbours began; this became more pronounced following successive enlargements of the EU, as people from the new Member States could progressively circulate freely within the EU.

According to the population and housing census, more than one fifth (22.0 %) of all the residents born in an EU Member State and living in other EU Member States originated from Poland (see Figure 5). This was considerably more than the shares recorded for those born in Romania (13.7 %) or Germany (8.9 %), while France, Portugal, the United Kingdom and Italy each accounted for 5.2 %–6.2 % of the residents born in an EU Member State living in another EU Member State. By contrast, there were eight (relatively small) Member States that accounted for less than 1 % of the total number of residents born in an EU Member State living in another EU Member State: Sweden, Latvia, Denmark, Cyprus, Slovenia, Estonia, Luxembourg and Malta.

Figure 5: Distribution of the origin of people born in an EU Member State who are living abroad in another EU Member State, 2011
(% of all people born in an EU Member State living in another EU Member State)



Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC28)

There were 2.7 million Polish-born residents living in Germany

Table 2 — also based on information from the population and housing census — provides information on the main communities of people born in an EU Member State living in another EU Member State. In 2011, the 20 largest communities of such residents collectively numbered 10.0 million persons, equivalent to more than half (53.3 %) of the total number of residents born in an EU Member State living in another EU Member State.

By far the largest community, in absolute terms, was the Polish-born community living in Germany (2.7 million persons), while there were an additional 654 thousand Polish-born residents in the United Kingdom (the fourth largest such community).

Several EU Member States that were traditionally countries of emigration have in recent years started to receive immigrants. This is particularly the case in Italy and Spain, in part due to a flow of migrants across the Mediterranean Sea, but also as a result of internal flows of migrants born elsewhere in the EU: the second and third largest communities of people born in an EU Member State and living in another EU Member State were Romanian-born residents living in Italy (769 thousand) and Spain (691 thousand). The only other such community that numbered in excess of half a million residents was the Portuguese-born community living in France (617 thousand).

Three quarters of the residents living in the Czech Republic who were born in another EU Member State originated from Slovakia

The information presented in Table 2 also provides details of the largest such communities in relative terms, in other words, as a share of the total number of residents in the reporting country born in another EU Member State. The ranking is unsurprisingly often characterised by pairs of neighbouring countries. For example, almost three quarters (74.8 %) of all residents in the Czech Republic who were born in another EU Member State were born in Slovakia; this was the highest share among the EU Member States. The next four country pairings were also neighbours: Croatian-born residents living in Slovenia, Czech-born residents living in Slovakia, Romanian-born residents living in Hungary, and Lithuanian-born residents living in Latvia; each accounting for between 65 % and 70 % of all residents living in the reporting country who were born in another EU Member State.

Table 2: Top 20 communities of people born in an EU Member State living in another EU Member State, 2011 ([1])

In absolute numbers				As a relative share ([2])			
Rank	People living in …	… but born in	(persons)	Rank	People living in …	… but born in	(%)
1	Germany	Poland	2 749 670	1	Czech Republic	Slovakia	74.8
2	Italy	Romania	768 634	2	Slovenia	Croatia	69.9
3	Spain	Romania	690 505	3	Slovakia	Czech Republic	68.9
4	United Kingdom	Poland	654 010	4	Hungary	Romania	66.1
5	France	Portugal	617 235	5	Latvia	Lithuania	65.9
6	United Kingdom	Ireland	468 185	6	Malta	United Kingdom	59.5
7	Germany	Romania	449 920	7	Ireland	United Kingdom	51.8
8	Germany	Czech Republic	441 640	8	Lithuania	Latvia	51.4
9	France	Italy	345 038	9	Germany	Poland	51.1
10	Germany	Italy	330 730	10	Italy	Romania	49.1
11	United Kingdom	Germany	299 745	11	Croatia	Germany	47.7
12	Spain	United Kingdom	296 220	12	Portugal	France	45.3
13	Czech Republic	Slovakia	289 573	13	Luxembourg	Portugal	37.8
14	France	Spain	288 168	14	Spain	Romania	36.5
15	Ireland	United Kingdom	287 600	15	Finland	Sweden	36.2
16	France	Germany	219 966	16	Greece	Germany	34.6
17	Italy	Germany	209 347	17	Austria	Germany	34.2
18	Germany	Austria	205 050	18	Sweden	Finland	34.1
19	Austria	Germany	199 686	19	Poland	Germany	33.9
20	Spain	France	199 350	20	Estonia	Latvia	32.0

([1]) Subject to data availability, some values are confidential.
([2]) Reading note: people born in Slovakia made up 74.8 % of the population of those living in the Czech Republic who were born in another EU Member State.
Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC28)

There were, however, some exceptions to the rule, as almost 60 % of the residents living in Malta (a Commonwealth country) who were born in another EU Member State were born in the United Kingdom, many of whom were retirees. In a similar vein: almost half of the residents who were born in another EU Member State who lived in Italy were born in Romania, while the share of Romanians in Spain's population of residents who were born in another EU Member State was just over one third; almost half of all the residents living in Croatia who were born in another EU Member State were born in Germany as were just over one third of those in Greece; close to half of the residents living in Portugal who were born in another EU Member State were from France; just over one third of residents living in Luxembourg who were born in another EU Member State were from Portugal.

Activity rates by place of birth

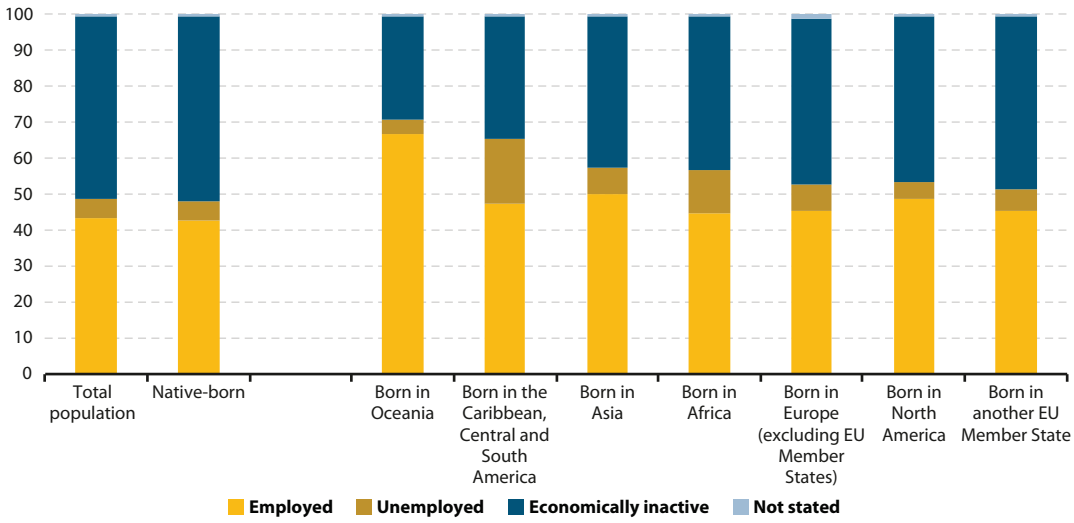
Having established some general patterns of cultural diversity in relation to the distribution of foreign-born and EU-born populations, this chapter continues by analysing a range of socioeconomic factors according to the place of birth, starting with the economic activity status of the resident population. According to the population and housing census, just over half (51.9 %) of the native-born population of the EU-28 in 2011 was economically inactive (for example studying, retired or not working for some other reason), while 42.7 % were employed and 5.1 % unemployed.

The foreign-born population living in the EU had a higher share of persons in employment

Migration policies within the EU in relation to citizens of non-member countries are increasingly concerned with attracting migrants with particular profiles, often in an attempt to alleviate particular skills shortages. Selection criteria include, for example, language proficiency, work experience or educational qualifications. Alternatively, employers may directly select immigrants, who then migrate with a job available upon arrival.

Across the whole of the EU-28, the share of foreign-born residents who were employed was systematically higher than for native-born residents. In 2011, this proportion reached two thirds (66.7 %) for residents of EU Member States who were born in Oceania, and was also greater than 50 % among residents of EU Member States who were born in Asia. The lowest proportions were recorded for those born in another EU Member State (45.2 %) and those born in Africa (44.8 %); in both cases these shares remained higher than for the native-born population (42.7 %).

Figure 6: Activity status, by place of birth, EU-28, 2011 (1)
(% of population)



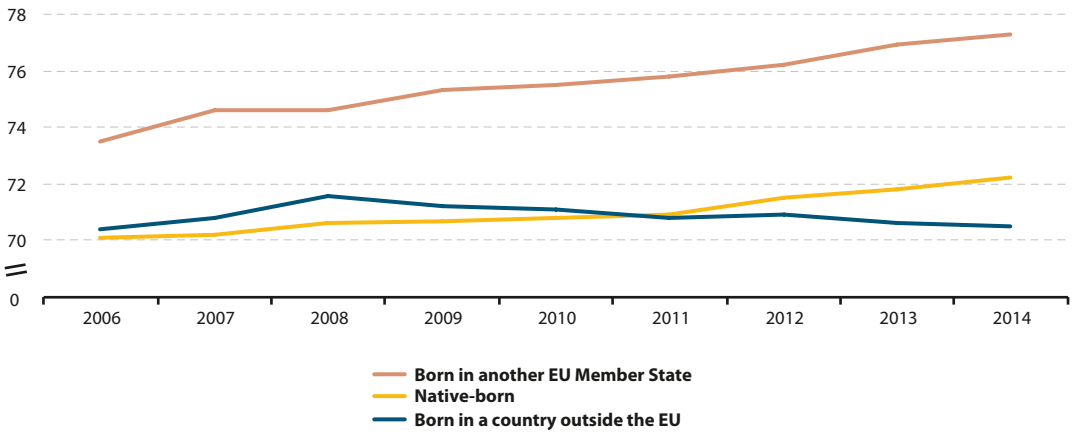
(1) Data for France: low reliability.
Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC34)

Residents born in another EU Member State consistently recorded the highest activity rates.

The data presented in Figure 6 relates to the whole of the foreign-born population. It should be borne in mind that many foreign-born migrants decide to move residence when they are relatively young adults (often without a family) and some may decide to return to their country of birth when they are approaching or have reached retirement; the impact of this is to push up the share of economically active people (employed or unemployed) among the foreign-born population. By contrast, some people may decide to move residence in their retirement, and the impact of this is to push down the share of economically active people among the foreign-born population of the destination country.

Figure 7 provides an analysis of activity rates for those persons of working age (15–64 years), according to their place of birth; note that this information comes from the EU's labour force survey (EU-LFS). During the period 2006 to 2014, the activity rate for residents of an EU Member State born in another EU Member State was consistently higher — generally by 4–5 percentage points — than those recorded for either the native-born population or the population born in a country outside the EU. It is interesting to note that during the financial and economic crisis, the activity rate of people born in an EU Member State but living in another EU Member State continued to increase (as did that of native-born residents), while there was a reduction in the activity rate of those born in countries outside of the EU.

Figure 7: Activity rates, persons aged 15–64, by place of birth, EU-28, 2006–14 ([1])
(%)



([1]) Note the y-axis is cut.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: lfsa_argacob)

Female activity rates

Women and men have a range of rights in the EU, such as: the right to freely and consensually choose a spouse; parental rights to a child irrespective of marital status; or the right to choose a profession / occupation when in work. Despite the considerable progress that has been made, gender inequalities continue to exist, perhaps nowhere more so than in the workplace: for example, women continue to experience a gender pay gap and they often have low levels of representation in positions of power, such as within senior management or in government.

Female activity rates in 2014 were lower than male activity rates, with this gender gap linked to family and care activities, often referred to as the 'supportive environment', which tends to affect people's availability and / or willingness, to participate in the labour force. This is especially the case in those EU Member States where traditional family units continue to thrive and / or where care services are lacking or do not meet the needs of (full-time) working parents, with women tending to decrease their paid working hours when they are parents, while men tend to increase them.

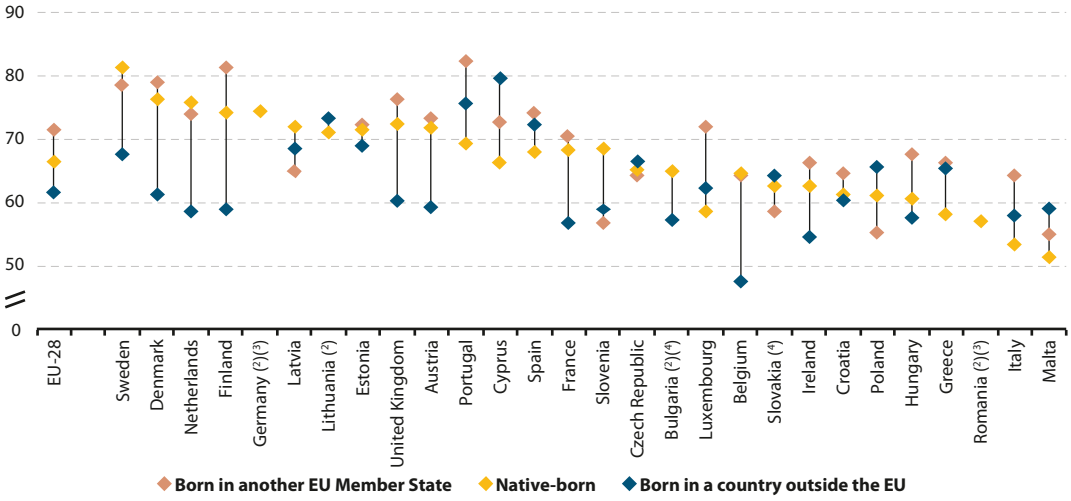
Female activity rates for women born in countries outside the EU were generally low

Figure 8 (which is also based on information from the EU-LFS) shows that female activity rates for those aged 15–64 years were highest among women born in another EU Member State (71.4 %), while the activity rates of native-born women (66.8 %) and women born in a country outside the EU (61.6 %) were much lower. Women born in countries outside the EU may face a range of issues that explain their relatively low levels of economic activity, among which: migrating under family reunification provisions (which may involve constraints on employment rights); lower levels of educational attainment and language barriers; different cultural practices that highlight a women's role at home; higher fertility rates; and various obstacles in accessing information about childcare services that are available and rights to use such services.

The gap in female activity rates between the native-born population and those born outside of the EU was greatest in those EU Member States characterised by some of the highest female activity rates, namely the Netherlands, the Nordic Member States, Austria and the United Kingdom, as well as in Belgium and France. In each of these cases, the female activity rate for the native-born population in 2014 was at least 10 percentage points higher than that for women born outside the EU.

By contrast, in the southern EU Member States — where female activity rates for the native-born population tended to be much lower — it was common to find activity rates for women born outside the EU were higher; this was particularly true in Greece, Malta and Cyprus. In Cyprus, the activity rate for women born outside the EU was 79.9 %, the highest among any of the EU Member States.

Figure 8: Female activity rates, persons aged 15–64, 2014 ([1])
(%)



([1]) Note the y-axis is cut. Ranked on the female activity rate for the whole population aged 15–64.
([2]) Born in another EU Member State: not available.
([3]) Born in a country outside the EU: not available.
([4]) Born in a country outside the EU: low reliability.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: lfsa_argacob)

Employment status by place of birth

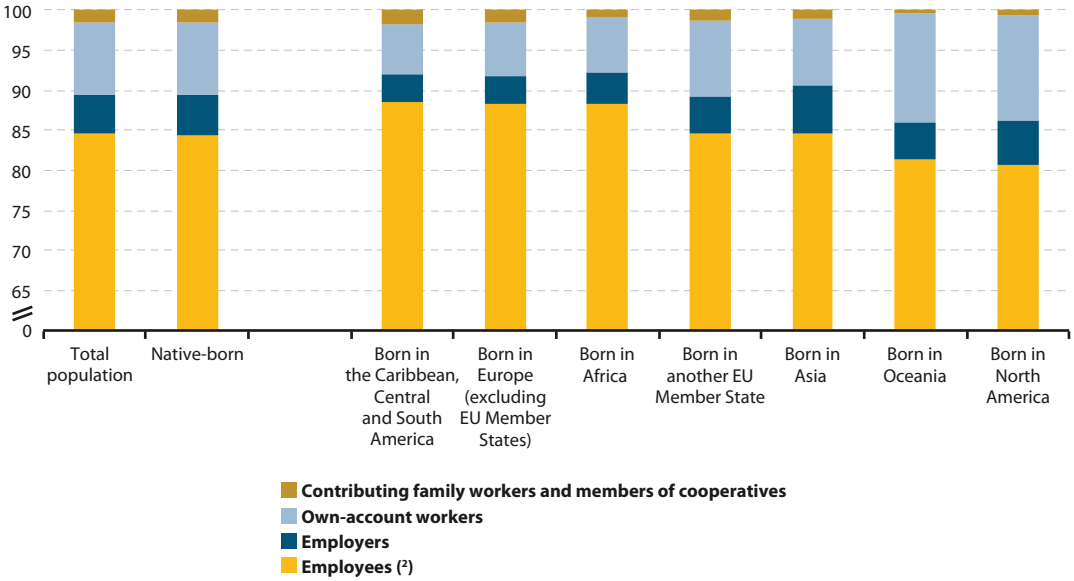
Figure 9 provides an analysis by place of birth of the employment status of working people in the EU-28 in 2011; it is based on data from the population and housing census. It shows the employment status of foreign-born residents varied as a function of where they were born. For each group, employees accounted for the overwhelming majority of the workforce (more than four out of every five persons): their shares were highest among people living in EU Member States but born in the Caribbean, Central and South America (88.5 %), Africa or European countries outside of the EU (both 88.2 %), while employees accounted for an 84.5 % share of the native-born workforce. Residents of EU Member States born in Oceania (13.6 %) and North America (13.1 %) had a higher propensity to be own-account workers than the EU Member States' native-born workforce (9.1 %), while residents born in Asia (6.0 %) or in North America (5.6 %) were more likely to be employers than the EU Member States' native-born workforce (4.9 %). The employment status of residents in an EU Member State who were born in another EU Member State closely resembled that of native-born residents.

According to the population and housing census, a higher proportion of foreign-born residents in the EU Member States were in some form of employment (52.6 %) than the native-born population (46.4 %). Given that relatively few persons are employers or working on their own-account, the most striking aspect of the analysis presented in Figure 10 concerns the differences in the proportion of the foreign-born and native-born populations that are employees and those that are not in employment.

On the one hand, there was a group of EU Member States where a higher proportion of the foreign-born population (compared with the native-born population) were employees and a lower proportion was not in employment. This was particularly the case in the southern EU Member States of Spain, Cyprus, Portugal, Malta, Italy, and Greece, as well as in Ireland, Slovenia and Luxembourg.

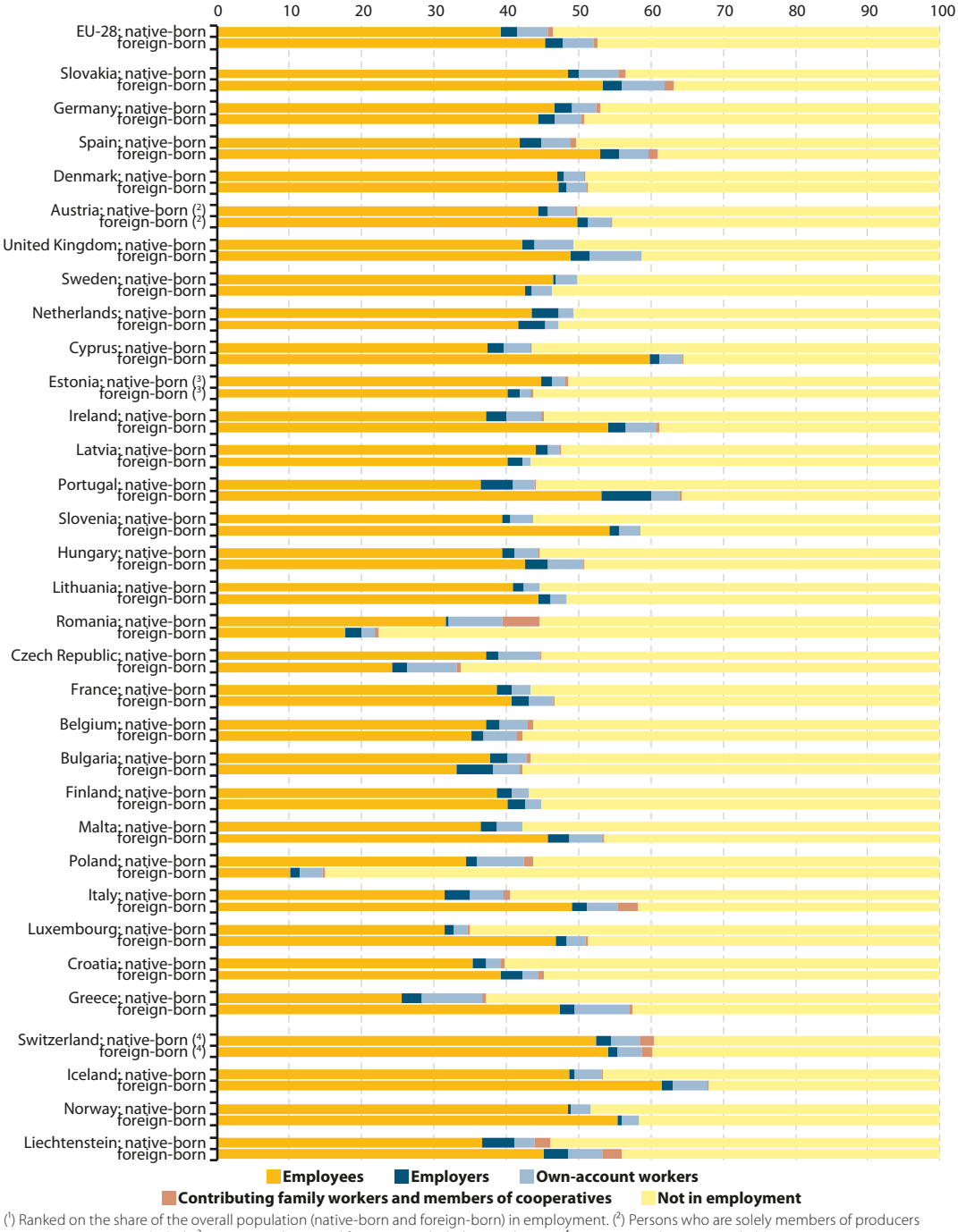
On the other hand, a second group of EU Member States were characterised by their foreign-born population displaying a relatively high share of people not in employment and a lower proportion of employees. These differences were most pronounced in Poland, Romania and the Czech Republic, and to a lesser degree in Sweden, Estonia, Latvia, Bulgaria, Germany, Belgium and the Netherlands.

Figure 9: Distribution of employment status, by place of birth, EU-28, 2011 ([1])
(% of persons employed)



([1]) Note the y-axis is cut.
([2]) Data for Austria: persons who are solely members of producers cooperatives are excluded.
([3]) Data for Estonia: persons in the armed forces are included.
Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC33)

Figure 10: Distribution of employment status, by place of birth, 2011 ([1])
(% of population)



([1]) Ranked on the share of the overall population (native-born and foreign-born) in employment. ([2]) Persons who are solely members of producers cooperatives are excluded. ([3]) Persons in the armed forces are included in employees. ([4]) Persons aged 15 years and older.

Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC33)

Occupation by place of birth

As noted above, migration policies within the EU for citizens of non-member countries are increasingly concerned with attracting migrants with particular profiles; note that while such policies may impact on new migrant arrivals, they are unlikely to affect those migrants already permanently resident within the EU.

Just over one fifth of foreign-born residents had elementary occupations (such as being labourers or cleaners)

Table 3 (also based on data from the population and housing census) provides information on the occupations of native-born and foreign-born residents. In 2011, the most striking difference was recorded in relation to the proportion of foreign-born and native-born residents who were classified as having elementary occupations. Just over one fifth (20.6 %) of all the foreign-born residents living in EU Member States who were in employment carried out elementary occupations such as being a cleaner, agricultural or construction labourer, food preparation assistant, or refuse worker. This could be compared with less than one tenth (9.7 %) of the native-born workforce.

Workers in elementary occupations accounted for a particularly high share of the foreign-born workforce in Italy, Cyprus, Greece, Slovenia, Spain, Luxembourg, Denmark and Germany, as their shares of the foreign-born workforce were at least 10 percentage points higher than within the native-born workforce.

By contrast, some 15.4 % of the EU Member States' native-born workforce was employed as a technician or associate professional, which was 4.5 percentage points higher than the corresponding share for the foreign-born workforce. Equally, a higher proportion of the native-born workforce was occupied as clerical support workers (3.3 percentage points difference) and professionals (2.7 points). Professional occupations cover, among others, scientists, engineers, health and teaching professionals, business and administration professionals, information and communications technology professionals, legal professionals, journalists and linguists. However, there were a number of EU Member States where a considerably higher proportion of the foreign-born workforce (compared to the native-born workforce) had a professional occupation, principally, Romania (16.5 percentage points difference), Poland (13.2 points), Hungary (6.9 points) and Bulgaria (6.3 points).

A REGIONAL ANALYSIS OF ELEMENTARY OCCUPATIONS

The population and housing census provides more detailed information at the level of NUTS level 2 regions. This shows (subject to data availability; no information for Belgium or Austria) that there were eight regions in the EU with a higher number of foreign-born residents (compared with native-born residents) who were employed in elementary occupations. These eight regions included: the Swedish capital region of Stockholm; two Greek regions (Peloponnisos and the capital region of Attiki), the French overseas region of Guyane; the capital and neighbouring region of Inner and Outer London in the United Kingdom; as well as Cyprus and Luxembourg (both single regions at this level of detail). In Luxembourg, the number of foreign-born residents with an elementary occupation was almost three times as high as the number of native-born residents with an elementary occupation.

The share of foreign-born residents with an elementary occupation was higher than the corresponding share among native-born residents in 209 out of the 252 NUTS level 2 regions for which data are available (again, no information for Belgium or Austria). The gap between these two shares was highest in three southern regions of the EU, namely, Sterea Ellada (Greece), Lombardia and Emilia-Romagna (both Italy); in all three cases the share of foreign-born residents with an elementary occupation was at least 20 percentage points higher than the corresponding share among native-born residents.

Table 3: Distribution of occupations, by place of birth, 2011
(% of persons employed)

	Managers		Professionals		Technicians and associate professionals		Clerical support workers		Service and sales workers		Skilled agricultural, forestry, and fishery workers		Craft and related trades workers		Plant and machine operators, and assemblers		Elementary occupations		Armed forces	
	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born
EU-28 (1)	6.2	5.4	16.1	13.4	15.4	10.8	11.0	7.7	16.7	18.3	3.9	1.5	12.8	13.8	7.6	8.3	9.7	20.6	0.6	0.3
Belgium	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Bulgaria	8.4	17.8	14.1	20.3	6.7	7.2	8.8	9.9	21.4	22.0	3.2	1.0	12.7	8.7	11.8	5.6	11.7	7.1	1.4	0.3
Czech Republic	6.3	7.2	17.0	17.3	20.0	15.7	6.1	4.6	15.0	16.4	1.6	1.5	16.0	16.1	13.8	13.9	3.9	7.0	0.4	0.3
Denmark	4.5	2.1	24.7	22.1	13.9	9.1	9.8	7.8	20.7	21.2	0.4	0.3	9.2	5.5	5.9	8.9	9.9	22.5	1.1	0.5
Germany	5.0	3.8	17.7	12.8	19.8	12.5	14.3	8.9	15.5	17.0	1.6	0.9	12.4	15.4	6.0	10.4	7.2	18.2	0.5	0.2
Estonia	10.3	8.0	17.4	14.0	15.3	13.3	6.1	4.9	13.9	12.8	1.8	0.7	15.0	17.6	11.2	14.2	7.9	14.3	1.2	0.2
Ireland	8.8	7.6	21.0	20.3	12.3	11.7	10.0	7.6	17.2	19.7	5.4	1.3	11.1	10.7	6.8	8.0	6.8	12.8	0.5	0.2
Greece	6.0	3.4	18.6	8.2	9.5	4.1	8.7	4.7	23.5	20.1	8.2	6.1	11.9	21.3	6.8	5.4	6.8	26.7	0.0	0.0
Spain	4.0	2.9	14.4	7.2	13.2	8.0	13.5	7.6	18.9	23.9	2.9	2.7	13.4	15.3	7.3	6.3	11.9	25.8	0.6	0.3
France (2)	6.4	6.1	14.7	14.1	19.6	14.0	10.6	7.9	15.1	17.1	3.2	1.9	11.2	14.3	9.0	9.5	9.2	14.6	1.1	0.6
Croatia	3.9	4.7	14.9	12.1	16.0	12.9	11.1	8.6	20.2	23.0	3.5	1.9	12.8	16.3	9.1	8.6	7.8	11.2	0.8	0.7
Italy	5.2	2.2	13.7	5.0	13.6	5.5	13.1	5.0	17.6	19.2	1.7	1.0	13.4	15.8	5.8	5.7	14.4	40.2	1.5	0.4
Cyprus	3.7	2.0	19.3	10.6	15.5	7.1	13.6	6.5	18.6	20.2	1.6	0.7	13.3	15.9	5.8	4.5	7.4	31.8	1.2	0.7
Latvia	11.1	10.9	16.8	15.1	12.6	11.2	5.5	4.8	16.3	14.7	1.3	0.7	14.7	17.1	10.1	11.8	11.2	13.5	0.4	0.1
Lithuania	10.6	9.6	21.8	20.0	9.6	8.9	4.0	3.6	13.5	12.1	3.3	2.1	15.9	19.4	10.2	11.6	10.7	12.5	0.4	0.2
Luxembourg	5.0	8.4	22.6	22.3	18.3	10.4	18.0	7.7	13.2	12.2	3.4	0.9	7.5	13.9	4.5	5.1	6.3	19.0	1.0	0.2
Hungary	4.7	5.3	14.1	21.0	15.1	14.9	7.4	6.9	16.7	18.4	2.9	2.2	15.0	13.0	12.5	8.3	11.1	9.6	0.5	0.2
Malta	9.7	13.9	14.9	17.0	12.8	14.0	11.3	10.4	20.0	18.4	1.4	0.5	11.4	11.7	7.2	3.9	10.3	9.6	1.0	0.5
Netherlands	8.1	6.0	24.0	20.0	16.9	14.1	10.1	9.5	18.0	18.4	2.6	1.3	9.3	10.5	4.2	5.7	6.4	14.3	0.5	0.3
Austria	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Poland	6.2	11.1	15.7	28.9	13.5	13.6	6.6	4.1	14.7	17.7	10.9	7.7	17.0	7.7	8.5	4.4	6.4	4.5	0.6	0.2
Portugal	6.9	6.4	13.7	16.0	10.7	10.4	9.1	8.3	19.7	21.8	2.3	1.8	16.8	13.9	6.4	4.2	13.6	16.7	0.7	0.5
Romania	2.5	13.0	15.0	31.5	7.9	11.7	4.0	3.7	13.7	19.4	22.9	6.8	15.0	5.2	8.3	5.0	10.7	3.5	0.0	0.0
Slovenia	5.5	3.9	18.6	7.8	17.2	9.3	9.0	4.6	14.0	10.5	2.6	0.9	14.2	24.5	9.0	12.9	9.0	25.4	0.9	0.3
Slovakia	5.1	5.8	12.2	13.4	14.9	14.3	10.7	10.4	15.6	15.1	1.7	1.9	14.9	13.3	14.0	13.1	10.3	12.0	0.5	0.6
Finland	3.8	2.3	18.7	18.3	18.8	12.0	7.6	5.4	20.5	24.2	3.3	2.2	11.0	11.4	9.4	8.9	6.5	15.1	0.5	0.1
Sweden	6.8	3.8	19.3	17.3	20.9	14.1	8.4	7.1	19.2	24.9	1.8	0.7	8.5	6.9	9.3	11.1	5.5	14.1	0.4	0.1
United Kingdom	10.6	10.2	15.9	20.2	13.5	11.7	12.1	8.5	16.9	14.9	1.4	0.4	10.8	9.2	7.3	8.4	11.6	16.5	0.0	0.0
Iceland	6.5	2.6	24.0	16.7	13.8	6.4	6.2	4.0	23.5	23.6	5.8	2.4	7.9	9.7	4.0	4.1	8.3	30.5	0.0	0.0
Liechtenstein	9.5	11.3	21.5	19.2	22.9	17.6	16.5	12.1	9.7	11.2	1.8	0.7	11.9	12.4	2.2	4.1	4.0	11.2	:	:
Norway	8.4	4.2	21.3	16.6	15.3	10.7	7.8	6.3	23.4	24.2	2.7	1.2	9.5	13.5	7.1	9.2	3.9	13.9	0.7	0.1
Switzerland (3)	10.4	11.3	21.7	19.1	21.2	14.6	10.7	7.1	14.7	17.8	3.0	0.7	11.6	12.8	3.4	6.0	3.2	10.6	0.1	0.0

(1) Excluding Belgium and Austria.
(2) Managers: low reliability.
(3) Persons aged 15 years and older.
Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC29)

Some 17.8 % of the foreign-born workers in Bulgaria were managers

According to the population and housing census, managers accounted for 5.4 % of the foreign-born workforce in the EU-28 in 2011. The relative share of managers in the foreign-born workforce was considerably higher in several of the EU Member States, rising to 17.8 % in Bulgaria, while it was also higher than 10 % in Malta, Romania, Poland, Latvia and the United Kingdom.

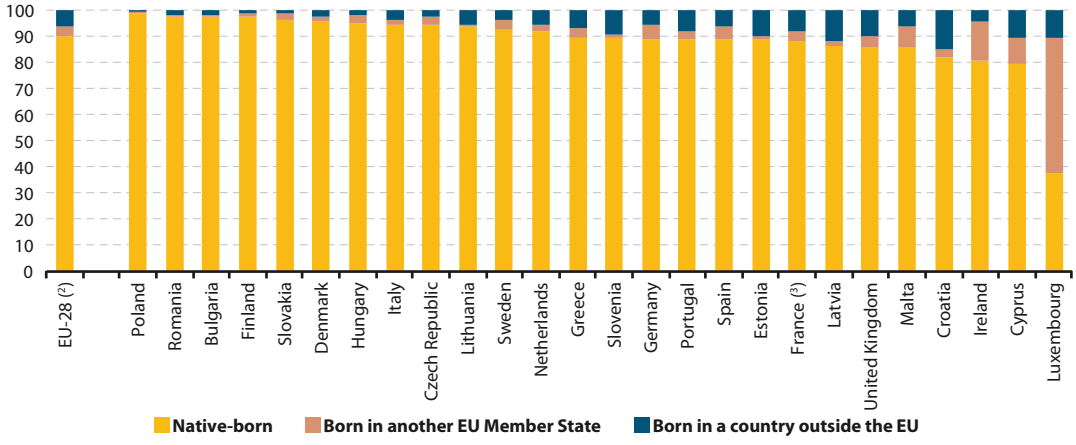
Figure 11 provides a contrasting analysis, showing the relative share of native-born and foreign-born managers in the total number of managers by EU Member State. In 2011, just less than 1 in 10 of all managers in the EU (no information available for Belgium and Austria) were foreign-born, with 6.2 % of the total born in a country outside the EU and 3.6 % born in another EU Member State.

More than half the managers in Luxembourg were born in another EU Member State

The relative share of foreign-born managers (from the EU or from non-member countries) was less than 5 % in Hungary, Denmark, Slovakia, Finland, Bulgaria, Romania and Poland; in the latter, foreign-born managers accounted for just 1.0 % of the total number of managers. The majority of the EU Member States reported that foreign-born managers accounted for between 5 % and 15 % of all managers, although there were somewhat higher shares in Croatia (17.6 %), Ireland (19.0 %) and Cyprus (20.1 %). The pattern in Luxembourg was atypical insofar as a large majority (62.1 %) of managers were foreign-born, with more than half (51.5 %) having been born in another EU Member State.

Luxembourg was one of only eight EU Member States where the share of foreign-born managers from other EU Member States was higher than the corresponding share for foreign-born managers from outside the EU. This difference was also quite large in Ireland, where managers born in another EU Member State accounted for 14.7 % of the total number of managers, compared with 4.3 % among those born in a foreign country outside the EU. The other six Member States that recorded much smaller differences (not greater than 2.1 percentage points) were: Malta, Slovakia, Hungary, the Czech Republic, Finland and Sweden.

Figure 11: Distribution of managers, by place of birth, 2011 ([1])
(% of all managers)



([1]) Belgium and Austria: not available.
([2]) Excluding Belgium and Austria.
([3]) Low reliability.
Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC29)

Economic activity by place of birth

The information presented in Table 4 and in Figure 12 complements that already shown for occupations, insofar as it refers to the economic activities (by NACE) where foreign-born and native-born residents were employed in 2011; it is also derived from the population and housing census.

A lower proportion of the foreign-born workforce was working in the public administrations of most EU Member States

One quarter (25.0 %) of the EU Member States' native-born population who were in employment in 2011 were working within public administration, defence, education, health and social work; this equated to 51.2 million persons. By contrast, there were 4.9 million foreign-born residents who were working in the same economic activities, equivalent to 18.9 % of the foreign-born workforce. The difference in the relative shares of these two subgroups — 6.1 percentage points — was the largest recorded for any of the activities analysed in Figure 12.

A more detailed analysis, by EU Member State, is provided in Table 4. This shows that a slightly higher share of the foreign-born workforce (compared with the native-born workforce) was employed in public administration, defence, education, health and social work in Romania, Slovakia and Sweden, with the difference rising to 2.4 percentage points in Poland. By contrast, in all of the remaining Member States, the share of the native-born workforce employed in public administration, defence, education, health and social work was higher, with a gap of more than 10 percentage points in Spain, Greece, Cyprus and Luxembourg. In Luxembourg, almost half (46.7 %) of the native-born workforce was working in these activities. These figures suggest that in some of the EU Member States there may be considerable — formal or informal — barriers which prevent the occupation of foreign-born residents in these activities.

A higher proportion of the EU Member States' native-born workforce (compared with their foreign-born workforce) was also employed in agriculture, forestry and fishing (2.1 percentage points), industry (1.5 points), financial and insurance activities (0.9 points), and information and communications (0.1 point). By contrast, higher shares of the foreign-born workforce were employed in various service activities and in the construction sector.

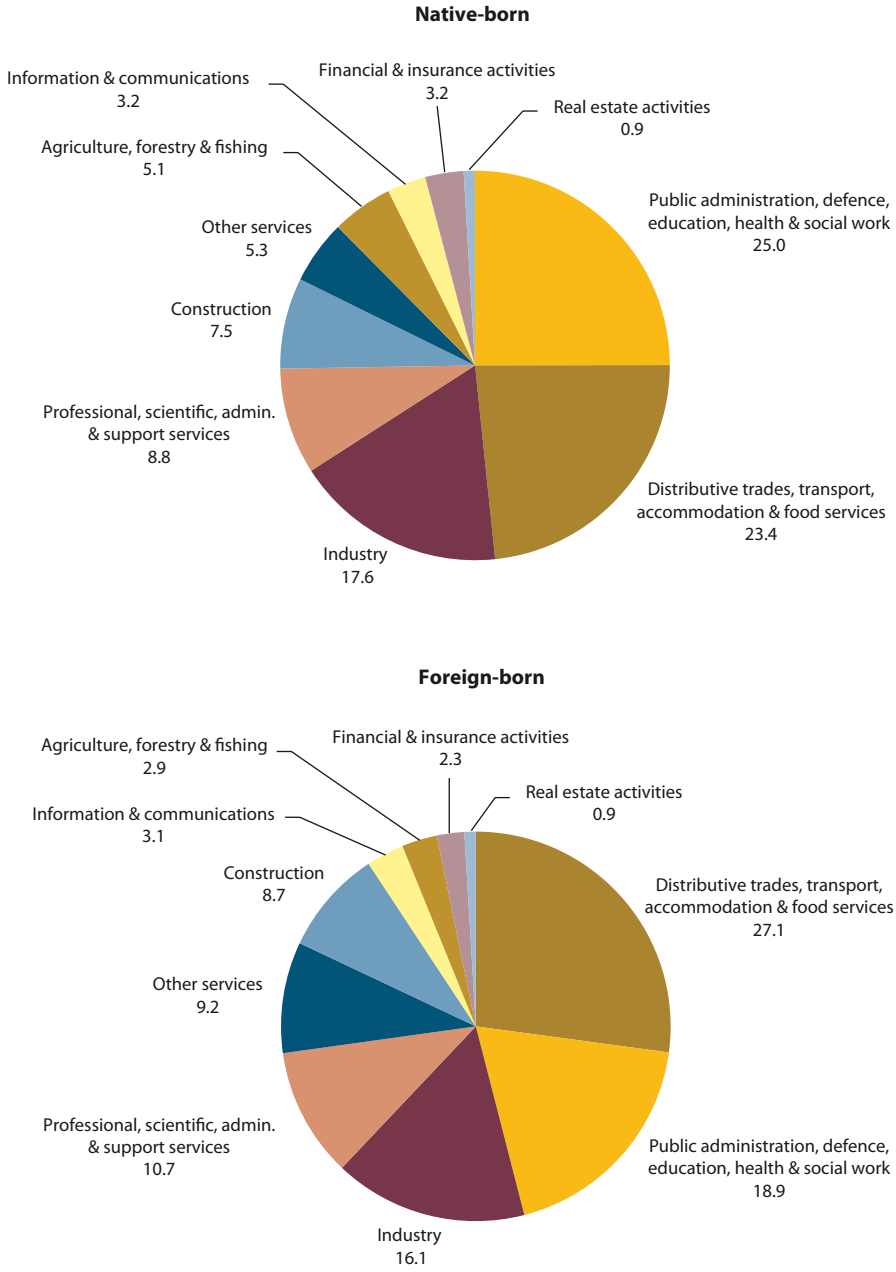
In the Baltic Member States and Germany, a relatively high share of the foreign-born workforce was employed within the industrial economy. In 2011, these activities accounted for 21–22 % of the foreign-born workforce in Latvia and Lithuania and for close to 28 % in Estonia and Germany, while the share of the foreign-born workforce employed in industrial activities was 3.6 percentage points higher than for the native-born workforce in Lithuania, 4.0 points higher in Latvia, 5.3 points higher in Germany, peaking at 7.4 points higher in Estonia. Italy, Ireland, the Netherlands and Greece were the only other EU Member States where a higher proportion of foreign-born residents were employed within the industrial economy, although the shares for the native-born workforce were never more than 2 percentage points lower.

Table 4: Distribution of employment by activity, EU-28, 2011
(% of persons employed)

	Agriculture, forestry & fishing		Industry		Construction		Distributive trades, transport, accomm. & food services		Information & communications		Financial & insurance activities		Real estate activities		Professional, scientific, admin. & support services		Public admin., defence, education, health & social work		Other services	
	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born
EU-28	5.1	2.9	17.6	16.1	7.5	8.7	23.4	27.1	3.2	3.1	3.2	2.3	0.9	0.9	8.8	10.7	25.0	18.9	5.3	9.2
Belgium	1.4	1.2	13.1	9.9	6.7	7.7	23.0	26.1	2.6	2.3	3.4	1.8	0.7	0.7	12.7	21.4	32.6	23.6	3.8	5.2
Bulgaria	5.5	1.8	23.4	18.2	7.9	6.3	29.1	35.2	2.3	3.9	2.1	1.9	0.9	2.2	7.4	8.4	17.3	15.4	4.1	6.5
Czech Republic	3.1	2.2	28.6	27.6	7.8	9.8	21.6	22.8	3.2	4.4	2.8	2.3	0.8	1.8	7.8	10.7	20.5	14.2	3.8	4.3
Denmark	2.5	3.2	12.4	12.4	6.3	2.7	23.5	27.3	3.6	3.3	3.1	1.6	1.7	1.0	9.7	16.1	32.9	28.4	4.3	4.2
Germany	2.2	1.2	22.8	28.1	5.8	5.8	18.8	23.6	5.2	3.8	3.7	1.6	0.9	0.7	7.5	8.6	25.8	16.5	7.2	10.2
Estonia	4.1	1.7	20.4	27.8	9.3	8.6	25.6	25.8	3.1	1.8	1.8	0.9	1.5	3.7	7.8	7.7	21.6	18.0	4.8	3.9
Ireland	5.9	2.0	12.4	13.8	8.2	6.7	24.3	33.4	3.5	5.1	5.3	3.9	0.5	0.3	8.6	10.2	27.0	20.1	4.2	4.3
Greece	8.8	11.6	11.2	11.9	6.2	17.0	31.3	29.8	2.7	1.3	2.9	0.9	0.2	0.1	8.3	7.2	24.6	10.7	3.7	9.5
Spain	4.8	6.9	14.2	10.4	9.8	13.3	26.1	31.5	3.0	2.4	2.7	1.2	0.5	0.6	8.6	7.2	23.1	11.8	7.2	14.6
France	2.9	1.4	14.4	10.9	6.6	10.5	21.9	23.3	2.8	3.2	3.6	2.8	1.3	1.9	10.1	14.4	31.4	25.2	5.0	6.5
Croatia	5.3	3.5	20.9	18.8	7.6	14.3	29.2	31.0	2.8	2.0	2.9	2.2	0.3	0.4	6.7	6.7	20.4	17.3	3.9	3.8
Italy	5.5	6.9	18.6	20.3	8.2	11.8	23.6	24.0	2.7	1.2	3.3	0.9	0.7	0.3	9.2	3.8	21.9	12.2	6.2	18.5
Cyprus	2.1	2.7	9.9	7.4	10.6	14.1	29.9	33.3	2.7	1.9	6.1	2.1	0.5	0.5	8.5	6.6	24.2	7.4	5.5	24.1
Latvia	5.5	3.0	17.2	21.2	7.5	8.4	29.3	33.6	2.3	1.6	2.4	1.6	2.3	3.6	7.2	6.2	21.5	16.8	4.7	4.1
Lithuania	6.5	4.4	18.6	22.3	8.2	8.8	28.1	28.5	2.0	1.6	1.6	0.9	1.2	1.5	7.0	7.0	23.1	21.3	3.7	3.8
Luxembourg	2.6	0.6	8.5	8.0	4.4	16.2	18.6	25.1	3.8	3.2	9.9	14.2	0.7	0.9	:	:	46.7	15.9	4.8	15.9
Hungary	4.5	3.4	22.1	19.6	6.7	6.3	25.1	28.3	2.7	4.1	2.5	2.6	0.9	1.2	7.9	9.0	23.6	19.9	4.1	5.5
Malta	1.2	0.5	16.1	11.2	6.4	8.7	30.6	31.1	3.4	4.0	4.4	4.1	0.6	0.6	8.4	11.4	24.7	18.8	4.3	9.6
Netherlands	2.1	1.1	10.3	11.3	6.0	3.6	25.8	26.1	3.0	3.1	3.3	2.5	1.0	0.6	14.7	24.4	29.4	22.9	4.4	4.5
Austria	3.9	1.1	16.2	14.2	7.1	9.8	25.8	32.3	2.5	1.6	3.5	1.5	1.7	2.1	10.9	17.8	24.0	14.2	4.5	5.2
Poland	12.2	8.8	23.4	16.6	8.7	5.8	22.6	26.3	1.9	2.7	2.5	2.2	0.9	1.3	5.4	9.3	19.2	21.6	3.1	5.4
Portugal	3.1	2.0	19.2	12.6	9.1	10.7	27.9	29.7	2.3	2.5	2.2	2.1	0.6	0.8	8.2	11.1	22.7	21.1	4.7	7.4
Romania	27.5	8.6	19.8	14.1	7.5	5.5	19.1	35.4	1.8	4.2	1.4	2.1	0.2	0.9	5.1	7.7	13.8	15.2	3.8	6.4
Slovenia	2.9	1.0	26.2	24.5	6.3	24.6	23.7	22.0	2.9	1.4	3.2	1.2	0.5	0.6	9.2	10.6	21.4	11.8	3.7	2.4
Slovakia	7.0	7.3	28.7	28.6	7.5	6.5	22.1	21.7	1.9	1.9	1.7	1.5	0.9	0.9	5.9	6.3	21.8	22.4	2.5	2.8
Finland	3.8	2.3	15.9	13.8	6.6	6.2	21.6	27.2	3.7	4.1	2.1	0.9	0.9	0.5	11.5	18.5	29.1	21.8	4.8	4.6
Sweden	2.4	0.8	14.8	13.1	7.4	4.7	20.3	25.4	4.0	2.8	2.1	1.2	1.6	1.0	10.9	14.3	32.0	32.3	4.5	4.4
United Kingdom	1.1	0.5	10.8	9.0	8.4	5.3	26.5	30.7	3.6	4.6	4.1	4.7	1.4	1.2	10.9	13.5	28.3	25.5	5.0	4.9
Iceland	6.0	4.4	12.7	25.0	5.8	6.3	24.1	25.8	4.5	2.6	4.5	1.3	0.7	0.5	7.3	10.5	29.6	19.6	4.8	4.0
Liechtenstein	1.5	0.8	19.6	28.5	8.0	9.5	13.0	16.8	2.4	1.9	10.7	6.2	0.3	0.4	16.6	15.3	24.0	15.6	3.7	5.1
Norway	3.0	1.5	12.3	12.6	7.5	8.8	22.8	25.5	3.6	2.7	2.1	0.9	1.1	0.8	9.2	16.3	34.7	27.6	3.7	3.4
Switzerland (1)	2.7	1.2	15.2	17.5	6.4	8.1	23.5	26.4	3.5	3.1	7.4	6.7	1.2	1.3	11.7	13.5	24.0	18.0	4.3	4.2

(1) Persons aged 15 years and older.
Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC15)

Figure 12: Distribution of employment by activity, EU-28, 2011 ([1])
(% of persons employed)



([1]) Figures do not sum to 100 % due to rounding.
Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC29)

Qualifications by place of birth

Evidence presented earlier in this chapter concerning the occupations and economic activities in which foreign-born residents work appears to suggest that it remains relatively difficult for foreign-born residents to convert their educational attainment into occupations generally associated with higher qualifications, and that a considerable proportion of foreign-born residents may therefore be overqualified in their jobs.

DID YOU KNOW?

In 2011, the highest proportion of foreign-born persons with a tertiary level of education was recorded in North Eastern Scotland (81.6 % of the population aged 25 and over).

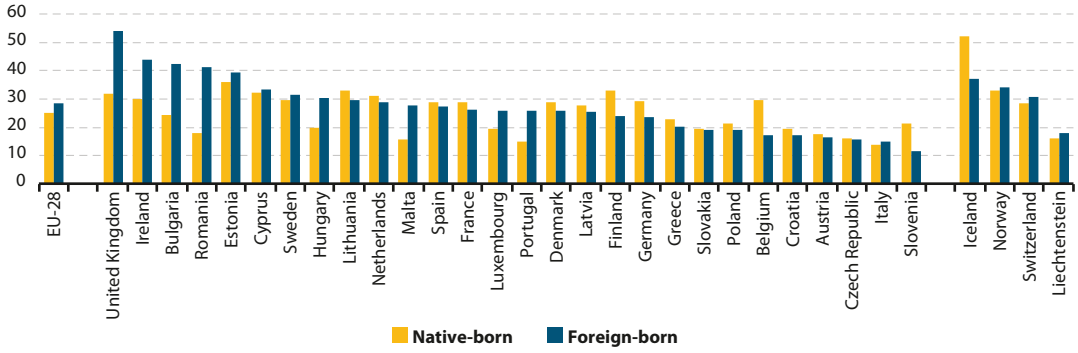
For more information: refer to the CENSUS HUB

A higher share of foreign-born residents possessed a tertiary level of educational attainment

Figure 13 presents an analysis of the educational attainment of the native-born and foreign born populations (among those aged 25 and over); this data is from the population and housing census. In 2011, one quarter of the native-born population in the EU Member State had a tertiary level of educational attainment (as defined by ISCED 1997 levels 5 and 6), while the corresponding share among foreign-born residents was somewhat higher, at 28.5 %.

In the United Kingdom, more than half (54.2 %) of all foreign-born residents aged 25 and over in 2011 possessed a tertiary level of educational attainment; shares of 40–44 % were recorded in Estonia, Romania, Bulgaria and Ireland. In 2011, the gap between the proportion of foreign-born and native-born residents in the United Kingdom with a tertiary level of educational attainment was 22.4 percentage points. This was exceeded in Romania (23.6 points), while double-digit differences in favour of foreign-born residents were also recorded in Bulgaria, Ireland, Malta, Portugal and Hungary. By contrast, a smaller proportion of foreign-born rather than native-born residents in Germany had a tertiary level of educational attainment (5.4 percentage points difference). Even wider gaps in favour of native-born residents were recorded in Finland (8.8 points), Slovenia (10.0 points) and Belgium (12.3 points).

Figure 13: Tertiary educational attainment, by place of birth, 2011
(% of population aged 25 and over)



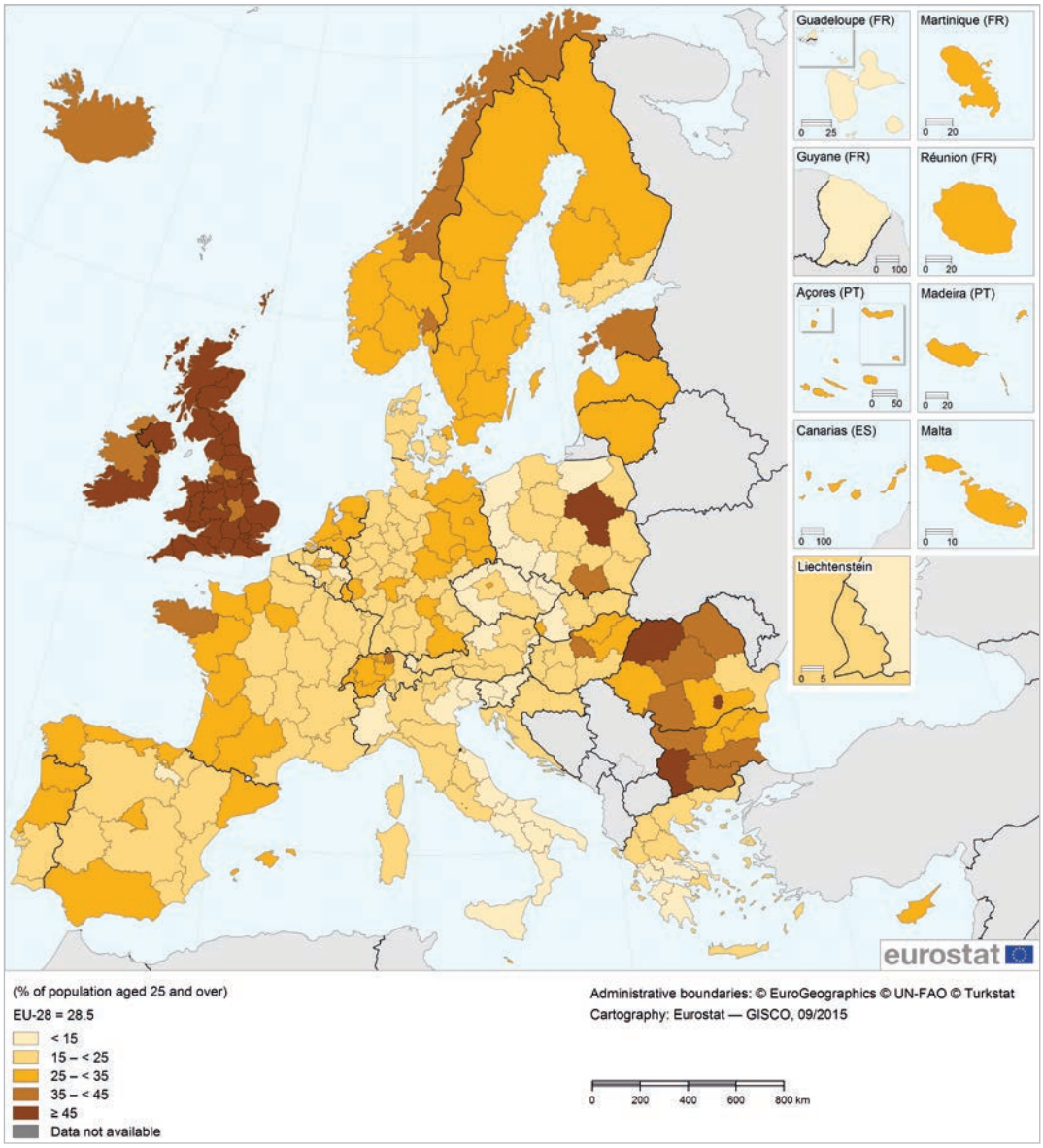
Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC34 and HC45)

North Eastern Scotland recorded the highest share of foreign-born residents possessing a tertiary level of educational attainment

A regional analysis for the same indicator is provided in Map 1 (once again the source of this information is the population and housing census). The map confirms, to some degree, the results shown in Figure 13 insofar as many of the regions with very high levels of tertiary education attainment for foreign-born residents were located in the United Kingdom. This was particularly true in North Eastern Scotland — which includes the city of Aberdeen which provides support to much of the British offshore oil and gas activity —which recorded the highest share (81.6 %) of tertiary educational attainment among its foreign-born residents among any of the NUTS level 2 regions. It was followed by the neighbouring region of Eastern Scotland — which includes Edinburgh — where a ratio of 77.7 % was reported.

There were 10 NUTS level 2 regions in the EU-28 where fewer than 10 % of the foreign-born residents had a tertiary level of educational attainment in 2011, and they were: four regions from the Czech Republic (Ji-hozápad, Severovýchod, Moravskoslezsko and Severozápad), two Polish regions (Lubuskie and Opolskie), the Ciudad Autónoma de Melilla (Spain) and the French overseas region of Guyane; the latter had the lowest share in the EU-28 at 6.2 %.

Map 1: Share of foreign-born persons aged 25 years and over with a tertiary level of educational attainment, by NUTS level 2 region, 2011 ([1])
(%)



([1]) The Netherlands: NUTS level 1 regions. Data for several regions in Spain, France and Poland have low reliability.
Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC34 and HC55)

5

Changing places — geographic mobility

Introduction

The EU's population is increasingly mobile: while most people only move around the EU on a temporary basis for holidays (see the end of this chapter for more details) or business trips, a small but growing proportion of Europeans relocate to other EU Member States on a (semi-) permanent basis.

The free movement of persons constitutes one of the fundamental freedoms of the internal market, and is enshrined in law (Article 45 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union and subsequent secondary legislation). As such, citizens of EU Member States, together with their immediate family — spouses / registered partners, children, and dependent parents or grandparents — are entitled to:

- look for a job in another EU Member State;
- work in another EU Member State without a work permit;
- live in another EU Member State while working or once they have retired.

Many people spend a considerable proportion of their time at home, and give considerable weight to their living conditions when determining overall measures in relation to their quality of life.

Moving home

Residential mobility — movements from one place of residence to another — may be viewed in the context of each individual's journey through life, whereby there are a number of steps that often result in people moving home. One of the biggest decisions is usually that of leaving the parental home: thereafter, other major life events such as deciding to live with someone else or having children also impact on people's choices over where they live and the type of dwelling they would like to live in. A range of additional factors also impact on residential mobility, such as the location of higher education establishments, career opportunities, retirement options, or the availability and price of dwellings for rent or purchase.

A quite recent development is the increase in migration of students and of retired people. Retirement migration is an increasing form of mobility at the later stages of the life course of Europeans. In recent years, retirement destinations have become more diverse and extend beyond the local, regional and even national level to increasingly involve international localities, particularly in southern Europe.

Populations on the move by tenure status

Residential mobility peaked in the Nordic Member States and the United Kingdom

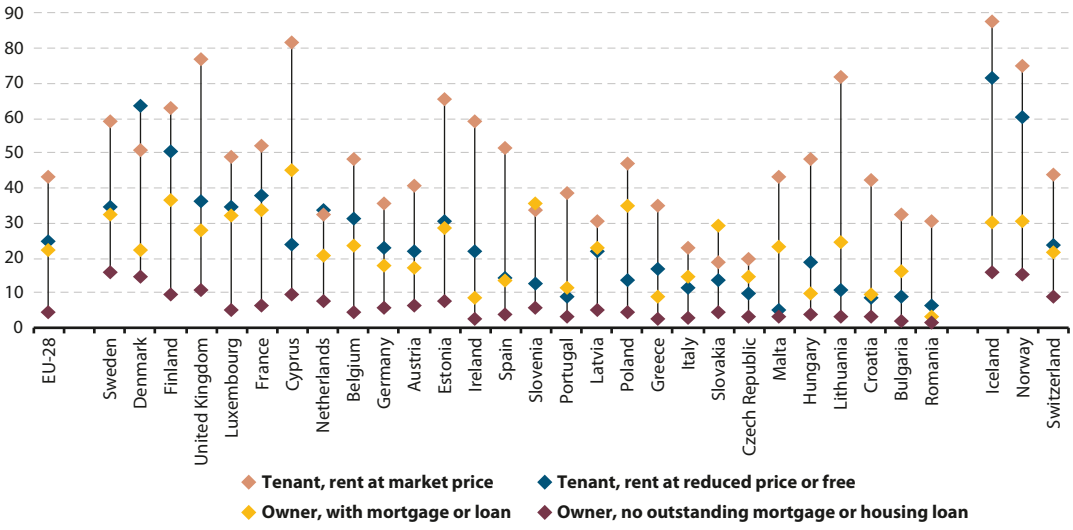
According to an ad-hoc module that formed part of the EU statistics on income and living conditions (EU-SILC) survey in 2012, some 17.6 % of the EU-28's population moved home during the five-year period up to 2012. The highest mobility rates were recorded in the Nordic Member States: some 40.2 % of the Swedish population moved during this period, while around one third of the population in Denmark (34.3 %) and Finland (31.9 %) moved home; the United Kingdom (30.8 %) was the only other Member State to record a share above 30 %. At the other end of the range, people tended to be less mobile in the southern and eastern EU Member States, for example, fewer than 5 % of the population moved in Croatia, Bulgaria and Romania during the five-year period up to 2012.

By tenure status, tenants renting at market prices had the highest degree of mobility

Figure 1 shows an analysis of the proportion of people moving home during the five-year period up to 2012 by tenure status; this data comes from EU-SILC. Private tenants (people who rent their accommodation at market prices) were more likely to move home than homeowners: across the EU-28, some 43.2 % of private tenants moved during the five-year period up to 2012, this share was almost twice as high as that recorded among homeowners with a mortgage (22.0 %).

There were 10 EU Member States where more than half of the population in private rental accommodation moved during the five-year period up to 2012. These high degrees of mobility peaked in Cyprus (81.6 %), the United Kingdom (77.1 %) and Lithuania (72.1 %) which may reflect, at least to some degree, relatively relaxed regulatory environments for renting or flexible labour markets. By contrast, lower degrees of residential mobility may be recorded in those rental markets characterised by more complex regulatory environments, as controls on rental prices or the length of contracts may 'lock-in' existing tenants. The lowest shares of residential mobility among those renting at market prices were recorded in Italy, the Czech Republic and Slovakia, with around one fifth of this group moving during the five-year period up to 2012.

Figure 1: Population having moved within the last five-year period, by tenure status, 2012 (1)
(%)



(1) Ranked on overall share for all types of tenure.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: ilc_hcmp05)

Home ownership and social housing tended to result in lower levels of mobility…

In the EU-28, more than one fifth (22.0 %) of all homeowners with a mortgage or housing loan had moved home during the five-year period up to 2012. This lower level of residential mobility among homeowners — compared with those living in private rental accommodation — may, at least in part, be explained by the higher transaction costs that are generally associated with buying or selling a property. These charges, which may act as a barrier to mobility, include registration costs, sales taxes, legal and notary fees, as well as estate agent fees. There were 10 EU Member States where more than one quarter of all homeowners with a mortgage had moved during the five-year period up to 2012; this share rose to 35–37 % in Poland, Slovenia and Finland, and peaked at 44.3 % in Cyprus.

By contrast, only 4.7 % of EU-28 homeowners with no outstanding mortgage or housing loan moved during the five-year period up to 2012. These figures also suggests that residential mobility may be lower in those EU Member States that are characterised by high levels of home ownership, while those economies with a more established rental market may be characterised by higher degrees of mobility. There were only three EU Member States where more than 1 in 10 homeowners without a mortgage or housing loan had moved during the five-year period up to 2012: Sweden (16.2 %), Denmark (14.5 %) and the United Kingdom (11.1 %).

…although this was not the case for those living in reduced price or free accommodation in Denmark and the Netherlands

Almost one quarter (24.5 %) of EU-28 tenants with reduced or free rent (for example, those living in social housing) moved home during the five-year period up to 2012; this could be contrasted with a 43.2 % share for private tenants in rental accommodation. This gap between the two types of tenants was particularly pronounced in Lithuania and Cyprus, where the proportion of tenants renting at market prices who moved during the five-year period up to 2012 was 61.3 and 57.4 percentage points higher than among those renting at a reduced price or free.

By contrast, the degree of mobility among tenants renting at reduced prices or free was particularly high in Denmark (63.9 %) and Finland (51.2 %), where more than half of those concerned moved during the five-year period up to 2012. Denmark and the Netherlands were the only EU Member States where residential mobility was higher for tenants living in reduced price or free accommodation compared with tenants living in private rented accommodation.

Populations on the move by degree of urbanisation

Europeans living in cities were more likely to move than those living in rural areas

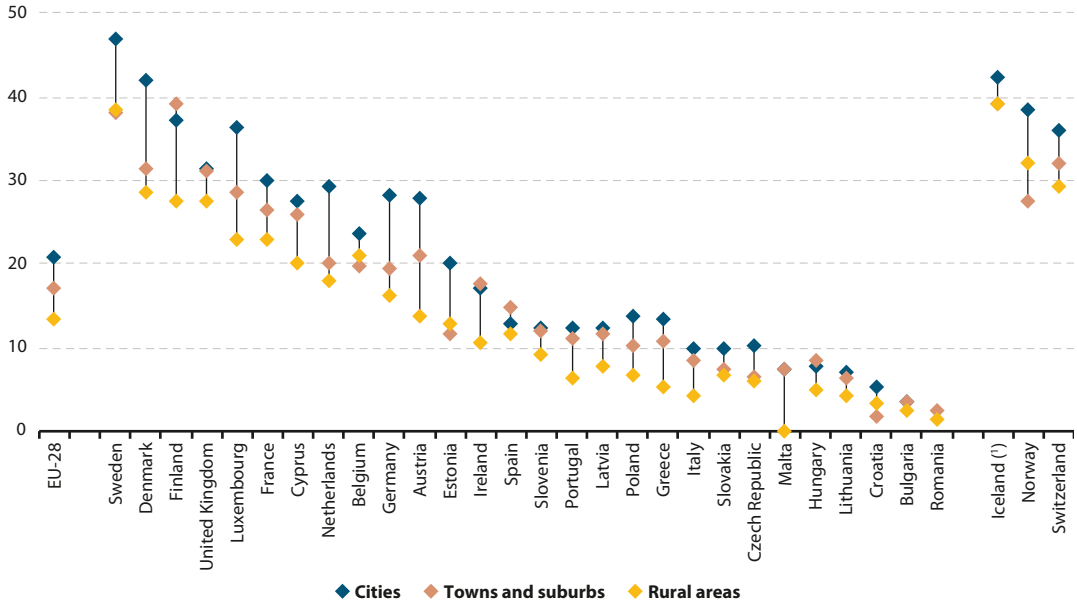
Figure 2 (also derived from the ad-hoc housing module that formed part of EU-SILC) provides an alternative analysis of those persons who moved during the five-year period up to 2012, with information according to the degree of urbanisation. It shows that across the EU-28, there was a higher likelihood that people living in cities (20.9 %) had moved during the five-year period up to 2012 than those living in rural areas (13.4 %). This pattern held in each of the EU Member States: in Austria, Luxembourg, Denmark, Germany and the Netherlands the share of city-dwellers having moved during the previous five years was at least 10 percentage points higher than the share recorded among people living in rural areas.

Home ownership by country of birth

The highest levels of home ownership were recorded for native-born populations

According to EU-SILC, almost three quarters (73.6 %) of the EU's native-born population (aged 18 and over) was living in an owner-occupied home in 2013. This share was considerably higher than the corresponding shares recorded for residents born in other EU Member States (50.9 % were homeowners) or countries outside of the EU (41.5 % were homeowners) (see Figure 3).

Figure 2: Population having moved within the last five-year period, by degree of urbanisation, 2012 (1)
(% of population)

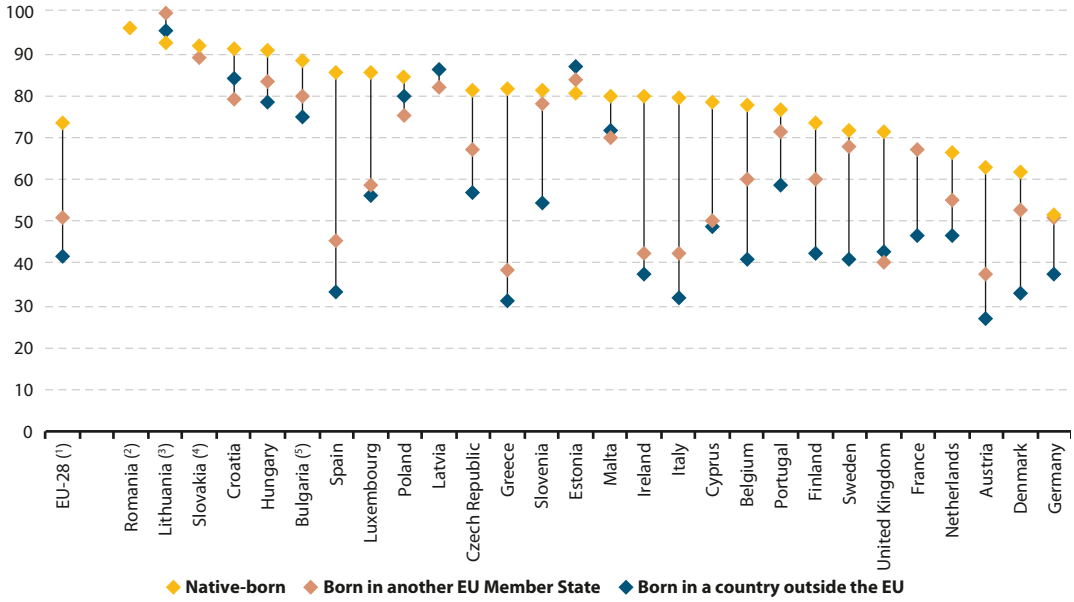


(1) Towns and suburbs: not applicable.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: ilc_hcmp05)

It is interesting to note that there were considerable differences between the EU Member States in the proportion of native-born populations who were homeowners. In excess of 90 % of the native-born population in Romania, Lithuania, Slovakia, Croatia and Hungary lived in an owner-occupied home, a share that fell to between 62 % and 66 % in Denmark, Austria, the Netherlands and France, with Germany recording a much lower share of native-born persons living in owner-occupied homes (51.9 %). There is a thriving rental sector in Germany, which may be promoted by increased security of tenure for private tenants (for example, an unlimited duration for contracts).

This pattern of higher home ownership for native-born residents was repeated in most of the EU Member States and was particularly pronounced in Spain, Greece, Italy and Ireland. By contrast, the proportion of homeowners in France was slightly higher among those born in another EU Member State (67.4 %) than it was for native-born residents (66.4 %) and in Germany there was also little difference (51.2 % of those born in another EU Member State lived in an owner-occupied home, compared with 51.9 % among native-born residents). There was a different pattern in the Baltic Member States, where home ownership tended to be higher among foreign-born residents, whether from another EU Member State or from a country outside of the EU.

Figure 3: Owner-occupied homes, by country of birth, 2013
(% of population aged 18 and over)



(1) Born in another EU Member State and born in a country outside the EU: estimates.
(2) Native-born: low reliability. Born in another EU Member State and born in a country outside the EU: not available.
(3) Born in another EU Member State: low reliability.
(4) Born in a country outside the EU: not available.
(5) Born in another EU Member State and born in a country outside the EU: low reliability.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: ilc_lvps16)

European residents on the move

Almost 32 million persons moved home in the EU during the year prior to the census

Having established some general patterns of mobility and home ownership across the EU Member States, this next section looks in more detail at those who moved home during the 12-month prior to the population and housing census conducted in 2011. There were almost 32 million persons in the EU (excluding Bulgaria, for which data are not provided) who changed their usual residence during this period: of these, over 7 million persons moved in each of France and the United Kingdom (22.7 % and 23.4 % of the EU total).

DID YOU KNOW?

The highest numbers of residents who changed their dwelling during the 12-month period prior to the population and housing census being conducted were recorded in Inner London-East (384 thousand), Grande Lisboa (287 thousand) and Paris (279 thousand) — these were the highest in absolute values in 2011 across any of the NUTS level 3 regions in the EU.

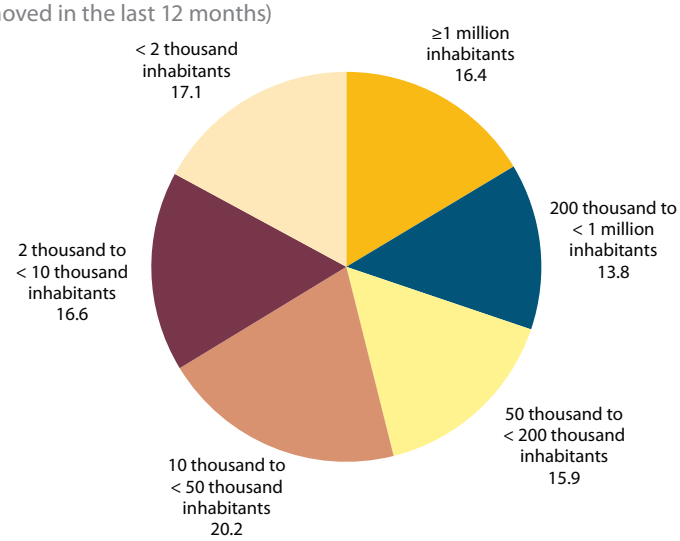
For more information: refer to the CENSUS HUB

Almost 32 million persons moved home in the EU-28 during the year prior to the census conducted in 2011.

Figure 4 shows the distribution of EU residents who moved, according to the size of the locality

to which they moved. At opposite ends of the spectrum, there were roughly equal shares for those who moved into localities with at least one million inhabitants (16.4 % of the total number of

Figure 4: Residents who moved in the 12-month period prior to the census, by size of locality, EU-28, 2011 (1)
(% of those who moved in the last 12 months)



(1) Excluding Bulgaria.
Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC39)

persons who moved during the year prior to the census) and those who moved into localities with fewer than 2 thousand inhabitants (17.1 %).

Socioeconomic characteristics of residents who moved in the 12-month period prior to the census

Having examined the flows of people moving into and around the EU-28, this next section turns to look at some of the socioeconomic characteristics of those residents who moved during the 12-month period prior to the population and housing census (irrespective of where they came from).

Those in the labour market had a higher propensity to move home...

Figure 5 shows that approximately half (50.2 %) of the total population of the EU-28 who moved during the 12-month period prior to the census were in employment, while 42.5 % were economically inactive (including those in education or in retirement) and 7.3 % were unemployed. These figures can be compared with totals for the whole of the EU-28 population in 2011, when 43.6 % of the population were employed, 4.7 % were unemployed, and 51.8 % were inactive. As such, those in employment and unemployment had a higher propensity to move home than the inactive population.

Those in the labour force (the employed and unemployed) accounted for more than 60 % of the people who moved in Germany and Luxembourg (where one of the main drivers for changing

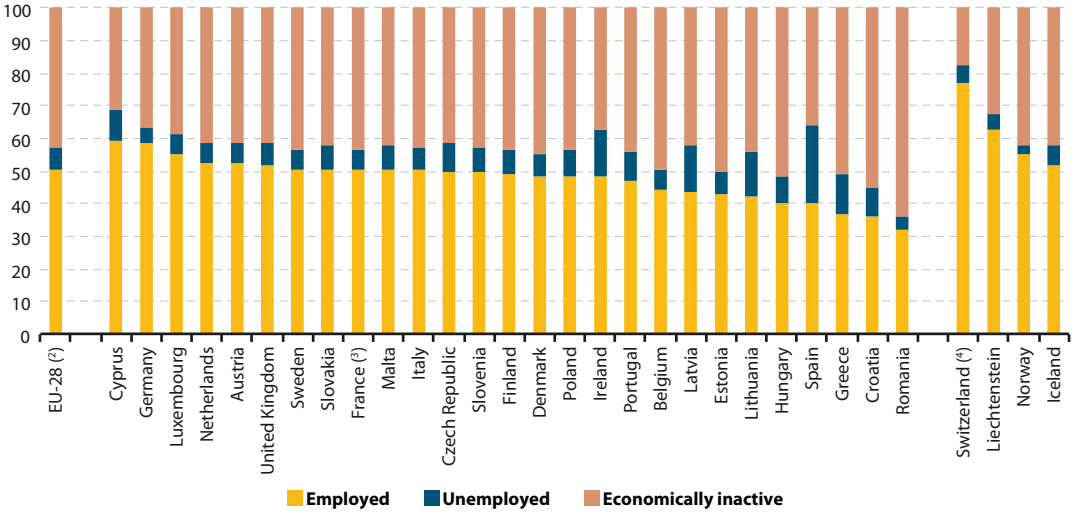
residence appeared to be new job opportunities); this was also the case in Cyprus, Ireland and Spain, three of the economies that were most affected by the financial and economic crisis, where unemployed persons may have been relocating in search of a new job or because they could no longer afford to pay for their home, be it a rental property or owner-occupied with a mortgage. For example, almost one quarter (23.6 %) of the people who moved in Spain during the 12-month period prior to the census were unemployed.

... while the likelihood of moving was higher among younger persons

An analysis by employment status and by age — as shown in Figure 6 — provides evidence that the likelihood of someone moving home decreases as a function of their age; this information is also derived from the population and housing census. People aged 15–29 years accounted for 44.4 % of the total number of employed persons who moved home in the EU-28 during the 12-month period prior to the census. Economic theories of mobility are largely based on the assumption that people try to maximise their net gains (their increased earnings potential minus the costs of moving); therefore, younger persons tend to have a greater incentive to move, as their total possible earnings are greater, given they have a longer working life ahead. Such differences may also reflect, in part, the relatively precarious nature of employment for many in this age group, but may also reflect a number of different changes in personal situations — such as leaving the parental home, deciding to live with someone else, or choosing to start a family.

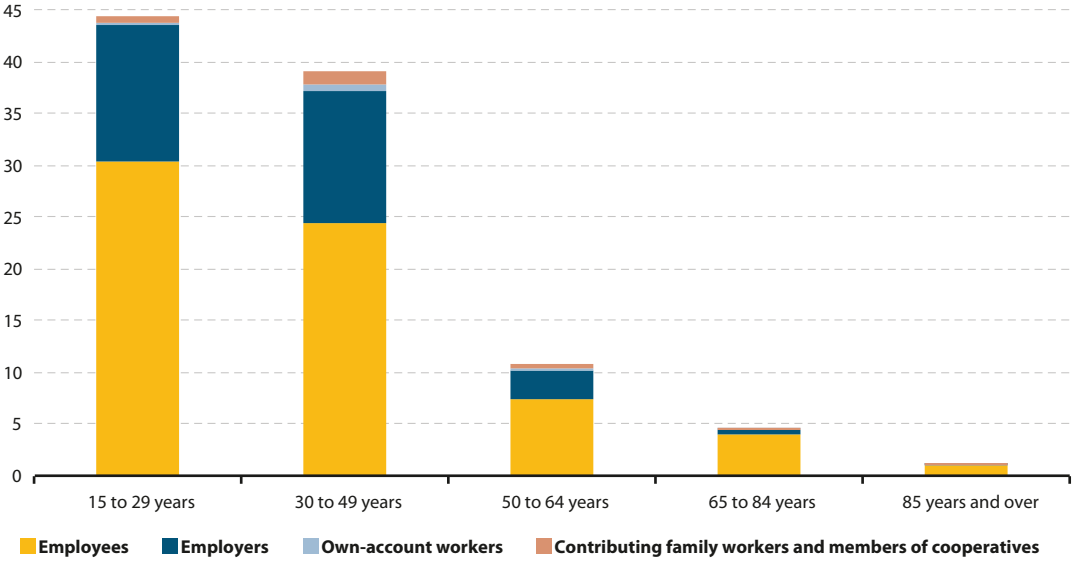
Figure 5: Residents who moved in the 12-month period prior to the census, by activity status, 2011 ([1])

(% of the total number of persons who moved)



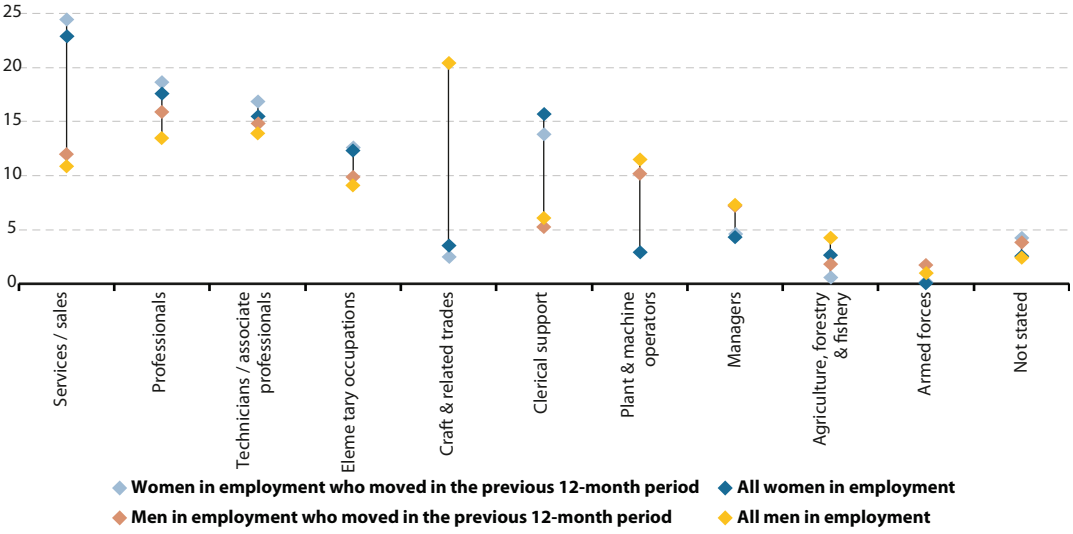
([1]) Bulgaria: not available.
([2]) Excluding Bulgaria.
([3]) Low reliability.
([4]) Persons aged 15 years and older.
Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC17)

Figure 6: Residents who moved in the 12-month period prior to the census, by employment status and by age, EU-28, 2011 (1)
(% of persons aged 15 years and over who were in employment and moved)



(1) Excluding Bulgaria, Denmark, Germany, Spain, Italy, Lithuania, Finland and Sweden. Estonia: persons in the armed forces are included in employees. Austria: persons who are solely members of producers cooperatives are excluded.
Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC12)

Figure 7: Resident population, by occupation, sex and residential mobility, EU-28, 2011 (1)
(% of men / women aged 15 years and over who were in employment)



(1) Ranked on the share of people moving for both sexes. Excluding Belgium, Bulgaria and Austria. France: low reliability.
Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC17)

People in occupations and economic activities associated with higher degrees of educational attainment had a higher propensity to be more mobile

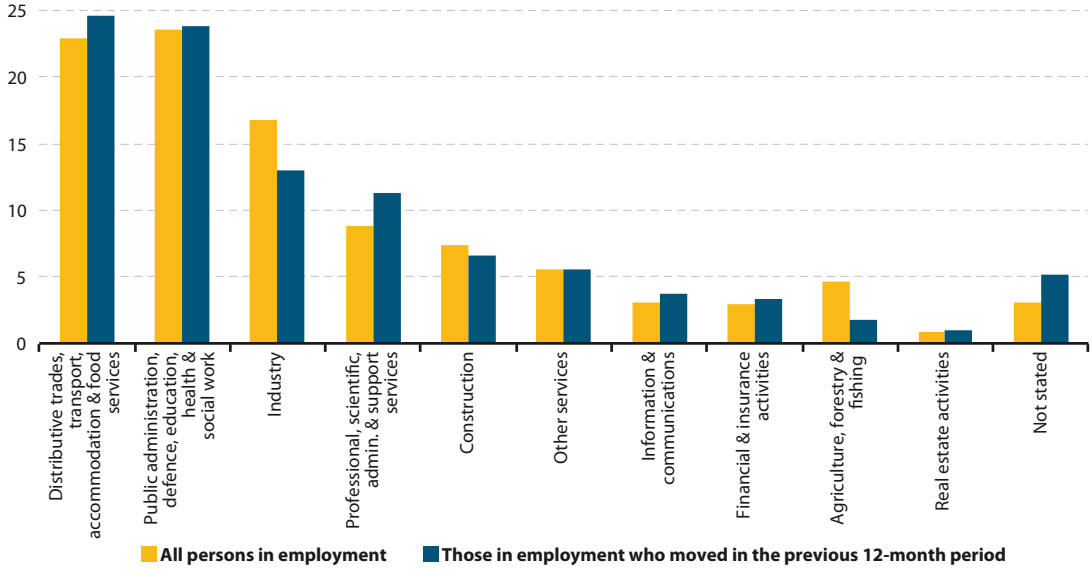
The information presented in Figures 7 and 8 — also from the population and housing census — provides an analysis of the proportion of residents who moved home during the 12-month period prior to the census, by occupation and by economic activity (as defined by NACE); in both cases the information for people moving home is compared with that for all persons in employment.

Figure 7 shows that the likelihood of someone moving home was higher for a range of occupations associated with higher levels of educational attainment, for example, professionals and technicians / associate professionals were more likely to move, whereas the propensity to move was lower than among those with craft and related trades, agriculture, forestry and fishery, or clerical support occupations.

Figure 8 presents a similar analysis by economic activity and confirms the results observed in Figure 7 insofar as those working in traditional activities such as industry, agriculture, forestry and fishing or construction moved less often than their overall share in total employment, while those employed in professional, scientific, administrative and support services, distributive trades, transport, accommodation and food services, or information and communication services were more likely to move. Note that many services are omnipresent, while specific industrial or agricultural activities may only be located in a few regions.

There is some evidence to support the view that those with more developed skills and competencies have a higher propensity to consider employment opportunities over a wider geographical area: changing region or country may be more part of the professional culture of certain highly-educated workforces in areas such as professional and scientific services or information and communication services.

Figure 8: Resident population by activity, EU-28, 2011 ([1])
(% of persons aged 15 years and over who were in employment)



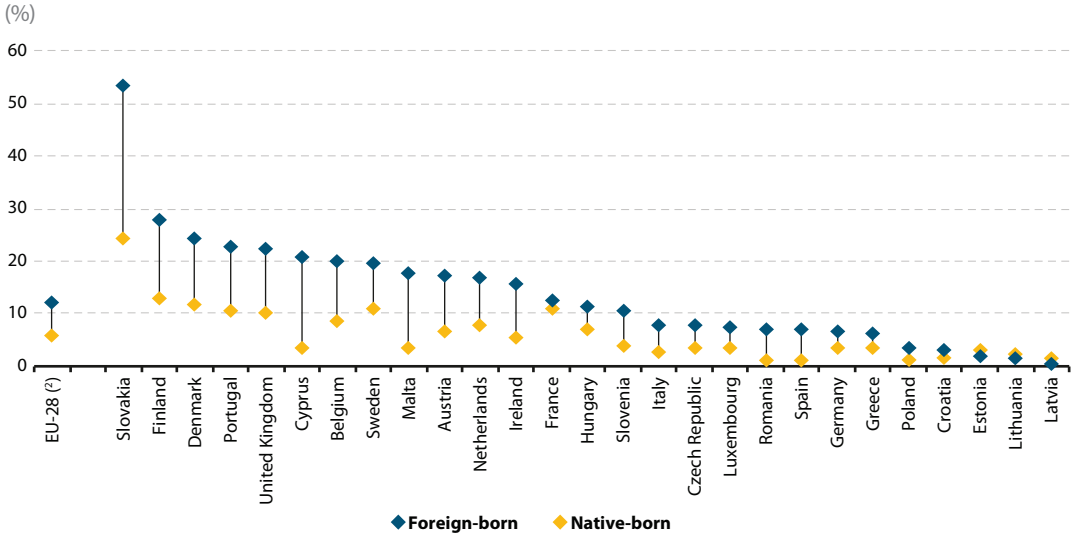
([1]) Excluding Bulgaria.
Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC17)

Foreign-born residents were more than twice as likely to move as native-born residents

Within the EU (again excluding Bulgaria), foreign-born residents were generally more mobile than native-born residents. In 2011, the proportion of foreign-born residents who moved during the 12-month period prior to the population and housing census was 12.3 %, which was more than twice as high as the share recorded for the native-born population (5.8 %). These differences may be linked to geographic and labour market mobility of foreign-born residents, and a range of different factors, including: a higher proportion of foreign-born residents live in rental accommodation; migrants tend to be relatively young and willing to occupy temporary, low-skilled or part-time jobs — often below their educational qualifications or skills — in order to enter or move within the labour market; migrants may engage in circular migration, whereby they move between different EU Member States or between their home country and other EU Member States (for example, in order to obtain seasonal work).

In 2011, this pattern of foreign-born residents being more likely to move home during the 12-month period prior to the population and housing census was repeated in all but three of the EU Member States. The three Baltic Member States were the only exceptions to this rule, with the native-born population more likely to have moved than the foreign-born population. In Malta and Spain, foreign-born residents were around five times as likely to move as the native-born population, while this ratio rose to around 6:1 in Cyprus, and peaked at 7.5:1 in Romania. The largest differences (in percentage point terms) between the shares of foreign-born and native-born residents who moved home during the 12-month period prior to the population and housing census in 2011 were recorded in Slovakia (where the share for foreign-born residents was 29.2 points higher), Cyprus (17.4 points) and Finland (15.0 points).

Figure 9: Residents who moved in the 12-month period prior to the census, by place of birth, 2011 (1)



(1) Bulgaria: not available.
(2) Excluding Bulgaria.
Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC39 and HC45)

Across the EU (excluding Bulgaria), there was almost no difference in the residential mobility of foreign-born residents between those born in another EU Member State (12.2 % moved during the 12-month period prior to the population and housing census) and those born in a country outside the EU (12.3 % had moved). The individual EU Member States were almost equally divided, insofar as 14 reported a higher proportion of residential mobility among those born in a country outside the EU, while mobility was higher in 13 others for those born in another EU Member State.

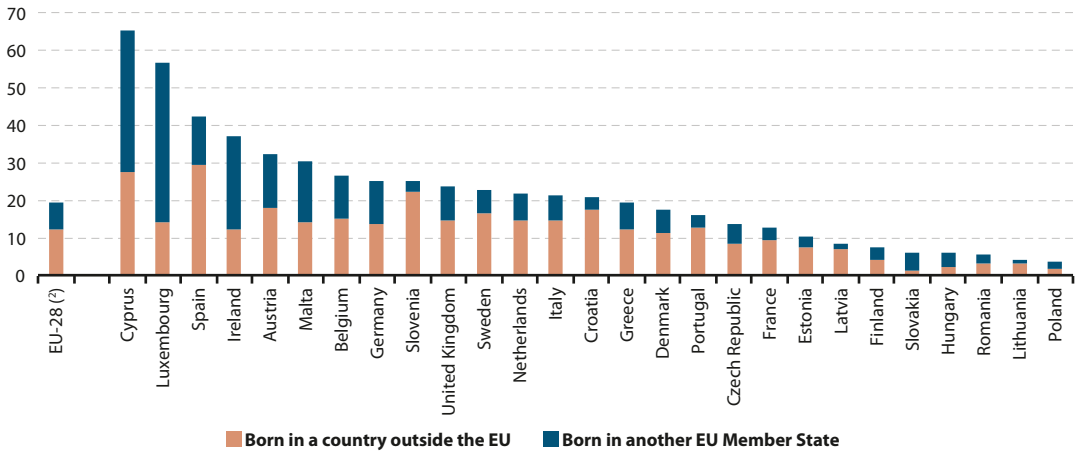
Foreign-born residents accounted for almost one in five persons who changed residence

Figure 10 is also based on information from the population and housing census and analyses the relative share of foreign-born residents in the total number of persons who moved home during the 12-month period prior to the census; these figures reflect, at least to some degree, the stock of foreign-born residents already in the EU as a result of different historical waves of migration, as well as more recent migrant flows during the year prior to the census.

In 2011, residents born in a country outside the EU accounted for 12.3 % of the total number of persons who moved home during the 12-month period prior to the census; the corresponding share for residents born in another EU Member State was 7.2 %. As such, all foreign-born residents together accounted for almost one in five persons who moved in the EU during the 12-month period prior to the census.

Foreign-born residents accounted for more than half of the total number of residents who moved in Cyprus (65.0 %) and Luxembourg (56.8 %); in both cases the majority of the foreign-born residents moving were born in another EU Member State. Ireland, Slovakia, Malta and Hungary were the only other EU Member States where residents born in another EU Member State accounted for a higher proportion of the total number of persons who moved home than residents born in a country outside the EU.

Figure 10: Foreign-born residents who moved in the 12-month period prior to the census, by place of birth, 2011 (1)
(% of the total number of persons who moved)



(1) Bulgaria: not available.
(2) Excluding Bulgaria.
Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC39 and HC45)

By contrast, almost one third (29.5 %) of the total number of residents who moved home in Spain during the 12-month period prior to the census were born in a country outside of the EU (a majority of these were from the Caribbean, Central or South America), while more than one fifth (22.3 %) of the total number of residents in Slovenia who moved home were born outside the EU (the vast majority from countries in Europe that are not EU members).

More detailed residential mobility statistics

Although the focus of analysis so far has been on national and international mobility patterns, information from the population and housing census may be used to show that the vast majority of people who moved in the EU during the 12-month period prior to the census did so within a very restricted geographical area.

Indeed, residential and labour market mobility is generally quite low in the EU, especially in light of the often considerable labour market imbalances between EU Member States: for example, in 2011, unemployment rates ranged from a high of 21.4 % in Spain to a low of 4.6 % in Austria, while annual net earnings for a two-earner married couple with two children (where both parents earned the average wage) ranged from a high of EUR 116 230 in Belgium to a low of EUR 10 230 in Bulgaria. This apparent lack of mobility may be explained, to some degree, by: a lack of language skills that prevent people moving to another country; difficulties in comparing educational and professional qualifications; a lack of access to credit (especially in the aftermath of the financial and economic crisis); a variety of cultural and institutional barriers; or the social costs of leaving one's family, friends, colleagues and local community behind. These links between housing, mobility and the labour market are explored further in this section.

While interpreting the analysis that follows it is important to note there are considerable differences in the land area of each EU Member State: for example, a change of residence from Bremen in the north of Germany to München in the south equates to a move of almost 800 km, while the distance between the Austrian capital of Vienna and the Slovak capital of Bratislava is approximately one tenth of this as is the distance between the Finnish capital of Helsinki and the Estonian capital of Tallinn.

DID YOU KNOW?

In 2011, there were 60 845 persons who moved from abroad into Inner London-East during the 12-month period prior to the population and housing census being conducted — the highest number across NUTS level 3 regions in the EU. People moving from abroad into Inner London-West during the 12-month period prior to the census accounted for 4.6 % of the resident population in 2011; the highest proportion across NUTS level 3 regions in the EU.

For more information: refer to the CENSUS HUB

The vast majority of Europeans either did not move or chose to move within the same region

Table 1 shows that 6.4 % of EU-28 population (32.0 million residents) moved home during the year prior to the census: 3.6 % (or 18.1 million residents) from within the same NUTS level 3 region; 2.2 % (11.0 million residents) from another region of the same country; and 0.6 % (2.9 million residents) from abroad.

As noted above, the highest numbers of people moving home were recorded in France and the United Kingdom. Within the latter, there was a relatively high propensity for residents to move within the same NUTS level 3 region (7.3 % of the population of the United Kingdom, approximately double the EU average), although higher shares were recorded in Denmark and Sweden (both 9.4 %), Portugal (9.7 %), Finland (11.1 %) and Slovakia (17.7 %). In France, while the share of the population who moved within the same NUTS level 3 region (5.7 %) was higher than the EU average, almost the same proportion of residents (5.0 %) moved between different NUTS level 3 regions; this was the highest share of residents moving between different NUTS level 3 regions recorded among any of the EU Member States.

The 2.9 million residents who moved from outside the reporting country (note these persons could be foreign-born or returning national-born persons) accounted for 0.6 % of the EU-28 population in 2011. Their relative share rose to 1.0 % in Belgium, Denmark and Malta, 1.1 % in the United Kingdom, 1.2 % in Ireland and Austria, and peaked at 1.4 % in Slovakia. In absolute terms, there were almost 690 thousand residents in the United Kingdom who moved from abroad during the previous 12 months (23.5 % of the EU-28 total), while the next highest totals were recorded in Germany (almost 400 thousand) and France (almost 315 thousand).

Around 200 thousand residents moved from other EU Member States to each of Germany and the United Kingdom

Table 2 focuses on those residents who moved from outside of the reporting country and shows the most popular destinations (at the level of EU Member States) for new residents arriving from abroad during the 12-month period prior to the population and housing census.

The largest flows of residents from other EU Member States were into Germany and the United Kingdom (with just over 200 thousand persons moving to each), reflecting in part the size of these two economies, but also their economic situation in the aftermath of the financial and economic crisis, as well as the relatively high proportion of EU citizens who are able to speak English and to a lesser extent German.

The most popular destinations for residents arriving from other continents were often characterised by historical / colonial, cultural or linguistic ties: for example, the largest number of people moving from Africa set-up home in France, the largest numbers from the Caribbean, Central or South America (combined) located in Spain, and the largest numbers of people moving from North America, Asia and Oceania moved to the United Kingdom.

Table 1: Residents who moved in the 12-month period prior to the census, national averages and regions with the highest proportion of people moving, 2011
(% of population)

	Moved within the same NUTS level 3 region			Moved from another NUTS level 3 region in the same country			Moved from outside the reporting country		
	Average	Region with highest proportion		Average	Region with highest proportion		Average	Region with highest proportion	
EU-28	3.6	Bratislavský kraj	19.3	2.2	Bratislavský kraj	9.7	0.6	Inner London - West	4.6
Belgium	7.1	Arr. De Bruxelles-Capitale / Arr. Van Brussel-Hoofdstad	10.5	2.3	Arr. Waremme	4.4	1.0	Arr. De Bruxelles-Capitale / Arr. Van Brussel-Hoofdstad	3.9
Bulgaria	0.3	Veliko Tarnovo	0.5	0.5	Veliko Tarnovo	0.8	0.3	Sliven	0.4
Czech Republic	2.1	Karlovarský kraj	3.0	1.4	Hlavní město Praha	3.0	0.2	Hlavní město Praha	0.8
Denmark	9.4	Byen København	11.7	2.4	Byen København	4.6	1.0	Byen København	2.3
Germany	1.0	Dithmarschen	3.1	2.3	Heidelberg, Stadtkreis	6.9	0.5	Heidelberg, Stadtkreis	2.4
Estonia	1.5	Lõuna-Eesti	2.2	1.0	Kesk-Eesti	1.4	0.3	Põhja-Eesti	0.4
Ireland	4.7	Dublin	6.3	1.2	Mid-East	1.8	1.2	Dublin	1.9
Greece	1.1	Thessaloniki	1.7	2.1	Samos	5.0	0.7	Evros	1.8
Spain	1.0	Eivissa y Formentera	1.9	0.6	Fuerteventura	2.0	0.5	Fuerteventura	1.6
France (1)	5.7	Réunion	8.2	5.0	Ariège	6.9	0.5	Guyane	1.6
Croatia	0.9	Primorsko-goranska županija	1.4	0.7	Zagrebačka županija	1.5	0.3	Zadarska županija	0.5
Italy	1.2	Valle D'Aosta/Vallée D'Aoste	2.5	1.3	Nuoro	3.4	0.5	Trieste	0.7
Cyprus	5.5	-	:	:	-	:	:	-	:
Latvia	0.3	Vidzeme	0.6	0.8	Pierīga	1.4	0.4	Rīga	0.5
Lithuania	0.9	Klaipėdos apskritis	1.0	0.9	Utenos apskritis	1.6	0.5	Klaipėdos apskritis	0.7
Luxembourg	3.4	-	:	:	-	:	:	-	:
Hungary	5.0	Budapest	5.8	1.7	Budapest	3.1	0.3	Budapest	0.7
Malta	1.4	Malta	1.4	2.5	Malta	2.5	1.0	Malta	1.0
Netherlands	5.9	Agglomeratie 's-Gravenhage	7.6	1.8	Overig Groningen	3.1	0.9	Groot-Amsterdam	2.0
Austria	5.7	Graz	7.2	1.4	Wiener Umland/ Nordteil	2.6	1.2	Wien	2.3
Poland	0.7	Słupski	1.2	0.7	Miasto Kraków	1.5	0.1	Miasto Wrocław	0.3
Portugal	9.7	Região Autónoma dos Açores	12.2	1.3	Alentejo Litoral	2.2	0.8	Alto Trás-os-Montes	1.3
Romania	0.4	Cluj	0.8	0.6	Ilfov	2.8	:	-	:
Slovenia	2.5	Obalno-kraška	3.2	1.6	Notranjsko-kraška	2.2	0.6	Obalno-kraška	1.1
Slovakia	17.7	Bratislavský kraj	19.3	4.8	Bratislavský kraj	9.7	1.4	Bratislavský kraj	1.7
Finland	11.1	Helsinki-Uusimaa	12.4	1.8	Kanta-Häme	2.9	0.4	Åland	1.8
Sweden	9.4	Östergötlands län	10.1	1.8	Uppsala län	3.0	1.0	Stockholms län	1.5
United Kingdom	7.3	Brighton and Hove	11.4	3.5	Inner London - West	7.9	1.1	Inner London - West	4.6
Iceland	11.0	Höfuðborgarsvæði	11.5	1.7	Landsbyggð	2.1	1.3	Höfuðborgarsvæði	1.4
Liechtenstein	3.7	-	:	:	-	:	:	-	:
Norway	8.8	Nord-Trøndelag	12.1	2.3	Oslo	4.0	1.5	Oslo	2.8
Switzerland	3.6	Vaud	4.4	1.5	Appenzell Ausserrhoden	3.5	1.3	Basel-Stadt	2.4

(1) Low reliability.
Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC46)

Table 2: Top five EU Member States in terms of numbers of residents who moved from outside the reporting country during the 12-month period prior to the census, 2011
(number of residents)

	Rank 1		Rank 2		Rank 3		Rank 4		Rank 5	
Total number of residents who moved from outside the reporting country	United Kingdom	687 140	Germany	399 824	France	314 510	Italy	268 000	Spain	214 525
Residents who moved from outside the reporting country whose place of birth was in the reporting country (return migrants)	United Kingdom	175 360	Italy	81 185	France	75 680	Germany	46 346	Portugal	42 884
Residents who moved from another EU Member State	Germany	200 504	United Kingdom	200 440	France	86 719	Spain	61 740	Italy	60 828
Residents who moved from outside the EU but elsewhere within Europe	Germany	35 720	Italy	35 532	France	17 526	United Kingdom	15 040	Austria	14 472
Residents who moved from Africa	France	72 385	United Kingdom	47 840	Italy	32 601	Spain	28 165	Belgium	23 824
Residents who moved from the Caribbean, Central or South America	Spain	79 915	Italy	21 214	France	16 948	United Kingdom	15 880	Germany	14 033
Residents who moved from North America	United Kingdom	32 030	Germany	11 577	France	9 226	Netherlands	4 145	Spain	3 695
Residents who moved from Asia	United Kingdom	180 740	Germany	68 502	France	34 702	Italy	33 317	Sweden	30 112
Residents who moved from Oceania	United Kingdom	19 555	Germany	1 981	France	1 320	Netherlands	1 196	Ireland	652

Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC39)

Capital regions tended to record very high degrees of residential mobility...

Turning attention to regional statistics, almost one third (30.7 %) of the population living in the Slovak capital of Bratislavský kraj changed their residence during the 12-month period prior to the census. There were seven additional Slovak regions where upwards of one in five of the population moved home, and they were joined by two regions from the United Kingdom (Inner London-West and Nottingham).

DID YOU KNOW?

In 2011, almost one third (30.7 %) of the residents in the Slovak capital of Bratislavský Kraj moved residence during the 12-month period prior to the population and housing census being conducted — the highest share across any of the NUTS level 3 regions in the EU.

For more information: refer to the CENSUS HUB

An additional 17 of the 1 315 regions had between 15 and 20 % of their residents move in the 12-month period prior to the population and housing census: the vast majority of these (15 of the 17) were cities in the United Kingdom, while the other two were the Belgian and Danish capitals of Arr. De Bruxelles-Capitale / Arr. Van Brussel-Hoofdstad and Byen København; there were also two regions in Norway where the share of residents moving home as a share of the total resident population was within the range of 15–20 %, the capital region of Oslo and Nord-Trøndelag.

... and were particularly attractive to those residents arriving from abroad

Almost one fifth (19.3 %) of the population of Bratislavský kraj moved within the same region during the 12-month period prior to the population and housing census, the highest share among any of the 1 315 NUTS level 3 regions for which data are available. Bratislavský kraj also recorded the highest degree of residential mobility among those moving from another region in the same country (9.7 % of the total population). However, the highest share of new residents from abroad was recorded in Inner London-West (4.6 % of the population). A more detailed analysis of the 50.5 thousand new residents who moved from abroad to Inner London-West during the 12-month period prior to the census reveals that more than half (53.3 %) were born outside the EU, while approximately one third (32.8 %) were born in another EU Member State, and 13.8 % were born in the United Kingdom (return migrants).

These patterns observed in the British capital were synonymous with those observed in many of the other EU Member States, insofar as the highest regional shares of residential mobility for those moving from abroad were recorded in the capital regions of Belgium, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Ireland, Latvia, Hungary, Malta, the Netherlands, Austria, Slovakia and Sweden.

London, Paris, Cataluña and Lombardia were the most popular regions in the EU for new residents arriving from abroad

Table 3 provides similar information to that shown in Table 2, but focuses on population and housing census data for NUTS level 2 regions. It shows the five most popular destinations for new residents moving from abroad were all large metropolitan areas, they included: Inner London (111.4 thousand people), the Île de France (94.2 thousand), Outer London (86.3 thousand), Cataluña (55.1 thousand) and Lombardia (48.3 thousand).

The destinations commonly chosen by migrants moving from abroad were often quite concentrated, perhaps reflecting the desire to move close to fellow citizens when arriving in a new country. For example, of the 19.6 thousand new residents who arrived in the United Kingdom from Oceania, almost 60 % moved to Inner or Outer London. In a similar vein, nearly half of the non-EU Europeans who moved to Austria were resident in Wien, while almost half of those who moved to Spain from the Caribbean, Central or South America were resident in either Cataluña or the Comunidad de Madrid, and almost one third of Africans who moved to France were resident in Paris.

Table 3: Top five NUTS level 2 regions in terms of numbers of residents who moved from outside the reporting country during the 12-month period prior to the census, 2011
(number of residents)

	Rank 1		Rank 2		Rank 3		Rank 4		Rank 5	
Total number of residents who moved from outside the reporting country	Inner London	111 385	Île de France	94 177	Outer London	86 250	Cataluña	55 065	Lombardia	48 302
Residents who moved from outside the reporting country whose place of birth was in the reporting country (return migrants)	Île de France	22 907	Norte	18 258	Inner London	15 135	Lithuania	14 488	Lombardia	12 938
Residents who moved from another EU Member State	Inner London	39 175	Outer London	24 740	Île de France	22 286	Oberbayern	21 297	Région de Bruxelles-Capitale	19 450
Residents who moved from outside the EU but elsewhere within Europe	Wien	6 660	Lombardia	6 388	Emilia-Romagna	4 943	Veneto	4 863	Zahodna Slovenija	4 680
Residents who moved from Africa	Île de France	22 700	Région de Bruxelles-Capitale	10 070	Cataluña	9 330	Rhône-Alpes	8 181	Outer London	8 040
Residents who moved from the Caribbean, Central or South America	Cataluña	22 180	Comunidad de Madrid	18 370	Andalucía	6 750	Comunidad Valenciana	6 205	Zuid-Holland	5 612
Residents who moved from North America	Inner London	8 560	East Anglia	4 665	Île de France	3 977	Outer London	2 485	Eastern Scotland	2 290
Residents who moved from Asia	Outer London	31 025	Inner London	23 490	Île de France	12 858	West Midlands	11 640	Stockholm	9 999
Residents who moved from Oceania	Inner London	8 670	Outer London	2 745	Berkshire, Buckingham-shire and Oxfordshire	875	Eastern Scotland	840	Surrey, East and West Sussex	765

Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC39)

It is also interesting to analyse the distribution of return migrants, in other words people born in the reporting country, but moving back from another country. In Lithuania (a single region at this level of detail), this group accounted for 90.0 % of those moving from abroad. This may, at least in part, be explained by relatively high numbers of Lithuanians leaving home in search of work following accession to the EU in 2004, a pattern that was reinforced by a rapid contraction in economic activity in 2008 as a result of the financial and economic crisis, while the subsequent recovery in the Lithuanian economy may have led some migrants to consider returning home.

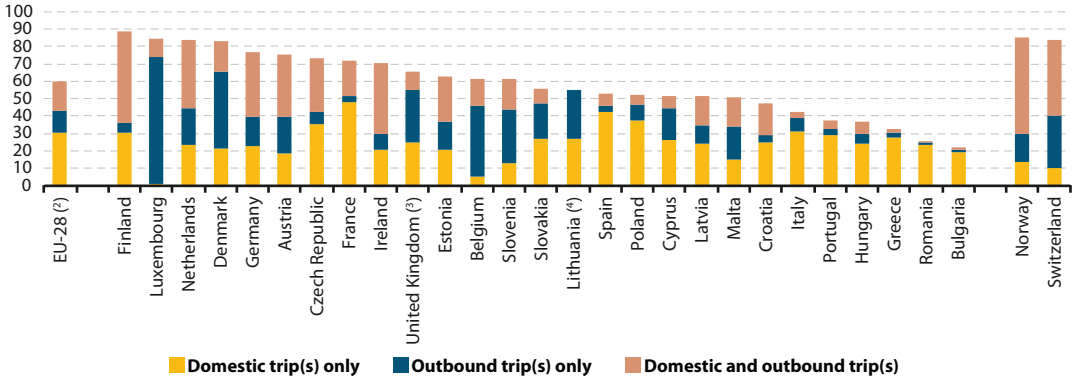
European tourists on the move

This chapter closes with an alternative perspective of mobility, namely, tourism opportunities that are open to Europeans for discovering other regions within their own country, neighbouring European countries, or cultures further afield in other continents.

Within the EU, the Schengen area has enhanced the freedom of movement since 1995, allowing people to cross internal borders without being subjected to border controls and checks when travelling between most EU Member States. Today, the Schengen area encompasses all but six of the EU Member States, as well as Iceland, Liechtenstein Norway and Switzerland; Ireland and the United Kingdom have opt-outs, while the membership of Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus and Romania is currently under preparation.

Based on Eurostat's tourism statistics, Figure 11 shows the proportion of EU residents (aged 15 or over) having made at least one trip with an overnight stay for personal reasons; the data is analysed by the tourist's destination. In 2013, an estimated 60.0 % of the EU-28's residents enjoyed some form of holiday for personal reasons. Just under half (47.3 %) made a domestic trip (or trips), while 29.5 % of the adult population took a holiday abroad in a foreign destination. Within these groups, 16.7 % of the EU-28 adult population were fortunate to make both domestic trip(s) and to take a holiday(s) abroad.

Figure 11: Population participating in tourism for personal purposes, by destination, 2013 ([1])
(% of persons aged 15 years and over)



([1]) Residents aged 15 or over having made at least one trip of at least one overnight stay. Sweden: not available.
([2]) Estimates made for the purpose of this publication (excluding Sweden and including 2012 data for the United Kingdom).
([3]) 2012.
([4]) Tourists having made domestic and outbound trips: not available.
Source: Eurostat (online data codes: tour_dem_toage and demo_pjanbroad)

Data for 2013 are available for most of the EU Member States (no data for Sweden; data for the United Kingdom refer to 2012): in Finland, as many as 88.5 % of the population aged 15 or over had at least one night of holiday, while shares of at least 80 % were also recorded for tourists from Luxembourg, the Netherlands and Denmark. At the other end of the scale, just less than one third of the Greek population had at least one overnight stay in 2013, a share that fell close to one quarter in Romania (25.1 %) and Bulgaria (22.2 %).

Tourists from Luxembourg, Denmark and the Netherlands were most inclined to take foreign holidays in 2013, which may be attributed — at least in part — to their relatively small land area, their location, and the comparative wealth of their citizens. The most extreme example was in Luxembourg, where less than 1 % of the adult population made only a domestic trip (or trips) for their holidays, while almost three quarters (73.4 %) went exclusively on holiday abroad. In neighbouring Belgium only 5.3 % of the adult population went exclusively on holiday in their own country. By contrast, in Romania (1.6 %), Bulgaria (3.2 %), Greece (4.9 %) and Portugal (8.4 %), fewer than 1 in 10 adults went on holiday abroad.

An ageing society — focus on the elderly

6

Introduction

Population ageing is one of the greatest social and economic challenges facing the EU. Projections foresee a growing number and share of elderly persons (aged 65 and over), with a particularly rapid increase in the number of very old persons (aged 85 and over). These demographic developments are likely to have a considerable impact on a wide range of policy areas: most directly with respect to the different health and care requirements of the elderly, but also with respect to labour markets, social security and pension systems, economic fortunes, as well as government finances.

EUROPEAN POLICIES RELATING TO HEALTH AND THE ELDERLY

The EU promotes active ageing and designated 2012 as the European year for active ageing and solidarity between generations. It highlighted the potential of older people, promoted their active participation in society and the economy, and aimed to convey a positive image of population ageing.

The innovation union is one of the Europe 2020 flagship initiatives. One of the European innovation partnerships concerns active and healthy ageing. Its aim is to tackle the challenges associated with an ageing population, setting a target of raising the healthy lifespan of EU citizens by two years by 2020. In 2012, the European Commission adopted a Communication on 'Taking forward the strategic implementation plan of the European innovation partnership on active and healthy ageing' (COM(2012) 83 final). The partnership aims to: enable older people to live longer, healthier and more independent lives; improve the sustainability and efficiency of health and care systems; and to create growth and market opportunities for business in relation to the ageing society.

The EU's structural funds provide possibilities to support research, innovation and other measures for active and healthy ageing. Active ageing is an important area of social investment, as emphasised in the European Commission's Communication 'Towards social investment for growth and cohesion' (COM(2013) 83 final) and is consequently one of the investment priorities of the European Social Fund (ESF) and the European Regional Development Fund (ERDF) during the 2014–20 programming period.

For those senior citizens who remain in good health, some will decide to continue at work or become active in voluntary work, while others may join a variety of social groups, return to education, develop new skills, or choose to use their free time for travelling or other activities. As life expectancy continues to rise, the constraints, perceptions and requirements of retirement are changing; many of these issues are explored within this chapter.

Healthy life years

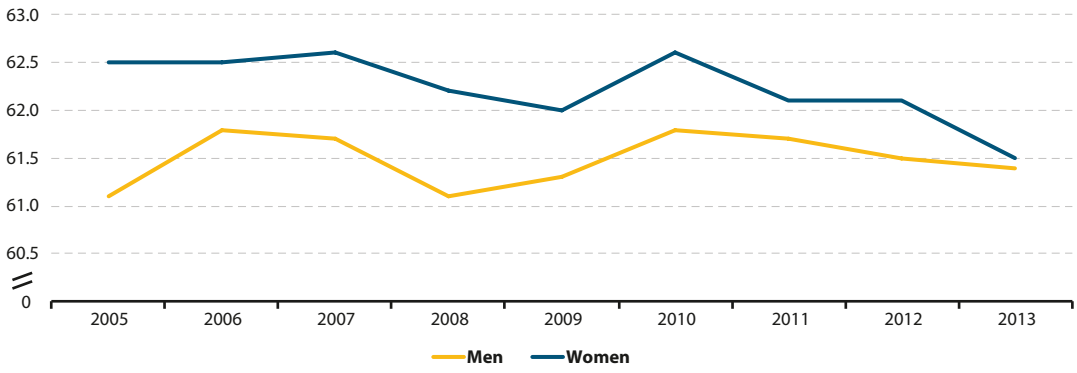
Life expectancy has continued to rise systematically in all of the EU Member States in recent decades. Historically, the main reason for this was declining infant mortality rates, although once these were reduced to very low levels, the increases in life expectancy continued, largely as a result of declining mortality rates for older people, due for example to medical advances and medical care, as well as improved working and living conditions. Nevertheless, there are considerable differences in life expectancy both between and within Member States.

While it is broadly positive that life expectancy continues to rise and each person has a good chance of living longer, it is not so clear that additional years of life are welcome if characterised by a range of medical problems, disability, or mental illness. Indicators on healthy life years combine information on mortality with data on health status (disability). They p rovide a n indication as to the number of remaining years that a person of a particular age can expect to live free from any form of disability, introducing the concept of quality of life into an analysis of longevity. These indicators can be used, among others, to monitor the progress being made in relation to the quality and sustainability of healthcare.

Women in the EU could expect to live 61.5 years free from any form of disability, just 0.1 years more than men

Eurostat statistics on mortality are based on the annual demographic data collection. They show that the average life expectancy of a girl born in 2012 in the EU-28 was 82.4 years, while the life expectancy of a boy was 76.8 years. While women had higher life expectancy than men in all of the EU Member States, there has been a pattern of convergence in recent years. In contrast to this upward development witnessed for life expectancy, there has been a slight fall in the number of healthy life years: Figure 1 shows that a girl born in 2013 could expect to live an average of 61.5 years in a healthy state free from any form of disability (which was a decline of 1.1 years when compared with the situation in 2010), while a boy could expect to live 61.4 years free from disability (a decline of 0.4 years when compared with 2010).

Figure 1: Healthy life years at birth, by sex, EU-28, 2005–13 ([1])



([1]) 2005–09: EU-27. 2013: estimates. Note the y-axis is cut.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: hlth_hlye)

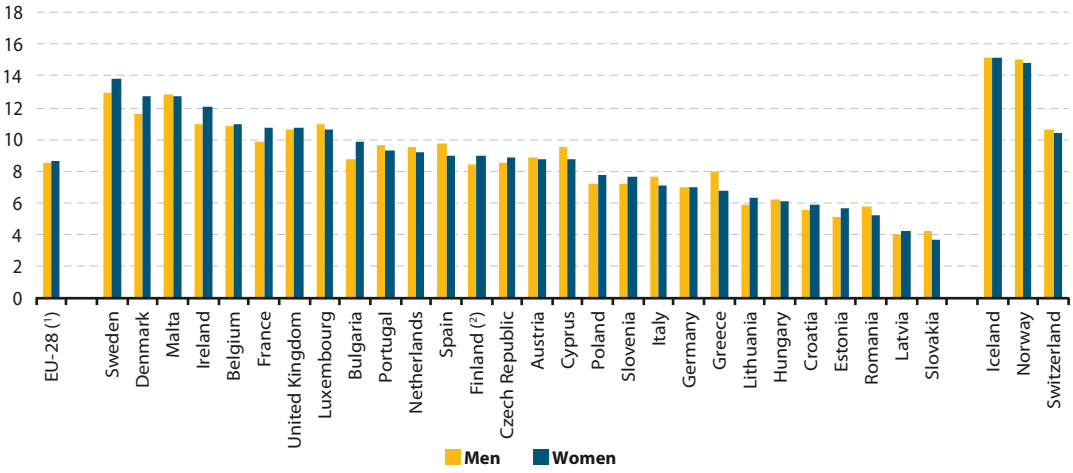
The elderly population of Sweden could expect to live longest free from any form of disability

At the age of 65, women in the EU-28 had a life expectancy of 21.1 years, while that for men was some 3.4 years less, at 17.7 years. There were considerable differences between the EU Member States as regards the number of healthy life years at 65 years of age (see Figure 2), while the differences between the sexes were far less pronounced. In 2013, women in the EU-28 aged 65 could expect to live an additional 8.6 years free from disability, which was 0.1 years higher than for men. Among the EU Member States, the range for women was from a high of 13.8 healthy life years in Sweden to a low of 3.7 years in Slovakia, while for men there was a high of 12.9 healthy life years (also in Sweden) and a low of 4.0 years in Latvia.

Elderly men in the southern EU Member States enjoyed a longer lifespan free from disability than elderly women

The largest gender gaps for individual EU Member States were recorded in Bulgaria and Ireland where women at the age of 65 could expect to enjoy an additional 1.2 years of life free from disability (compared with men); there were 13 other Member States where women registered a higher number of healthy life years. In Germany, there was no difference at age 65 in the number of healthy life years between the sexes. By contrast, men could expect to live longer free from disability in 12 of the Member States, with the largest gender gaps in favour of men recorded in some of the southern EU Member States: Italy (0.6 years), Spain (0.7 years), Cyprus (0.8 years) and Greece (1.2 years).

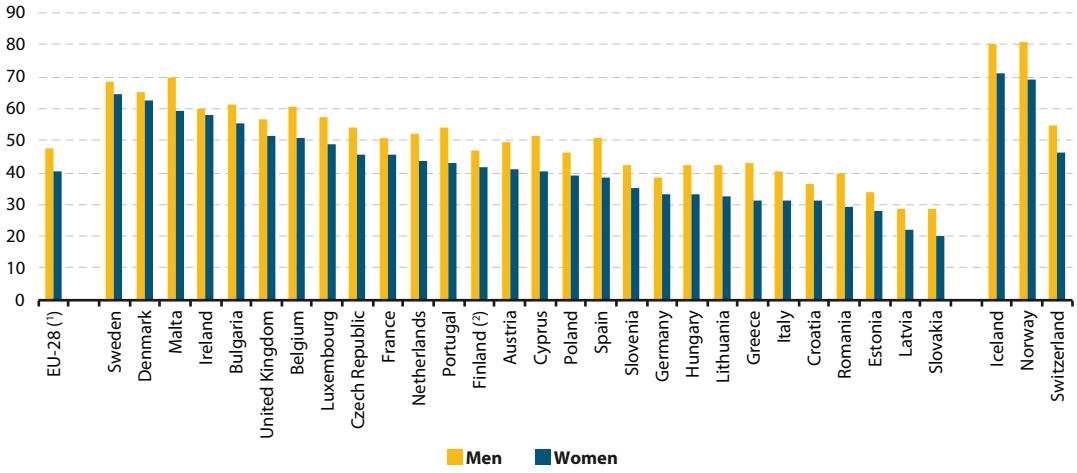
Figure 2: Healthy life years at age 65, by sex, 2013
(years)



(1) Estimates.
(2) 2012.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: hlth_hlye)

Figure 3 combines the information on life expectancy and healthy life years to show what proportion of their remaining lives people aged 65 could expect to live free from disability. Across the whole of the EU-28, on average, a man could expect to live almost half (47.7 %) of his remaining life free from disability, while the corresponding share for a woman was around two fifths (40.1 %). There were seven EU Member States where women aged 65 could expect to live more than half of their remaining lives free from disability, they were: Sweden, Denmark, Malta, Ireland, Bulgaria, the United Kingdom and Belgium. In the same seven Member States, men aged 65 could also expect to live more than half of their remaining lives free from disability, while this was also the case in seven more Member States. In all 28 EU Member States, men could expect to live a higher proportion of their remaining lives free from disability than could women; the biggest differences between the sexes were again recorded in some of the southern EU Member States: Spain, Greece, Portugal and Cyprus.

Figure 3: Healthy life years at age 65 as a share of remaining life expectancy, by sex, 2013
(% of total life expectancy)



(1) Estimates.
(2) 2012.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: hlth_hlye)

Elderly population structure and dependency rates

Structural changes to the demographics of the EU-28's population may be largely attributed to the consequences of persistently low birth rates and increasing life expectancy. Eurostat's annual demography data collection shows there were 506.8 million people living in the EU-28 in 2014, of whom almost 94 million were aged 65 years and over. Furthermore, 57.5 % of the elderly were women.

DID YOU KNOW?

The highest number of elderly persons living in the EU (among NUTS level 3 regions) was recorded in the Spanish capital of Madrid, where 989 thousand persons aged 65 and over were resident in 2011. The second highest number was also recorded in Spain, as there were 949 thousand elderly persons resident in Barcelona. The third highest value was recorded in the Italian capital of Roma (809 thousand elderly residents).

For more information: refer to the CENSUS HUB

The elderly accounted for more than one fifth of the population in Italy, Germany and Greece

The proportion of elderly persons in the population differs greatly from one EU Member State to another. In 2014, it peaked at 21.4 % in Italy, 20.8 % in Germany and 20.5 % in Greece. The elderly generally accounted for 17–20 % of the total population in the remaining Member States, although Romania, Poland, Luxembourg, Cyprus, Slovakia and Ireland were below this range; the lowest share of the elderly was recorded in Ireland (12.6 %).

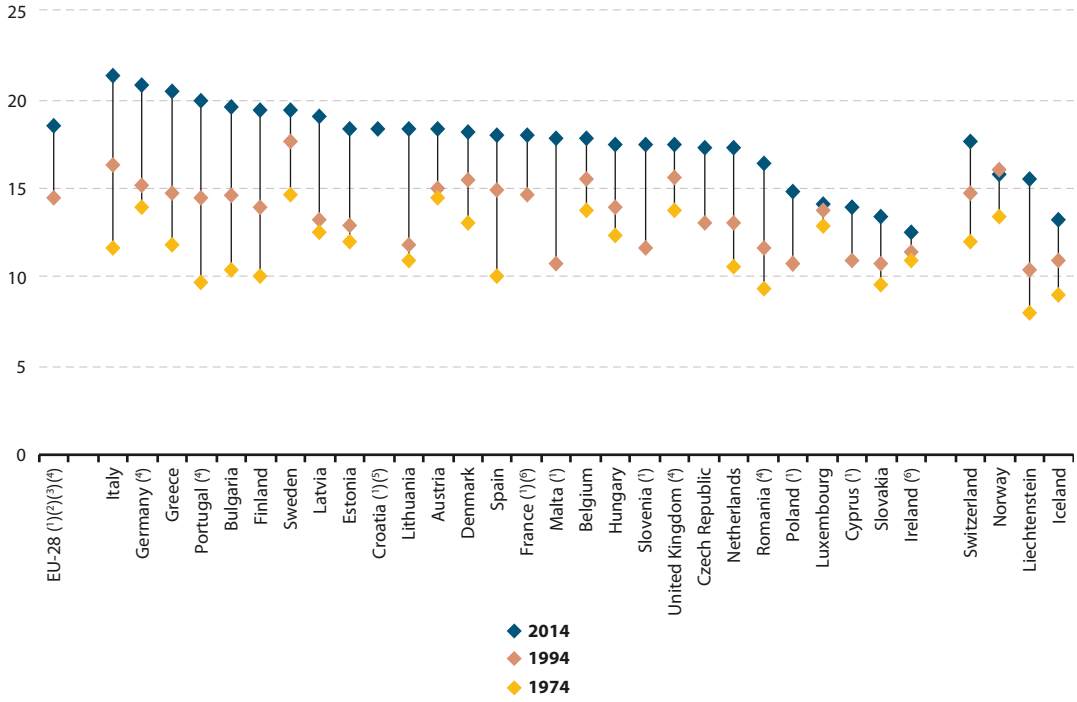
Figure 4 shows that the speed of population ageing varies considerably between the EU Member States. Among the 22 Member States for which data are available, the pace of demographic change between 1974 and 2014 was most pronounced in Portugal, Italy, Finland, Bulgaria, Greece and Spain, while the pace of change was relatively slow in Belgium, Austria, the United Kingdom, Slovakia, Ireland and Luxembourg. Some of these differences may be explained by variations in fertility rates.

The elderly often accounted for a high share of the population in rural regions

Information from the population and housing census provides a more detailed analysis of population structures for NUTS level 3 regions. Table 1 shows those regions with the highest shares of elderly persons in 2011. Across the whole of the EU-28, the three highest shares were recorded in the interior Portuguese region of Pinhal Interior Sul (33.6 %), the central Greek region of Evrytania (31.0 %) and the north-western Spanish region of Ourense (29.4 %).

The majority of the regions with high shares of elderly persons were in rural and sometimes quite remote regions, although this pattern was reversed in some of the eastern EU Member States, most notably in Poland, where the highest shares of the elderly were recorded in the cities of Warszawa and Łódź.

Figure 4: Share of population aged 65 years and over, 1974, 1994 and 2014
(% of total population)



(1) 1974: not available.
(2) 1994: EU-27.
(3) 2014: break in series.
(4) 2014: estimate.
(5) 1994: not available.
(6) 2014: provisional.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: demo_pjanind)

Table 2 provides similar information (also taken from the population and housing census), but focuses on the relationship between the number of elderly persons and those of working-age, otherwise referred to as the old-age dependency ratio. In 2011, those aged 65 and over were equivalent in number to 60.0 % of the working-age population in Pinhal Interior Sul and to more than half (53.5 %) of the working-age population in Evrytania. These were the only two regions where there were fewer than two persons of working age for each elderly person. The third highest old-age dependency ratio was recorded in the northern Greek region of Grevena (49.9 %).

Table 1: Share of population aged 65 years and over, highest shares by NUTS level 3 region, 2011 (% of population)

	Average	Highest share		Second highest share		Third highest share	
EU-28	17.7	Pinhal Interior Sul (Portugal)	33.6	Evrytania (Greece)	31.0	Ourense (Spain)	29.4
Belgium	17.1	Arr. Veurne	26.2	Arr. Oostende	23.5	Arr. Brugge	21.5
Bulgaria	18.5	Vidin	25.5	Montana	23.9	Gabrovo	23.5
Czech Republic	15.8	Královéhradecký kraj	16.8	Kraj Vysočina	16.6	Zlínský kraj	16.4
Denmark	16.8	Bornholm	22.8	Vest– og Sydsjælland	19.1	Nordsjælland	18.7
Germany	20.6	Dessau–Roßlau. Kreisfreie Stadt	28.2	Altenburger Land	27.1	Suhl. Kreisfreie Stadt	27.0
Estonia	17.7	Lääne–Eesti	20.2	Kirde–Eesti	19.5	Kesk–Eesti	19.1
Ireland	11.6	West	12.9	Border	12.5	South–East	12.5
Greece	19.5	Evrytania	31.0	Grevena	29.1	Serres	27.4
Spain	17.3	Ourense	29.4	Zamora	28.7	Lugo	28.1
France	16.8	Creuse	26.5	Lot	24.7	Dordogne	24.3
Croatia	17.7	Ličko–senjska županija	24.7	Šibensko–kninska županija	21.8	Karlovačka županija	21.1
Italy	20.8	Savona	28.0	Trieste	27.9	Genova	27.6
Cyprus	13.3	–	:	–	:	–	:
Latvia	18.4	Vidzeme	19.5	Latgale	19.4	Kurzeme	18.7
Lithuania	17.9	Utenos apskritis	21.3	Panevėžio apskritis	20.2	Alytaus apskritis	20.0
Luxembourg	14.0	–	:	–	:	–	:
Hungary	16.9	Békés	18.8	Budapest	18.8	Nógrád	18.3
Malta	16.3	Gozo and Comino / Għawdex u Kemmuna	18.5	Malta	16.2	–	:
Netherlands	15.6	Zeeuwsch–Vlaanderen	20.9	Delfzijl en omgeving	19.6	Zuid–Limburg	19.6
Austria	17.8	Östliche Obersteiermark	23.6	Mittelburgenland	21.0	Westliche Obersteiermark	21.0
Poland	13.7	Miasto Warszawa	17.4	Miasto Łódź	17.4	Łomżyński	16.4
Portugal	19.0	Pinhal Interior Sul	33.6	Serra da Estrela	28.8	Beira Interior Sul	28.7
Romania	16.1	Teleorman	23.2	Buzău	19.5	Giurgiu	19.4
Slovenia	16.5	Goriška	17.8	Zasavska	17.9	Pomurska	17.5
Slovakia	12.7	Nitriansky kraj	13.9	Trenčiansky kraj	13.8	Bratislavský kraj	13.8
Finland	17.5	Etelä–Savo	23.4	Etelä–Karjala	21.5	Kainuu	21.2
Sweden	18.8	Kalmar län	23.0	Västernorrlands län	22.4	Blekinge län	22.3
United Kingdom	16.4	Dorset CC	25.2	Isle of Wight	23.8	Torbay	23.6
Iceland	12.8	Landsbyggð	13.5	Höfuðborgarsvæði	12.4	–	:
Liechtenstein	13.9	–	:	–	:	–	:
Norway	15.4	Hedmark	19.4	Oppland	19.0	Telemark	17.9
Switzerland	17.2	Ticino	20.8	Basel–Stadt	20.7	Basel–Landschaft	20.0

Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC55)

Table 2: Old-age dependency ratio, top three regions at NUTS level 3, 2011
(%, elderly population (aged 65 years and over) as a share of the working-age population (aged 15–64))

	Average	Highest ratio		Second highest ratio		Third highest ratio	
EU-28	23.7	Pinhal Interior Sul (Portugal)	60.0	Evrytania (Greece)	53.5	Ourense (Spain)	49.9
Belgium	26.0	Arr. Veurne	42.4	Arr. Oostende	37.4	Arr. Brugge	33.5
Bulgaria	27.1	Vidin	40.6	Montana	36.8	Gabrovo	36.7
Czech Republic	22.6	Královéhradecký kraj	24.5	Zlínský kraj	24.1	Kraj Vysočina	23.8
Denmark	25.7	Bornholm	36.8	Nordsjælland	30.3	Vest– og Sydsjælland	30.0
Germany	31.2	Dessau–Roßlau. Kreisfreie Stadt	45.6	Görlitz	43.7	Altenburger Land	43.3
Estonia	26.5	Lääne–Eesti	31.3	Kesk-Eesti	29.3	Kirde-Eesti	29.1
Ireland	17.3	West	19.6	Border	19.3	South–East	19.0
Greece	29.5	Evrytania	53.5	Grevena	49.9	Serres	46.0
Spain	25.7	Ourense	48.2	Zamora	46.8	Lugo	45.1
France	26.0	Creuse	44.5	Lot	41.2	Aveyron	40.4
Croatia	26.4	Ličko–senjska županija	40.0	Šibensko–kninska županija	34.1	Karlovačka županija	32.3
Italy	32.0	Savona	46.2	Trieste	46.0	Genova	45.3
Cyprus	18.8	–	:	–	:	–	:
Latvia	27.3	Vidzeme	29.4	Latgale	28.8	Kurzeme	28.2
Lithuania	26.7	Utenos apskritis	32.2	Panevėžio apskritis	30.8	Alytaus apskritis	30.2
Luxembourg	20.4	–	:	–	:	–	:
Hungary	24.6	Békés	27.9	Heves	27.2	Nógrád	27.2
Malta	23.7	Gozo and Comino / Għawdex u Kemmuna	27.6	Malta	23.4	–	:
Netherlands	23.3	Zeeuwsch–Vlaanderen	32.8	Delfzijl en omgeving	30.6	Oost-Groningen	29.4
Austria	26.3	Östliche Obersteiermark	36.6	Westliche Obersteiermark	32.1	Mittelburgenland	31.7
Poland	19.3	Miasto Warszawa	25.1	Miasto Łódź	24.4	Łomżyński	24.1
Portugal	28.8	Pinhal Interior Sul	60.0	Beira Interior Sul	48.0	Serra da Estrela	47.9
Romania	23.7	Teleorman	37.0	Buzău	30.1	Giurgiu	29.9
Slovenia	23.9	Goriška	26.1	Zasavska	25.8	Pomurska	25.2
Slovakia	17.6	Nitriansky kraj	19.2	Bratislavský kraj	19.0	Trenčiansky kraj	18.9
Finland	26.5	Etelä–Savo	37.2	Etelä–Karjala	33.4	Satakunta	33.2
Sweden	29.2	Kalmar län	37.0	Västernorrlands län	36.2	Blekinge län	36.0
United Kingdom	24.9	Dorset CC	42.2	Isle of Wight	39.0	Torbay	38.5
Iceland	19.2	Landsbyggð	20.7	Höfuðborgarsvæði	18.4	–	:
Liechtenstein	19.8	–	:	–	:	–	:
Norway	23.3	Hedmark	30.3	Oppland	29.5	Nordland	27.7
Switzerland	25.3	Ticino	31.8	Basel–Stadt	30.9	Basel–Landschaft	30.3

Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC56)

Elderly population by place of birth

According to the results of the population and housing census conducted in 2011, more than 9 out of 10 (90.4 %) elderly persons in the EU-28 were resident in their country of birth, while 5.5 % were born in another EU Member State and 4.1 % were born in countries outside of the EU.

There were 1.6 million elderly persons born in Poland who were resident in Germany

There were 10 EU Member States where in excess of 1 in 10 elderly persons were foreign-born, from either another EU Member State or a country outside the EU. In Belgium, Sweden, Cyprus and Austria, the proportion of foreign-born elderly persons ranged from 11–13 %, with the elderly born in another EU Member State outnumbering those born in countries outside of the EU. Foreign-born residents accounted for a slightly higher share of the elderly populations of France and Croatia, and in both cases, there were more foreign-born residents from countries outside the EU. In Germany and Luxembourg, the foreign-born population accounted for more than one in five of the elderly population. A high proportion of the foreign-born residents living in Germany were born in Poland (1.6 million people aged 65 and over). This equated to two thirds of the foreign-born elderly residents from other EU Member States who were living in Germany, or to 10.3 % of the total elderly population in Germany. Foreign-born residents accounted for an even higher share of the elderly populations of Latvia and Estonia, around one third of the total (31.1 % and 33.9 % respectively). The vast majority of the foreign-born residents in these two Baltic Member States came from outside the EU, principally from Russia.

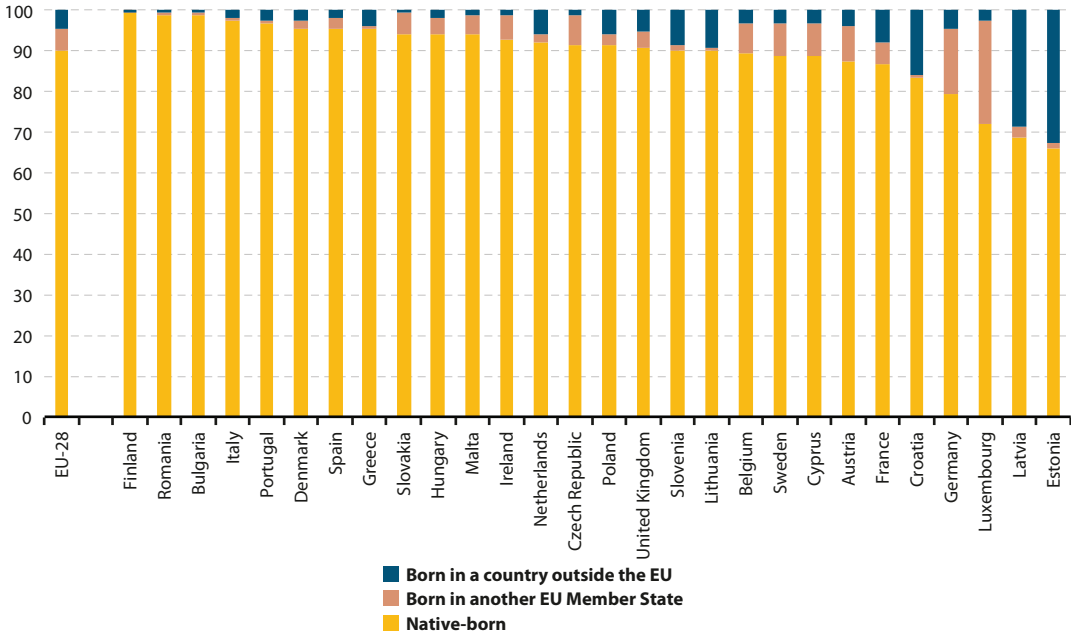
DID YOU KNOW?

In 2011, the highest number of foreign-born elderly persons living in any of the NUTS level 3 regions within the EU was recorded in the southern French region of the Bouches-du-Rhône (which includes the city of Marseille), with just over 74 thousand foreign-born residents aged 65 and over.

The highest proportion of foreign-born elderly persons was recorded in the eastern Estonian region of Kirde-Eesti, where almost three quarters (74.6 %) of the population aged 65 and over had been born abroad.

For more information: refer to the CENSUS HUB

Figure 5: Distribution of elderly population aged 65 and over, by place of birth, 2011 (%)



Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC28)

Senior citizens on the move

Figure 6 shows the proportion of 65–84 year-olds in the EU who moved during the 12-month period prior to the population and housing census in 2011. Some 2.9 % of the elderly changed residence, which was considerably lower than the average for the whole population (8.3 %); note these figures cover only 20 of the EU Member States as data for Bulgaria, Denmark, Germany, Spain, Italy, Lithuania, Finland and Sweden are either partially available or not available.

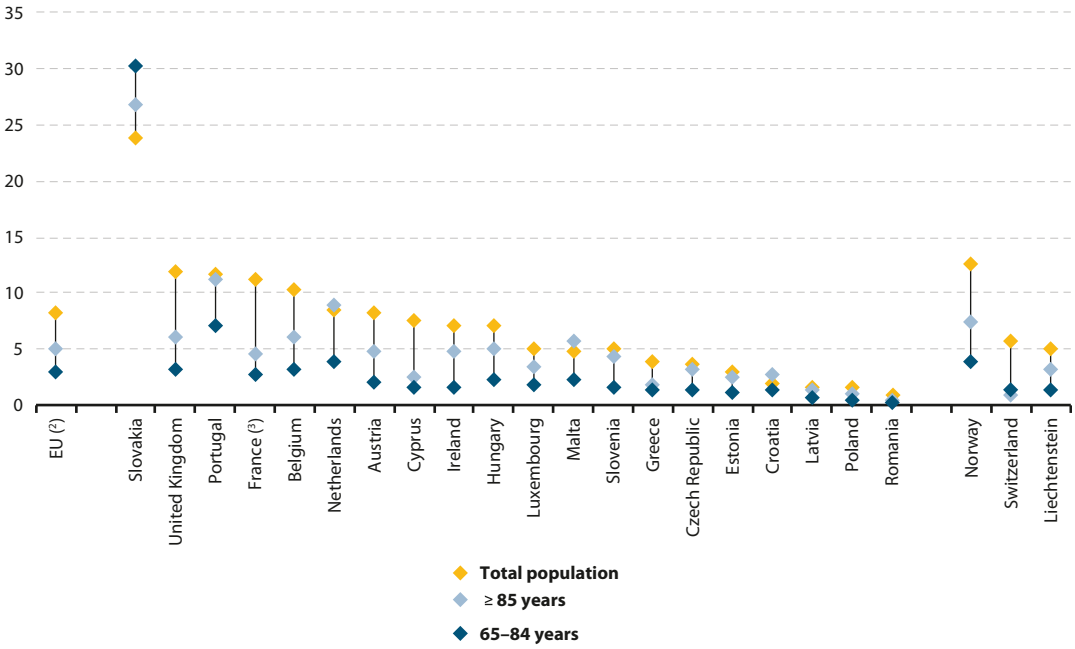
Elderly persons aged 85 and over were more likely to move than those aged 65–84

There was a higher propensity for people aged 85 or over to change accommodation: in the 12-month period prior to the census some 5.0 % of those aged 85 and over in the EU moved home. This may reflect an increasing proportion of the elderly persons moving to live with their relatives or moving into retirement homes or other forms of specialist accommodation.

Many people dream of retiring to another country, especially to a location near the sea and / or in southern Europe. According to results from the population and housing census, the reality is somewhat different as a relatively small number of people move abroad during their retirement. In 2011, two thirds (66.6 %) of the elderly persons in the EU aged 65 and over who changed residence during the 12-month period prior to the census moved within the same NUTS level 3 region, while just over one quarter (28.4 %) moved from another region in the same EU Member State, and 5.1 % moved from outside the reporting country. Nevertheless, there were some destinations that appeared quite popular, as more than one quarter

(27.9 %) of the elderly persons in Greece who had moved and around one fifth of the elderly persons in Cyprus, Luxembourg, Croatia and Malta who had moved, had done so from abroad (from other EU Member States or from countries outside the EU).

Figure 6: Share of residents who moved in the 12 months prior to the census, by age, 2011 ([1])
(%)



([1]) Bulgaria, Denmark, Germany, Spain, Italy, Lithuania, Finland and Sweden: not available.
([2]) Average based on information available. Bulgaria, Denmark, Germany, Spain, Italy, Lithuania, Finland and Sweden: missing or partial information and therefore excluded. France: low reliability.
([3]) Low reliability.
Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC39)

The elderly living alone

According to the EU statistics on income and living conditions (EU-SILC), some 13.4 % of households in the EU-28 in 2013 were composed of a single person aged 65 or over. This share ranged from highs of 18.6 % in Romania and 17.7 % in Lithuania down to lows of 9.9 % in Spain and 7.4 % in Cyprus.

DID YOU KNOW?

In 2011, the highest proportion of elderly persons living alone in the EU-28 was recorded in the Danish capital region of Hovedstaden (42.4 %).

For more information: refer to the CENSUS HUB

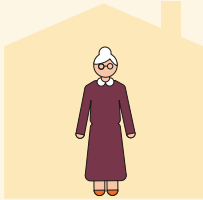
The elderly were more likely to be living alone in urban areas

The population and housing census allows a more detailed analysis: Map 1 shows that 28.5 % of the EU-28 population aged 65 and over were living alone in 2011. This share rose as high as 42.4 % in the Danish capital region of Hovedstaden, while the capital regions of Belgium, the United Kingdom and Finland followed with the next highest shares. As such, while a higher proportion of the elderly population lived in rural regions, those who were in urban regions were more likely to be living alone.

At the other end of the range, fewer than 20 % of the population aged 65 and over were living alone in several Greek, Spanish and Portuguese regions, as well as in Cyprus (a single region at this level of analysis) and the south-eastern Polish region of Podkarpackie; most of these regions were principally rural areas. The lowest share of the elderly living alone — among the NUTS level 2 regions — was recorded in the north-western Spanish region of Galicia (16.8 %).

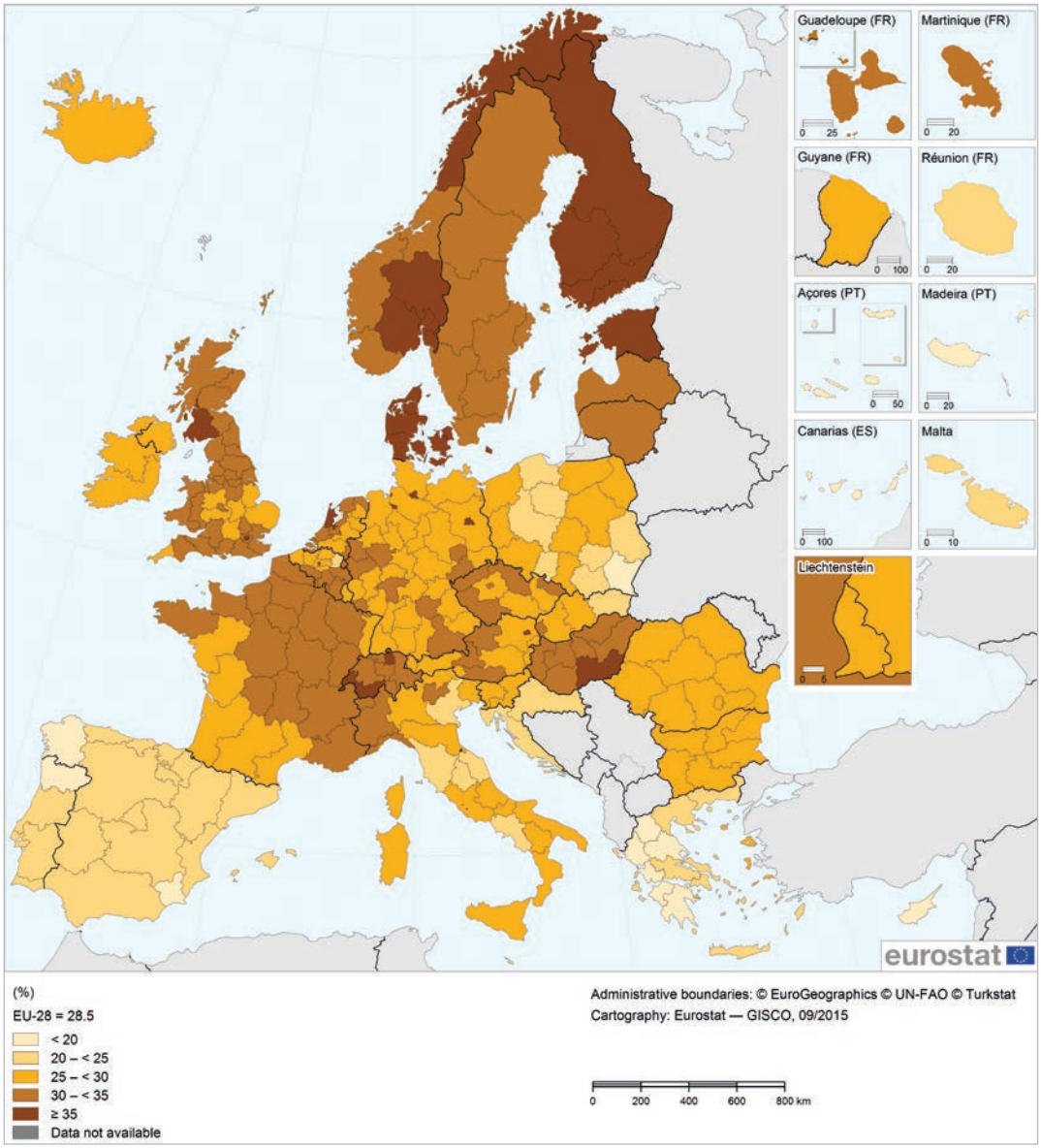
Almost half of all women aged 85 and over were living alone

Women's longer life expectancy has consequences in relation to the gender gap for elderly persons living alone. According to the population and housing census, there were almost 2.0 million elderly women living alone in the EU-28 in 2011, which equated to more than one third (36.9 %) of all women aged 65 and over. For comparison, just over one sixth (16.9 %) of all men aged 65 and over were living alone. Among those aged 85 and over, the share of the population living alone was considerably higher, reaching 49.5 % for women and 27.8 % for men.



Almost half of all women in the EU-28 aged 85 and over were living alone in 2011

Map 1: Share of population aged 65 years and over living alone, by NUTS level 2 region, 2011
(%)



Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC48)

Most elderly people who lived in institutional households were aged 85 and over

Contrary to most social surveys, where data collection is usually restricted to private households, the population and housing census may be used to complement analyses of the elderly as it provides a more extensive set of results including information on those persons living in institutional households.

Most elderly people value their independence and would prefer to continue to live in their own homes. In 2011, the proportion of elderly persons in the EU who were aged 65–84 years and living in an institutional household (health care institutions or institutions for retired or elderly persons) was 1.7 %; note there is no information available for Ireland or Finland. Among those aged 85 and over, the share was more than seven times as high, reaching 12.6 % (see Map 2). The proportion of very old women living in an institutional household (14.8 %) was considerably higher than the corresponding share among very old men (7.6 %).

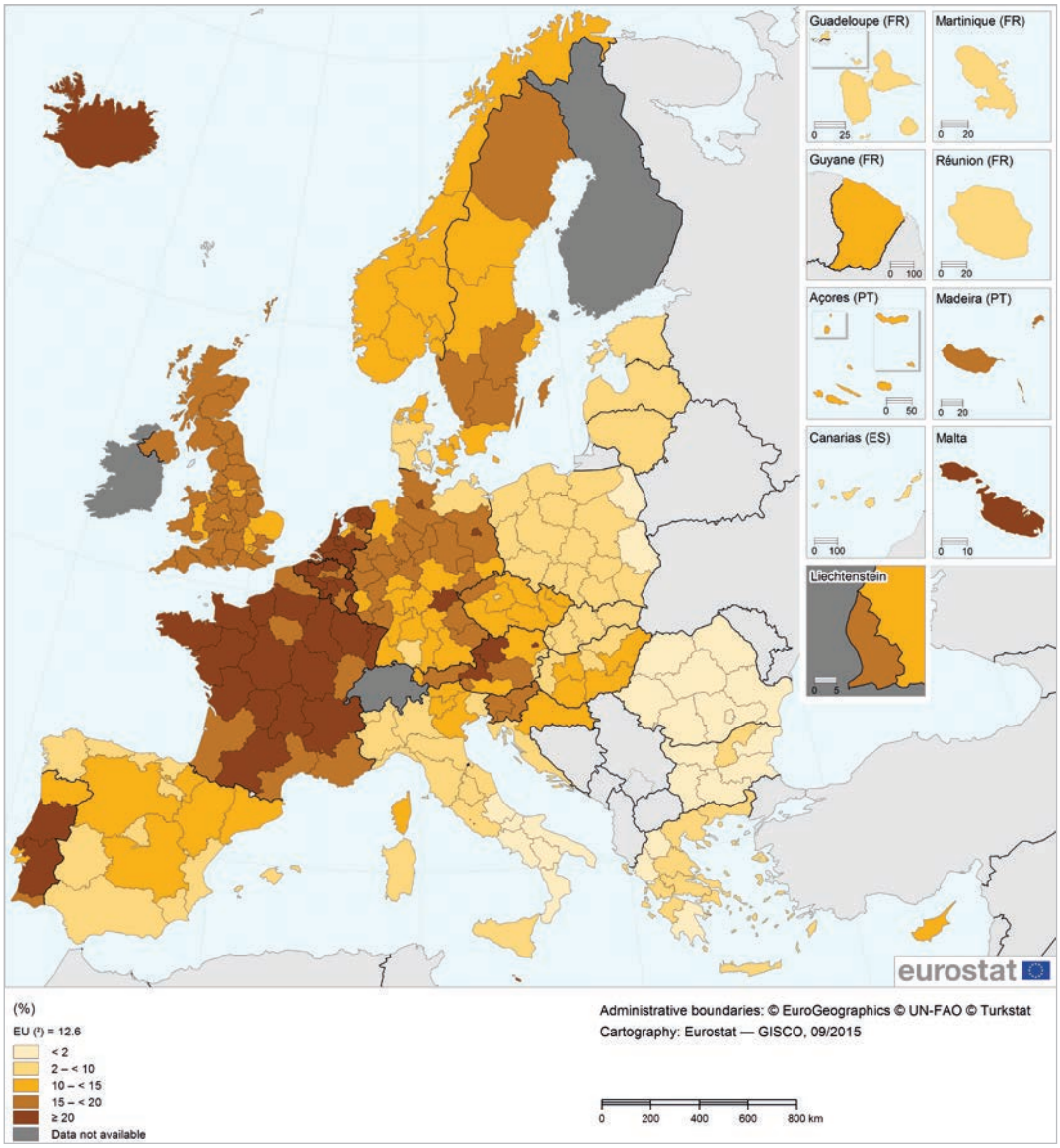
In absolute terms there was almost no difference in the number of people living in an institutional household in the EU in 2011: there were 1.35 million persons aged 85 and over, marginally higher than the 1.34 million aged 65–84 years-old.

In Luxembourg, almost one third of those aged 85 and over were resident in an institutional household

Among NUTS level 2 regions, the highest share of very old persons living in institutional households in 2011 was recorded in Luxembourg (a single region at this level of analysis), almost one third (32.9 %) of the population aged 85 and over. There were four regions across the EU where shares of 25–30 % were recorded, these included the French regions of Pays de la Loire and Bretagne, the Dutch region of Groningen, and Malta (also a single region at this level of analysis).

By contrast, a small proportion of those aged 85 and over in Bulgaria, Romania, southern Italy and parts of Greece were living in institutional households. For example, in the three Romanian regions of Sud-Est, Sud-Vest Oltenia and Sud-Muntenia the share of very old persons living in institutional households was no more than 1.0 % (the three lowest regional shares in the EU).

Map 2: Share of population aged 85 years and over living in an institutional household, by NUTS level 2 region, 2011 (1)
(%)



(1) Ciudad Autónoma de Ceuta (ES63), Ciudad Autónoma de Melilla (ES64), Lubelskie (PL31), Świętokrzyskie (PL33), Podlaskie (PL34), Zachodniopomorskie (PL42), Lubuskie (PL43), Opolskie (PL52) and Warmińsko-Mazurskie (PL62): low reliability.
(2) Excluding Ireland and Finland.
Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC48)

Economically active senior citizens

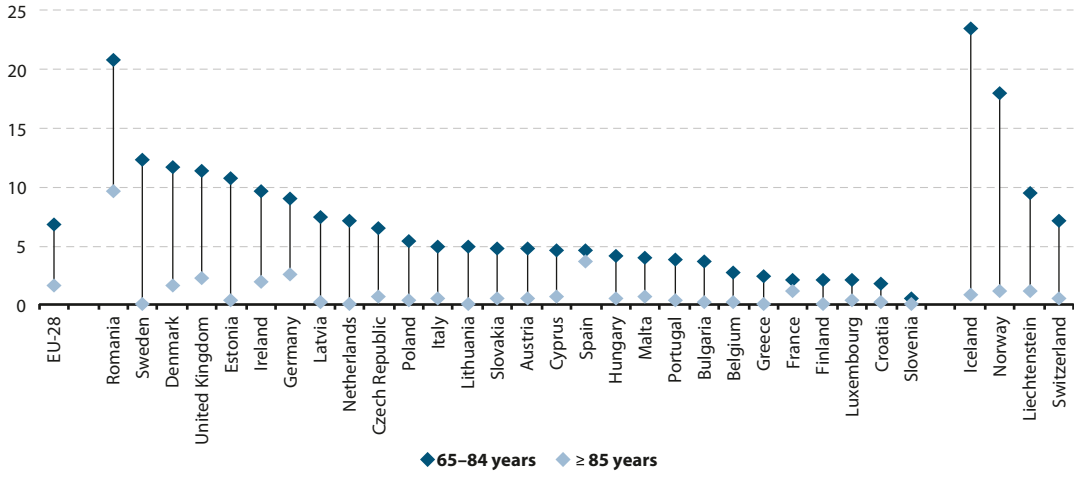
During the coming years, there are likely to be considerable changes in the demographic profile of the EU's labour force. Activity rates among those aged 55–64 increased during the last decade and their growth was unabated during the financial and economic crisis. In the future most commentators expect these patterns to continue, with a growing proportion of the elderly remaining in work for longer, in part due to increases in retirement or pension ages and restrictions on taking early retirement, as well as some people wanting to carry on working and others feeling forced to work for economic reasons.

Nevertheless, beyond the age of 65, the share of the population that remains economically active declines sharply. The population and housing census conducted in 2011 shows there were 5.5 million persons aged 65 and over in the EU-28 who were economically active (employed or unemployed). The activity rate for those aged 65–84 was 6.8 %, while that for the very old (85 years and over) was 1.6 %.

Just over 20 % of those aged 65–84 in Romania remained economically active

In 2011, activity rates among the elderly were generally at their highest in several northern and western EU Member States; Sweden, Denmark, the United Kingdom and Estonia all reported activity rates of more than 10 % for the elderly population aged 65–84 (see Figure 7). However, the highest activity rate was recorded in Romania, where more than one fifth (20.8 %) of the elderly population remained economically active, a share that was almost twice as high as in Sweden (12.3 %). Among those aged 85 years and over, the activity rate in Romania was also by far the highest among the EU Member States, at 9.6 %; this was almost three times as high as the second highest rate, 3.6 % in Spain. One reason for these comparatively high activity rates in Romania may be the relatively large share of the population who continue to work in family-run agricultural holdings, of which there are many in Romania.

Figure 7: Share of population that was economically active, by age, 2011
(%)

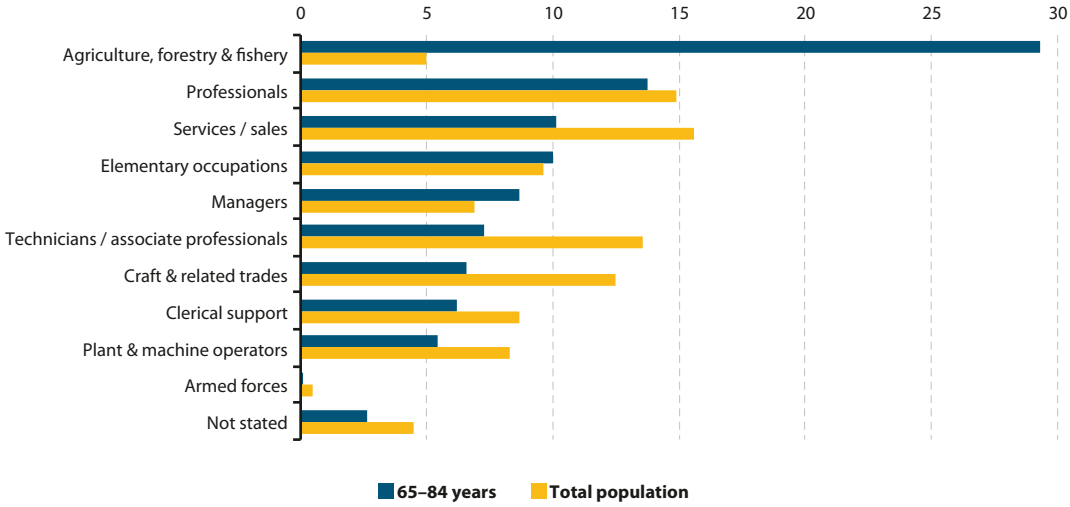


Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC10)

A relatively high proportion of elderly managers, labourers and farm workers remained economically active

The results from the population and housing census also allow an analysis of employment patterns according to occupation. In 2011, almost one third (29.3 %) of the elderly aged 65–84 who remained active had an agricultural, forestry or fishing-related occupation; note that this EU average excludes Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Spain, Italy, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Austria, Finland and Sweden (as there are no data available for each of these EU Member States). The share of elderly active persons with an agricultural, forestry or fishing-related occupation was almost six times as high as the average, as 5.0 % of the total population had agricultural, forestry or fishing-related occupations. There were only two other occupations — as shown in Figure 8 — where the proportion of the elderly active population was higher than the average for the whole population, as 10.0 % of the active elderly population had elementary occupations (compared with a 9.6 % share for the whole population) and 8.7 % of the active elderly population were managers (compared with 6.9 %); in the latter case this may reflect older people continuing to work in a managerial role in family-run businesses.

Figure 8: Distribution of the economically active population, by age and by occupation, EU, 2011 ([1])
(% of economically active population)



([1]) Average based on information available. Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Spain, Italy, Lithuania, Netherlands, Austria, Finland and Sweden: missing or partial information and therefore excluded. France: low reliability.
Source: Eurostat (Census hub HC13)

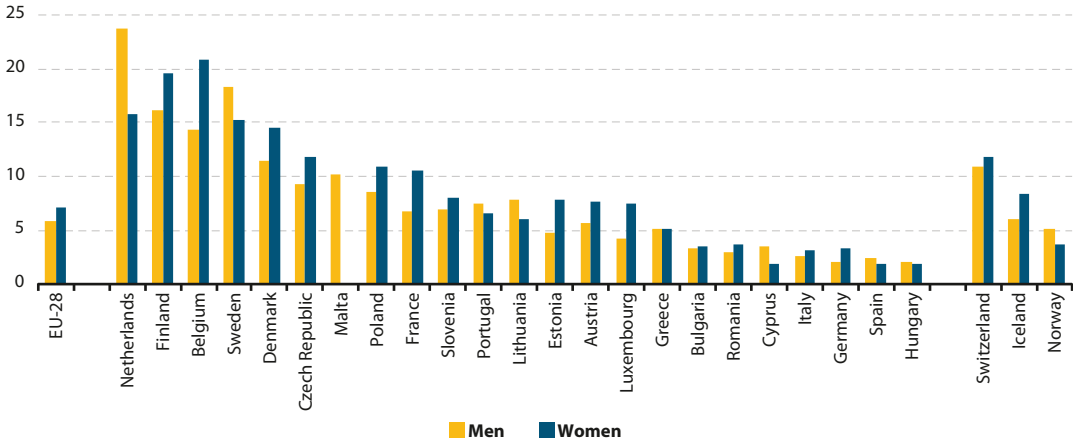
Slightly more than one in five persons in the Netherlands prepared for retirement by reducing their working hours

There are a range of determinants which may impact on decisions linked to older workers' withdrawal from economic activity, including their income and savings, health, working conditions, and relations with other family members; all of these may play a role when taking decisions linked to transitions into retirement. It is important to note that retirement from paid work does not necessarily imply withdrawal from all types of activity, as an increasing proportion of elderly persons undertake unpaid care activities or are volunteers. Nevertheless, the activity rates and analysis of employment presented here are generally restricted to paid work (as an employee, employer or self-employed person) or as an unpaid family worker within a business (where payment is indirect through the benefits accruing to the business).

Figure 9 is based on data that has been taken from an ad-hoc module that formed part of the EU's labour force survey (EU-LFS) in 2012; it shows information relating to the share of elderly persons who reduced their working hours as they approached retirement. In 2012, some 7.1 % of the women aged 55–69 surveyed across the EU-28 stated that they had reduced their hours as they approached retirement; this share was somewhat higher than that recorded among men (5.9 %). This pattern was repeated in most of the EU Member States, as the Netherlands, Sweden, Lithuania, Cyprus, Portugal, Spain and Hungary were the only exceptions to report that a higher proportion of men (than women) reduced their working hours.

There were considerable differences between the EU Member States as regards the share of the population (men and women) who reduced their working hours. In the Netherlands, slightly more than one in five persons (20.5 %) reduced their working hours, while double-digit shares were also recorded in Belgium, the Nordic Member States, the Czech Republic and Malta. By contrast, shares of less than 3.0 % were recorded in Cyprus, Italy, Germany, Spain and Hungary.

Figure 9: Share of persons who reduced their working hours as they approached retirement, by sex, 2012 ([1])



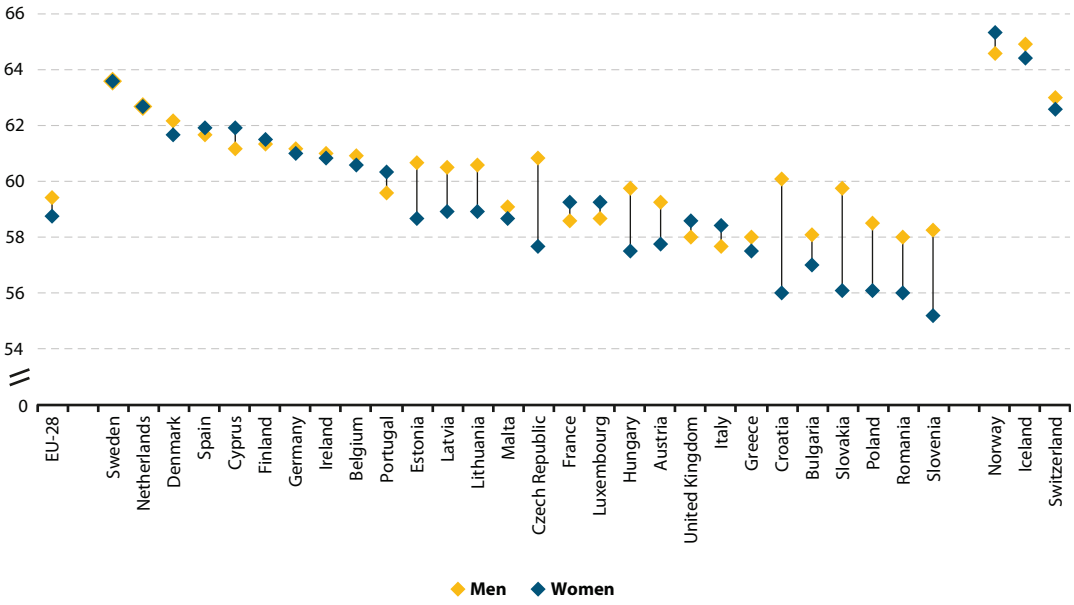
([1]) Among persons aged 55–69 years-old. Ranked on the total share (for men and women combined). Malta: women, not available. Ireland, Croatia, Latvia, Slovakia and the United Kingdom: not available.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: lfso_12reduchrs)

The EU-LFS ad-hoc module for 2012 also collected information in relation to the average age at which an old-age pension was first received. On average, in the EU-28 this was 59.4 years for men and 58.8 years for women; these figures refer to the results of a survey conducted among persons aged 50–69. This gender pattern was repeated in the majority of EU Member States, as France, Cyprus, Portugal, Italy, Luxembourg, the United Kingdom, Spain and Finland were the only exceptions to report a lower average age for men — in each case the gender gap was no more than 0.7 years.

Figure 10 shows that there was little difference between the sexes in relation to the average age for first receiving an old-age pension for those EU Member States that had the highest average ages. For example, the highest values were reported for Sweden and the Netherlands and there was no difference between the sexes for either of these Member States. By contrast, as the average age for first receiving an old-age pension fell the gaps between the sexes tended to increase. Women were more likely to first receive an old-age pension at a younger age than men in all of the eastern EU Member States and the Baltic Member States. This pattern was most apparent in Croatia, where women received a pension, on average, 4.1 years before men and was repeated in Slovakia, the Czech Republic, Slovenia, Poland and Hungary (where women first received an old-age pension at least 2.3 years before men).

Figure 10: Average age at which old-age pension was first received, by sex, 2012 ([1])
(years)



([1]) Among persons aged 50–69 years-old. Note the y-axis is cut. Ranked on the total share (for men and women combined).
Source: Eurostat (online data code: lfso_12agepens)

Elderly tourists

Travelling around the world is something that many people from all generations enjoy doing. Indeed, many older people take great pleasure from having more spare time in their retirement to be able to travel around their own country, other EU Member States or to destinations that are further afield.

Despite the elderly having more free time to travel, according to Eurostat's tourism statistics, just under half (47.1 %) of the EU's population aged 65 and over participated in tourism in 2013 (see Figure 11), compared with a 60.0 % share for the population aged 15 years and over.

As with other age groups, the possibilities for enjoying travel and tourism in older age are linked to the availability of income (financial reasons). However, among the elderly the issue of healthy life expectancy is of particular importance: indeed, the propensity for older people to travel diminishes with age. Indeed, health issues played a slightly greater role than financial issues in determining whether or not the EU's elderly population participated in tourism, while a relatively high proportion of the elderly had no motivation to travel / go on holiday.

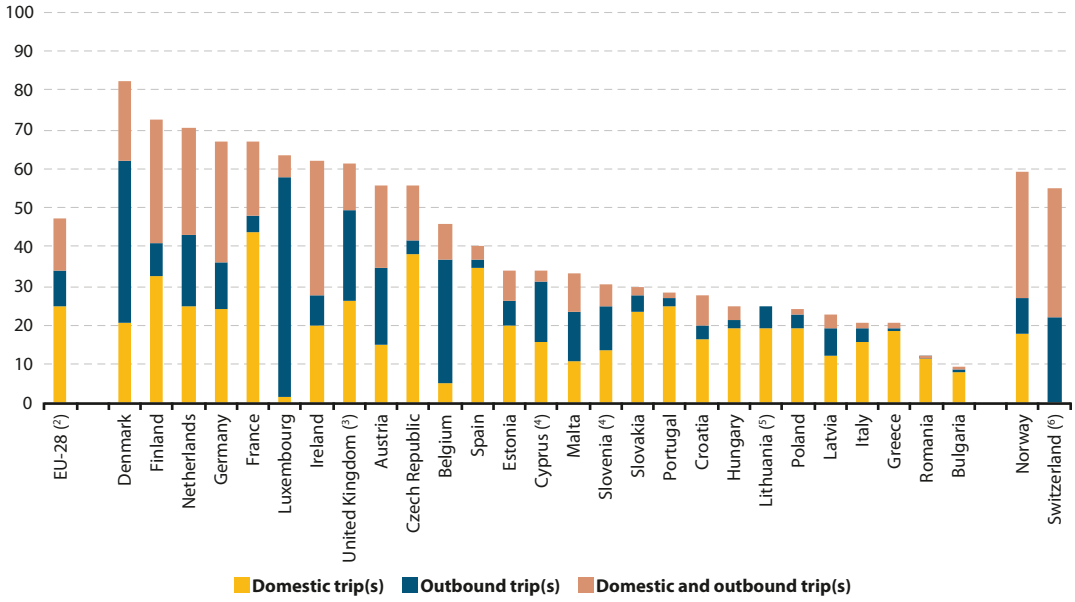
More than four out of every five elderly persons in Denmark went on holiday in 2013

In Denmark, more than four out of every five elderly persons participated in tourism in 2013: approximately one quarter of these went only on domestic trips, one quarter only on foreign trips and around one half on trips for domestic and foreign holidays. There were also relatively high shares — above 60 % — of the elderly participating in tourism in Finland, the Netherlands, Germany, France, Luxembourg, Ireland and the United Kingdom (data are for 2012).

By contrast, the share of the elderly population that participated in tourism was generally much lower among most of the southern and eastern EU Member States, as well as the Baltic Member States. Around one in five elderly persons in Italy and Greece made at least one overnight trip in 2013 (principally within their own countries). This share was even lower in Romania (11.9 %) and Bulgaria (9.0 %).

In relative terms, a lower proportion of the elderly population participated in tourism than the share recorded for those aged 15 years and over; This pattern held across all of the EU Member States for which data are available (no data for Sweden; data for the United Kingdom refer to 2012). In Denmark, the United Kingdom and France, the elderly were almost as likely to go on holiday as the average person. By contrast, in Italy, Slovenia, Romania, Poland, Latvia, Lithuania and Bulgaria, the proportion of the elderly who participated in tourism in 2013 was less than half the average recorded for the population aged 15 years and over.

Figure 11: Proportion of elderly persons participating in tourism for personal purposes, by destination, 2013 ([1])
(% of persons aged 65 years and over)



([1]) Number of residents aged 65 or over having made at least one trip of at least one overnight stay. Sweden: not available.
([2]) Estimates made for the purpose of this publication (excluding Sweden and including 2012 data for the United Kingdom).
([3]) 2012.
([4]) Estimates.
([5]) Tourists having made domestic and outbound trips: not available.
([6]) Tourists having made domestic trips: not available.
Source: Eurostat (online data codes: tour_dem_toage and demo_pjanbroad)

Senior citizens online — silver surfers

Some senior citizens remain somewhat wary of technology and in particular computers and the internet. That said, a growing proportion of the elderly go online, either as younger generations who have used the internet move into the older age classes, or as people develop internet skills in their old age. Indeed, the internet opens up a wealth of new opportunities and services that may be of particular interest to the elderly.

More than one third of the elderly aged 65–74 used the internet at least once a week

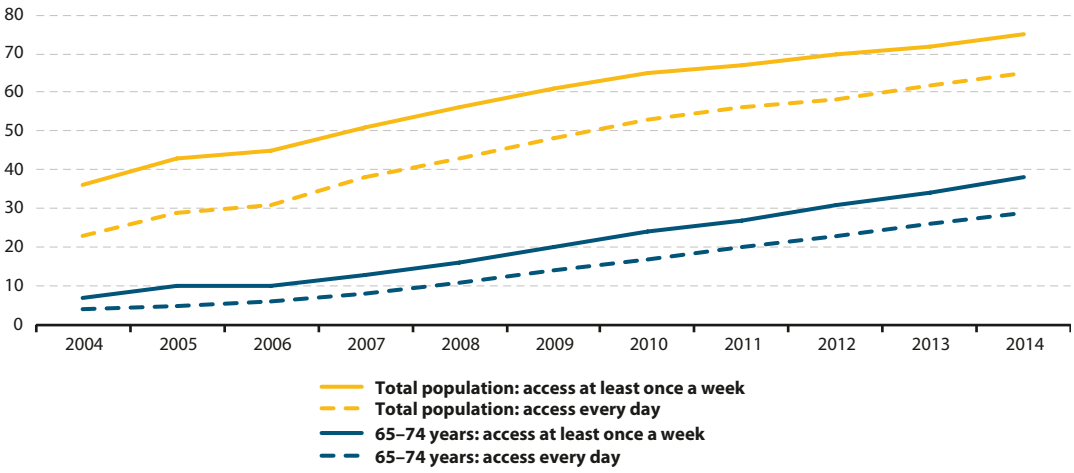
Eurostat's statistics on information and communication technologies (ICTs) show that in 2014 more than one third (38 %) of the elderly population — defined here as those aged 65–74 — in the EU-28 used the internet on a regular basis, in other words at least once a week. This figure

could be compared with the situation a decade earlier, when just 7 % of the elderly population was using the internet at least once a week.

Figure 12 also provides information on the share of the elderly population who made daily use of the internet. These statistics show that, once the elderly are confident enough to use technology, they start using the internet actively, just like younger generations. While 57 % of the elderly who used the internet at least once a week in 2004 did so on a daily basis, this share had risen to 76 % in 2014.

Figure 12: Proportion of the population accessing the internet, by age and frequency of use, EU-28, 2004–14 ([1])

(%)



([1]) 2004–06: EU-27.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: isoc_ci_ifp_fu)

More than one fifth of the elderly used the internet for online banking

Table 3 shows that across the whole of the EU-28, just over one fifth (22 %) of the elderly persons aged 65–74 made use of internet banking in 2014; this was half the share recorded for the total population (44 %). A similar share of the elderly used the internet for making online purchases (23 %) and for reading news sites or online newspapers (25 %). By contrast, relatively few elderly persons participated in social networks on the internet (10 %, compared with 46 % of the total population).

In relation to their regular use of the internet, there is a relatively large digital divide between northern and western EU Member States on one hand and southern and eastern EU Member States on the other. Luxembourg (79 %), Denmark (76 %), Sweden (76 %), the Netherlands (70 %), the United Kingdom (66 %), Finland (62 %) and Belgium (52 %) were the only EU Member States where more than half of the elderly population aged 65–74 used the internet in 2014 at least once a week. In Romania and Bulgaria, on the other hand, less than 10 % of all senior citizens aged 65–74 went online at least once a week, a share that rose to 12 % in Greece and 15 % in Croatia and Cyprus.

Table 3: Proportion of the population using the internet, by age, 2014
(%)

	Internet access: at least once a week		Internet banking		Made an online purchase during the previous 12 months		Read online news sites / newspapers / news magazines		Participated in social networks	
	Total population	65–74 years-old	Total population	65–74 years-old	Total population	65–74 years-old	Total population	65–74 years-old	Total population	65–74 years-old
EU-28	75	38	44	22	50	23	52	25	46	10
Belgium	83	52	61	34	54	22	53	31	52	15
Bulgaria	54	9	5	0	17	0	41	7	40	3
Czech Republic	76	33	46	13	43	11	69	32	40	5
Denmark	92	76	84	71	78	53	71	56	66	29
Germany	82	47	49	23	70	33	61	34	42	6
Estonia	82	41	77	32	49	11	76	37	51	11
Ireland	76	33	48	17	50	15	37	15	50	8
Greece	59	12	13	3	26	4	54	12	41	4
Spain	71	23	37	11	37	7	59	20	51	9
France	80	49	58	34	62	32	39	24	39	9
Croatia	65	15	19	4	28	2	54	12	40	4
Italy	59	19	26	8	22	5	37	13	36	5
Cyprus	65	15	24	4	27	4	50	11	50	5
Latvia	72	28	57	22	34	5	65	28	53	14
Lithuania	69	19	54	11	26	2	68	20	47	4
Luxembourg	93	79	67	53	74	55	81	65	60	26
Hungary	75	27	30	7	32	6	65	25	61	15
Malta	70	34	45	15	47	14	54	26	53	15
Netherlands	91	70	83	61	71	38	57	40	59	23
Austria	77	36	48	14	53	17	54	25	44	10
Poland	63	19	33	8	34	6	47	15	37	5
Portugal	61	21	25	9	26	4	48	15	47	10
Romania	48	8	4	0	10	1	38	7	36	3
Slovenia	68	21	32	8	37	7	58	20	42	6
Slovakia	76	27	41	10	48	10	52	21	50	6
Finland	90	62	86	61	68	29	78	50	56	15
Sweden	91	76	82	65	75	50	82	68	65	33
United Kingdom	89	66	57	33	79	53	59	32	60	19
Iceland	97	83	91	70	66	23	93	77	83	53
Norway	95	74	89	68	77	38	89	67	71	27
Switzerland	86	57	54	29	67	35	68	38	43	8

Source: Eurostat (online data codes: isoc_bde15cua and isoc_bde15cbc)

7

Demographic challenges — population projections

Introduction

The size of a population changes in a dynamic fashion over time, as a function of three demographic factors: births, deaths and migratory flows, each of which shapes the population's structure over time. The main outcome of the current low levels of fertility and mortality in the EU-28 is a progressive ageing of the population. This is an ongoing demographic process and its consequences are analysed by policymakers from social, economic and labour-related perspectives.

Europop2013 — population projections

Europop2013, the latest population projections released by Eurostat, provide a main scenario and four variants for population developments from 2013 to 2080 across 31 European countries: all of the EU-28 Member States, as well as Iceland, Norway and Switzerland. These projections were produced using data for 1 January 2013 as a starting point and therefore include any modifications made to demographic statistics resulting from the 2011 population census exercise.

Europop2013 projections result from the application of a set of assumptions on future developments for fertility, mortality and net migration. The projections should not be considered as forecasts, as they show what would happen to the resulting population structure if the set of assumptions are held constant over the entire time horizon under consideration; in other words, the projections are 'what-if' scenarios that track population developments under a set of assumptions. As these projections are made over a relatively long time horizon, statements about the likely future developments for the EU's population should be taken with caution, and interpreted as only one of a range of possible demographic developments.

This chapter presents a concise summary of the results from the 'main scenario' of Europop2013. It is restricted to the period covering 2014 to 2080 and hence the time-series shown begin with the most recent official statistics available at the time of writing (namely, those for 2014).

Fluctuating pattern of population developments during the next six decades

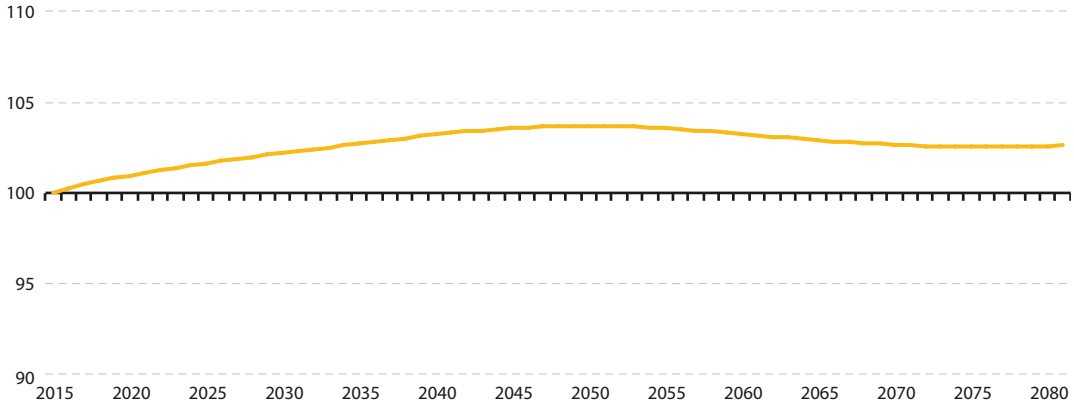
Europop2013 projections indicate that the EU-28's population will grow overall by 2.6 % between 2014 and 2080, with the number of inhabitants increasing by 13.2 million persons. The EU's population is projected to peak around 2050, reaching 526 million persons, an increase of 18.7 million (or 3.7 %) compared with the situation in 2014. The size of the EU's population is then projected to fall to reach a low of 519.8 million by 2075, after which a modest increase is projected through to 2080, when the EU-28's population is projected to still be around 520 million persons (see Table 1 and Figure 1).

Table 1: Demographic balance, 1 January 2015 – 1 January 2080
(thousands)

	Projected population 1.1.2015	Cumulative births	Cumulative deaths	Cumulative natural population change	Cumulative net migration	Total population change	Projected population 1.1.2080
				2015–80			
EU-28	508 224	327 078	387 132	–60 054	71 866	11 812	520 035
Belgium	11 337	10 419	8 911	1 508	3 770	5 277	16 614
Bulgaria	7 200	3 408	5 691	–2 283	9	–2 275	4 925
Czech Republic	10 536	6 996	8 327	–1 331	1 793	462	10 998
Denmark	5 650	4 470	4 205	264	878	1 142	6 792
Germany	80 709	39 553	64 428	–24 875	9 544	–15 331	65 379
Estonia	1 312	728	969	–242	–40	–282	1 030
Ireland	4 603	3 993	2 811	1 182	111	1 293	5 896
Greece	10 978	4 815	7 980	–3 164	–116	–3 280	7 698
Spain	46 390	24 331	34 674	–10 343	11 552	1 209	47 599
France	66 176	55 256	47 538	7 718	4 949	12 667	78 843
Croatia	4 245	2 246	3 285	–1 039	265	–773	3 472
Italy	60 945	36 388	49 776	–13 388	17 502	4 114	65 059
Cyprus	873	658	626	31	349	380	1 253
Latvia	1 986	970	1 390	–421	–214	–635	1 351
Lithuania	2 901	1 366	1 871	–505	–554	–1 059	1 842
Luxembourg	563	718	484	235	490	724	1 287
Hungary	9 863	5 600	7 909	–2 309	1 131	–1 178	8 685
Malta	426	294	324	–29	85	55	482
Netherlands	16 877	11 241	12 328	–1 087	929	–159	16 718
Austria	8 551	5 510	6 804	–1 294	2 305	1 011	9 562
Poland	38 500	18 984	28 727	–9 743	825	–8 918	29 582
Portugal	10 368	4 205	7 893	–3 689	435	–3 254	7 114
Romania	19 909	11 642	15 246	–3 604	33	–3 571	16 338
Slovenia	2 067	1 242	1 600	–358	298	–60	2 006
Slovakia	5 417	2 397	4 148	–1 751	202	–1 549	3 868
Finland	5 479	4 202	4 222	–20	923	903	6 382
Sweden	9 722	9 121	7 416	1 705	2 683	4 389	14 111
United Kingdom	64 643	56 327	47 550	8 777	11 728	20 506	85 149
Iceland	329	327	211	115	23	139	467
Norway	5 177	5 496	4 080	1 416	2 259	3 674	8 851
Switzerland	8 224	6 715	6 520	195	3 452	3 647	11 871

Source: Eurostat (online data code: proj_13ndbims)

Figure 1: Projected population as of 1 January, EU-28, 2014–80 ([1])
(2014 = 100)



([1]) Note the y-axis is cut.
Source: Eurostat (online data codes: demo_gind and proj_13npms)

An ageing society

The Europop2013 main scenario projects that the pattern of population ageing within the EU-28 is likely to continue through to 2080. Ageing may be measured through an analysis of various demographic indicators, including:

- the median age;
- the proportion of the population in each of the main demographic age groups — namely, children (defined here as those aged 0–14 years), the working-age population (15–64 years) and the elderly population (65 years or over); and,
- age-dependency ratios — such as the young-age dependency ratio, the old-age dependency ratio or the cumulated age dependency ratio ([1]).

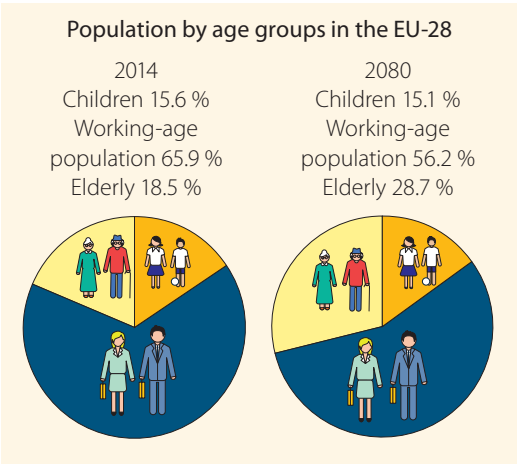
Median age of the EU-28 population expected to increase by 4.2 years between 2014 and 2080

The median age of the EU-28's population is projected to increase by 4.2 years, from 42.2 years in 2014 to 46.4 years in 2080. Decomposed by sex, the median age is projected to increase for men by 4.4 years (from 40.8 to 45.2 years), while for women the projected increase is 4.0 years (from 43.6 to 47.6 years).

Although the total population of the EU-28 is projected to increase modestly during the period 2014 to 2080, the relative and absolute sizes of the different population age groups are expected to follow contrasting developments (Figure 2).

([1]) The cumulated, or total, age dependency ratio is defined as the following ratio: (the number of children + the number of elderly persons) / the number of working-age persons.

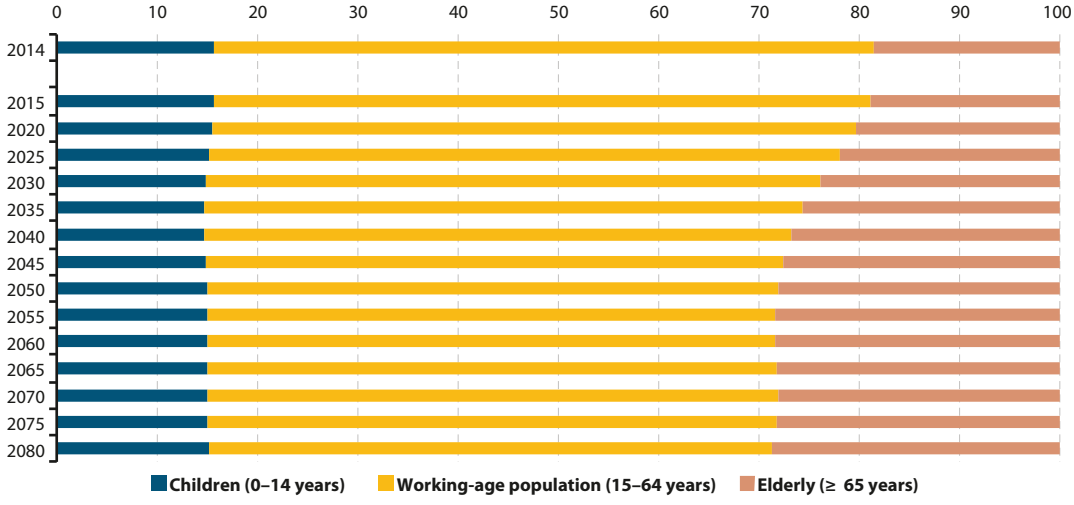
The proportion of children in the EU-28's population is projected to decrease slightly in both relative and absolute terms from a share of 15.6 % (or 79.1 million children) in 2014 to 15.1 % (or 78.7 million children) by 2080, with the share falling to a low of 14.6 % during the period 2035 to 2041 before recovering somewhat.



The proportion of the EU-28's working-age population in the total population is also expected to decrease in size, falling from 333.8 million persons in 2014 (or 65.9 % of the total population) to 292.3 million persons in 2080 (56.2 %); the overall reduction in the working-age population during the next six and a half decades is therefore projected to be equivalent to 41.5 million persons. The share of the working-age population in the total population is projected to fall below the threshold of 60 % in 2035 and to remain below this level through to 2080.

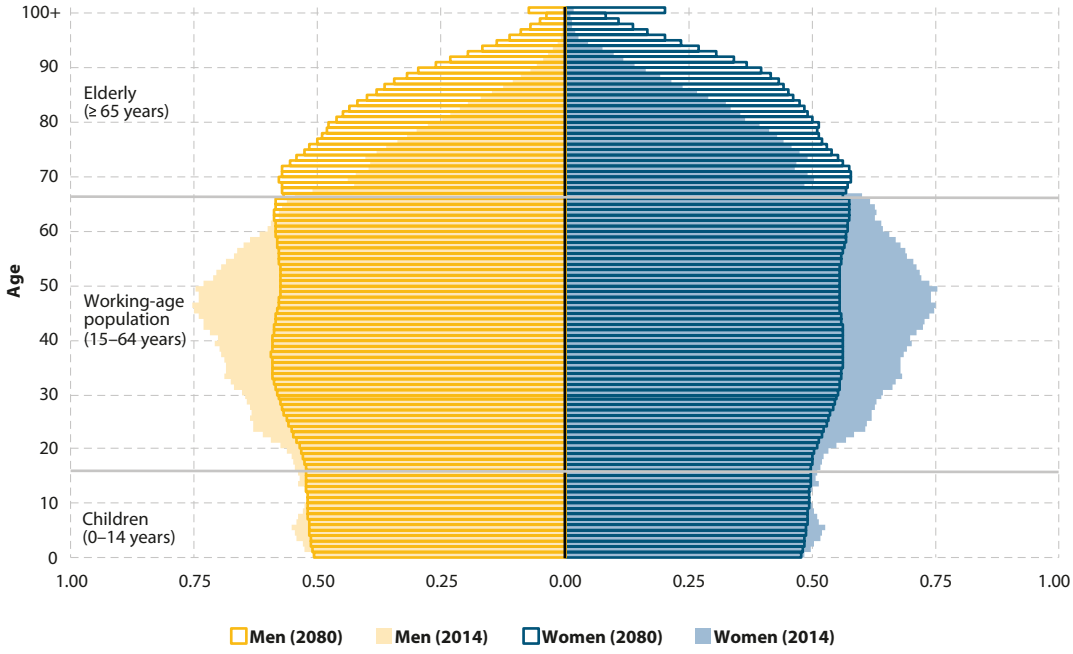
The share of the elderly in the total population of the EU-28 is projected to increase from 18.5 % (or 93.9 million elderly persons) in 2014 to 28.7 % (or 149.1 million elderly persons) by 2080. As such, the share of the elderly is projected to rise by 10.2 percentage points, reflecting an additional 55.2 million elderly persons in the EU by 2080.

Figure 2: Population structure by broad age groups, EU-28, 2014–80
(% of total population)



Source: Eurostat (online data codes: demo_pjanbroad and proj_13ndbims)

Figure 3: Population pyramids, EU-28, 2014 and 2080
(% of total population)



Source: Eurostat (online data codes: demo_pjan and proj_13npms)

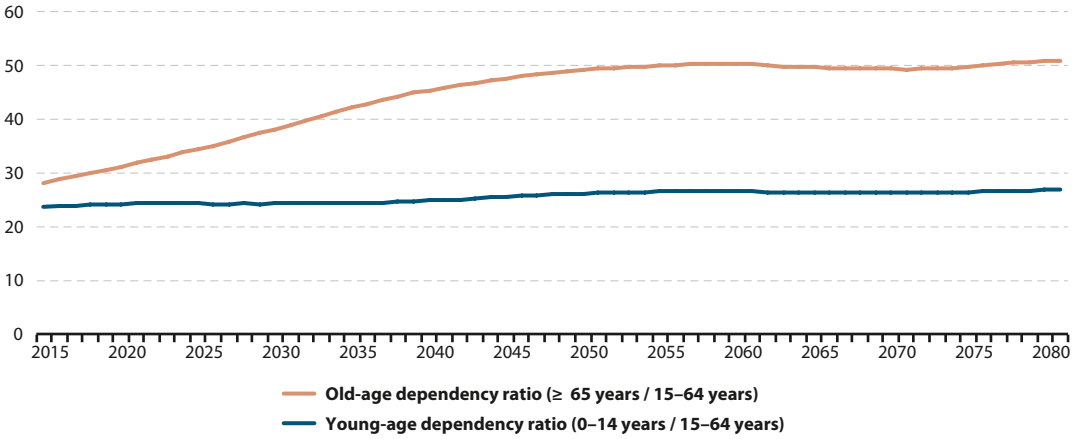
Europop2013 projects there will be 12.3 million people aged 80 years or over in the EU-28 by 2080

Europop2013 projections indicate there will be substantial increases in the number of very elderly persons in the EU-28 with the pattern of a progressively ageing EU population continuing in the coming six and a half decades. The share of the very old — defined here as those aged 80 years or over — in the total EU-28 population is projected to increase from 5.1 % in 2014 to 12.3 % by 2080. In absolute figures, their number is projected to more than double, rising from 26.0 million very old persons in 2014 to 63.9 million by 2080.

These changes in the EU-28's population structure can be viewed more clearly by referring to Figure 3, which provides a graphical presentation of population changes by age and by sex through superimposing two population pyramids (for 2014 and 2080). The differences between these pyramids show the projected changes in the composition of the EU-28's population, namely, that:

- the already low number of births is projected to continue, as the base of the pyramid will remain relatively unchanged, indicating that there will be little or no population growth;
- the working-age population will shrink considerably between 2014 and 2080, thus further increasing the burden on those of working-age to sustain the dependent population;
- the proportion of elderly persons will grow much larger — as shown by the broadening at the top of the pyramid — reflecting the ageing of the EU's population as a result of reduced mortality rates;

Figure 4: Age dependency ratios, EU-28, 2014–80
(%)



Source: Eurostat (online data codes: demo_pjanind and proj_13ndbims)

- the number of centenarian women is projected to be considerably higher than the number of centenarian men.

The 2014 population pyramid may be described as a rhomboid (a parallelogram where the adjacent sides are unequal), due to the relatively high number of men and women aged 45–50, a cohort who were born in the late 1960s. These people will, in the coming years, gradually move into retirement, while there are fewer persons of working-age in the generations that follow. Indeed, this shift in age distribution provides further confirmation of the ongoing process of population ageing, as the share of the EU-28's working-age population declines and the proportion of elderly persons increases.

By 2080 there will only be two persons of working-age for each elderly person

Demographic dependency ratios are based on the age structure of the population rather than their employment status. Figure 4 shows projected age dependency ratios for the EU-28, covering the period 2014 to 2080. The young-age dependency ratio is projected to increase modestly, rising by 3.8 percentage points from 23.1 % in 2014 to 26.9 % by 2080. By contrast, the EU-28 old-age dependency ratio is projected to increase at a rapid pace through to 2045 reflecting the on-going process of retirement among the baby-boomer and subsequent age cohorts (a group of people who have a shared event during a particular time span, for example, those people born in the EU between 1970 and 1975). Indeed, the old-age dependency ratio is projected to increase by 22.9 percentage points from 28.1 % in 2014 to 51.0 % by 2080. As such, while there were almost four persons of working-age for every elderly person in 2014, by 2080 this ratio is expected to be about 2:1.

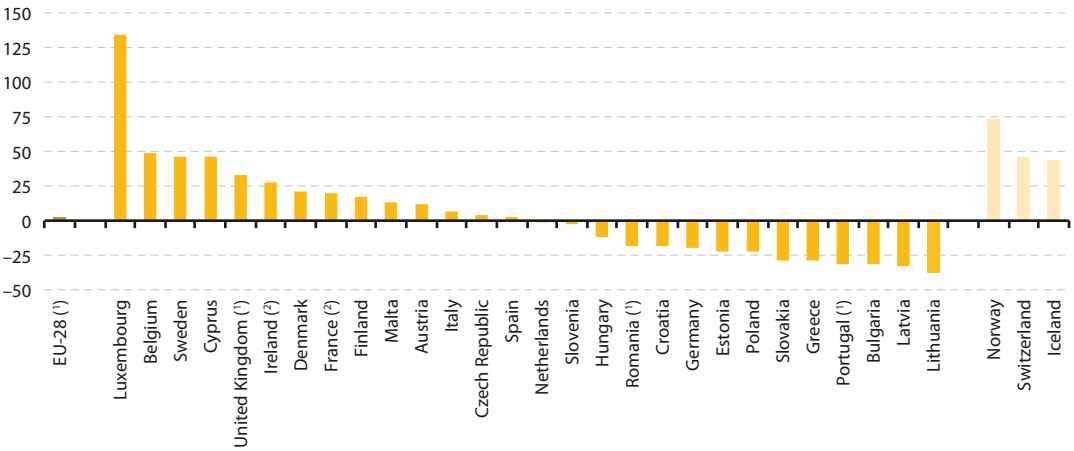
Population projections for the EU Member States and EFTA countries

By 2080, Germany is likely to be the third largest EU Member State in population terms, behind the United Kingdom and France

Among the individual EU Member States, the projected changes in population structures vary considerably, both in terms of when the highest level of population is reached and the scale of population increases / decreases. A closer analysis of the data for 2050 — a year after the EU-28's population is projected to peak — shows that the number of inhabitants in each of the United Kingdom (77.2 million), France (74.3 million), Italy (67.1 million) and Belgium (14.6 million) is expected to have increased by more than 3 million persons when compared with 2014. For almost half of the EU Member States, the projections for 2050 indicate that population numbers will be lower than in 2014, with Germany (74.7 million) and Poland (34.8 million) both recording decreases of more than 3 million inhabitants. By the end of the time horizon in 2080, Europop2013 projections indicate that the EU Member States with the largest populations will be the United Kingdom (85.1 million inhabitants), France (78.8 million), Germany (65.4 million), Italy (65.1 million) and Spain (47.6 million).

Figure 5 presents the projected changes to the populations of the EU Member States during the period 2014 to 2080, with an increase in the number of inhabitants foreseen for 14 of the EU Member States, as well as for Iceland, Switzerland and Norway. Population numbers are predicted to rise by more than 30 % in eight of these countries, with the highest gains expected in Luxembourg (where the population is projected to increase by 134 %) and Norway (up 73 %). The rapid population increase in Luxembourg is largely due to an assumption that relatively high levels of net migration observed during the last decade will continue over the coming years. The other six countries where the population is predicted to rise by 30–50 % include the United Kingdom, Iceland, Switzerland, Cyprus, Sweden and Belgium, while the number of inhabitants is expected to rise by 10–30 % in Austria, Malta, Finland, France, Denmark and Ireland; smaller population increases (up to 10 %) are projected for Italy, the Czech Republic and Spain.

Figure 5: Projected population change, 2014–80



(1) 2014: estimate. (2) 2014: provisional.
Source: Eurostat (online data codes: demo_gind and proj_13npms)

The largest reductions in population numbers are anticipated in eastern and southern EU Member States

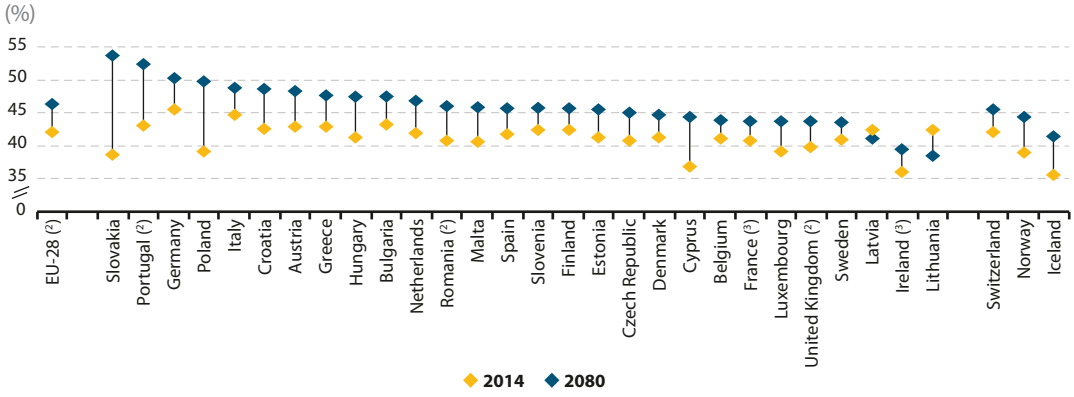
By contrast, the number of inhabitants is projected to fall between 2014 and 2080 in 14 of the EU Member States. Among these, there will be almost no change in the number of inhabitants in the Netherlands and a modest reduction in Slovenia (where the population is expected to contract by 2.6 %). The decline in the number of inhabitants is projected to be within the range of 12–22 % in Hungary, Romania, Croatia, Germany, Estonia and Poland, while a reduction of around 30 % is projected for Slovakia, Greece, Portugal, Bulgaria and Latvia. The largest contraction is projected for Lithuania, as its population is predicted to fall by more than one third (37.4 %).

By 2080, all of the EU Member States will have aged, although the pace of change will vary considerably. These differences are reflected in the projected values for median ages and age-dependency ratios. The pattern of population ageing is already being experienced in some of the EU Member States and is projected to continue and, in some cases, increase at an even faster pace, with a growing number of persons becoming dependent on the working-age population. As a result, population ageing will likely have a considerable impact on public expenditure plans, for example, in relation to pensions, healthcare and long-term care costs.

Figure 6 shows that during the period 2014 to 2080, the median age of the EU-28 population is projected to increase by 4.2 years to reach 46.4 years. Poland and Slovakia are the only EU Member States projected to see their median ages rise by more than 10 years (increases of 10.7 years and 15.1 years respectively), while all but two of the remaining Member States are expected to see their median age continue to increase. The two exceptions — Latvia and Lithuania — are both projected to record a decrease in their median ages (of 1.1 years and 3.9 years respectively) during the period 2014 to 2080, indicating that they will have a somewhat younger population at the end of the period.

Europop2013 projections indicate that there will be 11 EU Member States where the median age in 2080 is likely to be higher than the EU-28 average, namely, the Netherlands, Bulgaria, Hungary, Greece, Austria, Croatia, Italy, Poland, Germany, Portugal and Slovakia. Among these, the median age is expected to rise to 50 years or more in Germany (50.3), Portugal (52.5) and Slovakia (53.7) by 2080.

Figure 6: Median age as of 1 January, 2014 and 2080 (1)



(1) Note the y-axis is cut.
(2) 2014: estimate.
(3) 2014: provisional.
Source: Eurostat (online data codes: demo_pjanind and proj_13ndbims)

Age dependency ratios for the EU Member States and EFTA countries

The share of children in the total EU-28 population is projected to fall at a modest pace during the period 2014 to 2080, with a 0.5 percentage point reduction, as those aged 0–14 are projected to account for 15.1 % of the total number of inhabitants in the EU-28 by 2080. Over this same period, the share of young persons in the total population is projected to increase moderately in eight of the EU Member States and to decrease for the others. Lithuania (+ 3.9 percentage points) and Latvia (+ 2.4 percentage points) are projected to have the highest increases in their respective shares of young persons, while Slovakia (– 3.4 percentage points) and Ireland (– 3.2 percentage points) are projected to have the largest decreases.

The EU-28 young-age dependency ratio — which compares the number of children with the number of people in the working-age population — is projected to rise during the period 2014 to 2050 when it is expected to reach 26.3 %. Thereafter, there will only be a modest increase in the EU-28's young-age dependency ratio through to 2080, when it is projected to be 26.9 % (an overall gain of 3.2 percentage points from 2014 to 2080). These changes result from the contraction in the number of working-age persons being faster than the reduction in the numbers of births and children.

Among the EU Member States, the young-age dependency ratio is expected to increase the most between 2014 and 2080 in Lithuania (up 8.5 percentage points) and to rise in each of the remaining EU Member States, except for Ireland, where the young-age dependency ratio is projected to fall by 1.9 percentage points; a reduction of 0.4 percentage points is also expected in Iceland. By 2080, 13 of the EU Member States are expected to have a young-age dependency ratio that is higher than the EU-28 average, peaking at more than 30 % in Lithuania and Ireland.

The share of the working-age population will fall in each of the EU Member States

In 2014, the EU-28's working-age population accounted for almost two thirds (65.9 %) of the total population. This share is expected to fall to 56.9 % by 2050 and to then decline marginally further to reach 56.2 % by 2080. In all 31 countries for which projections are available (the 28 EU Member States, as well as Iceland, Norway and Switzerland), the share of the working-age population in the total population is foreseen to contract during the period 2014 to 2080. The pace at which the share of the working-age population will likely decline is expected to be faster than the EU-28 average (– 9.7 percentage points) in 17 of the EU Member States, with the largest relative declines recorded for Portugal, Poland and Slovakia.

By contrast, the share of elderly persons in the total population is projected to increase in all 31 countries during the period 2014 to 2080. Across the whole of the EU-28, the proportion of elderly persons in the total population is projected to increase from 18.5 % to 28.7 % (a rise of 10.2 percentage points). Among the EU Member States, the relative share of the elderly in the total population is projected to increase by between 2.3 percentage points (in Lithuania) and 22.4 percentage points (in Slovakia). Europop2013 projections indicate that the share of elderly persons in the total population will increase by at least 10 percentage points in more than half of the EU Member States between 2014 and 2080, while the changes predicted for the three EFTA countries were close to this threshold: Iceland (an increase of 10.8 percentage points), Norway (10.5 percentage points) and Switzerland (9.9 percentage points).

A shrinking number of working-age persons and a growing number of elderly persons compound the impact on old-age dependency ratios. Within the

EU-28, the old-age dependency ratio is projected to rise from 28.1 % in 2014 to 51.0 % by 2080 (an increase of 22.9 percentage points). The vast majority of this change will take place during the period 2014 to 2050, as the EU-28 old-age dependency ratio is projected to increase from 49.4 % to 51.0 % between 2050 and 2080.

By 2050, projections indicate that there will be fewer than two working-age persons for each elderly person in 12 of the EU Member States

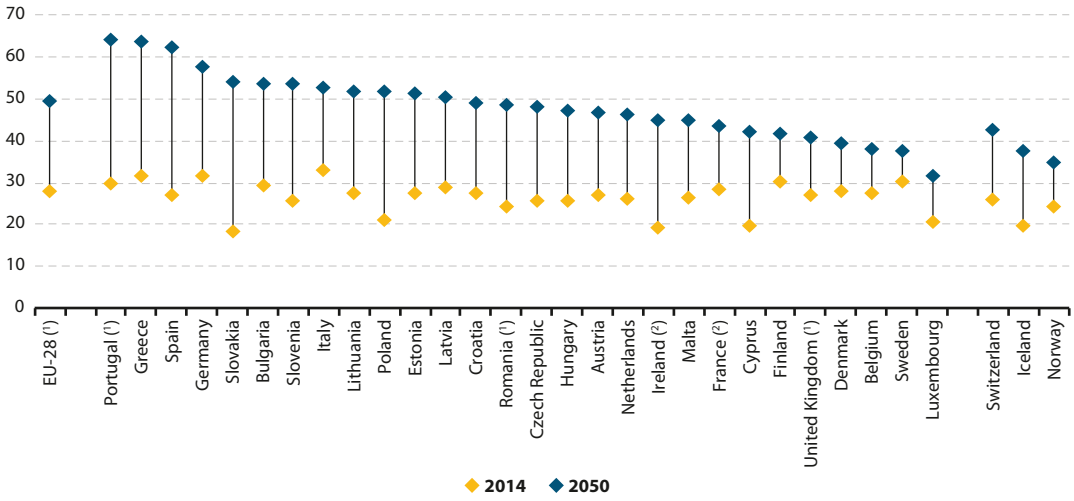
Among the EU Member States, the largest increases for the old-age dependency ratio are predicted for Slovakia, Poland and Portugal, where the projected gains are in excess of 35 percentage points for the whole of the period 2014 to 2080. The old-age dependency ratio was expected to increase in all 31 countries, with the highest ratios in 2080 being recorded in Slovakia (68.7 %) and Portugal (68.2 %), while ratios of just less than 60 % are projected for Germany and Poland.

Figure 7 depicts developments for the old-age dependency ratio between 2014 and 2050 (the year after the EU-28's population is projected to peak). There are 12 EU Member States where the old-age dependency ratio is projected to be higher than 50 % by 2050 — with less than two working-age persons for each person aged 65 or more. For 6 out of these 12 Member States — Slovakia, Poland, Spain, Portugal, Slovenia and Greece — the old-age dependency ratio is projected to double between 2014 and 2050; this is also the case for Ireland and Cyprus.

Slovakia will move from recording the lowest old-age dependency ratio in 2014 to having the highest old-age dependency ratio by 2080

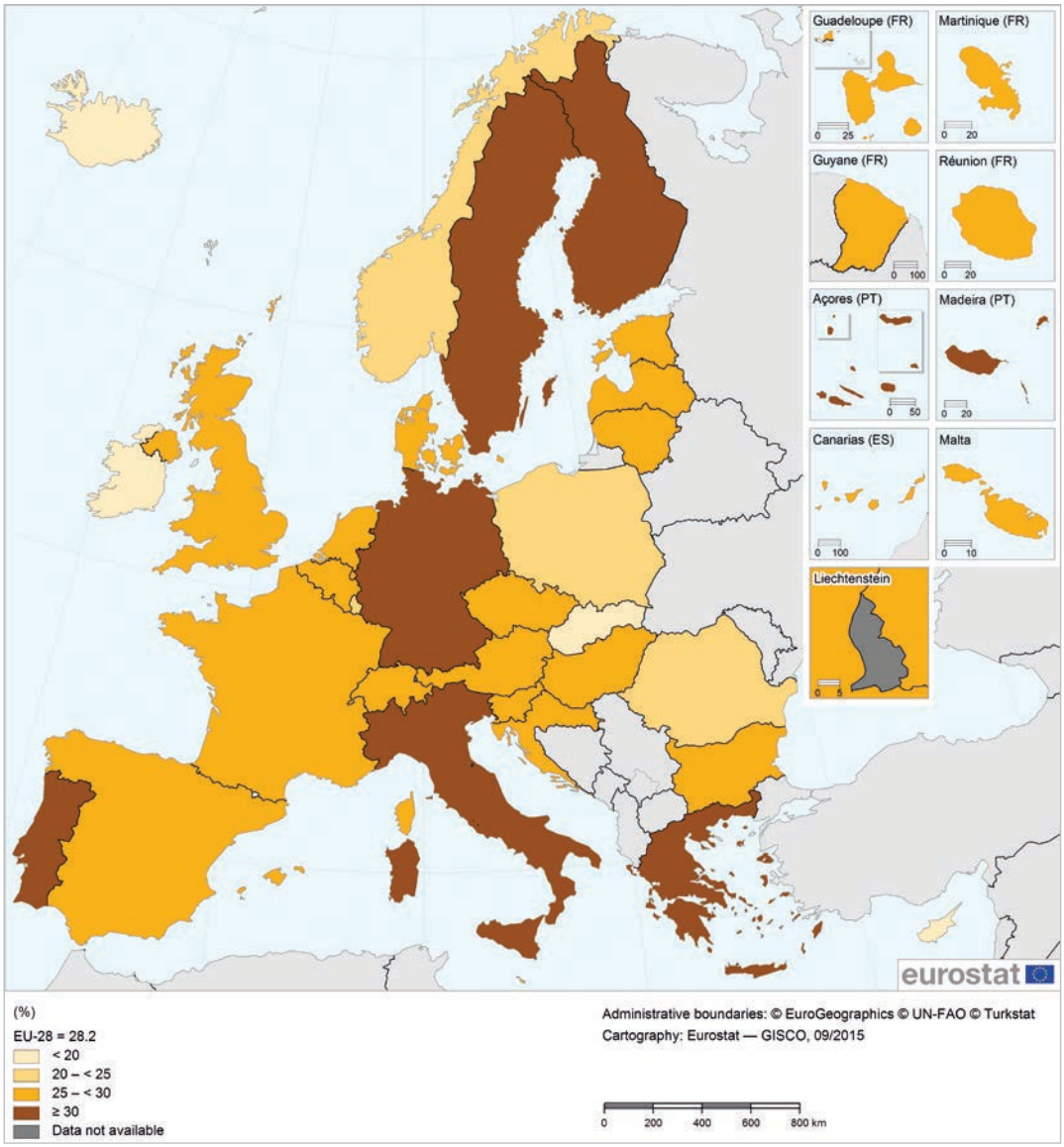
Maps 1 and 2 provide an alternative picture of the old-age dependency ratio presenting the situation in 2014 and 2080. In 2014, the old-age dependency ratio ranged from a low of 19.0 % in Slovakia to a high of 32.9 % in Italy. By 2080 the situation is predicted to have changed considerably, as the ratio will range from 34.0 % in Lithuania up to 68.7 % in Slovakia.

Figure 7: Old-age dependency ratio, 2014 and 2050
(%)



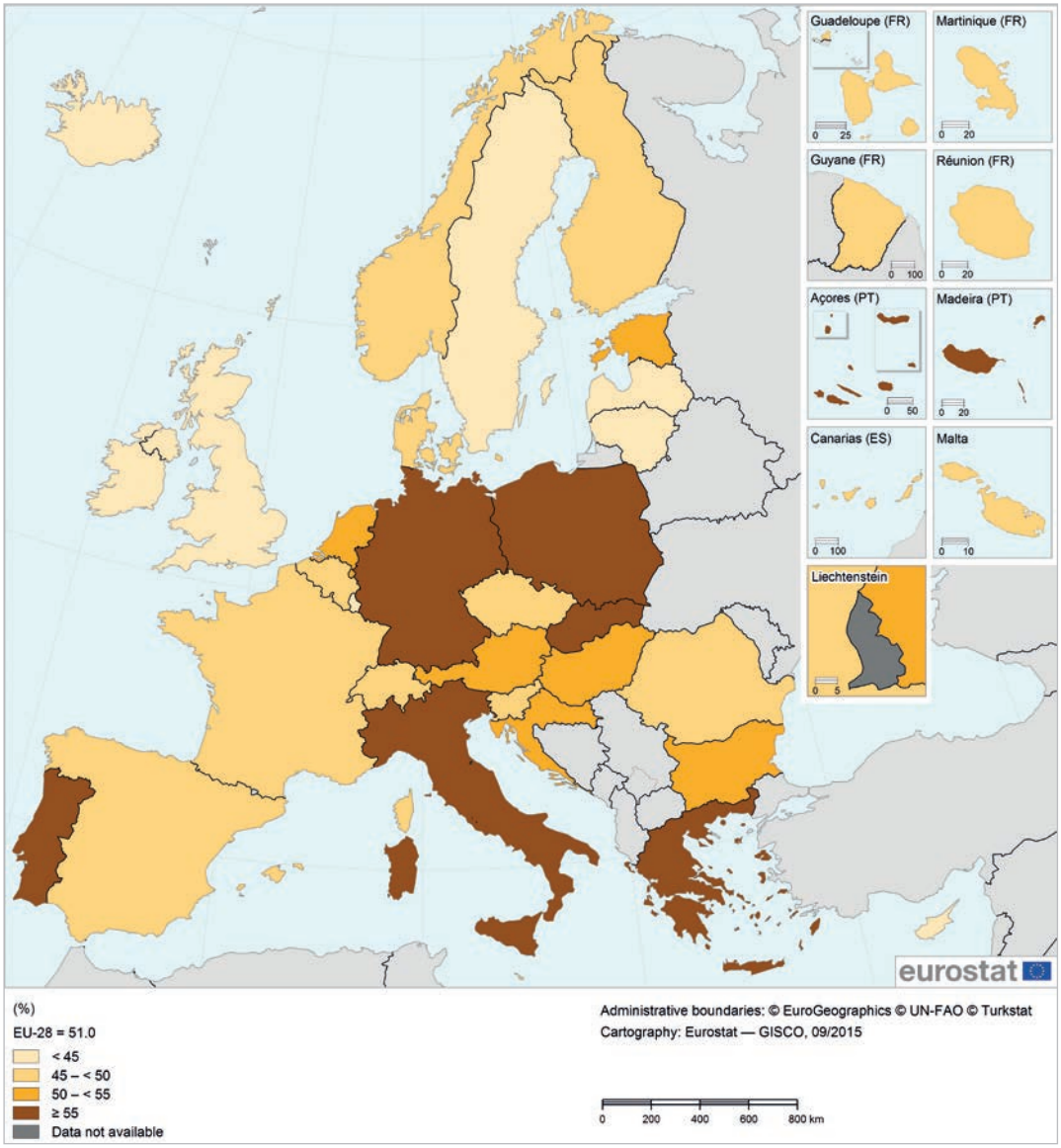
(1) 2014: estimate.
(2) 2014: provisional.
Source: Eurostat (online data codes: demo_pjanind and proj_13ndbims)

Map 1: Old-age dependency ratio, 2014 ([1])
(%)



([1]) The old-age dependency ratio is defined as the ratio between the number of persons aged 65 or over to the number of persons aged 15–64, expressed as a percentage. EU-28, Portugal, Romania and the United Kingdom: estimates. Ireland and France: provisional.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: demo_pjanind)

Map 2: Projected old-age dependency ratio, 2080 ([1])
(%)



([1]) The old-age dependency ratio is defined as the ratio between the number of persons aged 65 or over to the number of persons aged 15–64, expressed as a percentage.
Note: Classes and colours differ between Map 1 and Map 2.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: proj_13ndbims)

A similar pattern of development is projected for the share of the very old in the total population. The proportion of the EU-28 population aged 80 years or over stood at 5.1 % in 2014 and was projected to rise by 7.2 percentage points to reach 12.3 % by 2080. Europop2013 projections for 2080 indicate that among the EU Member States, the share of the population aged 80 years or over will range from 7.4 % in Ireland to 16.3 % in Slovakia.

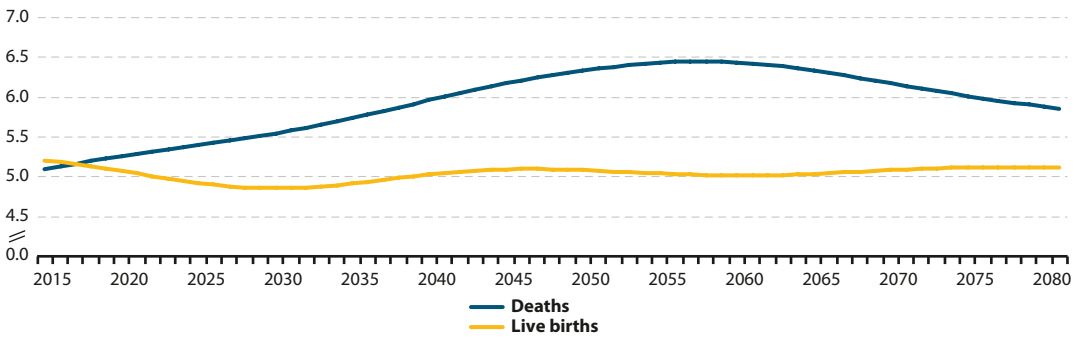
There are 13 EU Member States where the projections indicate that the share of the very old in the total population will increase between 2014 and 2080 by more than the EU-28 average, with the largest gains recorded for Slovakia (13.3 percentage points), Poland (11.0 percentage points) and Portugal (10.3 percentage points), while increases of more than 9 percentage points are predicted for Germany and Malta. By contrast, the shares of the very old in the total populations of Lithuania, Ireland and Latvia are expected to increase by less than 5 percentage points over the period 2014 to 2080.

The combined effect of a slightly declining proportion of children and a continuously rising proportion of older persons is a considerable increase in the total age dependency ratio. In 2014, 17 of the EU Member States and Norway had more than 50 dependents for each 100 working-age persons, while by 2080 it is expected that all of the EU Member States will have more than 64 dependents per 100 working-age persons.

The impact of births and deaths on population change

In 2013, there were almost 81 thousand more births than deaths in the EU-28. Projections concerning 2014 and 2015 indicate that this pattern of a natural population increase (the difference between the number of births and the number of deaths) would continue. Figure 8 shows that the projected number of deaths in the EU-28 will be higher than the projected number of births for the whole of the period 2016 to 2080, with the largest gap between deaths and births being recorded during the period 2050 to 2060.

Figure 8: Projected number of live births and deaths, EU-28, 2014–80 ([1])
(million)



([1]) Note the y-axis is cut.
Source: Eurostat (online data code: proj_13ndbims)

Europop2013 projections indicate that there will be considerable differences in natural population changes during the period 2015 to 2080, with:

- a continuous period of natural population increases projected for six EU Member States (Belgium, Ireland, France, Luxembourg, Sweden and the United Kingdom) as well as Iceland and Norway;
- a continuous period of natural population decreases projected for 12 EU Member States (Bulgaria, Germany, Estonia, Greece, Croatia, Italy, Hungary, Latvia, Poland, Portugal, Romania and Slovakia); and
- a combination of positive and negative natural changes for the remaining 10 EU Member States (the Czech Republic, Denmark, Spain, Cyprus, Lithuania, Malta, the Netherlands, Austria, Slovenia and Finland) as well as Switzerland.

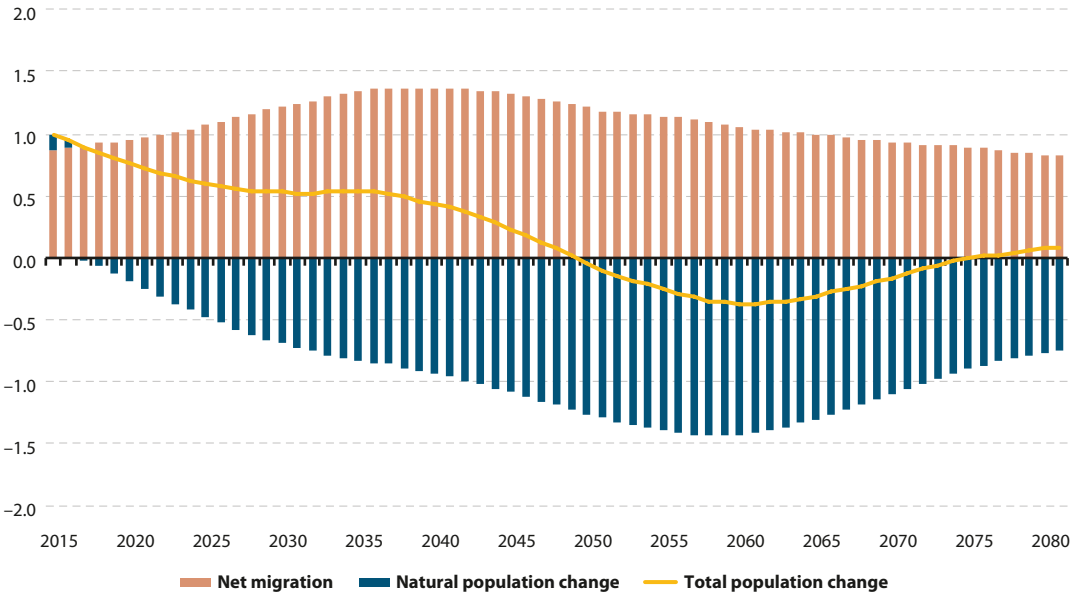
Migratory patterns also have an impact on population age structures, resulting from either positive net migration (more people arriving in a country than leaving it) or negative net emigration (more people leaving a country than arriving). In those EU Member States that are characterised by positive net migration, it is possible that the process of population ageing may be slowed down, as migrant populations are often characterised as having a high share of working-age persons. On the other hand, where there is negative net migration, the ageing process may be accelerated, as those leaving the country may also tend to be relatively young, thereby reducing the number of working-age persons in the population, while also reducing the fertility rate as well.

Figure 9 shows the contributions of natural population change and net migration to overall population change in the EU-28 during the period 2015 to 2080. The long-term projections suggest that there will be a natural decrease in population numbers during the period 2016 to 2060. Natural population decreases in the EU-28 are subsequently expected to slow and by 2080 the overall change in population will stabilise at close to zero with almost equal contributions from natural population decreases and positive net migration. A closer examination of each component shows that:

- net migration will be positive over the entire period, and will be the main contributing factor to the overall change in population numbers during the next three decades and during the period 2075 to 2080, when net migration will be higher than natural population change;
- natural population change will be negative over the entire period (except 2015) with the number of deaths exceeding the number of births; during the period 2050 to 2075, the negative natural change in population numbers will outweigh the positive net migration, thereby leading to a fall in the overall population.

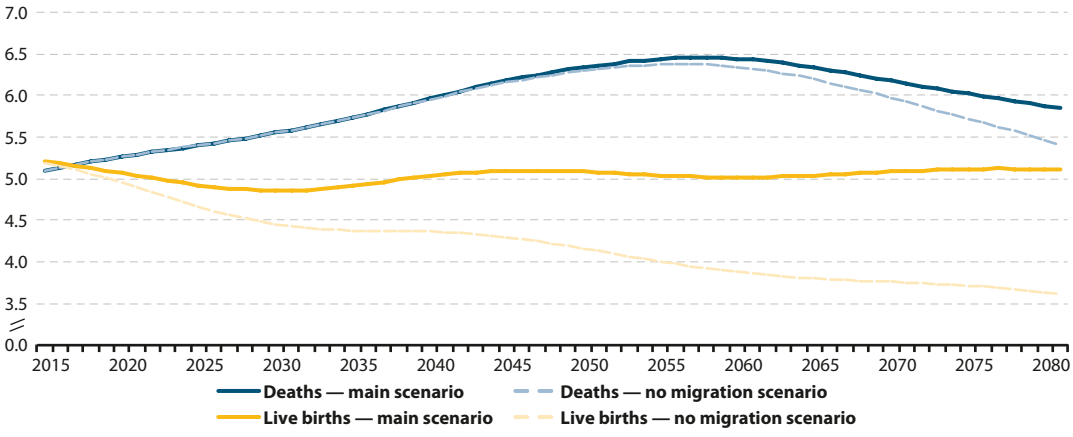
During the period 2015 to 2080, Europop 2013 projects there will be 327.1 million births and 387.2 million deaths in the EU-28, equivalent to a net reduction of 60.1 million inhabitants as a result of natural changes in the population. During the same period, the cumulated impact of net migration is projected to be 71.9 million, resulting in an overall change in the total population of 11.8 million inhabitants. For comparative purposes, it is worth considering the Europop 2013 'no migration' variant, where the population varies only as a result of natural change. Figure 10 shows a comparison between the 'main scenario' and 'no migration' variant and the overall effects of net migration on the EU-28's projected population developments.

Figure 9: Projected developments for natural population change, net migration and total population change, EU-28, 2014–80
(million)



Source: Eurostat (online data code: proj_13ndbims)

Figure 10: Projected number of live births and deaths, by population scenario, EU-28, 2014–80 (1)
(million)



(1) Note the y-axis is cut.
Source: Eurostat (online data codes: proj_13ndbims and proj_13ndbizms)

A demographic future — concluding remarks

Europop2013 population projections indicate that population ageing will continue across all of the EU Member States, Iceland, Norway and Switzerland. Although the EU-28's population is projected to be slightly higher in 2080 than it was in 2014 its structure will be increasingly old, with a considerable reduction in the number of and share of working-age persons. The ageing process that is underway may be highlighted through the increasing number of very old persons, whereby the elderly population is itself in the process of ageing. While migration has the potential to help delay the ageing process in some of the EU Member States, it may also speed up the process of ageing in those Member States which are characterised by a relatively high proportion of their working-age population leaving, for example in search of work. Indeed, Europop2013 projections indicate that age dependency ratios are likely to continue increasing, highlighting challenges for public expenditure in relation to pensions, healthcare and long-term care costs.

Data presentation and abbreviations

Data presentation

Eurostat online databases contain a large amount of metadata that provides information on the status of particular values or data series. In order to improve readability, only the most significant information has been included in the tables and figures. The following symbols are used, where necessary:

Italic	data value is forecasted, provisional or estimated and is likely to change
:	not available, confidential or unreliable value
–	not applicable

Breaks in series are indicated in the footnotes provided under each table and figure.

Geographical aggregates and countries

EFTA	European Free Trade Association (Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway, Switzerland)
EU	European Union
EU-28	The 28 Member States of the European Union from 1 July 2013 (Belgium, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Denmark, Germany, Estonia, Ireland, Greece, Spain, France, Croatia, Italy, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Hungary, Malta, Netherlands, Austria, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovenia, Slovakia, Finland, Sweden, United Kingdom)
EU-27	The 27 Member States of the European Union from 1 January 2007 to 30 June 2013 (Belgium, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Denmark, Germany, Estonia, Ireland, Greece, Spain, France, Italy, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Hungary, Malta, Netherlands, Austria, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovenia, Slovakia, Finland, Sweden, United Kingdom)

In this publication like in the other Eurostat publications, the geographical descriptions and the use of the terms 'southern', 'northern', 'central', 'eastern' and 'western' Europe are not meant as political categorisations. The references in the text are made in relation to the geographical location of one group of Member States of the European Union in comparison to another group of Member States.

Units of measurement

%	per cent
m^2	square meter

Other abbreviations

ERDF	European Regional Development Fund
ESF	European Social Fund
ESS	European statistical system
EUR	euro
EUROPOP2013	European population projections, base year 2013
EU-SILC	EU statistics on income and living conditions
ICT	information and communications technologies
LAU	local administrative unit
LFS	labour force survey
NSI	national statistical institute
NUTS	classification of territorial units for statistics (NUTS levels 1, 2 and 3 regions)

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People in the EU: who are we and how do we live? draws on the results of the population and housing census that was conducted across the Member States of the European Union (EU) and the countries of the European Free Trade Association (EFTA) in 2011. In addition, the publication presents a wide range of official social statistics from Eurostat databases in order to paint a detailed picture of the population, households and housing in the EU.

A number of topics are covered in this publication, ranging from an overview of the demographic situation in the EU and its Member States, to a portrait of EU households and family structures, geographic mobility in the EU or the increasing ageing of our societies. *People in the EU: who are we and how do we live?* concludes with a look at the future demographic challenges potentially facing the EU in the coming years.

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