Immigrants in Europe, their travel behaviour and possibilities for energy efficient travel

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Executive summary

Immigrants make up between 0.1 and 17.8 per cent of the populations in the European countries studied. This variation may to a certain extent be due to different definitions of immigrants used in different countries, but it also describes real differences, especially between Eastern Europe on the one hand and Western and Southern Europe on the other. The Eastern European countries, with the possible exception of Estonia, have had low immigration rates in recent years, but several have rather large minority populations dating from the times of the Soviet Union.

There is a great variation between immigrants depending on their countries of origin. Some immigrants come from neighbouring countries, even speaking the language of their new country, such as Germans in Austria or Irish in the UK. Other immigrants come from poorer countries overseas or in the European Union. The social and economic situation of immigrants depends to a great degree on their country of origin and their level of education.

Legal provisions for immigration are based harmonisation with EU directives in all countries studied, and consequently these provisions are more or less the same in all countries.

The travel behaviour of immigrants and the attitudes of immigrants toward different travel modes are scarcely researched in Europe. Analysis of this topic is difficult since the country of birth or questions concerning nationality are not included in the national travels surveys in European countries. Only Sweden has a special report on the travel behaviour of immigrants. Some data concerning this topic were found also in Austria, Norway and the UK, but no relevant data were available in Belgium.

In general immigrants have lower economic standards than the domestically born in the same country, and consequently the access to cars is generally lower. The purchase of a car and getting a driver's license are costly, and consequently it takes time for immigrants to accumulate the resources needed to get car access. Car access is lower among female than among male immigrants, and this difference is greater than the difference in car access among domestically born women and men. The poorer car access among immigrants leads to more walking and more use of public transport among immigrants than among the domestically born. However, bicycle riding appears to be more popular among the domestically born than among the immigrants, especially than among immigrant women.

In spite of the lower car access among immigrants, the attitudes toward car travel seems to be more favourable among certain immigrant groups than among the domestically born. Especially bicycle riding, but also public transport appear to be regarded as inferior forms of transport at least by certain immigrant groups. This attitude combined with improved economic standards among immigrants over time may easily produce a high car access among immigrants, and consequently to less sustainable travel. The main challenge for the TOGETHER project, based on the findings in this report, is thus to make the newly arrived immigrants stick to their sustainable travel pattern even after their economic standards have been improved. Focussing on the positive aspects of public transport and bicycle riding, such as increased physical activity and improved health, lower costs and environmental responsibility in the teaching and learning materials to be produced in TOGETHER may be one possibility to meet this challenge.

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1 Background and research questions

Sustainable mobility is an important issue in modern Europe. When the problem of the need to increase sustainable mobility and the care for our environment is raised, the community as a whole is normally addressed. Immigrants, making up an increasing share of the population in most European countries, may not always be able to receive information spread from authorities and NGO's to the public at large, because of language problems and integration problems in general. Special dissemination of information concerning energy efficient transport for immigrants may be necessary to help immigrants travel in a more energy efficient way. Consequently, they would be able to use the transport system available in a more efficient and safe way to improve their welfare in modern European societies, e.g. by accessing important welfare arenas such as jobs, schools, shops, public offices etc.

The following research questions will be discussed in this paper based on existing literature and data on immigrants in Europe:

- What is an immigrant?
- What is the situation of immigrants in Europe?
- What is the present travel behaviour of immigrants in Europe – more or less sustainable than the national ethnic population?
- Do immigrants themselves consider travelling a problem? If so, what does this problem consist of?
- Are immigrants aware of the need for more sustainable ways of travel?
- Does relevant information concerning sustainable transport reach the immigrants?
- Variation between immigrants?
- What regulations and efforts exist to integrate immigrants into their new countries?
- Can immigrants get better knowledge concerning sustainable transport through better learning material and transport training in language integration courses?

The methods to be used to try and answer the above questions will be compiling and analysis of existing relevant literature, data and other information. Some of the research questions will not be fully answered by WP2 desk research and therefore they will be included in the following work packages.

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2 What is an immigrant?

To answer the above questions, it is necessary to define the concept of immigrant in general and specifically for the TOGETHER project and describe briefly the situation of immigrants in Europe - integration, employment, welfare.

As mentioned in the project proposal the concept of immigrant may be defined in many ways and may be used for different groups of people in different EU countries. Encyclopædia Britannica (2011) defines immigrant as "*a person who comes to a country to take up permanent residence*".

The UN Convention on the Rights of Migrants defines a migrant as a *'person who is to be engaged, is engaged or has been engaged in a remunerated activity in a State of which he or she is not a national.'*

United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organisation defines a migrant *'person who is to be engaged, is engaged or has been engaged in a remunerated activity in a State of which he or she is not a national.'*

The International Passenger Survey (IPS): *'a person who has resided abroad for a year or more.'*

Although the UN documents quote above, use the term "migrant", the term "immigrant" will be used in the TOGETHER project. A migrant may also be somebody who migrates *within* a country, whereas an immigrant has migrated *into* a new country on a permanent basis.

Different definitions of the concept of immigrant can be used in different work packages as is explained in the following paragraph. For Wp2 Background analysis we will use a wide definition of "immigrant", i.e. people born in a different country, except people born abroad to national parents (born abroad while parents were staying abroad, i.e. a person living in the UK born in France to English parents is not an immigrant in the UK). This definition includes people no matter what age they were when they arrived in the country where they are living, what country they came from or their education. In some contexts like population statistics, immigrants are defined as people born abroad or born in the pertinent country by two parents born abroad. Thus, a Pakistani immigrant in Norway may either be born in Pakistan or born in Norway to two parents born in Pakistan.

The purpose of Wp2 is to present an overview of the immigrant situation as background for selection of immigrant groups for the other WPs. A wide definition of immigrant is consequently adequate in this work package. In the other work packages, however, more narrow and operational definitions may be more suitable. For example, for the implementation in Wp4 we will target immigrants 18 years and older who have enrolled in a formal training course or a non-formal course.

As defined above, immigrants include a wide range of people, who may vary from having no integration problems at all to having language, cultural and economic problems. A German immigrant to Austria or a Swedish immigrant to Norway may have no problems with integration in their new countries, whereas a Somali or Bangladeshi immigrant to the same countries may face many problems in integrating in his or her new country. Education, language, culture, appearance, religion are a few of the many factors which may facilitate or hamper integration into a new country.

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For WP 2 immigrants are defined as people born abroad who have come to a country to take up permanent residence, except if one or both parents were born in the country where the person is living now, regardless of education, economic status or country of origin. For other WPs more operational definitions may be used, such as people participating in courses for immigrants.

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3 Immigrants in European countries

Who are the main immigrant groups and what is their situation in different parts of Europe? The situation of immigrants will be described for the TOGETHER countries, i.e. Austria, Belgium, Norway, Sweden and the UK. A general perspective is given for Eastern and Southern European countries. This latter information is based on literature available in English or any other TOGETHER partner country language. This description will be based on available literature, data and information, and consequently the description may vary between the countries and regions. However, important factors will be share of population, countries of origin, concentration in certain areas, languages, education, employment and integration.

The European Union *"entitles all citizens to live, travel and work in the country of their choice. Citizens can freely travel, work, retire, or just vacate without any problems in any EU country……..The 27 EU countries have different immigration programs in terms of foreign work programs, ways to obtain citizenship, unemployment rates, inheritance of citizenship, and other official immigration programs which allows individuals to live in one or several EU countries. Some immigration programs can end with a citizenship while other programs are time limited and related to work or tourism"* (European Union Immigration, 2011).

EU immigration policy and the national immigration policies of the member states are described and discussed in more detail in Laws for Legal Immigration in the 27 EU Member States (International Organization for Migration, 2009).

3.1 Austria

3.1.1 Legal provisions

The National Action Plan for Integration was enacted in 2010, and defines seven different priority areas for integration of immigrants including language and education. There are special subsidized language courses for immigrants who have insufficient language skills.

Within the Austrian's integration debate different terms of migration are used:

Migrants are persons who come to Austria for economic or family reasons. Asylum seekers are persons who apply for protection in Austria, due to persecution in the home country, their origin, religion or because of political reasons.

Integration is a cross-sectoral theme, formally located at the Austrian Ministry of the Interior (BM.I) and consequently treated as safety matter.

Currently plenty of new legal provisions have been implemented in Austria like the Red- White-Red-Card or the Austrian National Action Plan (NAP), which brings together all integration activities.

Target groups of the Red-White-Red-Card are highly qualified people, skilled employees with shortage occupations and other key personnel including foreign graduates of Austrian universities and colleges.

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The National Action Plan for Integration ties together integration policy measures from provinces, cities, communities and social partners with national ambitions. It was enacted in 2010 and defines seven different priority areas for integration of immigrants, among them language and education and employment and profession among others.

The NAP for Integration makes use of Integration Indicators to measure and constantly optimise the status of the integration process.

There are special subsidized language courses for immigrants who have insufficient language skills.

3.1.2 Immigrants in population

Of the total Austrian population 17.8 % had an immigrant background. 12.9 % were first generation migrants, i.e. born abroad and moved to Austria. The largest immigrant categories were Germans, people from Serbia, Montenegro and Kosovo, and Turks.

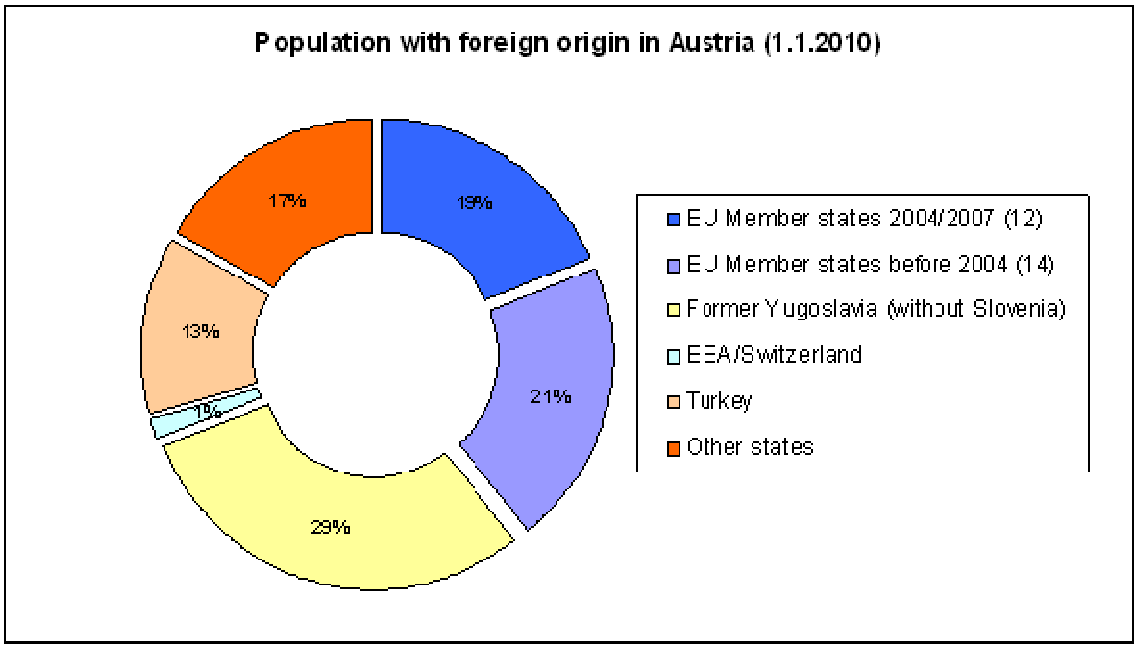

Figure 1: Population with foreign origin in Austria (1.1.2010). (Statistics Austria 2010)

Table 1: Age structure of native and foreign population in Austria 2001.

Age structure of native and foreign population in Austria 2001				
	Natives %		Foreigners %	
Age	Male	female	male	female
0-15	17.6	15.5	19.6	20.6
15-30	19.1	17.1	22.2	26.2
30-45	25.4	23.3	32.1	29.7
45-60	18.9	18.4	19.5	16.1
60-75	13.9	15.3	5.5	5.5
75+	5.0	10.4	1.1	2.0

(Population census of Statistics Austria 2001 and own calculations by the Federal Chancellery of the Republic of Austria 2007)

As shown in table 1, the percentage of people 60 years and older is considerably higher among the natives than among the foreigners in Austria.

In Vienna 33% of the population has a foreign origin, whereas in provinces such as Carinthia, Styria and Burgenland, only 9-10% of the population have a foreign origin. The countries of origin of the immigrants vary between the provinces. Almost half the population of foreign origin lives in municipalities with more than 25% immigrants. Immigrants from Turkey, Asia and Africa show a high degree of segregation, whereas immigrants from the EU are distributed relatively evenly.

3.1.3 Education and employment

The number of immigrants in the highest and lowest education levels is above average, whereas an above average percentage of the Austrian population has completed mid-level education in trade and vocational programs.

People from a migrant background have lower employment rates, 64% compared to 74% of people from a non-migrant background. This difference is mainly due to low employment rates among women from certain countries such as Turkey, who have an employment rate of 39%.

3.2 Belgium

3.2.1 Legal and regulatory issues on migration

In Belgium, migration is a federal competence, whereas integration is a regional competence. For the TOGETHER project the scope of this part is limited to the federal and Flemish policy on migration and integration.

3.2.2 Federal migration policy

New immigrants to Belgium can be divided into 5 categories:

- Asylum and refuge,

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- Family reunification or family building,
- Economic migration,
- Tourists and students, and
- Illegals.

Asylum seekers, refugees, family reunificators or builders are the most important groups here. Despite the deterring policy towards economic migration (which makes it very difficult to get a permit when only migrating for economic reasons), studies show that economic immigrants often also appear in asylum statistics.

Once applied for asylum procedure an immigrant gets the status of asylum seeker. The criteria for accepting someone as an asylum seeker are based on the Convention of Geneva. It is the Commissariat-General for Refugees and the Stateless that puts every application to the test. An immigrant can file appeal against the decision of the Commissariat-General for Refugees and the Stateless via a dedicated Council for Appeal in Immigrant Affairs or via the Council of the State. When a negative decision is reached, the asylum seeker is asked to leave the country, voluntarily or forced.

Family members of Belgian nationals or foreigners with a valid permit may be granted the right to stay in Belgium. That is called family reunification of family building. There are different criteria for reunification with a non-EU citizen staying in Belgium or reunification with a Belgian or EU-citizen.

People without valid permits or people with a troublesome procedural status can apply for regularisation. When accepted, they get a temporary or permanent permit. Regularisation can only be decided upon by the Ministry. It is a favour, not a right. When waiting for a decision by the Ministry, the applicant gets a temporary status. When positive, the applicant gets a permit of minimum one year.

Certain immigrants want to become Belgian nationals after a while. In some cases the Belgian nationality is automatically given, sometimes the immigrant has to undertake actions to get it.

3.2.3 Flemish integration policy

There are two decrees (laws of the regional governments are called decrees) that form the legal basis for the integration policy: the Decree on Citizenship and the Decree on Integration (enacted on 22 April 2009). It replaces the Decree on Minorities.

1. Integration

There are three main premises for the integration policy: equal participation to society, accessibility of public goods for all and diversity.

In Flanders, some cities have their own integration offices which have to get an accreditation by the regional government. In the 13 biggest Flemish cities, the integration offices are called House of Diversity.

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2. Citizenship

Whoever is new in Flanders or Brussels is entitled to enter in a citizenship trajectory. For some newcomers this is mandatory.

In Flanders and Brussels there are 8 so-called Reception Offices who organise the citizenship trajectories. These trajectories consist of Dutch Second Language, Societal Orientation or Career Orientation. Participants pass through Reception Offices for first screening on needs and expectations and are screened again by Houses of Dutch for language skills and branches of the Flemish Labour Office to identify their professional perspective.

3.2.4 Immigrants in population

Table 2: Foreigners in percent of total population. Belgium 2008.

Area	Gender	Foreigners in percent of total population
Brussels Capital Region	Men	29
	Women	27
	Men & Women	28
Flemish Region	Men	6
	Women	5
	Men & Women	6
Walloon Region	Men	10
	Women	9
	Men & Women	9
Belgium	Men	9
	Women	9
	Men & Women	9

In Belgium foreigners make up 9 per cent of the population. This percentage is considerably higher in the Brussels region, and lower in the two other regions, especially in the Walloon region. The definition of immigrants varies, and foreign nationality is used in the available statistics.

The majority of the foreigners come from EU countries, people from Italy (almost 170 000), France (some 130 000) and the Netherlands (some 123 000) making up the largest immigrant groups. Of the European countries outside the EU, immigrants from Turkey make up the largest category. From outside Europe there are almost 80 000 immigrants from Morocco, some 16 000 from Congo (Kinshasa), about 11 000 from the US and about 8 000 of Chinese origin.

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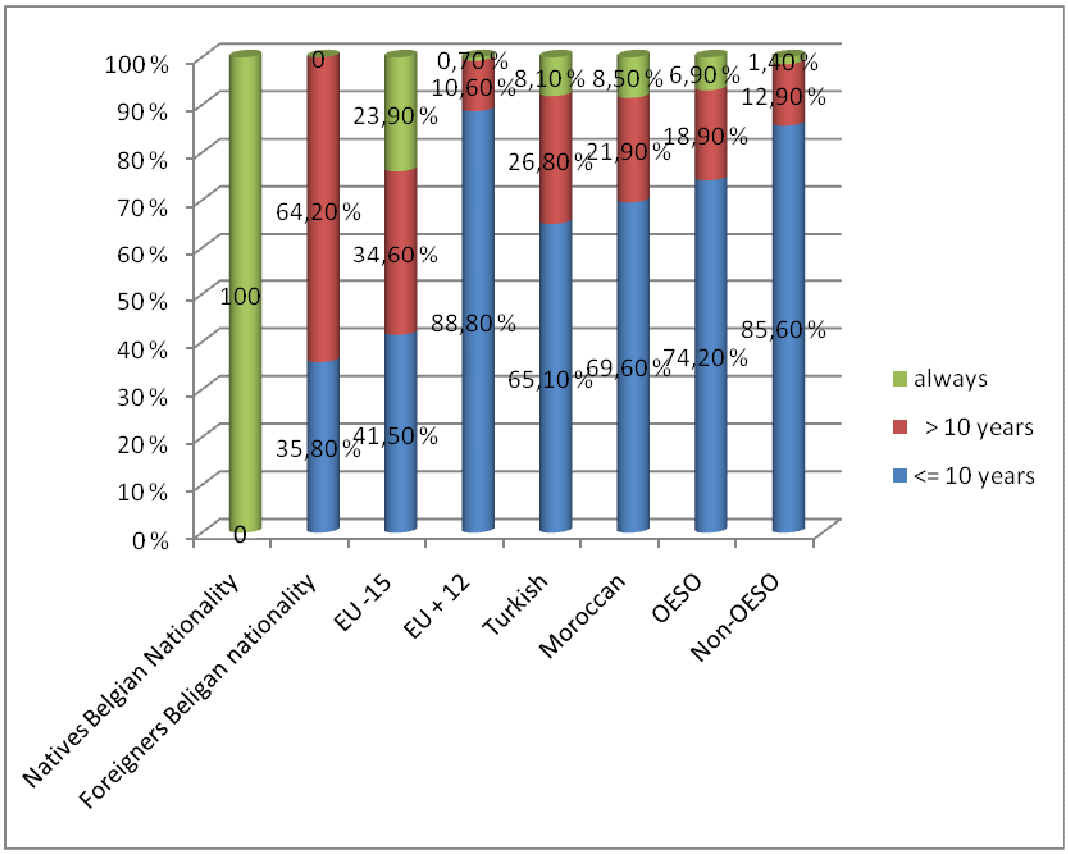

Figure 2: Population in Belgium by nationality and number or years lived in Belgium. 2008. Per cent.

Figure 2 above shows that the number of years lived in Belgium varies quite a lot with nationality, especially between EU-15 and EU+12.

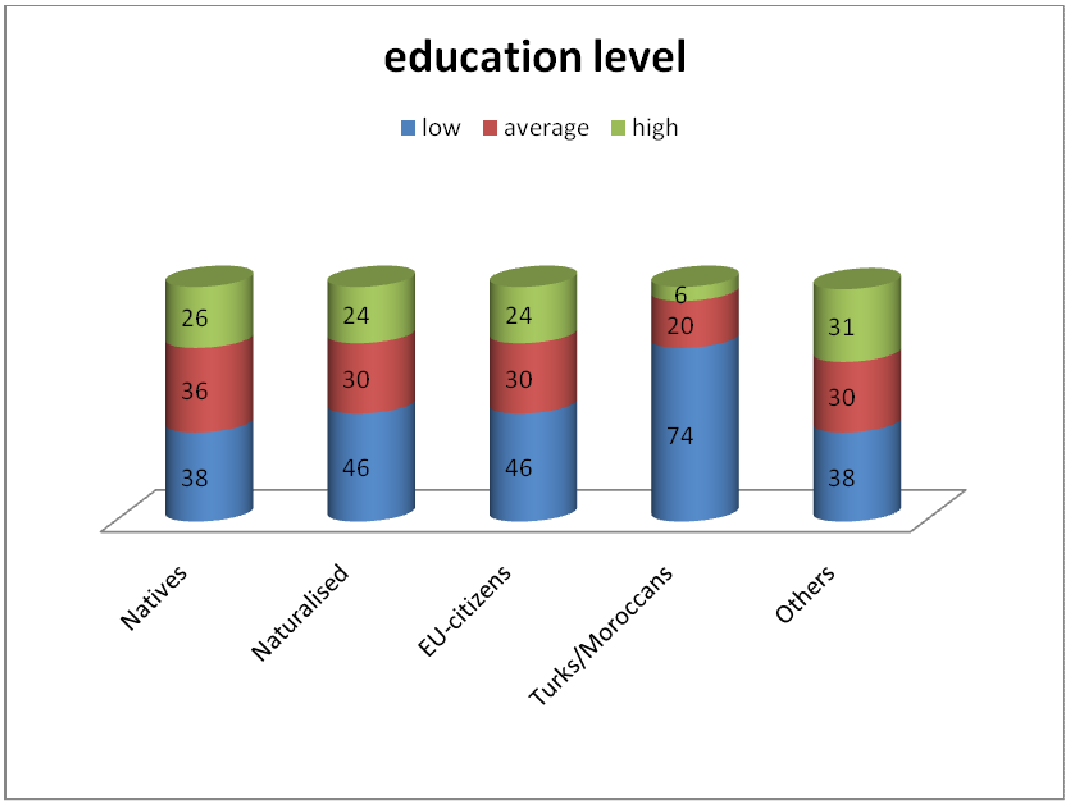

Figure 3:. Nationals and foreigners in Belgium by educational level. 2008

Figure 3 above shows that Turks and Moroccans have a considerably higher share of low level education than the other foreigners. The unemployment rate of foreigners is 21 per cent whereas it is only 7 per cent among Belgian nationals. The unemployment rate is especially high among Moroccan and Turks.

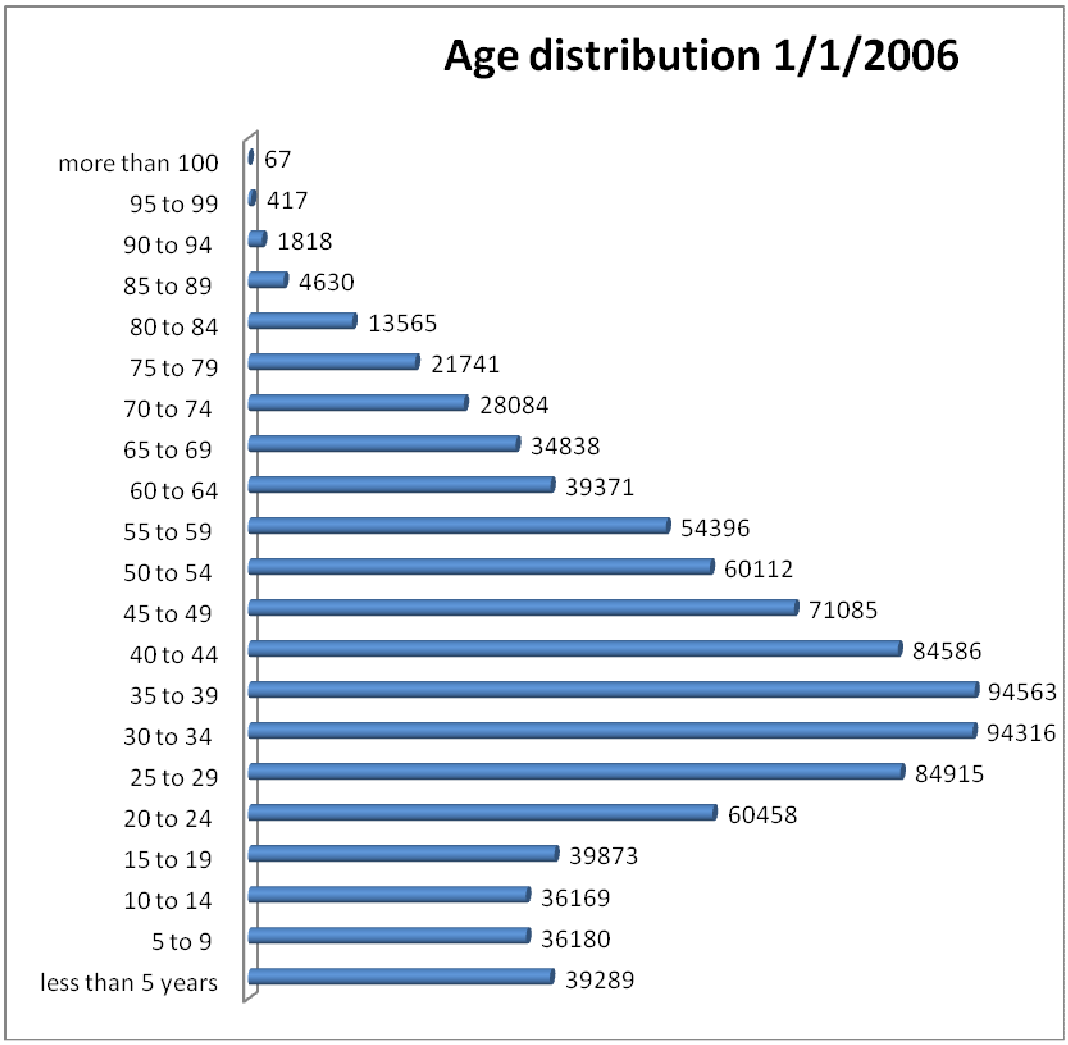

Figure 4: Foreigners in Belgium by age. 2006.

Figure 4 shows that the majority of foreigners in Belgium are between 20 and 59 years of age.

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Table 3: Education level and unemployment by immigrant status. Belgium 2008.

Origin / length of stay	Education level (%) Low	average	high	Unemployment rate (%)
Natives	38	36	26	7
Naturalised	46	30	24	16
≤ 10 years	49	32	20	25
> 10 years	46	30	24	15
Unknown	46	30	25	14
EU-citizens	46	30	24	11
≤ 10 years	27	28	45	10
> 10 years	56	26	18	10
Always	45	40	15	15
Unknown	39	29	32	8
Turks/Moroccans	74	20	6	36
≤ 10 years	65	23	12	36
> 10 years	81	16	3	34
Always	71	27	2	45
Unknown	75	18	7	33
Others	38	30	31	27
≤ 10 years	37	30	33	28
> 10 years	41	31	28	26
Always	51	37	12	23
Unknown	37	27	36	27
TOTAL (without natives)				
≤ 10 year	40	28	32	21
> 10 year	52	28	20	15
Always	48	39	13	
Unknown	45	28	27	15
TOTAL	39	35	26	8

Information concerning legal provisions for immigrants in Belgium has not been available.

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3.3 Norway

3.3.1 Legal provisions for immigrants

"Norwegian refugee and migration policy is decided by the Norwegian political authorities on the basis of national considerations and in accordance with international law." (UDI, 2011). The main categories of immigration to Norway are protection (asylum) and residence ("managed migration").

Protection

Protection can be granted to people who are persecuted or in danger in their home countries. Refugees entering Norway may apply for protection. These people may stay in Norway until their application is granted or not. In addition a certain number of resettlement refugees referred from the UNHCR are accepted annually.

Residence

Citizens of an EU / EEA / EFTA country no longer need to apply for a residence permit, but must make a registration, which can be made online. EEA nationals having a valid identity card or passport have a right of residence for three months in Norway and the right to work. The same applies to family members who are also EEA nationals. Family members who are not EEA nationals must have a valid passport and be able to document that they are members of the household of or supported by an EEA national. For employees from Bulgaria or Romania not having a residence permit in Norway during the latest 12 months, special transitional rules apply.

For citizens from countries outside the EU / EEA / EFTA region, there are three main categories of immigration, family, work and studies. There are special, detailed requirements for each of these categories (UDI, 2011).

3.3.2 Immigrants in the population

Figure 5 below shows that the percentage of immigrants – defined as people born abroad or born in Norway by two parents born abroad – has increased from less than five per cent in 1990 to 10 per cent in 2010, and is expected to increase to between 20 and 30 per cent in 2060. The large increase after year 2000 is primarily due to immigration from the new 12 EU countries. In 2009 a total of 37 500 people immigrated to Norway (Henriksen, Østby og Ellingsen 2010, p. 25).

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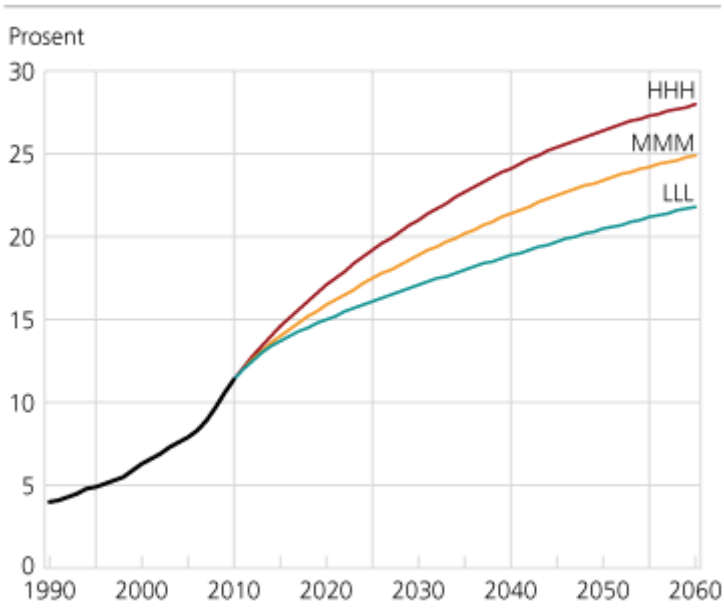

Figure 5: Percentage of population born abroad or born in Norway by two parents born abroad. Actual percentages 1990 – 2010 and high, medium and low projections for +2011 – 2060. (Statistics Norway, 2011)

Table 4 below shows that immigrants made up almost 10 per cent of the population of Norway 2010. This table also shows that immigrants from Poland make up the largest immigrant group, followed by Sweden, Pakistan, Iraq and Somalia. Since the 1970's Pakistanis have been a major immigrant group in Norway, but immigration from Pakistan has decreased. If people born in Norway by two foreign-born parents are excluded, Pakistan becomes number 7 among the nations with highest immigration to Norway, and Germany becomes number 4. Of the Pakistanis in table 4 below, 45 per cent are born in Norway, meaning that they learn the Norwegian language in ordinary schools rather than in special courses for immigrants. Of the largest group in table 4, the Polish, only 5.4 per cent are born in Norway by foreign-born parents, meaning that many Polish immigrants will have to attend courses in Norwegian for foreigners, since attending such a course is a requirement for a working permit.

The Swedes, the second largest group of immigrants, do not normally attend such courses, because the Swedish and the Norwegian languages are so similar that people speaking Swedish and Norwegian understand each well enough for Swedes to work in shops, restaurants and other businesses in Norway.

Immigrants from most European countries such as Germany, Poland and Sweden are likely to know just as much about energy-efficient transport as the Norwegians in the same age and education levels, whereas this topic and public transport in general, may be quite unfamiliar to immigrants from Somalia, Pakistan and Iraq.

Table 4: Immigrants and people born in Norway by two foreign-born parents in total and by six most frequent countries of origin. Norway 2010, Numbers and percent.

Country of origin	Number	Per cent
Poland	52 125	9.4
Sweden	31 193	5.6
Pakistan	31 061	5.6
Iraq	26 374	4.8
Somalia	25 496	4.6
Etc		
All	552 313	100.0
Total population	4 858 199	

(Henriksen, Østby og Ellingsen 2010)

Immigrants including people born in Norway by two foreign-born parents make up 11.4 per cent of the Norwegian population. 42 per cent of the immigrants in Norway are living in Oslo and the surrounding county Akershus. Within Oslo the percentage of immigrants varies from 46 per cent in some districts to 13-14 per cent in others. (Henriksen, Østby og Ellingsen 2010).

Table 5:. Population 16 years and older by education and by regions of the world where they were born. Norway 2010. Percent.

Region	Total million	Un-known	No education completed	Elementary school	High school	Short higher education[1]	Long university education[2]
Total	**3.878**	**4.9**	**0.2**	**28.3**	**40.7**	**19.7**	**6.2**
Norway	3.288	0.4	0.1	29.0	44.0	20.4	6.1
Abroad total	**0.589**	**30.0**	**0.9**	**24.3**	**22.5**	**15.6**	**6.8**
Nordic countries[A]	0.117	18.3	0.2	21.5	30.8	21.1	8.0
Western Europe	0.088	26.6	0.1	16.4	24.7	20.9	11.2
Eastern Europe[B]	0.115	55.3	0.2	15.3	14.8	9.6	4.8
North America and Oceania	0.033	15.1	0.2	18.4	31.8	23.2	11.2
Asia[C], Africa, Latin America	0.235	27.8	1.9	33.8	20.0	12.7	4.8

A. Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, Sweden. B. Except Turkey. C. Including Turkey.
1. University education four years or less. 2. University education more than four years
(Henriksen, Østby, Ellingsen 2010, p. 76)

Table 5 above shows immigrants from Asia, Africa and Latin America have fewer people with high school and university education than Norwegians and other immigrants. Of the total immigrants, 30 per cent have “unknown” educational level, and 55 per cent of the immigrants from Eastern Europe have “unknown” educational level, whereas only 0.4 per cent of the Norwegians do.

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Table 6: Employed by region of origin in percent of all persons 15 – 74 years from the same region. Oct-Dec 2009.

Total population	**69.7**
All immigrants	61.7
Nordic countries[A]	74.6
Western Europe	71.7
EU countries in Eastern Europe	70.6
Eastern Europe outside EU	61.0
North America and Oceania	64.7
Asia incl. Turkey	53.9
Africa	45.3
Latin America	62.8

A. Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, Sweden
(Henriksen, Østby,Ellingsen 2010; p. 95)

Table 6 shows that immigrants from the Nordic countries and the rest of Western Europe have high employment rates, whereas immigrants from Asia and especially Africa have low employment rates.

3.4 Sweden

3.4.1 Rules of immigrations

The rules of immigration mean that a person from a non-Nordic country wishing to settle or work in Sweden must obtain a residence and work permit before coming to Sweden. Since 2008 the rules have changed so that a person getting an offer of work for at least one year can apply for a work permit. The person is entitled to visit Sweden during three months of the period for visa, and return to his/her country.

Immigration controls have been adapted to the EEA Agreement, which came into force in 1994. One important provision of that agreement is that citizens of any one EU/EEA country may live in any other, Sweden included, in order to work, start a business, study etc. The EEA Agreement does not affect the immigration rules applying to Nordic citizens.

Visa
Citizens of most African and Asian countries need to have a visa, in order to enter SwedenI.

Work permits
Citizens of countries outside the Nordic area and the EU/EEA area wishing to work in Sweden have to obtain a work permit before coming to Sweden. In order to obtain a work permit they must have a written offer of employment in Sweden.

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Residence permits
Aliens wishing to stay in Sweden for more than three months have to obtain a residence permit. The holder of a permanent residence permit does not need a work permit. The permit is valid as long as he remains domiciled in Sweden.

Residence permits for secondary immigrants
Personal connection with Sweden, as grounds for the award of a residence permit, most often means an alien applies for a permit so as to be reunited with close relatives living in Sweden, or to marry or begin living with somebody who is permanently domiciled here.

Refugees
There are two forms of refugee immigration:

- The Government's "refugee quota" indicating how many refugees are to be transferred to Sweden.
- Asylum-seekers can make their own way to Sweden and apply for residence permits.

Sweden is a signatory of the 1951 UN Convention Relating to the Status of Refugees (the "Geneva Convention"), which lays down the rights and benefits which a state signing the Convention is obliged to guarantee refugees living within its borders. The definition of the term refugee in the Swedish Aliens Act is based on the Geneva Convention:

Other persons in need of protection
"For the purposes of this Act, a person otherwise in need of protection is an alien who, in cases other than referred to in Section 2, has left the country of which he is a citizen because he

1. entertains a well-founded fear of incurring capital punishment or corporal punishment or of being subjected to torture or other inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment,
2. needs protection on account of an external or internal armed conflict or, by reasons of an environmental disaster, is unable to return to the country of his nationality, or
3. on account of his sex or homosexuality, entertains a well-founded fear of persecution.

"A stateless person who, for the same reason, is outside the country of his former habitual residence and is unable, on the grounds indicated in subsection one, or unwilling, owing to his fear, to return there shall also be deemed in need of protection." (Chap. 3, Section 3 of the Aliens Act)

Employees and au pairs
Citizens of an EU/EEA country are entitled to work in Sweden without a permit if the employment is for not more than three months. For a longer period they have to apply to the police for a residence permit. The residence permit is normally valid for five years and can be renewed thereafter. If the hiring is for less than one year, the EU/EEA citizen will receive a residence permit for the actual duration only. He may, however, start work before the permit comes through. The same rules apply to au pairs.

Next-of-kin
Residence permits are obtainable by the spouse, children and parents of an EU/EEA citizen working in Sweden.

The above text is based upon http://www.immi.se/migration/control.htm, Oct 3, 2011.

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3.4.2 Immigrants in Sweden

Figure 6 below shows the population of Sweden by foreign born and domestically born from 2000 to 2010 and a prognosis from 2010 to 2060. In 2000 about a million of the 9 million people in Sweden were born abroad, i.e. some 11 per cent of the population. The number of people born abroad was somewhat higher in 2011, and according to the prognosis this number will increase, but not dramatically, up to 2060. However, the figure does not distinguish between people born in Sweden by one or two parents born in Sweden and by two parents born abroad.

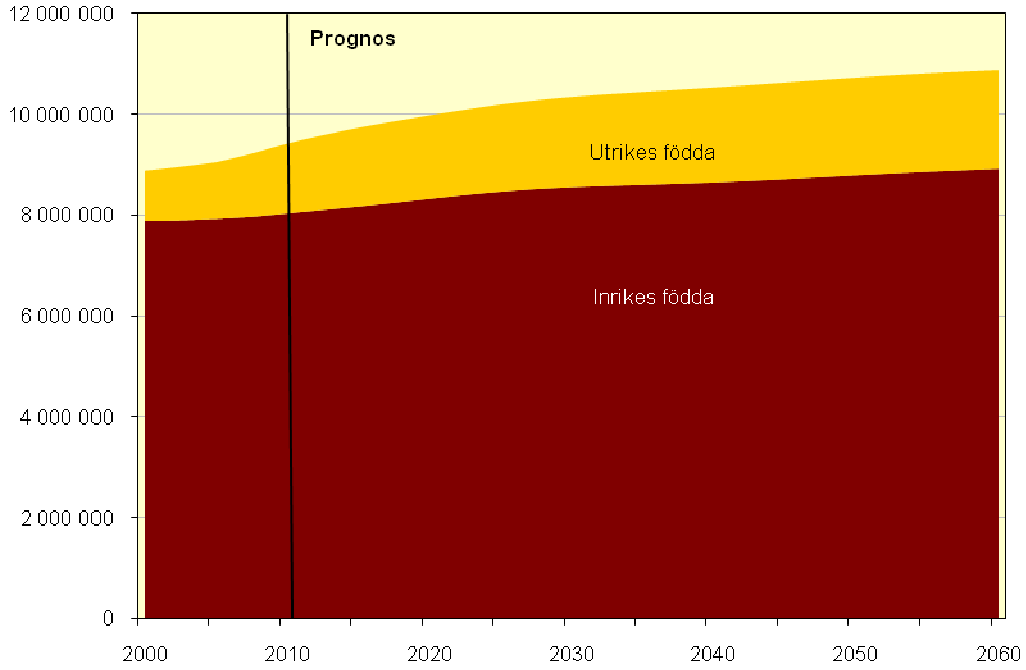

Figure 6: The population of Sweden from 2000 – 2060 by Swedish born and foreign born. (Utrikes födda = foreign born; Inrikes födda = Swedish born)

Table 7 shows that almost 25 per cent of the immigrants in Sweden in 2004 came from Scandinavian countries and another 22 per cent came from other European countries. Finland was the country of origin of most immigrants, and former Yugoslavia was second.

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Table 7: Immigrants in Sweden by country of origin. 2004.

Country of origin	2004	Per cent	
Scandinavia			24,8
Denmark	41 663	3,8	
Finland	186 589	17,0	
Norway	45 000	4,1	
Other Europe			21,8
Estonia	9 920	0,9	
Germany	40 826	3,7	
Greece	10 794	1,0	
Poland	43 472	4,0	
Former Yugoslavia	134 940	12,3	
Refugee-sending			21,3
Chile	27 699	2,5	
Ethiopia	11 213	1,0	
Iran	53 982	4,9	
Iraq	70 117	6,4	
Lebanon	21 106	1,9	
Somalia	15 294	1,4	
Turkey	34 965	3,2	
Other countries	352 682	32,1	32,1
GRAND TOTAL	**1 100 262**	100	100
Total population	**9 011 392**		
Percentage foreign born	**12.2**		

*(*Migration information source, 2011*)*

The annual number of immigrants to Sweden has increased from 58659 in 2000 to 98801 in 2010, (Statistics Sweden 2011) an increase of 68,4 per cent in 10 years.

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Table 8: Immigrants into Sweden 2010 by country of origin.

Country	Number
Norway	6372
Somalia	5646
Denmark	4962
Poland	4408
China	3740
Iraq	3637
UK	3455
USA	3282
Iran	3204
Thailand	3182
Total 10 countries	41888
Total immigration	**98801**

(Statistics Sweden 2011)

In 2010 a total of 98801 people immigrated into Sweden. Table 8 shows the ten countries with the highest number of immigrants into Sweden in 2010. The highest number of immigrants comes from Norway with Somalia as the second country of origin. 69.4 percent of the immigrants coming to Sweden in 2010 came from these 10 countries. (Statistics Sweden 2011)

3.5 The United Kingdom

3.5.1 General legal provisions

The primary legislation relating to immigrants in the UK is the '*Borders, Citizenship and Immigration Act 2009*'. The current regulation is a tiered system which is point based (PBS). The main categories are:

1. Temporary Residence
2. Probationary Citizenship
3. British Citizenship

Temporary residence is subdivided into eligible and ineligible for citizenship. The main eligible categories are economic migrants - highly skilled and skilled workers, family members of British citizens and permanent residents, as well as refugees.

Recent legal provisions

The 'Borders, Citizenship and Immigration Act 2009' was designed to simplify immigration law, strengthen borders and extend the time it takes immigrants in the UK gain citizenship. The Act was "*brought forward to strengthen border controls, by bringing together customs and immigration powers, and to ensure that newcomers to the United Kingdom earn the right to stay.*" After this Act individuals will need to spend six years as residents in the UK before they could gain naturalisation, and three years for those seeking to naturalise on the basis of marriage.

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Integration in the UK

The UK government does not have a set integration policy for immigrants. Assimilation within society is considered the responsibility of the immigrant, but integration is facilitated by a sense of British identity through citizenship ceremonies. A Green Paper titled 'A Path to Citizenship' (2008) highlights basic requirements expected to be met by migrants, which include speaking or learning English. The UK government's approach to integration focuses on the importance of learning the English language and is expected of anyone wishing to settle in UK. This can be done by completing an ESOL (English for Speakers of Other Languages) course which includes elements of citizenship material.

Often, it is local authorities and councils who put in place schemes or programmes of further integration. This is often noted within community plans which are normally reviewed every 5-10 years.

3.5.2 Immigrants in the UK population

The population of the UK was estimated to be 62.70 millions in July 2011 (CIA 2011) and the number of foreign citizens was 4.36 million in 2010 (Eurostat 2011), i.e. 7.0 per cent foreign citizens. No information has been found as to the number of foreign born citizens.

In 2005, the Institute for Public Policy Research (IPPR) carried out a study into new immigrant communities. The ethnic breakdown of the UK population, derived from the 2001 census, is still the latest figures available. The report showed that between 1991 and 2001 half of Britain's population growth was due to immigration. It was apparent that every region of Britain experienced migratory change. London sees the greatest change, '*the immigration story of Britain is predominantly the story of the south. Its economic pull cannot be denied*.' (BBC, 2005) In contrast, the report states that population falls in some areas have only been prevented by increased migration.

Percentage of population and countries of origin

The table below illustrate the breakdown of populations by ethnicity (Census 2001).

Table 9: The UK population and ethnic breakdown. 2001

Population and Ethnic Breakdown	
White	54,153,898 (92.1%)
All Asian or Asian British	2,331,423 (4%)
Indian	1,053,411
Pakistani	747,285
Bangladeshi	283,063
Other Asian	247,664
Black or Black British	1,148,738
Chinese	247,403
Other ethnic groups	230,615
Mixed race	677,117
Total Population	**58,789,194**
All minority ethnic groups	***4,635,296 (7.9%)***

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Table 9 shows that around 92 per cent of the UK population gave their ethnic origin as White British. There are Asian British and Black British counts in the census data provided. Among people living in Great Britain in 2001, the proportion born in the UK (England, Wales, Scotland or Northern Ireland) varied markedly by ethnic group. This means that some ethnic minorities are more likely to have been born abroad than others.

Other than the White British group, those most likely to be born in the UK were people from the 'Mixed' ethnic group and from the 'Other Black' group, 79% in each. This reflects their younger age structure. A substantial proportion of the Other Black group were young people, who were born in Britain, and who chose to describe their ethnicity as Other Black and wrote in 'Black British' as their answer. Black Caribbean's were the next most likely group to be born in the UK.

Among the non-White ethnic groups the proportions born in the UK generally declined with age. For example, 83 per cent of Black Caribbean's aged 25 to 34 were born in the UK, but this fell sharply with age so that only 5 per cent of those aged 45 to 64 were born in the UK. For some other non-White ethnic groups (Black Africans, Chinese and Bangladeshis) this sharp decline occurred in younger age groups, reflecting their later immigration. (Office for National Statistics, 2001)

Immigration into the UK

From July 2008 through June 2009 a total of 518,000 people came into the UK. Of these 68,000 were from Eastern Europe (the A8 Accession countries). As shown in table 10 below immigration in the UK is dominated by people from the Commonwealth and European Union.

Table 10: Immigrants in the UK by country of origin. July 2008-June 2009

Country	1000 people
All countries	567
European Union	198
European Union 15	114
European Union A8	67
All Common-wealth countries	204
Old Common-wealth	56
Australia	29
Canada	8
New Zealand	8
South Africa	11
New Common-wealth	148
Other African Common-wealth	31
Indian sub-continent	101
Other Common-wealth	16
Other foreign countries	164
Remainder of Europe	13
United States of America	31
Rest of America	9
Middle East	26
Other	84

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Migration from Eastern Europe

Since May 2004 ten Eastern European nations have joined the European Union. This has enabled most of these 10 countries free access to the UK labour market (restrictions on Romania and Bulgaria). The remaining eight nations given access to the UK's jobs market in 2004 were the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia, and Slovenia, known as the "Accession Eight". Between May 2004 and June 2007, 683 000 people from the Accession Eight nations registered to work in the UK.

Migration in 2011: What will the year ahead hold for the UK?

Despite the government's efforts, net immigration to the UK is unlikely to alter greatly in 2011, unless the economy recovers significantly, in which case immigration levels may rise.

It is felt that despite Polish immigration levels stabilising in recent years, there will be a substantial increases in inflow of migrants from Eastern European nations there was previously less immigration from, such as Lithuania and Latvia.

It is also predicted that Irish emigration into the UK will increase, with the Irish economic turmoil, and predictions are that around 120,000 Irish nationals could leave the republic in 2010 and 2011 for the UK.

Polish workers make up seven out of every ten Eastern European Workers entering the UK between 2004 and 2007.

Four out of every ten workers coming to the UK have been under 24 years old, with 80% being under 34.

London is no longer the top destination for migrant workers. Key factors playing a role in where migrants locate include the growth in budget airlines into Eastern Europe from regional British airports.

Net immigration by citizens of the Accession Eight countries fell dramatically after 2007. The UK actually experienced net emigration by this group in the year to September 2009. This net emigration however was only short lived and it appears that net immigration from Accession Eight countries is settling at more sustainable levels of less than 20,000 per year. The Annual Population Survey estimates that the UK now has around 750,000 residents born in Accession Eight countries, (of whom over 500,000 are Polish).

Non EU Migration

Immigration from outside the EU has remained stable over the last five years, with net immigration averaging just under 200,000 per year (gross immigration just under 300,000). The profile of this migration is changing however. The number of foreign students coming into the UK has risen dramatically, from 87,500 per year in 2001 to 175,000 per year in 2008. The weakening pound and economic conditions has clearly made the UK less attractive for workers, but more attractive for foreign students.

Although the government can do nothing to limit the flow of EU migrants, who make up a fifth of current net migration levels (2010 figure), it can put a cap on non-EU migration, which it is developing a policy for at the current time.

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London has far more migrants compared to other parts of the UK (24.81%). The south-east has the second largest distribution of immigrants (7.25%) illustrating that the on a whole, compared with the rest of the UK, the south is heavily concentrated with immigrants. (BBC 2005)

Age structure and gender aspect of immigrants

There is very little data available for the age structure and gender aspects of immigrants. The following table provides a breakdown:

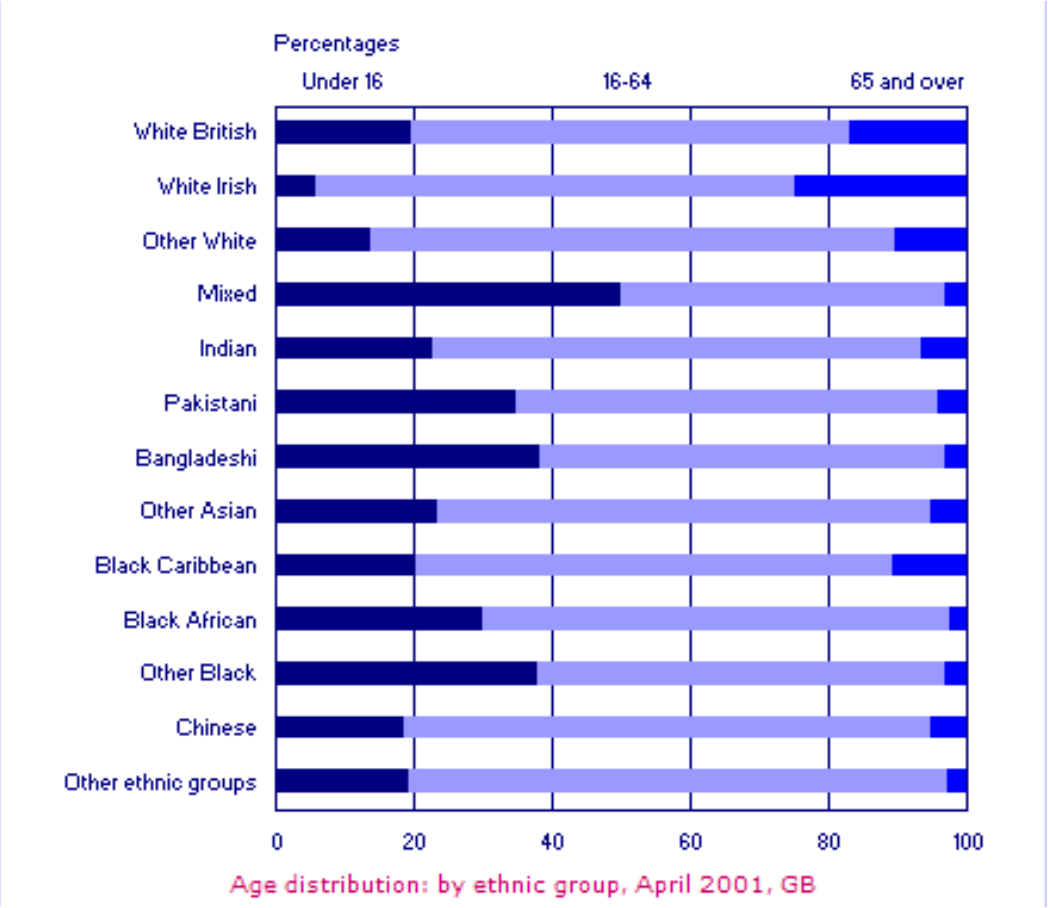

Figure 7: Immigrants to the UK by age and ethnic group. Per cent. 2001. (Office for National Statistics, 2001, UK Census)

Employment of immigrants

The Born Abroad study has some interesting economic data available which was taken from the Labour Force Survey, 2004.

The National Statistics data has shown that 70,000 of immigrants (12%) arrived 'looking for work' whilst 161,000 (27%) had a 'definite job to go to'.

The Born Abroad study has shown high and low earning groups. A table showing the top ten highest and lowest earners (new immigrants only) is also available.

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Table 11: New immigrants to the UK by country of origin and low and high earners. Per cent.

High Earners (%)			
	Employed	**Low earners**	**High earners**
USA	68.08	7.78	**40.56**
Sweden	69.55	4.55	**31.82**
Netherlands	75.91	6.56	**31.15**
Australia	90.57	6.76	**27.03**
New Zealand	93.56	5.97	**25.37**
Japan	47.06	17.39	**23.91**
India	65.98	16.43	**18.13**
Belgium	75.81	20	**16.67**
Canada	82.76	16.9	**15.49**
France	72.46	8	**14.29**

Low Earners (%)			
	Employed	**Low earners**	**High earners**
Bangladesh	42.75	**63.33**	2.22
Ex-Czechoslovakia	72.99	**47.92**	n/a
Hong Kong	46.6	**44.44**	8.33
China	35.81	**38.16**	3.95
Malaysia	58.22	**36.84**	7.89
Pakistan	44.02	**35.4**	3.73
Iran	31.71	**33.33**	12.12
Turkey	41.61	**31.94**	2.78
Jamaica	54.41	**29.79**	0

The table above shows that nearly all the highest earners are from the EU or common wealth countries. Only Japanese immigrants are an exception. In contrast, the lowest earners are from Asia or the Middle East with some exceptions such as Ex-Czechoslovakia, Turkey and Jamaica.

3.6 Eastern Europe

Eastern Europe will be defined as the EU member countries in Eastern Europe, i.e. Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, the Czech republic, Slovakia, Hungary, Romania and Bulgaria. This means that countries outside the EU such as Albania, the former Yugoslavia and the Ukraine will not be included.

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3.6.1 Legal provisions

Bulgaria

"The Law on Foreigners in the Republic of Bulgaria ….. is the primary piece of legislation regulating migration in Bulgaria. It was initially designed to conform to European requirements and has evolved with the changing nature of those requirements according to the State's status regarding EU accession. The main types of immigrants that may enter the Republic of Bulgaria include family members, students and trainees, as well as individuals seeking employment or self employment…….

Also allowed are those travelling for business and investment or not-for– profit activity and, in some cases, individuals arriving for medical treatment, retirement, repatriation and those arriving into the territory on special grounds" (International Organization for Migration 2009; p. 168).

The Czech Republic

"During the course of the implementation of the Common European Immigration Policy from 2002 until 2006, many liberal amendments were made to the Aliens Act. In July 2003, the Pilot project Selection of Qualified Foreign Workers (Pilot project) was launched by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs,…… The main immigration categories covered by Czech legislation are: family reunification, employment and studies" (International Organization for Migration 2009; pp. 198-199).

Estonia

"It is important to note that due to the particular historical circumstances …., Estonian migration management has so far been much more centred on managing the applications of migrants from inside the country, in other words, managing and processing the applications of third-country nationals who have already lived in Estonia for long periods of time. It is only now, when the situation has become more stable (because most of the past residents have either been naturalized or obtained permanent residence), that more attention is being paid to external services and more focus being devoted to the management and administration of new admissions……

The Aliens Act provides the following grounds for residence in Estonia: admission for the purposes of paid activity (employment, self-employment and business); family reunification; studies, vocational training and research; residence following from an international agreement (although this basis has never been detailed); exceptional temporary residence (for example, victims and witnesses in human trafficking proceedings); and permanent or long-term residence. …. the Aliens Act establishes a fixed annual immigration quota as follows:

"The annual immigration quota is the quota for aliens immigrating to Estonia which shall not exceed 0.05 per cent of the permanent population of Estonia annually." Although not unique in itself, the quota actually works quite differently from quotas in some other countries; it is a control measure that is intended to constitute an absolute ceiling for admissions per annum, rather than a "desirable quota" based on estimations of need. The annual immigration quota is fixed and centrally determined without any involvement of local government, social partners or the civil society." (International Organization for Migration, 2009; pp. 228-229).

Hungary

"Hungarian immigration policy has been largely shaped by the harmonization process and transposition of EU Directives, the Schengen acquis, The Hague Programme and other EU

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law…..Since a restructuring of governmental competencies in 2006, …. the Ministry of Interior is responsible for alien policing, asylum and naturalization affairs, subordinated by the Ministry of Justice and Law Enforcement….. In addition, the Hungarian Border Guard Services, as of 1 January 2008, have become an integral part of the Police service." (International Organization for Migration, 2009, p. 310)

Latvia

"The Immigration Law establishes a primary distinction between two types of permits:

temporary residence permits, which are granted for different periods of time (from a maximum of six months to five years), and permanent residence permits. In addition to these two types of residence permits, the legislation recognizes the status of long term EC residents. This threefold permit system encompasses various types of immigration status:

family reunification, study, training, research and work. Regarding immigration for work purposes, individuals may seek employment or self-employment. Guest workers are accepted into the Latvian labour force each year, however, there is no specific legislation regarding seasonal labour.

Non-citizens make up a special category of residents in Latvia, which are defined as persons who were USSR nationals, but who after 1991 did not qualify for Latvian nationality and did not acquire Russian or any other nationality (Former USSR Citizens Act, Art. 1). Non-citizens are given a passport that grants them the special status of belonging to the State, allowing them to benefit from the constitutional right to return" (International Organization for Migration, 2009; p. 352).

Lithuania

A completely new approach to migration issues was set up in the Law on the Legal Status of Foreigners, which …came into force in July 1999. This Law abolished the immigration quota and provided rules for the arrival and departure of foreigners that were common to all third-country nationals. Nevertheless, following the harmonization of Lithuanian legislation with the EU legal acts in the field of migration, a number of shortcomings and gaps were identified with respect to this Law. …..the new Law on the Legal Status of Aliens (Law on Aliens) …. was adopted in April 2004. The main immigration categories covered by Lithuanian legislation are: family reunification, students and trainees (including internship programmes, in-service training and vocational training), employment and other commercial activities. (International Organization for Migration, 2009; p. 367).

Poland

"Since 2003, the primary legal act regulating the conditions of entrance, stay and expulsion of foreigners has been the Aliens Act. In 2005, the Aliens Act was amended to implement Council Directive 2003/86/EC on the right to family reunification. New amendments were also made by the Act of 24 May 2007, implementing inter alia the EC Directives on studies and scientific research. ……

Generally speaking, foreigners may apply for permits to enter and/or to stay in Poland for the purposes of family reunification, work, seasonal work, self-employment, studies and training. Specific regulations refer to persons of Polish origin who are citizens of the former Asian republics of the Soviet Union. (International Organization for Migration, 2009; p. 420).

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Romania

The legal status of aliens in Romania is presently regulated by Emergency Ordinance 194/2002 ….. Emergency ordinance 56/2007 deals with the employment of aliens, work authorization and the temporary transfer of working force.

The legal definition of the term alien has recently changed. ….. an alien is now defined as a person who is not a Romanian citizen or a citizen of another EU or EEA Member State. Therefore, starting with the latest changes, the legislation on aliens applies only to non-EU and EEA citizens (i.e. third-country nationals). EU and EEA citizens have the same status as Romanian citizens. This new approach has simplified the application of the law. …..

In 2004, the Romanian Government adopted a National Strategy on Migration. …..

The most important principles of the strategy are: EU accession, national interest, favourable effects of controlled migration, fighting illegal migration and international solidarity and cooperation. (International Organization for Migration, 2009; pp. 446-447).

Slovakia

"In January 2005, the Slovak Government passed the Conception of the Migration Policy of the Slovak Republic: a comprehensive framework for managing migration. The document outlines policies in the domains of international cooperation, legal migration and the integration of immigrants, asylum, undocumented migration, human rights protection and prevention of xenophobia, intolerance and discrimination. …. Immigrants may legally enter and stay in the territory of Slovakia for the purposes of family reunification, employment, business, seasonal work, studying and training, research, special activities (lecturing, artistic and sport activities) or for the fulfilment of official duties by civil units of the Armed Forces. (International Organization for Migration, 2009; pp. 460-461).

The immigration regulations of the countries of Eastern Europe have been harmonised with the EU regulations. Consequently, these regulations are very similar in all Eastern European countries now. The descriptions above are based on the International Organization of Migration (2009), and legal changes and amendments may have been introduced later on.

3.6.2 Immigrants in the populations

Table 12: Countries in Eastern Europe by population, immigrants and per cent immigrants.

Country	Population 2011 (millions)	Immigrants (millions)	Percent immigrants	Year
Bulgaria	7.09	0.02	0.3	2009
Czech Republic	10.19	0.42	4.1	2010
Estonia	1.28	0.21	16.4	2010
Hungary	10.0	0.20	2.0	2010
Latvia	2.20	0.39	1.8	2010
Lithuania	3.54	0.04	1.1	2010
Poland	38.44	0.05	0.1	2010
Romania	21.90	0.03	0.1	2009
Slovakia	5.48	0.05	0.9	2010

(Populations CIA World Factbook 2011. Immigrant populations: Eurostat 2011, immigrants defined as foreign citizens.)

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Bulgaria

Bulgaria has 0.3 per cent foreign citizens in its population, according to table 12.

"Foreigners seeking residence in Bulgaria, both continuous (a renewable permit for up to one year) or permanent (without temporary limit), are predominantly citizens of neighbouring countries (such as Macedonia, Greece and Turkey) and EU Member States (such as the UK and Germany). The only countries that do not follow this trend are Russia, Ukraine, China and the USA. In 2006, there were 55 684 permanently resident foreigners in Bulgaria". (International Organization for Migration, 2009; p.168). In 2010 155212 people immigrated into Bulgaria and 179402 emigrated from Bulgaria. Consequently, there was a net emigration from Bulgaria of 24190 people in 2010. NSI - National Statistical Institute (Bulgaria; 2011)

The Czech Republic

4.1 per cent of the population are foreign citizens according to table 12.

"Most migrants are from Central and Eastern European countries such as Ukraine, Slovakia, Poland and Russia, with the notable exception of Vietnam and more recently Mongolia. The majority immigrate as labour migrants (employed, self-employed or businessmen), with a minority immigrating for the purpose of family reunification" (International Organization for Migration 2009; p. 198).

Estonia

Estonia has the second highest percentage of foreign citizens, 16.4, of the Eastern European countries included in table 12. The size of the foreign-born population of 212 659 (Eurostat 2011) is explained below.

"…. the Estonian population was 1 565 622 persons in 1989, including 963 000 Estonians (61.5 per cent) and 602 381 persons of other ethnic backgrounds (the remaining 38.5 per cent). Furthermore, almost uniquely in Europe, 26 per cent of the Estonian population was foreign-born (36 per cent with the inclusion of the second generation), whilst the native population was still ten per cent less than before WWII ….. This provides the perspective for Estonia's post-1990 period of restrictive migration policy and relatively conservative naturalization policy. Recent changes in immigration policy, however, have been facilitated by the relative success of integrating past immigrants into Estonian society, a declining and ageing population, rapid economic growth and the resulting projected lack of labour" (International Organization for Migration, 2009; p. 228). Estonia had 212659 inhabitants with foreign citizenship in 2010, down from 242000 in 2006. (Eurostat 2011)

Hungary

According to table 12, 2.0 per cent of the population of Hungary are foreign citizens.

"Accession to the European Union has not brought dramatic changes in the migration trends of the country; the number of immigrants in Hungary has remained low, approximately 1.5 to 2 per cent of the population. …. 80 to 90 per cent of immigrants residing in Hungary are European, primarily ethnic Hungarians from Ukraine, Romania and Serbia; 10 to 15 per cent of immigrants are from Asia. Immigration to Hungary is primarily a demand-driven, sub-regional labour migration, often based on seasonal or temporary employment. Immigrants in Hungary tend to have higher education levels than the native population and a larger proportion of them are in the active age range for employment, although there is also an increasing trend of family reunification with elderly

parents who arrive in Hungary for retirement. The status of ethnic Hungarians living in countries adjacent to Hungary has been a subject of debate. Hungary's governments between 1990 and 2002 maintained that they aimed to encourage ethnic Hungarians to remain in the lands of their birth. There is not an active repatriation programme of co-ethnics akin to that of Germany. The Hungarian immigration and naturalization system has often been criticized for being indifferent toward ethnic Hungarians, despite certain benefits for ethnic Hungarians and persons of Hungarian ancestry in the immigration and naturalization process ……

The most topical issue has been the demographic deficit and its implications for increased immigration. Hungary is an aging society, with negative natural population growth.

Recommendations from a group of scholars suggested that some immigration should be encouraged and facilitated in order to meet labour market needs" (International Organization for Migration, 2009; p. 310).

Latvia

As shown in table 12 17.7 per cent of the population of Latvia had foreign citizenship in 2010. This is the highest percentage of the countries included in the table. A large share of the 392 150 (Eurostat 2011) foreigners living in Latvia, is most likely "USSR citizens who did not qualify for Latvian nationality" after 1991 (see paragraph 3.6.1 concerning legal provision in Latvia).

"Recent foreign immigrants represent only 1.6 per cent of the total population in Latvia, partially as a result of restrictive migration policies that were adopted in the 1990s. However, according to official data, the number of foreign nationals residing in Latvia is increasing. In 2005, 2748 foreign nationals obtained residence permits, most from the Russian Federation, Ukraine, Belarus, and the United States of America…..

Since joining the EU, approximately 80 000 people have left Latvia for employment in other Western European States. The Bank of Latvia estimates that 200 000 economically active residents might leave the country gradually over the next ten years. ….. Moreover, Latvia is experiencing a decline in population growth due to natural births." (International Organization for Migration, 2009; p. 352)

Lithuania

According to table 12 only 1.1 per cent of the population of Lithuania had foreign citizenship in 2010. *"Since the collapse of the USSR, immigration into Lithuania by citizens of the former USSR has gradually tapered off, from approximately 14 000 in 1990 to 2536 in 1997. In the past five years, the number of newcomers to Lithuania in total has averaged approximately 5500 each year. However, the number of people leaving Lithuania was high after the collapse of the USSR. It is estimated that 300 000 citizens left Lithuania between 1990 and 2005, which constitutes a high negative outflow of population"* (International Organization for Migration, 2009; p. 368)

Poland

Poland, together with Romania, has the lowest percentage of immigrants of all the countries in Eastern Europe, only 0.1 per cent, according to table 12.

"Despite a constant increase in the number of immigrants residing in Poland since 1989, immigration generally remains low. For many years Poland has been perceived as a country of transit for many foreigners, rather than one of destination. Between 2000 and 2002 there was a period of decline in the number of foreigners arriving in Poland; however, since that time the

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numbers have been increasing steadily, from 6587 arrivals in 2002 to 9364 in 2005. The overall number of residence permits granted in 2005 increased by five per cent from that in 2004 …. In 2006, 22 378 residence permits for specified periods of time and 3255 settlement permits were issued. In the same year, 995 foreigners received an EC long-term residence permit. More than half of the permanent immigrants resident in Poland between 2001 and 2005 originated from Germany, the United States of America and Ukraine. In 2005, almost two-thirds of all permits were granted to nationals of the six following countries (in decreasing order): Ukraine, Germany, Belarus, Vietnam, the Russian Federation and Armenia. More than half of all applicants for residence permits for a specified period of time originated from Ukraine, Vietnam, Belarus, the Russian Federation and Armenia…..

Joining the EU and the implementation of the EU acquis resulted in an increase in the number of EU citizens arriving in Poland and a decrease in arrivals from third countries …., as can be seen by the 35 per cent increase in the number of residence permits issued to individuals from EU Member States between 2004 and 2005 ….” (International Organization for Migration, 2009; p. 420)

Romania

Romania, together with Poland, has the lowest percentage of immigrants of all the countries in Eastern Europe, only 0.1 per cent, according to table 12.

“Romania is primarily considered as a state of emigration and transit and only secondarily as a destination for immigrants. Net migration in Romania remains negative, meaning that the number of emigrants in a given year exceeds the number of immigrants. The principal source country for immigration of third-country nationals to Romania is the Republic of Moldova. This trend appears to be on-going, facilitated by the common language shared by the two States and fuelled by the superior economic conditions in Romania. Other source countries of third-country nationals immigrating to Romania include Australia, Canada, Israel, Serbia, Switzerland, the Syrian Arab Republic, Turkey, Ukraine and the United States of America” (International Organization for Migration, 2009; p. 420)

Slovakia

Slovakia had only 0.9 immigrants in 2010.

“Slovakia is now a country of transit for many migrants and has even become a country of destination for some, especially since the country’s accession to the EU in 2004 (Divinský 2006)…… In 2006, there were 32 153 immigrants residing in Slovakia, representing 0.6 per cent of the country’s total population. Prior to 2004, their absolute number remained stable, but following Slovakia’s accession into the EU in 2004, the number of immigrants has increased considerably as a reaction to much simpler conditions regarding the movement of nationals from EU Member States and their family members. Immigrants from neighbouring countries (for example Ukraine, Poland and Hungary) make up a large proportion of the foreigners residing in Slovakia, with Czechs represent 16 per cent of all foreign residents in the country. This is probably due to the fact that they are likely to have had relatives and working relations in the country before they entered. These immigrants are primarily employed or doing business in various sectors of the economy, although many also arrive for the purpose of family reunification….. Another subgroup of immigrants consists of those from countries with historically developed foreign communities in Slovakia and/or countries that possess a Slovak minority (for example, Russia, Serbia, Romania, Bulgaria and Croatia). Citizens of these countries work, study and create families in Slovakia and

gradually join their national minorities within the country. It can also be noted that rising inflows of immigrants from Asian countries form a new trend in Slovakia. Finally, since 2004, foreign nationals from the 15 initial EU countries have constituted the most dynamic component of migrants. In 2006, these immigrants accounted for 21.5 per cent of the total number of foreigners in Slovakia, as compared to 9.8 per cent in 2003. This subgroup of migrants is primarily involved in economic activities in the tertiary and quaternary sectors as highly-skilled experts, representatives, consultants, lecturers, researchers and so on. Family reunification is less common for this group, as their work is usually of a temporary nature … . The rise in newly issued residence permits for foreigners in Slovakia (from 4622 in 2000 to 12 631 in 2006) is evidence of the fact that accession to the EU caused a fundamental change in immigration trends and an increased interest in Slovakia as a country of destination for migrants; their inflows grow almost exponentially." International Organization for Migration, 2009; p. 460).

The countries of Eastern Europe have small populations of immigrants, except Latvia and Estonia having relative large subpopulations of people from other former USSR republics. Whether these subpopulations should still be defined as immigrants, is a matter of judgement. Several other countries have minority populations which are not considered foreigners or immigrants. In some countries the number of foreign-born people may be higher than the number of immigrants shown in table 12 above, because immigrants are defined as people with foreign citizenship in the source of that table. There may be people born abroad who have acquired citizenship in their new country, and there may be illegal immigrants who are not included in the statistics.
In several countries the number of immigrants is decreasing, and even the total population is decreasing due to large-scale emigration. The figures for Eastern Europe are not directly comparable to those for Southern Europe because the definitions of immigrants vary quite much.

3.7 Southern Europe

Here Southern Europe is defined as EU member countries in Southern Europe, i.e. Cyprus, Greece, Italy, Malta, Portugal, Slovenia and Spain.

More than 60 per cent of Europe's new arrivals headed for Southern Europe during the mid-2000s, according to TIME (2010). Illegal immigration may be more widespread in Southern Europe than further north, because of lax enforcement rules and large informal economies. Temporary migrants tend to remain. (ibid). 7.2% per cent of the Italian population are noncitizen residents, not counting the illegal population (Faris, 2010).

In 2008 5.3 million foreigners, out of a total population of 46 million, lived in Spain, i.e. 11.5 per cent of the population (Abend, 2010). In 2008 Spain received the highest number of immigrants of any state in the European Union except Italy.

Noncitizens make up more than 10 per cent of Greece's population in 2010. The vast majority of these come from neighbouring countries, especially Albania, but an increasing number are illegal immigrants from Africa and Asia. During the first half of 2009, almost a quarter of all European arrests of illegal immigrants took place in Greece. (Itano 2010).

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3.7.1 Legal provisions

The European Union Immigration website (European Union Immigration 2011) have links to website concerning information about each member country. However, the text concerning immigration rules appears to be a standard common to all countries, i.e.: *"..... citizenship can be acquired in a number of ways. The most common are by descent, birth, marriage, extension of award, and business. Tourist, student, and work visas are also available. Select the option that best suits your needs and start the application process immediately*." More detailed information concerning legal provisions for each country can be found in International Organization for Migration (2009). The most general principles of immigration for each southern European country are described below.

Cyprus

"Cypriot legislation envisages a number of different types of immigration status, drawing a primary distinction between third-country nationals and third-country nationals who are family members of an EU national. Within the former category, the relevant legislation provides different regimes for family member, employees, self-employed persons and students.

It can be noted that the national poicy is to prevent third-country nationals from settling more permanently in Cyprus. Permits are issued on a short-term basis, the length depending on the type of occupation, and may currently only be renewed for a total of up to four years." International Organisation for Migration, 2009; p. 183).

Greece

"Greek legislation envisages the following instances of immigration status: family reunification; work, including general employment, self-employment and seasonal employment; and studies and training. There are specific residence permits available for people of "other" status including: financially independent persons; adult children of diplomats serving in Greece and third-country nationals serving as "members of the service staff" and "private servants"; foreign press reporters and correspondents; clergymen of all known religions; participants in research programmes, humanitarian cases and victims of trafficking in human beings." (Organization for Migration (2009; p. 293).

Italy

"The main immigration categories covered by Italian legislation are: family members, employment, self-employment, seasonal work and studies." (Organization for Migration, 2009; p. 339).

Malta

"Residence permits are issued to third-country nationals who have been authorized to stay in Malta for more than three months for the purpose of employment, self-employment, retirement, study, long-term residence or other reasons (Immigration Regulations 2004). It should be noted that third-country nationals will only obtain a residence visa for the purpose of employment or self-employment in exceptional cases. Third-country nationals who meet certain requirements may obtain a permanent residence permit. A permanent residence permit authorizes a foreigner to remain indefinitely, but precludes him from entering into employment or running a business of any kind in Malta." (Organization for Migration, 2009;p. 390)

Portugal

"Act 23/2007 replaced a complicated legal framework for residence consisting of eight types of permits (including four types of work permits, a study permit, a temporary residence permit with

work authorization, residence authorization and permission to stay authorization) with a twofold system that includes a temporary residence permit and a permanent residence permit. As a general rule, different types of immigration status, such as employment, self-employment, family reunification and research and studies, are contained within this dual permit system. It can be noted that new legal channels were created in the same Act to allow for entry of temporary seasonal migrants and researchers and scientists. A simplified procedure was also designed for temporary placement or transfer of workers in companies or groups of companies having business in Portugal and which are from member countries of the World Trade Organization. In addition, the status of EC long-term resident was created by the new legislation, in conformity with European law." (Organization for Migration, 2009; p.437).

Slovenia

"The Aliens Act of 2006 and two resolutions on Immigration Policy passed by the National Assembly in 1999 (Resolution 40/1999) and 2002 (Resolution 106/2002) are the primary national legislation regulating the entry of foreigners and the return of emigrants, as well as promoting integration. All Slovenian legislation concerning migration has been developed in accordance with the EU acquis……

……Foreigners who enter and reside in Slovenia may be understood as falling into one of three general categories, based on the purpose and length of stay. These types of status are distinguished by the document issued, whether a visa, temporary residence permit or permanent residence permit.[454] A residence permit is necessary for any foreigner who wishes to reside in Slovenia for a longer period of time than allowed by a visa, or who wishes to enter and reside in Slovenia for different reasons than those for which a visa may be issued (Aliens Act, Art. 25(1)). It grants the foreigner permission to enter and reside temporarily in Slovenia for a specific reason or purpose, or to reside permanently in Slovenia, depending on the type of permit (Aliens Act, Art. 25(2)). Permission for temporary residence can only be issued for a specific purpose (Aliens Act, Art. 26(2)), such as work or employment, self-employment, seasonal work, family reunification, research, studying, education, specialization and professional training and participation in or attendance of international volunteer exchange programs or other programs that are not part of the formal education system (Aliens Act, Art. 30(1)). It can also be noted that a relative of up to the fourth degree of a Slovenian citizen in a direct descending line has the right to obtain permission for temporary residence." (International Organization of Migration, 2009; pp. 474-475).

Spain

"Spanish legislation distinguishes between two situations: foreigners in Spain can be in a situation of stay or residence. Stay is defined as presence on Spanish territory for a period of time up to 90 days, except in the case of students, who can stay for a period equal to that of the courses in which they are matriculated. On the other hand, residents are foreigners who live in Spain with a valid residence authorization. They can be in a situation of temporary or permanent residence. The legislation also contemplates three specific situations: the special regime for students, the residence of stateless persons, undocumented people and refugees, as well as the residence of minors." (Organization for Migration, 2009; p. 488).

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3.7.2 Immigrants in the populations

Table 13: Immigrants in Southern Europe by country. Number and percent.

Country	Population (millions)	No of immigrants (millions)	Per cent immigrants	Year
Cyprus	0.89	0.13	14.6	2009
Greece	10.93	0.76	7.0	2001
Italy	61.02	4.23	6.9	2010
Malta	0.42	0.02	4,7	2005
Portugal	10.76	0.45	4.2	2010
Slovenia	2.05	0.08	3.9	2011
Spain	47.15	5.73	12.2	2011

(Republic of Cyprus 2009; Population CIA 2011; Immigration: Malta – NSO-Malta, 2011c. Portugal: SEF 2011; Statistical office of Slovenia 2011; Spain: INE 2011. Other countries: International Organization of Migration, 2009)

The definition of immigrants may vary between the countries. Some countries, e.g. Greece, states the number of people with foreign citizenship, meaning that foreign born people who have acquired Greek citizenship, are not included in the statistics, other countries, such as Spain, state the number of people born abroad. Different sources for the same country may use different definitions, as is the case for Cyprus.

Table 13 shows that the percentage of immigrants living in the southern European countries varies between 4.2 in Portugal and 14.6 in Spain. However, the figure for Greece is 10 years old, and may have changed considerably since 2001. As described above there is a large amount of illegal immigration into some of the southern European countries, and there is reason to believe that illegal residents are not included in the immigrant population statistics.

Cyprus

The statistics for Cyprus from Republic of Cyprus (2009) comprise the whole island of Cyprus, but the percentage of foreign residents may vary quite much between the two sectors. *"Total population figures do not include illegal settlers from Turkey, the number of which most probably is in the range of 160-170 thousands, estimated on information of significant arrivals of Turks in the occupied area.*" (Republic of Cyprus. 2009, p. 11). Another source shows a different situation: "*In 2001, it was estimated that the total number of migrants legally living and working in Cyprus was 29 730, comprising 6.8 per cent of the whole labour force, ..*" (International Organization of Migration, 2009; p. 182). However, a footnote says that *"these figures do not...include Greek immigrants, immigrants of Greek descent from the Black Sea area, domestic workers, performing artists, irregular immigrant or permanent visitors (mainly European pensioners. .....the total number of migrant workers (including..."illegal" migrants) is currently 35 000 – 40 000.* " If these migrant workers be included, the percentage of immigrants will correspond more or less to the statistics in table 13.

In 2009 11675 people came as long-term immigrants to Cyprus and 9527 people as short-term immigrants. Of the long term immigrants 5994 or 51.3 per cent came from EU countries. 9829 people emigrated from Cyprus in 2009. (Republic of Cyprus 2009, pp. 146-167).

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Greece

"According to the government census, the population of Greece in 2001 was almost 11million. The official number of immigrants at that time stood at 762 000, a figure widely believed to be too low. The four main countries of origin for immigrants were Albania (58 per cent), Bulgaria (five per cent), Georgia (three per cent) and Romania (three percent), followed by Ukraine, Poland, Philippines, Iraq, Egypt, Syria and other nations. The number of employed aliens stood at 391 600, which was equal to roughly 9.5 per cent of the employed population of Greece." (International Organization for Migration, 2009; p. 294)

Italy

"Temporary workers represent a major component of the immigrants present in Italy, especially in agriculture in the Southern parts of Italy …. In 2004, a total of 983 499 visas were granted; of these, most were family reunification visas, followed by visas to employees. In 2005, that number had risen to 1 076 080, of which 35.3 per cent were visas to employees and 40.1 per cent family reunification visas. Another relatively large group was visas for study (11 per cent) …….

The migrants coming to Italy are mainly people with a primary education (32.9 per cent), followed closely by those with secondary education (27.8 per cent) …

In 2005, there were more than 3 million foreigners residing in Italy, compared to 2.6 million in 2003). … There is a noteworthy presence of minors in Italy: 19.3 per cent in 2005 (compared to 15.6 per cent in 2003). Most migrants have a residence permit based on the fact that they work in Italy (62.6 per cent in 2005 and 66.1 per cent in 2003), while about one third have a permit based on family reunification….. .. In the period 1990-99, 217 718 permits were granted for the purpose of work and 220 080 for family reunification. The immigration population increased by around 80 000 a year in the 1990s and now it increases by around four times as much per year. …. The four main nationalities present in the immigrant population are Romanians, Albanians, Americans (USA) and Moroccans."

Malta

In 2010 8154 people immigrated into Malta. Only 689 people came from countries outside the EU. Emigration from Malta was 5954, and thus the net immigration was 2200 people (NSO 2011a). The total number of *foreign citizens* living in Malta was 18 088 in 2010 (Eurostat 2011). The number of *foreign-born* people (whether citizens of Malta or not) were 24 560 in 2005 (NSO-Malta 2011c).

Malta has statistics for "irregular immigrants". The number of irregular immigrants varies quite much from one year to the next, 2775 in 2008 and only 47 irregular immigrants in 2010 (NSO 2011b).

Portugal

Foreigners residing in Portugal between 2001 and 2004 were primarily from Brazil (14.9 per cent of foreigners), Ukraine (14.7 per cent), and Cape Verde (14.3 per cent), followed by immigrants from Angola (7.9 per cent), Guinea-Bissau (5.6 per cent), Moldova (3.0 per cent), Romania (2.7per cent), São Tomé and Príncipe (2.7 per cent), China (2.1 per cent) and the Russian Federation (1.8 per cent). In the past five years, Eastern Europeans have become one of the most important immigrant groups in Portugal, currently making up one-third of the foreign-born active population (International Organization for Migration, 2009; p. 436).

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Slovenia

The main groups of people with foreign citizenship come from the former Yugoslavia and from the European Union. (Statistical office of the Republic of Slovenia, 2011). "*In 2005, 15 000 new immigrants came to the country, while 8600 persons left Slovenia the same year*."(International Organization for Migration 2009; p. 474).

Spain

According to the national statistics (INE 2007), Spain had 4.5 million immigrants in 2007. Some 3.7 million of these had low income (less than 2000 € per month) or were inactive, exclusive of students and foreign-born retirees. Almost 0.7 million of the people born abroad had Spanish citizenship. The INE report does not state whether the 4.5 million immigrants included illegal immigrants. There were 1.3 million irregular immigrants in Spain (International Organization for Migration 2009; p. 488).

Southern Europe

The percentage of immigrants varies between approximately 15 and 4 in the southern European countries. Comparison between the different countries is difficult because of different definitions of the concept of immigrant – whether foreign born or foreign citizens, and whether illegal immigrants are included in the statistics or not. Illegal or irregular immigrants make up rather large numbers in some countries, and as they are illegal, they are also difficult to include in official statistics.

Some countries have information concerning the immigrants' countries of origin. The main countries of origin vary between the southern European countries. Other EU countries, neighbouring countries and countries with the same or similar language may be important countries of origin.

Since all countries described in this paragraph are EU member countries, their legal provisions concerning immigration seem to be quite similar. Further details concerning immigration laws in the EU can be found in International Organization for Migration (2009).

3.8 Immigrant populations in Europe - conclusion

The concept of "immigrant" can be defined in several ways. In this report an immigrant is defined as a person born abroad who has come to a country to take up permanent residence, except if one or both parents were born in the country where the person has taken up residence. However, various definitions are applied in the statistics used in this document, e.g., foreign citizens or people born in a certain country by two parents born abroad are also defined as immigrants. For other parts of the TOGETHER project the target groups may be more limited, like newly arrived immigrants, immigrants from outside the EU etc.

Legal provision for immigration is quite similar is all above countries because all of them have harmonised their immigration legislation to the EU legislation.

In the Western European countries described above immigrants make up between 9 and 18 per cent of the total population, in Eastern Europe between 0.1 and 16 per cent, and in Southern Europe between 4 and 15 per cent. Eastern Europe appears to have a different situation than Western and Southern Europe in terms of less recent immigration, immigration from the USSR previous to 1990 and minority populations within most of these countries.

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The variation in percentage of immigrants shown above may partly be due to differences in the definition of immigrant in the national censuses and statistics. There are also considerable differences between districts or regions within each country in the percentage of immigrants. There are also differences in the country of origin of the immigrants. The most important distinctions seems to be between newly arrived immigrants and immigrants who have stayed in their new country for many years and between immigrants from other EU countries and immigrants from overseas.

Coming from other EU countries and from all over the world, immigrants in the European Union countries are heterogeneous. Some are highly educated, well off and may even come from a neighbouring country speaking the same language, such as German immigrants in Austria. Others, coming from other continents and highly different cultures, may be illiterates even in their own language, but most immigrant are something in between these two extremes. Some immigrants have a legal status in the country where they have settled, and others come and settle illegally.

After the 12 new European nations joined the European Union in 2004, migrants in large numbers have come from these countries, especially from Poland, into Western Europe. In some countries there are also large immigrant populations from countries outside the European Union, such as Turkey, and from outside Europe such as the British Commonwealth countries, Morocco, Pakistan etc. Foreign born legal residents seem to make up some 8-10 per of the population in Western European countries. Though large variations, immigrants tend to have lower education and lower employment rates than the domestically born populations.

Immigrants from other European countries and minority subpopulations are likely to know just as much about energy-efficient transport as the general population in the same age and education levels, whereas this topic and public transport in general, may be quite unfamiliar to immigrants from overseas countries such as Somalia, Pakistan and Afghanistan.

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4 Travel behaviour of immigrants

Data and information concerning the travel behaviour of immigrants have been searched by each institute involved in TOGETHER for their own country. Some results were found in Austria, Norway, Sweden and the UK. Nevertheless, research and data about travel behaviour among immigrants are sparse in Europe. Even though many countries have detailed travel surveys, it is normally impossible to distinguish between immigrants and the majority population, because the respondents are not asked about nationality or where they were born. However, in addition to the information found in Austria, Norway, Sweden and the UK studies from Germany and the Netherlands provide some data on immigrants' travel behaviour.

In the USA and Canada research and data concerning the travel behaviour of immigrants seem to exist, but these results will not be included here. One example (Blumenberg & Song 2008) seems highly relevant: *"…. immigrants rely more extensively on alternative commute modes (car pooling and transit) than native-born commuters. But with time in the US, immigrants quickly assimilate away from these alternative modes and increasingly rely on solo driving*."

In France, which is not included in the study, poor public transport may be a barrier to education and employment for immigrants living in the suburbs of Paris (Rachline, 2011).

For the Eastern and Southern European countries included in chapters 3 and 4, the TOI library has searched in the following libraries and data bases: ISI Web of Knowledge, TRID, RITA, OVID-Transport, The European Library, Google, Google Scholar, European statistical agencies, and ScienceDirect. Keywords such as immigration, immigrant, external/international migration, foreign, travel behaviour, mobility, commuting, transportation, residential choice, integration were used in English as well as in the national languages translated by the Google translation service. No data or information concerning the travel behaviour of immigrants in Eastern and Southern Europe was found.

4.1 Austria

As shown in the figure below, car ownership is highest in household with Austria as their native county and lowest in "others".

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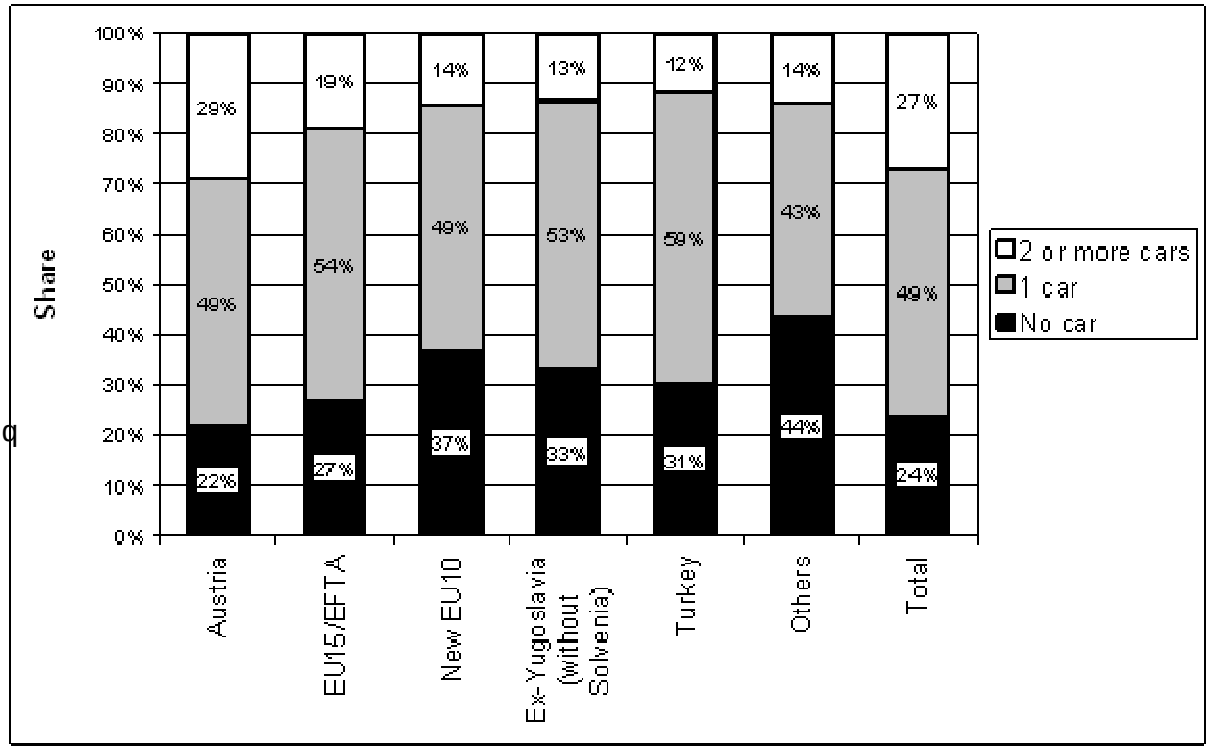

Figure 8: Car ownership of households by native country in Austria 2006. (Statistics Austria 2010 and Schönfelder 2010)

Data on daily trips or km travelled are not available for Austria, but some data on transport mode use are available for Vienna. As shown in the table below Viennese citizens with a migration background walk less and use the car and public transport more than their native Austrian counterparts, but there is no significant difference in the use of bicycle between native Austrians and people born outside Austria. More frequent use of public transport among foreign-born citizens may be due to the fact that foreign-born citizens tend to live in areas with easy access to public transport.

The German situation described in paragraph 4.6.1 can probably be conveyed to the Austrian situation. A substantial survey of the relation between migration background, individual mobility behaviour and consequently social inclusion is still missing in Austria.

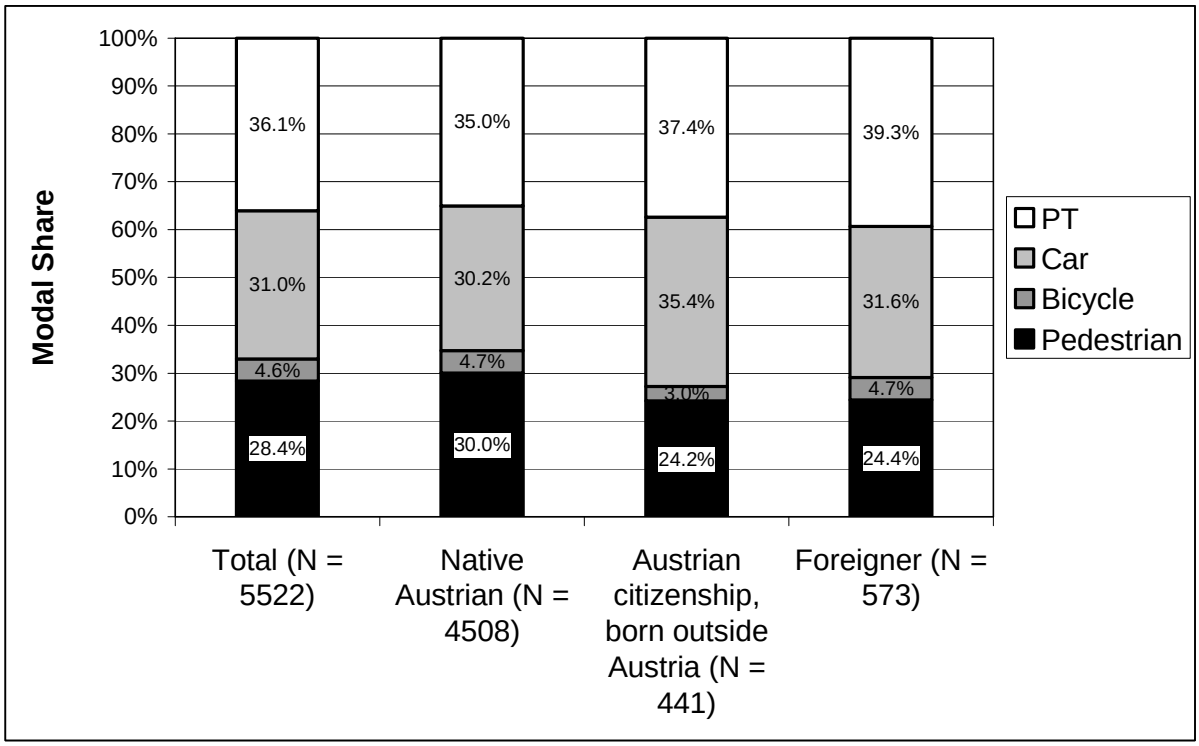

Figure 9: Modal split Vienna 2010 by citizenship. Source: "Wiener Linien" 2010 (Annual mobility survey)

4.2 Belgium

Despite the fact that there is information in Belgium on immigration and on travelling, no information or statistics concerning the travel behaviour of immigrants in Belgium are available according to the Mobiel 21.

4.3 Norway

The Norwegian national travel surveys do not distinguish between immigrants and ethnic Norwegians. However, a study of the mobility patterns of non-Western immigrant communities in Norway (Uteng 2009) shows that the average number of daily trips is 3.3 among Norwegians in general and 4.1 among non-Western immigrants. Moreover, non-Western women have on the average 4.3 daily trips and non-Western men have 3.9. Non-Western women spend on the average 84.5 minutes per day travelling, non-Western men spend 79.8 minutes and Norwegians in general spend 70.0 minutes per day. Uteng, 2009, p. 1063) explains the differences in average daily travelling time by the combination of poorer access to cars among the immigrants, especially the immigrant women.

The immigrant sample is small all and may be biased. The mail survey has a response rate of 8.6 per cent, and the results are based on a sample added up of the mail survey and personal interviews. Nevertheless, a poorer access to cars among immigrants is a likely explanation. Moreover, the immigrant men travel more by car, 47 percent, than immigrant women, 38 per cent, especially as drivers, 42 per cent vs. 18 per cent. Of the Norwegian population 90 per cent have driver's licenses, about the same percentage for men and women, whereas 59 per cent of the immigrant men and 42 per cent of the immigrant women have driver's licenses. Comparing a rural area and the capital Oslo,

Uteng (2009, p. 1064) finds that accessibility is much less of a problem for immigrant women in Oslo than in the village of Finnsnes. Moreover, she finds that 57 per cent of the immigrant men and 47 per cent of the immigrant women think they would have enhanced job options with better mobility, a result indicating that mobility is a constraint for immigrants of both genders. "*69 per cent of immigrant men and 58 per cent of immigrant women replied that they suffered from insufficient PT provision to meet their daily mobility needs. ..... PT provision leaves much to be desired in order for it to continue as a preferred need. The respondents identified prices of the tickets, frequency during evenings, weekends, and holidays, and punctuality to be the biggest problems...*" Uteng (2009, p. 1069) concludes that *"...in the Norwegian context, non-Western immigrant women are both liberated and trapped by their life situation. There is a continuous struggle to carve out an identity of their own. Though issues like employment and household income are, prima facie, most important, access to daily mobility options is equally important.*" In spite of its methodological limitations, Uteng's study provides some interesting results in a field which is scarcely researched.

However, non-Western immigrants make up roughly 40 per cent of the immigrants in Norway, as shown in chapter 3.3. Consequently, more information is needed concerning the travel behaviour of the other 60 per cent of the immigrants.

A recent article (Aftenposten 2011) states that Pakistani immigrants in Norway ride bicycles and walk less than ethnic Norwegians. Interviews show that Pakistanis consider bicycles as an inefficient means of transport which is only used by poor people. Moreover, only four per cent of the male Pakistani immigrants studied spent 30 minutes or more walking, whereas 20 per cent of ethnic Norwegian men did.

Nordbakke & Assum (2008) show that immigrants from non-Western countries run a higher risk of road accidents as car drivers than do Norwegian car drivers. Both male and female drivers from the Middle East and Africa have an accident risk twice as high as Norwegian male and female drivers. Figure 10 below shows the relative risk of male drivers from eight regions of the world and Norway. The relative risk is number of accidents per driver's license holder relative to Norwegian license holders, a fact meaning that distance driven is not taken into consideration. If drivers born in the Middle East drive considerably longer distances than drivers born in Norway, the real risk difference may be somewhat smaller. Experience from bicycle courses in the small town of Fredrikstad, showed that many immigrants, especially women, did not know how to ride a bicycle.

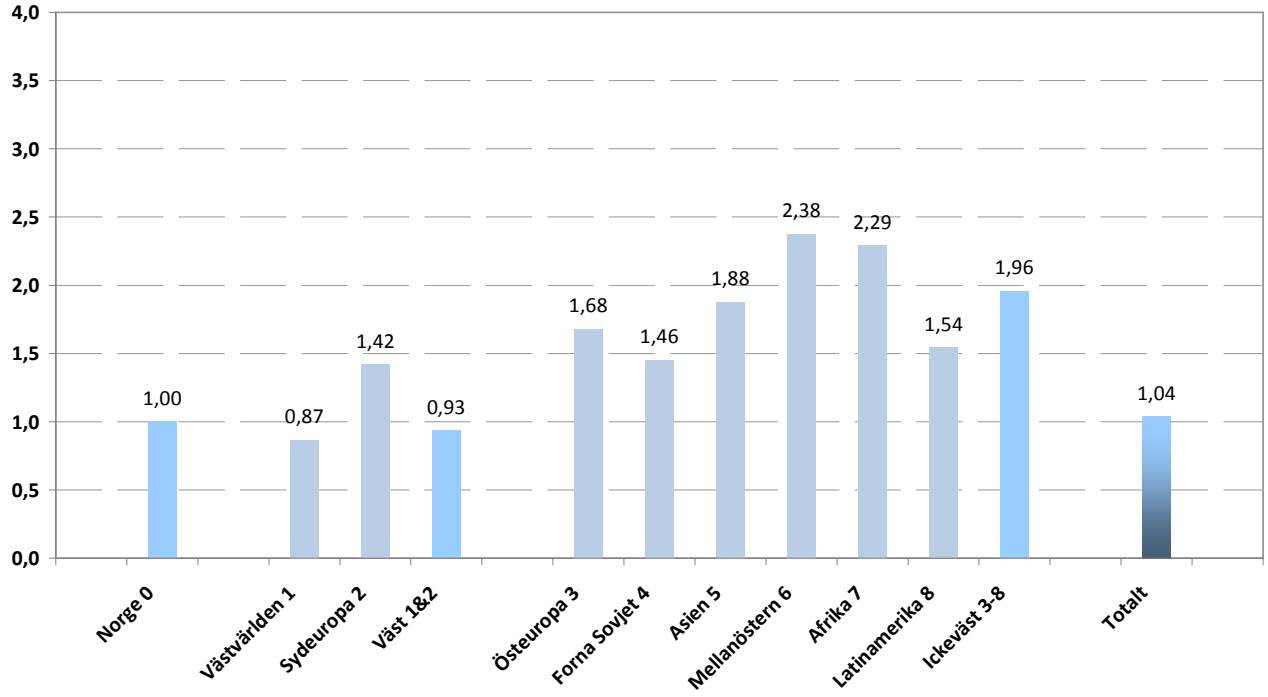

Figure 10: Male drivers' relative risk of being involved in a road accident by region of birth. Norway 2002-2006. 0 Norway; 1 Western world; 2 Southern Europe; 3 Eastern Europe; 4 Former Soviet Union; 5 Asia; 6 Middle East; 7 Africa; 8 Latin America.

4.4 Sweden

A study of the "*Mobility and travel patterns among foreign-born in Swedish traffic environment"* was published in 2006 (Lewin, Gustafsson and Nyberg; 2006). Below the summary of this report is rendered in a slightly abbreviated version.

"Approximately 12% of Sweden's inhabitants were born in another country. The proportion of foreign-born that possesses driver's licences and vehicles is lower than among Swedish-born, which limits the ability to travel among this group. This is one important result of a study by. The aim of this study was to increase knowledge concerning the situation for foreign-born in the Swedish transportation system and analyze their mobility and travel patterns. Foreign-born are defined as people born in another country than Sweden, but who have received residence permit and are registered in a Swedish municipality.

The survey was given to students at special courses in Swedish for immigrants. The survey was answered by 3,215 people from 34 municipalities in different parts of Sweden. Half of the respondents came to Sweden less than two years prior to answering the survey in 2005. The respondents represented 136 different countries of origin. Of the respondents, approximately 60% were women and almost half were 25–34 years old.

Approximately 45% of the men surveyed had a driver's licence that was permitted to be used in Sweden, compared to one in five women. Two thirds of the men and 42% of the women had a driver's licence at the end of 2003. Among the Swedish-born population, 87% of the men and 76% of the women 18 years old and older had a driver's licence. In addition, fewer foreign-born than

Swedish-born owned a vehicle. The largest obstacles to getting a Swedish driver's licence were that it was expensive and that the language is difficult.

Whereas 35% of the women answered that they did not know how to ride a bicycle, only 5% of the men provided this answer. A large proportion of these respondents wanted to learn how to ride a bicycle and therefore suggestions are made to increase efforts to teach foreign-born women how to ride a bicycle.

Nearly eight of ten respondents claim they need to learn more about traffic rules and behaviour. They would like information about this in Swedish. The information given today is insufficient and is given after the person has received residence permit. The authors suggest that information about traffic behaviour and rules be given already when the person arrives in Sweden by the Swedish Migration Board, which is normally the first authority with which the recently arrived comes in contact with. At this point, however, information should be provided in several languages and not only in Swedish. In addition, traffic education should become a compulsory part of classes in Swedish for immigrants.

The respondents also stated that they prefer written information on signs at bus stops and train stations, as well as on busses and trains instead of only receiving information by loudspeaker. Many of the respondents feel unsafe in various traffic environments; as pedestrians, bicyclists, car drivers, and as passengers on public transportation. In general, a larger proportion of women than men feel unsafe, especially in dark or slippery traffic conditions. The study, however, cannot provide an answer as to why this is so."

People born abroad are overrepresented in road accidents. In 1987-96 4.6 per cent of immigrants having driver's licenses involved in one or more road accidents, compared to only 3.4 per cent of the drivers born in Sweden. (Eriksson 1998). According to Gustafsson and Falkmer (2006) male drivers from the Middle East and North Africa have 3.1 - 3.9 times as high accident risk as male drivers born in Sweden.

Again, as in other European countries no information on the modal split for immigrants as a specific target group is at hand.

4.5 The United Kingdom

Data concerning average number of daily trips, average number of km travelled daily, transport mode use, and road accident risk or involvement amongst the immigrant populations is sparse. Very little research has been carried out in the UK on travel behaviour of immigrants; however, there are a couple of papers which determine that travel behaviour of immigrants depends on an individuals' upbringing and cultural identity.

Research carried out by the University of Westminster (Wixey et al, 2005; p.31) show that *"a fifth of households of Indian origin did not have access to a car, compared with a quarter of households of white ethnic origin and almost half of black origin. In 2003, 72 per cent of people of white ethnic origin travelled to work by car compared with about 60 per cent of Indian, Pakistani or Bangladeshi origin and 46 per cent of black origin. "*

The report continues to say *"The 2001 Census data suggests a greater desire for car ownership amongst the Asian populations. The status symbol of owning a car was cited by Asian men as one of the reasons for not reducing the use of their car for travel..... Male Asian car owners*

acknowledge that for them public transport will never be able to equal the comfort and convenience of the car and they would not be interested in using public transport regardless of how effective it became. .... High car ownership amongst Asian groups is also partly a response to the need for a safe environment, especially for women, to travel in. Muslim women are particularly reluctant to use public transport and are dependent on male relatives or car drivers in their family network. This aligned with a strong sense of community and extended family support ensures that the women, who are not able to drive, are able to travel further afield than many other ethnic groups."

For immigrants in the UK further data on car ownership, daily trips or km travelled, transport mode use and road accident risk are not available.

4.6 Other Western-European countries

Because data on immigrants' travel behaviour are scarce, some information from other European countries than those involved in TOGETHER will be described. There are a few existing studies of the topic from Germany and the Netherlands.

4.6.1 Germany

The description of travel behaviour among immigrants in Germany is partly based on the Appendix: *Everyday mobility of immigrants.*

Kasper et al. (2007) show that foreigners do not necessarily move less than natives, but in a different way. Differences are also evident between different nationalities and often the variable sex has great influence. Within the survey the average number of daily trips of German women and men are quite similar, whereas the average number of daily trips of foreign men is higher than that of foreign women of the same nationality. Foreign households less often own a car, even though more persons live in foreign households on average. On a personal level car-ownership is strongly dependent on gender. In particular, car-ownership of foreign women lies well below average. The unequal availability of a car is reflected in the choice of transport. Germans use the car and bicycle more often, whereas foreigners, especially foreign women, use public transport or walk. Foreigners who own a car, use it notably more often than Germans. Overall, the mentioned differences cannot be explained reliably due to a lack of data and without qualitative monitoring.

Analyses by Kasper et al. (2007) suggest that foreigners do not necessarily travel less than Germans, but do so differently. There are differences among different nationalities and the differences are often intensified by the gender variable. The share of non-mobile people, i.e. those who did not leave home on the effective day, is slightly higher among the respondents with non-German nationality

German women and men made approximately the same number of journeys per day, whereas Turkish, Italian and Greek men travel more often than their female counterparts. There is also a slight tendency of non-Germans travelling less than their German counterparts.

In general the distance travelled by Germans is higher than that of foreign respondents (Figure 11). Furthermore there is a huge difference between male and female respondents. Male respondents travel longer distances than female respondents. The gender difference is smallest for Germans (about +25%) and highest for Greeks (about +170%). The average German man travels more than three times the distance of average Italian and Greek women.

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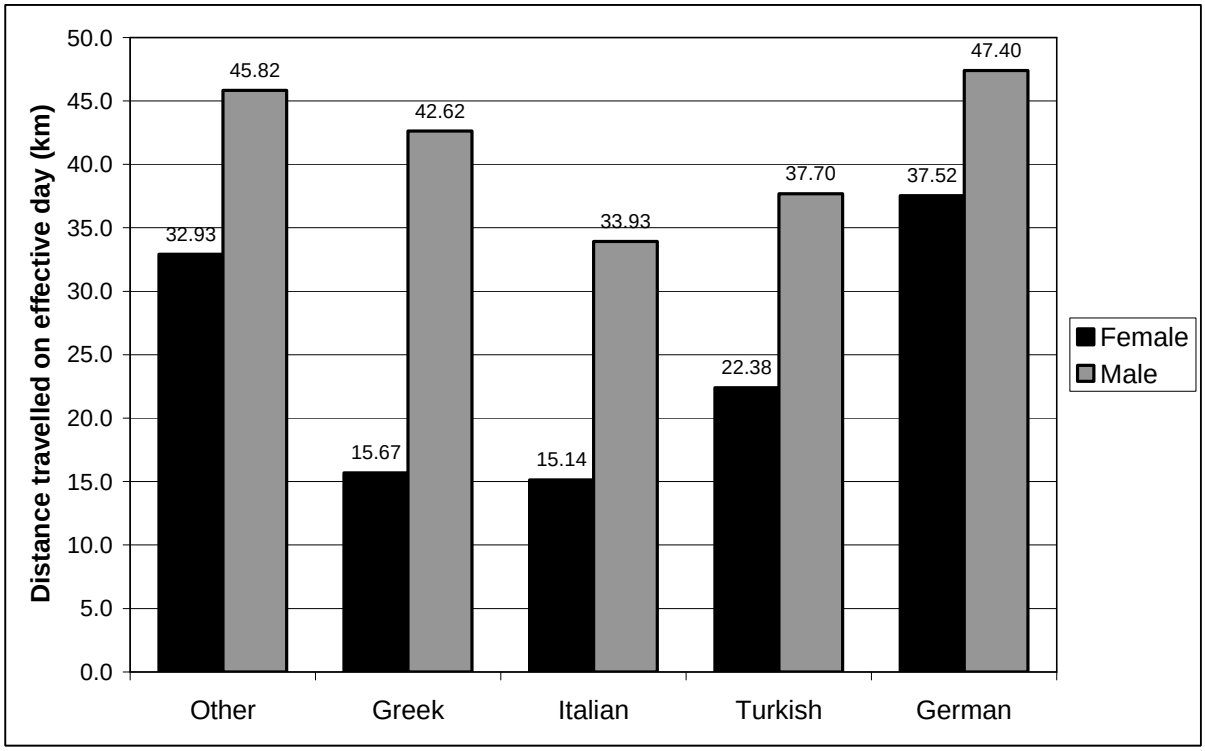

Figure 11: Distance travelled on effective day by nationality and gender (Kasper et al., 2007)

Car availability

Car ownership and car availability is lower in foreign households than in German households (figure 12). Furthermore car availability is lower for female respondents than for male respondents. (Kasper et al., 2007) write: *"…foreigners who have a car at their disposal use it far more often than the German comparative group whether because it has higher status value or because the mobility needs of several people have to be satisfied with one car"*.

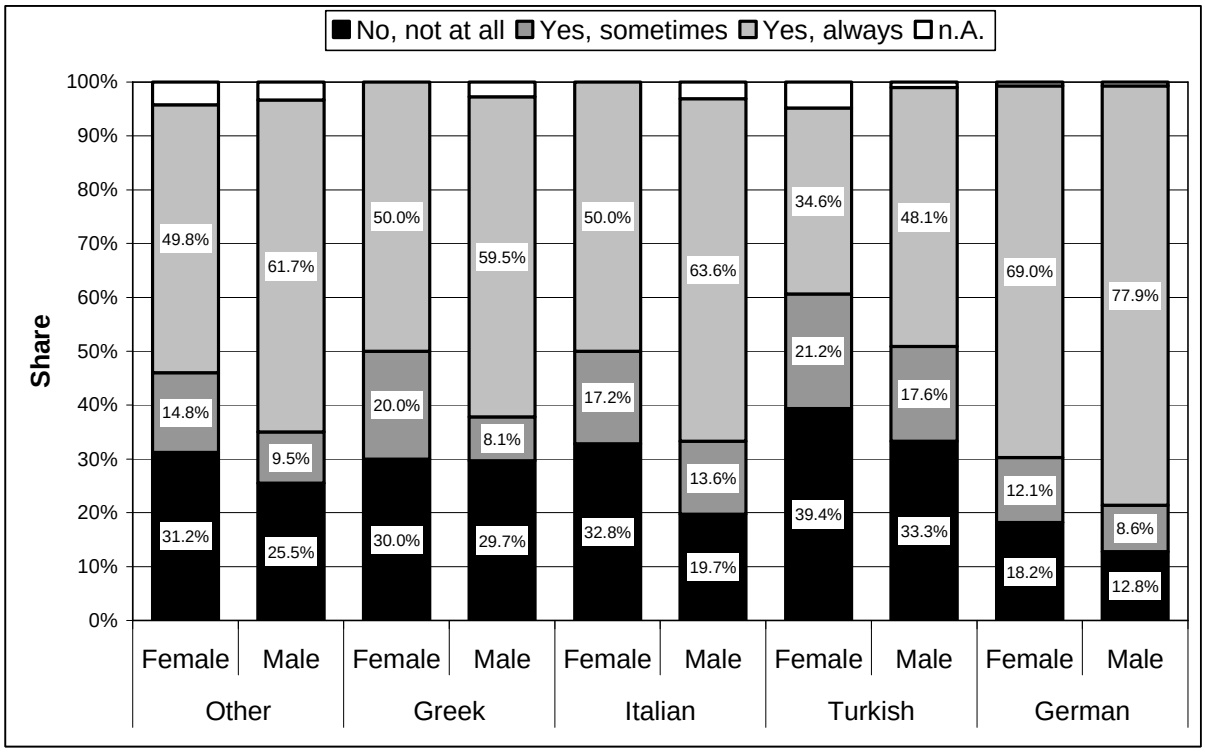

Figure 12: Car availability as driver on effective day by nationality and gender (Kasper et al., 2007)

Means of transport

Foreigners use public transport more often, whereas Germans use cars and bicycles more often (Figure 13). Unfortunately walking is not covered as a separate transport mode in (Kasper et al., 2007; Reutter, 2008).

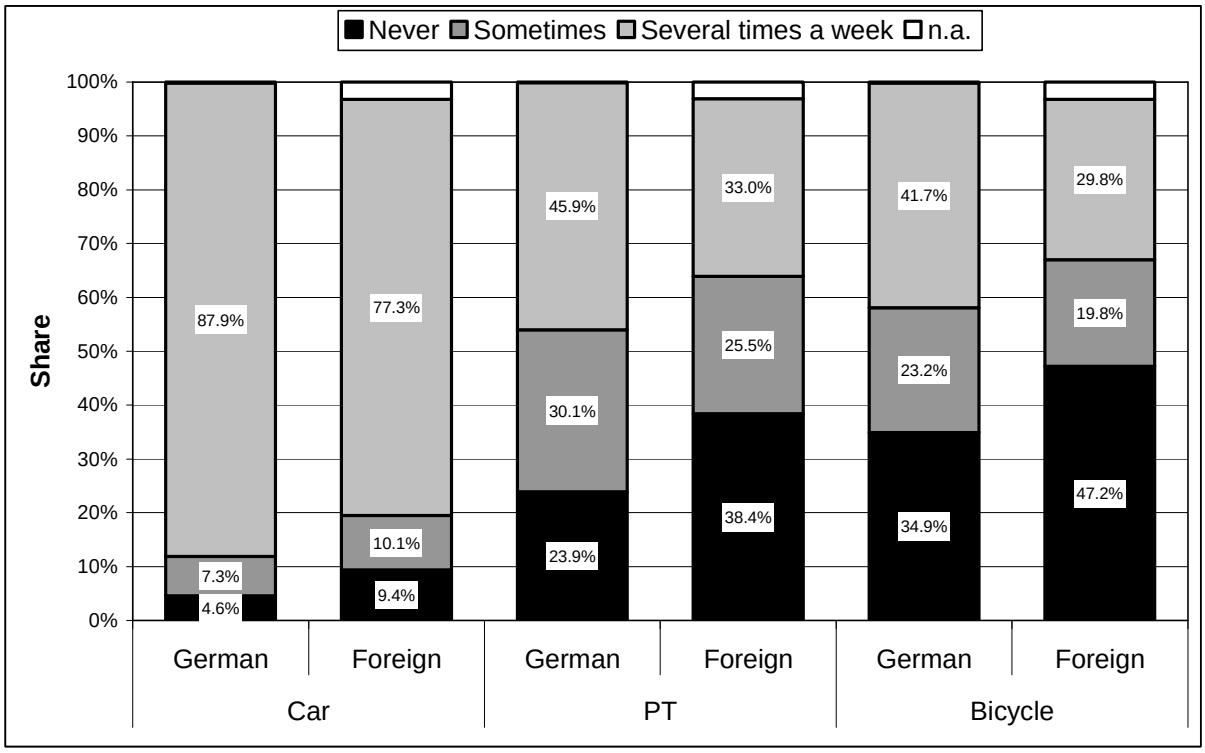

Figure 13: Use of transport modes by nationality (Kasper et al., 2007; Reutter, 2008)

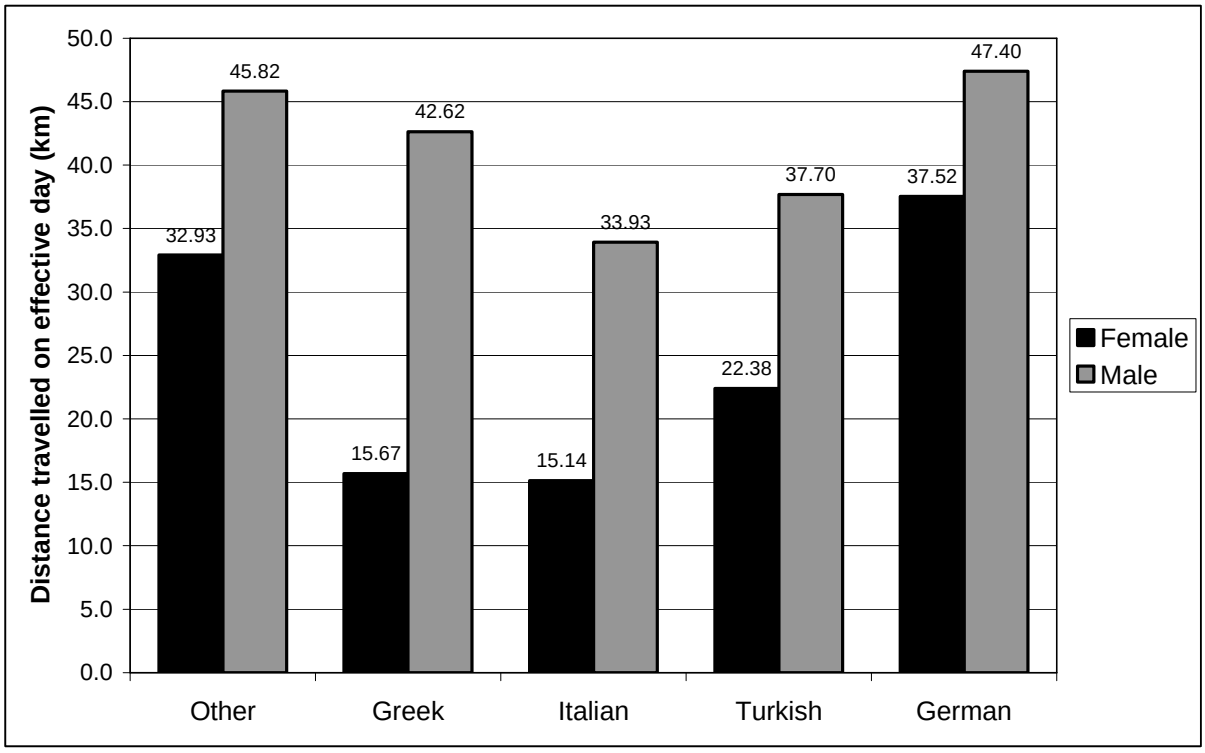

Figure 14: Distance travelled on effective day by nationality and gender (Kasper et al., 2007)

The key question is whether the mobility of immigrants is more or less energy efficient and sustainable than the mobility of the national population. Unfortunately the available data do not allow statistically significant quantitative statements. Table 14 summarises and compares factors indicating energy consumption of the mobility of immigrants. The comparison of positive and negative effects gives a strong indication that the mobility of immigrants is more energy efficient and sustainable than that of their German counterparts. Nevertheless, the analysis of immigrant mobility in Germany indicates that the promotion of bicycle use or Eco Driving training among the TOGETHER target group seems very promising. Next to this it will be very important for TOGETHER to distinguish training offers for male / female immigrants.

Table 14: Factors indicating energy efficiency of immigrants mobility in Germany

Factors indicating a lower energy consumption of immigrant mobility	Factors indicating a higher energy consumption of immigrant mobility
• Higher share of non-mobile people • Lower journey rate • Shorter distances travelled • Lower car availability • Lower share of car use • Higher share of PT use	• More intensive car use if available • Lower share of bicycle use

"Without in-depth research, it is not possible to establish whether immigrant mobility and transport behaviour offer opportunities for sustainable mobility based more strongly on neighbourhood-related local mobility using eco-link modes of transport, especially public transport, or whether people with an immigrant background suffer particularly from social and societal exclusion in these neighbourhoods owing to poorer access to service and activity opportunities"

"However, it is already apparent that, owing to continuing immigration, migrants are and will remain a diverse but important target group for urban and transport development" (Kasper et al., 2007) p. 9.

4.6.2 The Netherlands

This description of immigrant mobility in the Netherlands is based on Appendix 8. More detailed figures and tables can be found there.

Mobility and activities outside home

The Turks, Moroccans and Antilleans make significantly fewer journeys per day than the ethnic Dutch, as shown in table 15. The journey time of Turks is significantly lower than that of ethnic Dutch. The distance covered is significantly lower for all foreigner groups than for the ethnic Dutch. Parts of these differences can be explained by the higher share of non-mobile persons among the foreign respondents (Table 16). The share of non mobile Turks and Moroccans is significantly higher than that of ethnic Dutch. Concerning the number of journeys of the respondents who did travel on the effective day there is no significant difference between foreigners and ethnic Dutch. The same is true for the journey time. Nevertheless mobile Turks, Moroccans and Surinamese cover a significantly lower distance than their mobile ethnic Dutch counterparts.

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Table 15: Number of journeys, journey time and distances covered per person and day, persons between 20 and 65 years.

	Turks	Moroccans	Surinamese	Antilleans	ethnic Dutch
Number of journeys	1.35**	1.46**	1.91	1.72*	2.02
Journey time (min)	51.5**	57.7	67.7	54.0	71.0
Distance covered (km)[a]	17.5**	17.8**	23.4**	24.7**	34.4

a) without journeys >300 km (1.8 %)

* Significant differences compared with ethnic Dutch (** 0.01, * 0.05)

(Harms, 2007)

Table 16: Number of journeys, journey time and distances covered per person and day, without persons who have not travelled, persons between 20 and 65 years.

	Turks	Moroccans	Surinamese	Antilleans	ethnic Dutch
Percentage of persons who did not travel	41**	43**	28	26	22
Number of journeys	2.31	2.56	2.64	2.33	2.58
Journey time (min)	87.9	101.5	93.6	86.4	90.6
Distance covered (km)[a]	30.4**	31.7*	32.4*	33.7	44.0

a) without journeys >300 km (1.8 %)

* Significant differences compared with ethnic Dutch (** 0.01, * 0.05)

(Harms, 2007)

The ethnic Dutch use bicycles considerably more often than the immigrants, whereas immigrants, especially the Surinamese and Antilleans, use public transport more than twice as often as the Dutch. Turks use cars more often than other immigrants and the Dutch (Harms, 2007).

It is likely that the differences between the nationality groups are at least to a certain degree caused by different "background characteristics", such as gender, unemployment, level of education, rather than the variable nationality. When socio-demographic and spatial variables were controlled for foreigners still carry out activities out of home less frequently than the ethnic Dutch, except for the Antilleans.

When the background is *not* controlled for, the Moroccans, Surinamese or Antilleans use the car significantly more rarely than the ethnic Dutch. If the background *is controlled for,* the difference is rather small for Moroccans and Surinamese. Antilleans still travel significantly less by car but the difference is smaller than in the uncontrolled version. In the uncontrolled version the Turks travel more by car then the ethnic Dutch, although not statistically significant. When background variables are controlled for, the difference increases sharply. If the background variables were similar, the Turks would use the car significantly more than ethnic Dutch. Possible explanations given by (Harms, 2007) are a higher status of the car in the Turkish community and a higher number of self-employed entrepreneurs among residents of Turkish origin.

Surinamese and Antilleans particularly travel more often by public transport than ethnic Dutch. When the background variables *are controlled for* there is nearly no change among Turks and Moroccans, i.e. the background *does not* explain the difference. When the background variables

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are controlled for the Surinamese and Antilleans travel less by public transport, i.e. a certain part of the observed difference is explained by the background.

Foreigners are far less likely to use the bicycle than the ethnic Dutch. The difference is most pronounced for Turks. There is nearly no difference between the controlled and not controlled versions, i.e. the background plays an insignificant role in explaining the difference to ethnic Dutch.

Again the key question is whether the mobility of immigrants is more or less energy efficient and sustainable than the mobility of the autochthonous population. Table17 summarises and compares factors indicating the energy consumption of the mobility of immigrants in the Netherlands. The comparison of positive and negative effects gives an indication that the mobility of immigrants is *more energy efficient and sustainable* than that of their ethnic Dutch counterparts. Due to the high share of car use the Turkish community might be an exception. *People of foreign origin travel more seldom and shorter distances; with the exception of Turks, they use bicycles less frequently and public transport more often* (Harms, 2007) p. 4.

Table 17: Factors indicating energy efficiency of immigrant mobility in the Netherlands

Factors indicating a lower energy consumption of immigrant mobility	Factors indicating a higher energy consumption of immigrant mobility
• Higher share of non-mobile people • Lower journey rate • Shorter distances travelled • Lower share of car use (Moroccans, Surinamese, Antilleans) • Higher share of PT use	• Lower share of bicycle use • Higher share of car use (Turks)

Using some rough estimates about the specific energy consumption of cars and public transport, car occupancy rate and the average journey distance for the different modes makes it possible to calculate the end energy consumption for mobility from the data about number of journeys, distance travelled and modal split. Figure15 shows the results. It can be seen that the end energy use of foreigners is lower than for ethnic Dutch. Despite the higher share of car use this is even true for Turks. The reason for this is higher distance travelled by ethnic Dutch.

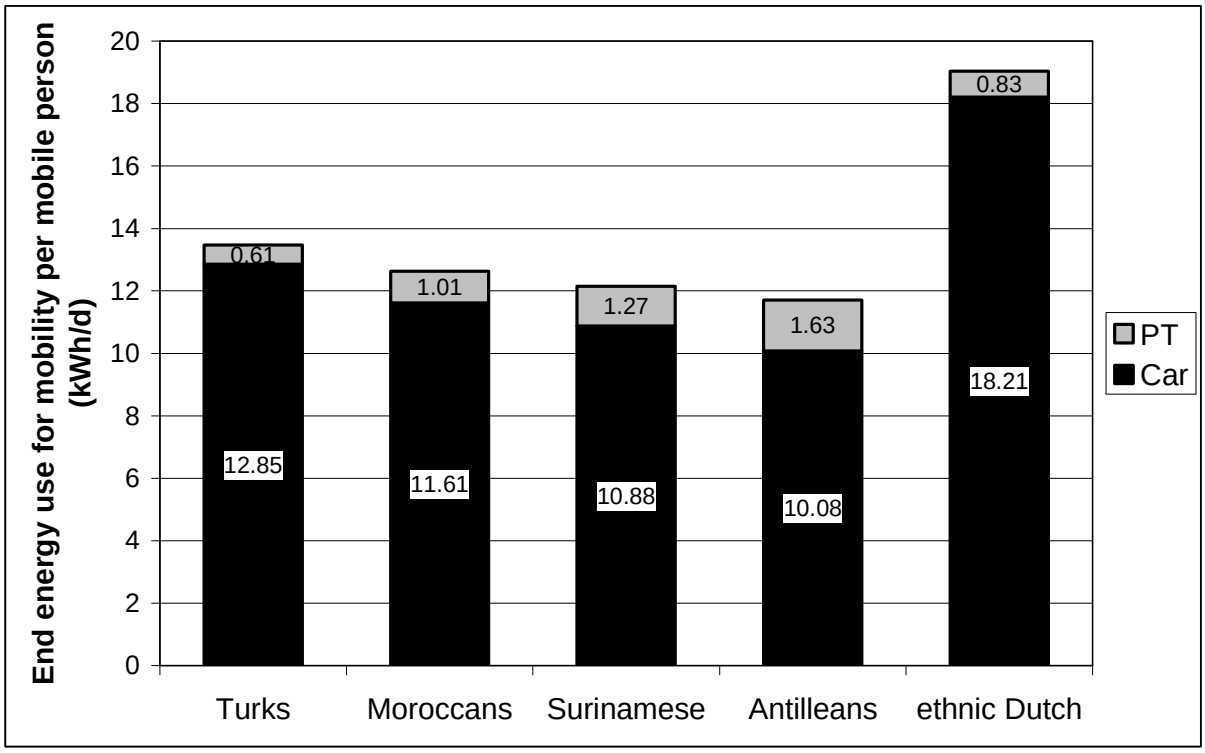

Figure 15: End energy use for mobility per mobile person and day by nationality (Estimates and calculations based on Harms, 2007).

(Harms, 2007) shows that a significant part of the different mobility behaviour of foreigners and ethnic Dutch can be attributed to the variable nationality. Only a part of the difference can be attributed to the different socio-demographic, socio-economic and spatial characteristics background of the different nationalities. These results provide a strong argument for targeting ethnic groups with specific tailor made mobility trainings.

The analysis shows that the differences in cycle use are more or less exclusively caused by the variable nationality. This delivers a strong argument for specifically targeting the ethnic groups in order to improve the image and status of cycling among them.

The analysis shows that the Turkish community would even increase its car use if their socio-demographic, socio-economic and spatial characteristics background were the same as that of their ethnic Dutch counterparts. This gives an argument for targeting them on the one hand with initiatives to improve the image of other means of transport and on the other hand with Eco Driving trainings.

4.6.3 Germany and the Netherlands - conclusions

In total immigrants seem to have fewer cars and travel less than the domestically born population. These differences are greatest in the percentage of people who do not travel at all. The differences in total travel are evident, especially among women, and these differences are greatest in the percentages of people who do not travel at all. These findings indicate that there may be an unmet need for travel among parts of the immigrant population.

4.7 Eastern Europe and Southern Europe

In spite of extensive literature search no relevant information was found concerning the travel behaviour of immigrants in Eastern and Southern Europe.

4.8 Conclusion – travel behaviour of immigrants

The travel behaviour of immigrants is sparsely researched area in Europe. Many Western-European countries have regular travel surveys, but questions concerning country of birth or nationality are usually not included. Of the five countries working in the TOGETHER project, Sweden was the only country to have a special study concerning the travel behaviour of immigrants. Austria, Norway, and the UK were able to find some scarce data concerning this topic, whereas no such data were found for Belgium. Moreover, some data were found for Germany and the Netherlands. For Eastern and Southern Europe no data were found concerning the travel behaviour of immigrants.

The main results are that immigrants in general have a lower car ownership and lower percentage having a driver's license than the ethnic nationals. Immigrants use public transport more than the ethnic nationals. Similar results were found in a study from the USA. The immigrants are thus more dependent on the public transport than the domestically born.

A lower percentage of immigrants than of the nationals know how to ride a bicycle. This difference is considerable for women.

Immigrants in Norway and Sweden have higher road accident risk than the ethnic Norwegians and Swedes.

Even though immigrants tend to use public transport more than the ethnic nationals, there are indications that most immigrants want to travel by car to a stronger degree than the ethnic nationals.

Immigrants may have unmet travel needs.

5 Immigrants' knowledge, attitudes and travel behaviour according to focus group interviews

5.1 Objective of the focus group interviews

As part of task 2.1 Background Analysis of immigrants, focus group interviews with immigrants were conducted by each partner. The objective of these interviews was to identify the transport needs of immigrants and the advantages and the barriers they experiences with different modes of transport. In order to design appropriate training modules in WP3, it is an imperative to understand why immigrants travel as they do and the potential barriers they experiences for the use of energy efficient transport modes such as walking, cycling and public transport.

This chapter summarizes the focus group results in Austria, Belgium and Norway.

5.2 Focus groups interviews – a qualitative approach

Focus group interview is a qualitative method. The main characteristic of qualitative methods is that the data cannot be expressed in numbers or in other quantities (Grønmo 1982). Data collected by a qualitative method are restricted to observation or interviews with a few cases or informants and cannot be generalized in the common (statistical) sense of the word. Qualitative methods are suited for giving an extensive description of a specific phenomenon (Grønmo 1982). This kind of methods is especially suitable in situations when little knowledge exits on a topic and hence for developing hypotheses and theories.

We have chosen to use focus groups interviews with immigrants because it is a suitable for studying how a phenomenon is understood by a group (Morgan 1993). In our case, our "group" (immigrants), have in common that they all once have been new to the transport system in their new country of residence and that have experiences with other, often quite different, transport systems in their respective countries of origin. One central advantage with focus group interviews is that the participants can supplement each other in a way that makes the discussions generate more information than one participant alone could have given (Hoel and Hvinden 1994).

As shown in chapter 4 there is little knowledge about immigrants travel behavior and travel needs and the barriers and triggers for the use of different transport modes among immigrants. Consequently, we consider focus group interviews as appropriate for attaining more information on this topic.

5.3 Data

5.3.1 Austria

In total five focus group interviews with immigrants were done from February to April 2011. The high number of focus groups with immigrants is due to great initiative of the City of Graz and the association *verein-freiraum*, which offered the collaboration with their migrants' networks. Moreover, the immigrants required to be asked within their own community and not to be mixed up in a common focus group.

One interview with immigrants was carried out with the Islamic Society of Graz. In total 45 immigrants (30 men/15 women), mainly Kurds and Muslims (coming from the Kurdish part of Turkey) attended the meeting in their own mosque. Most of the attending immigrants had been staying in Graz for more than 10 years. Therefore, just five of the attendees participated in a German language course. Nevertheless many of the attendant immigrants had marginal knowledge of the German language; therefore an interpreter (a young Turkish man, who was part of the Community) was present.

Two interviews were carried out with participants in German language courses, one with four women of three different nationalities (Peru, Turkey and Macedonia), having stayed in Austria from 1.5 – 5 years. One focus group consisted of three female and four male immigrants, aged 23-40 of four different nationalities (Russia, Macedonia, Nigeria and Peru). The participants had been living in Austria from about 2.5 – 6 years.

The fourth focus group interview was carried out during of the so-called *Alltagstraining* (daily training), which is part of the project *Frauen wandern zu* (women immigrate). The training aims to support female immigrants with regard to daily challenges and activities. This interview involved nine women from Chechnya, Belarus and Turkey, who had stayed in Austria from half a year up 21 years.

The last focus group interview was conducted during the monthly meeting of the African women's initiative ProWomen, which is organised by the Integration Department of the City of Graz. In this interview, eight African women participated. They had been living in Austria from 1.5 – 19 years.

5.3.2 Belgium

In Belgium, one focus group interview was conducted in Genk with 19 participants (6 males/13 females) from Turkey (11), Iraq (2), Thailand (1), Morocco (1), Chechnya (1), Afghanistan (1), Angola (1) and Gambia (1). The age ranged from 16 to 54 years, but the majority of the participants were 30 years or more. The participants were not asked how long they had been living in Belgium, but the impression was that most of them had lived in Belgium for more than a year.

5.3.3 Norway

In Norway, two focus groups, one with male and one with females immigrants were carried out. The male group consisted of a total of seven participants from Cabo Verde, Pakistan, Somalia, Ethiopia, Eritrea and Iran. The female group consisted of six participants from Pakistan, India, Ghana, Iraq and Eritrea. Most of the participants in both groups were in their 20ties or 30ties. Interviews were conducted in both Norwegian and English, as the all the participants could communicate in at least one of the two languages. The participants were recruited from Norwegian language courses at Smedstua skole, a public school with language courses for immigrants in a suburb of Oslo. The men had been in Norway from two months to eight years, whereas all the women had stayed shorter than nine months.

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5.4 Results

5.4.1 Travel behaviour

The immigrants interviewed said they use all transport modes. However, the transport use differed between those who had access to a car (within the family) or those who did not, and between men and women. Even though we cannot generalize on the ground of qualitative data, we can see some tendencies: If a person has access to a car and a driver license, the car is then used for most purposes. Those who do not drive themselves (mostly women), but have access to a car through other family members (mostly men), use a car as a passenger sometimes, but also use other modes of transports. For those who do not have access to a car, public transport (PT) is the most frequent means of transportation, but they also walk and ride bicycles. Men are more likely to have access to a car and a driver license than women, but in general few have car access regardless of gender. Some men use bikes, particularly those who do not have a car, whereas almost none of the women use this mode of transport.

The interview data also suggest that the use of public transport is related to level of integration and language skills (either English or the national language of the new country). E.g. whereas most of the Turkish women in Graz, living in the Austria for 10 years, usually ride with their male relatives in a car for most purposes, the main modes of transport for the newly immigrated (less than 9 months in Norway) women in the Norwegian languages courses were public transport and walking. As the former needed an interpreter in the interview section this indicates that they did not speak German very well despite their long stay in the country. This might also imply that they were not very integrated. The immigrant women in the Norwegian language courses on the other hand, with a few exemptions, could communicate rather well in either English or Norwegian. This might indicate that there is a relation either between level of integration or language skills, or both, and the use of public transport.

The following factors influence their modal choice, particularly for those who do not drive themselves:

- Walking is used to reach activities within “walking distance” (relative definition) or to reach public transport.
- Walking is also considered as an activity in itself (on Sundays, for sport and exercise etc) and not only a means to an end.
- Many use PT and walking in daily lives, but the use of a car (if they have access to a car through family members or friends) for:
  - Special occasions; e.g. when going to a party some of the women expressed that they did not like to be “all dressed up” in a bus.
  - Night-time travel, mainly due to lack of PT
  - Special destinations (long distances, new destinations, difficult PT routes (many changes) or lack of PT as an alternative.
  - Bringing heavy loads or travelling/bringing other people.

Many of the immigrants interviewed said that walking had been a common mode of transport in their country of origin. Moreover, many also used to travel more by car (either as a passenger or as a driver) in their country of origin than they do now. The major reasons for using a car less now were 1) That a driver license in their new country was expensive, and

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2) That a car is expensive to buy. Many also thought that the exams for the driver license in their new country were difficult to pass (so they heard through others or they had tried themselves). However, most of the immigrants, both men and women, expressed that they would like to have a car and a driver license in the future, and many of them thought they would use the car at the expense of public transport and other energy efficient transport modes.

Few of the immigrants had heard of eco-driving, hence, this issue was not extensively discussed beyond an informational basis.

5.4.2 The use of public transport (PT)

"Learning by doing"
Many of the immigrants had experienced problems with using public transport in the beginning, such as difficulties with language and information (e.g. cancellations, brochures, and timetables), difficulties with buying a ticket and lack of knowledge on where to go and which route to take.

Many had received help from family and friends when they first arrived in the country, e.g. they have been accompanied on their first visit to a specific destination or activity, and little by little they had learned how to handle the public transport system. Some also had learned about the public transport system and how to use it in language courses. Many of the immigrants were now competent PT users, especially those who did not have access to a car.

Barriers
The barriers for the use of PT that we can extract from the interviews can be summarized as follows:

- Problems with information (in the beginning)
- Many prefer metro/train to bus because the former is faster and more comfortable when going to the city centre (Oslo)
- Buses are too crowded (during rush hour)
- Some of the immigrants think they lack good connections (when living in the outskirts of a city)
- Time consuming when delivering children at one place and then travelling to work elsewhere.
- Low frequency, especially in the evenings/weekends
- Problems with getting on and off a bus with child trolleys
- Difficult to bring along heavy shopping loads
- Some immigrants consider that PT is expensive to use
- Xenophobic discrimination; e.g. when wearing headscarves the immigrant women are often controlled first at inspections

Advantages
Despite the barriers, many immigrants are frequent users of the public transport, and this is not only related to lack of alternatives. Some of the most important advantages cited in the interviews can be summarized as follows:

- PT is often preferred to the car when going to the city centre (Oslo) because it is hard to find available parking or parking is expensive.

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- PT is cheap and easy
- It is a social way of travelling (as there is a chance of meeting someone you know)
- Reduced tickets and their validation for special target groups (e.g. for older people, young people, students or family tickets) are considered an advantage.

Many focus group participants had knowledge of the public transport services in the different case cities and considered this a helpful tool for using PT. Some also appreciated the big signs at the underground stations as helpful as they are easy to see and hence makes it easy to locate the stations. Again we see that information is an important aspect when using PT.

5.4.3 Walking

Barriers

Choosing to walk or not often depends on the weather, i.e. if it rains or not. In Oslo, few of the immigrants walk during the winter, due to slippery conditions of the sidewalks.

Some of the barriers that were mentioned in the interviews can be summarized as follows:

- Walking is not suitable for longer distances
- Some immigrants fear that they will have trouble with finding their way back home if they are unfamiliar with the routes.
- Some feel unsafe when walking during the evening/night-time (dimly lit places, isolated places)
- Some feel unsafe when sidewalks are narrow and directly situated at the federal highway (Graz)
- Xenophobic discrimination in public space because of headscarves (Graz)
- Cultural barriers: Muslim women do not walk alone (Gent). However, this does not seem to be the case in Oslo where many of the Muslim women walk alone quite often (to school or to reach a public transport station).

Advantages

Many of the immigrants find many advantages related to walking. These can be summarized as follows:

- It is good form for exercise (e.g. some walk to a destination and then use alternatives on the return if the distance is quite long, or vice versa)
- Some walk when PT is not available, e.g. during night-time and returning from a nightshift work
- Some take a stroll just to get out of the house for a while (if not employed)
- Some walk in order to get more daylight (this was mentioned in Oslo where the daylight is limited to a few hours a day during the winter)
- Walking is perceived as a good way for exploring and getting to know their neighbourhood and other new areas
- Some walk in order to enjoy the scenery (which they think is more difficult when driving a car)
- Many feel safer when walking in their new country than in their country of origin. This is related to the following issues:

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- Car drivers have more respect for pedestrians in their new country, e.g. cars slow down/stop for pedestrians at zebra crossings
- The infrastructure is better for walking in terms of accessibility (baby trolley, wheel chairs etc)
- Less traffic in the new country, hence it feels safer to walk

5.4.4 Bicycling

Barriers

The most important barriers for riding a bike can be summarized as follows:

- Bicycling depends on the weather, and many find it difficult during the winter (due to snow and ice, especially in Oslo).
- Some think that bikes are expensive (this is contradicted by others who suggest second hand bikes)
- Lack of information on bicycling possibilities (e.g. where to buy cheap bikes, where there are bicycle lanes etc)
- Lack of information about traffic rules in regard to bicycling
- Cultural barriers: Few of the women ride a bike, but many of them used to when they were children. “We are women now” one woman in Oslo states, implying that bicycling is not for women. However, many of the women reply that they would like to participate in bicycling courses if these were offered, either to refresh their skills or to learn how to bicycle.

Advantages

There are many advantages mentioned in regard to bicycling:

- Healthy
- Cheap and practical
- Do not have to pay for a parking space
- Environmental friendly mode of transportation
- A good alternative when lack of PT or the PT connections are poor
- Easier and safer to ride a bike in the new country than in their country of origin due to better infrastructure for bicycling and less traffic.
- Bicycling is fun!

Moreover, the focus group with the language teachers in Norway show that the teachers considered public transport a suitable topic for the language courses, because the students were interested and felt better adapted to their new country when they were able to travel alone by PT.

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5.5 Focus groups - Conclusion

Information and knowledge on the public transport system seem to be an imperative for using public transport. Most of the immigrants have learned to use public transport “by doing”, but they also use the language skills to understand the information given and to ask for directions (even in English). Public transport seems to be the most common mode of transport among the immigrants interviewed.

Most men and women walk to different destinations, and walking is a highly appreciated means of transport and also as an activity in itself. However, some Muslim women do not walk alone, but this does not apply for all Muslims. Notwithstanding, this is an issue to be aware of when designing the training modules for walking.

Some men use to bike frequently, but almost none of the women ride bicycles at all. Even though there seems to be a cultural barrier for grown-up women to use bikes, most of the women, with only a few exemptions, are positive toward learning how to bicycle in their new country or to refresh their bicycling skills.

As only few of the immigrants possess a car and a driver’s license. Consequently, this mode of transport is not very common. Many of the immigrants had access to a car and a driver license in the country of origin, and many would like to have a car and a driver license in the future. If they could drive or be driven as a passenger, many thought that they would be less likely to use energy efficient transport modes in the future.

In sum, the immigrants interviewed have an energy efficient way of travelling today, but the challenge seems to be to maintain this travel behaviour in case they attain a driver license and a car.

6 Conclusions for the TOGETHER project

Immigrants make up between 0.1 and 17.8 per cent of the populations in the European countries studied. This variation may to a certain extent be due to different definitions of immigrants used in different countries, but it also describes real differences, especially between Eastern Europe on the one hand and Western and Southern Europe on the other. The Eastern European countries, with the possible exception of Estonia, have had low immigration rates in recent years, but several have rather large minority populations dating from the times of the Soviet Union.

There is a great variation between immigrants depending on their countries of origin. Some immigrants come from neighbouring countries, even speaking the language of their new country, such as Germans in Austria or Irish in the UK. Other immigrants come from poorer countries overseas or in the European Union. The social and economic situation of immigrants depends to a great degree on their country of origin and their level of education.

The travel behaviour of immigrants seems to be a neglected area of statistical information and research. None of the five countries involved in TOGETHER have questions about country of birth, nationality or immigration included in their travel survey. Consequently, systematic analysis of the travel behaviour of immigrants compared to ethnic nationals cannot be carried out in these countries.

Sweden is the only country to have a special study on immigrants' travel behaviour. Austria, Norway and the UK seem to have some data concerning car ownership and travel behaviour among immigrants compared to ethnical natioanls. Moreover, Norway and Sweden have some data concerning the road accident risk of immigrant drivers. There is some information concerning the travel behaviour of immigrants in Germany and the Netherlands. However, as data are scarce, the analyses of immigrant travel behaviour could not be very detailed. In spite of extensive literature search for Eastern and Southern Europe, no data or research concerning this topic was found for countries in Eastern or Southern Europe. In the USA this topic appears to be more extensively researched. However, North America is not included in this study.

More information should be collected concerning the travel behaviour of immigrants in Europe. An easy way to get this kind of information will be to include a question concerning country of birth in the national travel surveys carried out in European countries, and compare foreign-born and domestically born citizens in the analyses of these surveys.

As shown in chapter 3 immigrants from other European countries, often from neighbouring countries, make up a large share of the immigrants in all countries studied. German immigrants in Austria, Irish immigrants in the UK or Swedish immigrants in Norway are likely to know just as much about energy-efficient transport as domestically born citizens in the same age and educational levels, whereas public transport and sustainable transport may be quite unfamiliar to immigrants from certain parts of Africa or India. Consequently, it is important to be aware of variation between different immigrant categories when discussing and planning information to and training of immigrants.

In general immigrants have fewer cars than the domestically born populations, and they travel less in general. Trips are fewer and travel distances by car are shorter among immigrants than among the domestically born populations. The differences between the immigrants and the domestically

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born seem to be greater for women than for men and greater for newly arrived immigrants than for immigrants who have stayed longer in their new country.

Immigrants seem to use bicycles to a more limited extent than the domestically born, especially the immigrant women. Immigrants tend to use public transport relatively more than the domestically born, but the differences appear to depend on how questions are asked and data computed. Immigrants from the Middle East in Norway and Sweden have twice the road accident risk of the domestic populations. With some exceptions it seems that immigrants, especially the newly arrived ones, travel in a more sustainable way than the domestically born, but the latter use bicycles more than immigrants do.

No data seem to exist concerning how relevant travel information from the authorities reaches the immigrants, but the focus groups show that newly arrived immigrants learn to use public transport from family in their new country and from the teachers in the language courses.

If the travel behaviour of immigrants is more sustainable than that of the domestically born, why spend time and money trying to make immigrants travel in a more energy efficient and sustainable way? There are at least two reasons for doing so. Firstly, the lower car ownership and car travel rates appear to be caused by lower economic standards and higher unemployment. There may even be an unmet need for travel among certain immigrant categories, which may be a barrier to employment and improved economic standards.

Immigrants can be expected to purchase and use cars more once they can afford cars and driver's licenses. Secondly, at least some immigrants categories seem to prefer car travel to public transport more strongly than the domestically born, an indication that car ownership among these immigrants may increase rapidly as their incomes increase. If so, this is the main challenge for sustainable travel among immigrants in Europe. TOGETHER should therefore concentrate on making the immigrants stick to public transport even when they can afford cars.

Moreover, travelling by bicycle may have a potential for increase among immigrants, especially among immigrant women. It is difficult to decide how great this potential is, but convincing immigrant women that they can use bicycles for everyday travels should be a priority for the training module "Safe cycling".

Based on existing data and literature it is impossible to answer the question whether immigrants can get better knowledge concerning sustainable transport through better learning material and transport training in language integration courses. However, there are indications that immigrants consider bicycling and maybe also public transport as inferior to car travel. Consequently, the training material to be developed in TOGETHER should focus on the positive aspects of these travel modes, such as physical exercise, saving money and environmental responsibility.

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Appendix: Everyday mobility of immigrants

Paul Pfaffenbichler, AEA, Feb. 18, 2011

Data about the everyday mobility of residents with a migration background are rather scarce despite the fact that their still increasing number has already reached significant shares of the total population. In the majority of mobility surveys respondents are not even asked about their nationality. Nevertheless some data are available from Germany (Kasper et al., 2007; Reutter, 2008), the Netherlands (Harms, 2007) and Austria (Schönfelder, 2010). Some additional data from Vienna should be available in the near future.

Germany

Two different sets of data were analysed by (Kasper et al., 2007): The Foreigner Survey of 1993 and the KONTIV successor study MiD 2002[1]. The analysis of these two sources suggests that foreigners do not necessarily travel less than Germans, but do so differently (Kasper et al., 2007). There are also differences among different nationalities and the differences are often intensified by the gender variable.

Mobility

The share of non mobile people, i.e. the ones who did not leave home on the effective day, is slightly higher among the respondents with non-German nationality (figure A.1.1). Unfortunately (Reutter, 2008) makes no statement whether the differences between nationalities are statistically significant or not.

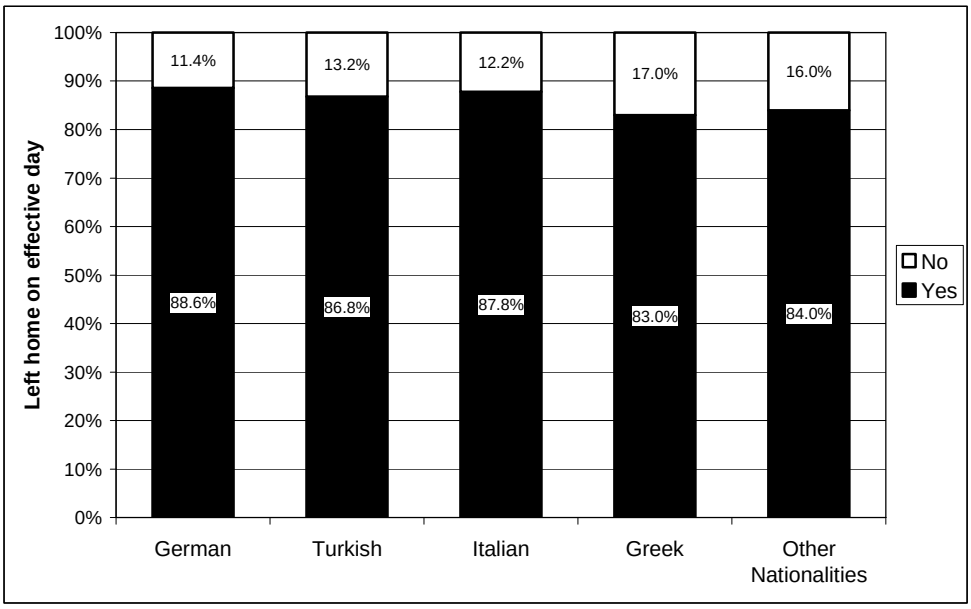

Figure A.1: Share of respondents leaving home on effective day by nationality. (Reutter, 2008)

[1] Mobility in Germany, original in German: Mobilität in Deutschland.

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While German women and men made approximately the same number of journeys per day, Turkish, Italian and Greek men travel more often than their female counterparts (Table A.1.2). Furthermore there seems to be a slight tendency of non-Germans travelling less than their German counterparts. Unfortunately (Kasper et al., 2007) makes no statement whether the differences between nationalities and gender are statistically significant or not.

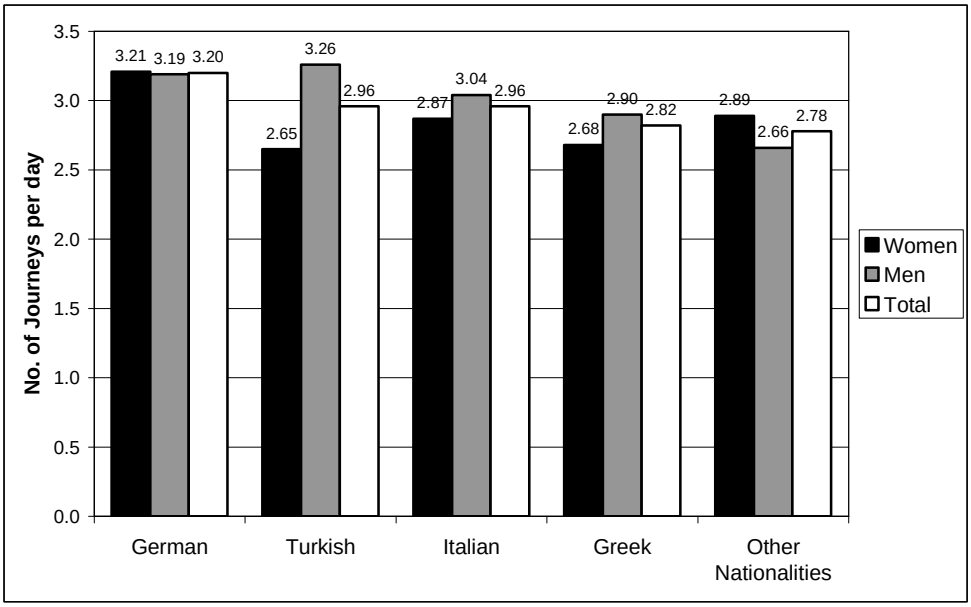

Figure A.2: Number of journeys per day by nationality and gender. (Kasper et al., 2007)

Distance travelled

In general the distance travelled by Germans is higher than that of foreign respondents (*Figure* A.1.3). Furthermore there is a huge difference between male and female respondents. Male respondents travel longer distances than female respondents. The gender difference is smallest for Germans (about +25%) and highest for Greeks (about +170%). The average German man travels more than three times the distance of average Italian and Greek women.

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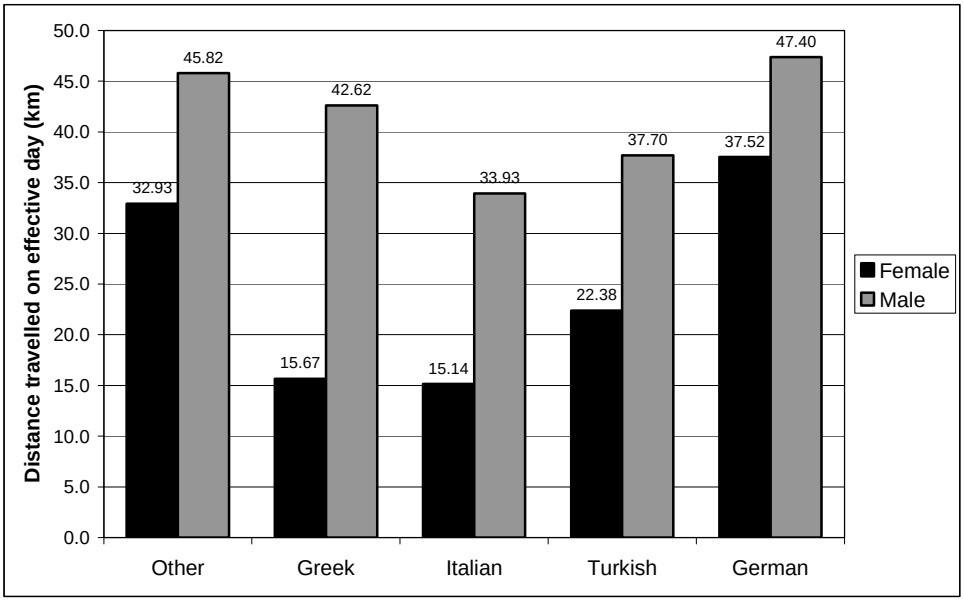

Figure A.3: Distance travelled on effective day by nationality and gender. (Kasper et al., 2007)

Car availability

Car ownership and car availability is lower in foreign households than in German households (figure A.1.4 and A.1.5). Furthermore car availability is lower for female respondents than for male respondents. According to (Kasper et al., 2007) the analysis of the Foreigner Survey of 1993 reveals *"…foreigners who have a car at their disposal use it far more often than the German comparative group whether because it has higher status value or because the mobility needs of several people have to be satisfied with one car"*.

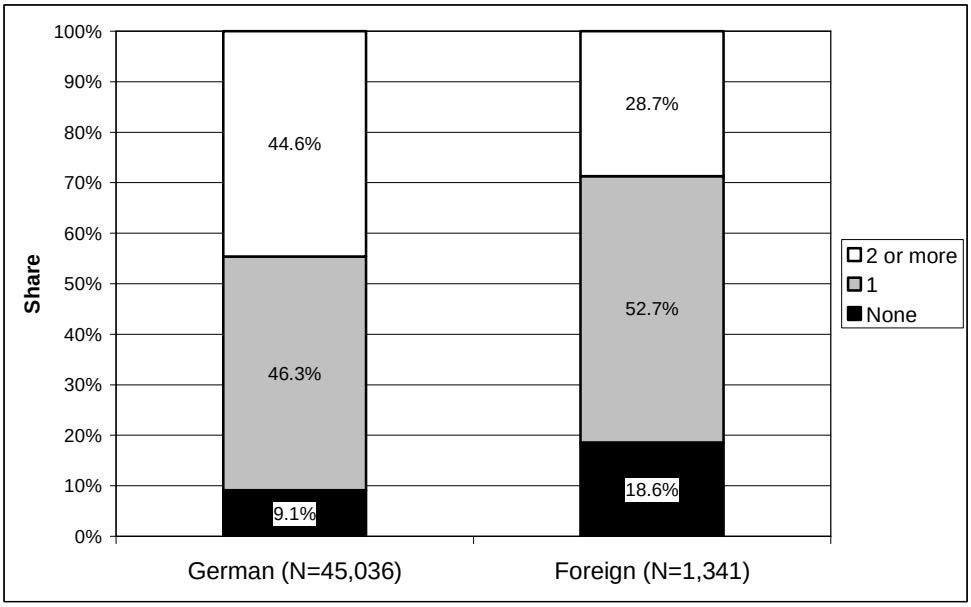

Figure A.4: Car ownership of households by nationality. (Reutter, 2008)

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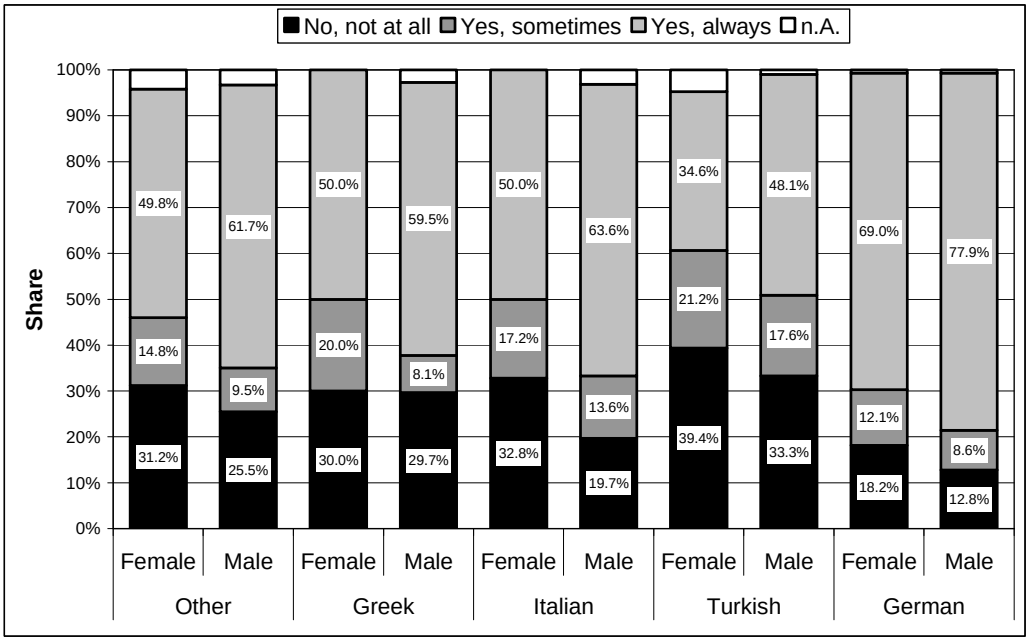

Figure A.5: Car availability as driver on effective day by nationality and gender. (Kasper et al., 2007)

Means of transport

When it comes to the question of mode choice foreigners more often use public transport while Germans more often use car and bicycle (*Figure* A.1.6). Unfortunately walking is not covered as a means of transport of its on right in (Kasper et al., 2007; Reutter, 2008).

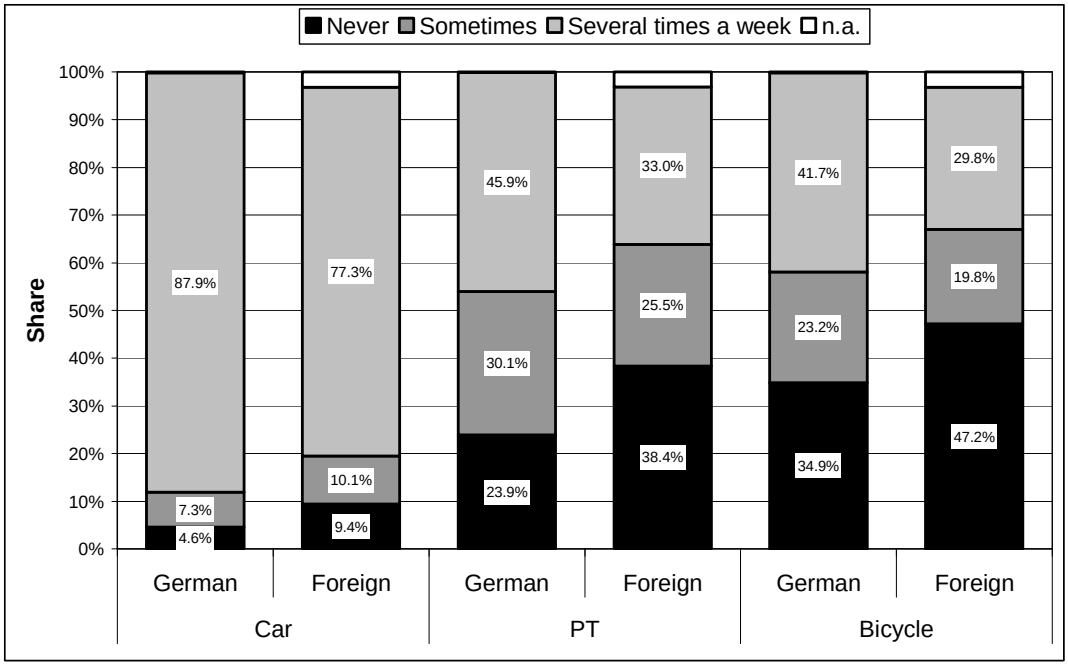

Figure A.6: Use of transport modes by nationality. (Kasper et al., 2007; Reutter, 2008)

Conclusions

The key question is whether the mobility of immigrants is more or less energy efficient and sustainable than the mobility of the autochthonous population. Unfortunately the available data material does not allow statistically significant quantitative statements. Table A.1.1 summarises and compares factors indicating energy consumption of immigrants' mobility. The comparison of positive and negative effects gives a strong indication that the mobility of immigrants is more energy efficient and sustainable than that of their German counterparts. Nevertheless, e.g. promotion of bicycle use or Eco Driving trainings among the TOGETHER target group seems very promising, regarding the analysis of their mobility behaviour.

Table A.1: Factors indicating energy efficiency of immigrants' mobility in Germany

Factors indicating a lower energy consumption of immigrant mobility	Factors indicating a higher energy consumption of immigrant mobility
• Higher share of non-mobile people • Lower journey rate • Shorter distances travelled • Lower car availability • Lower share of car use • Higher share of PT use	• More intensive car use if available • Lower share of bicycle use

Without in-depth research, it is not possible to establish whether immigrant mobility and transport behaviour offer opportunities for sustainable mobility based more strongly on neighbourhood-related local mobility using eco-link modes of transport, especially public transport, or whether people with an immigrant background suffer particularly from social and societal exclusion in these neighbourhoods owing to poorer access to service and activity opportunities (Kasper et al., 2007) p. 9.

However, it is already apparent that, owing to continuing immigration, migrants are and will remain a diverse but important target group for urban and transport development (Kasper et al., 2007) p. 9.

The Netherlands

The source of data for the Netherlands is a large scale survey named Life Situation of Foreign City-Dwellers[2] (Harms, 2007). The survey dealt with the life situation of Turks, Moroccans, Antilleans, Surinamese and ethnic Dutch and was conducted in 2004 and 2005 by the Netherlands Institute for Social Research. The survey was not carried out in the whole country but was limited to the 50 largest towns and cities in the Netherlands.

Mobility and activities outside home

The survey reveals significant differences in the mobility indicators of foreign and ethnic Dutch (*Table* A.1.2). Turks, Moroccans and Antilleans make significantly less journeys per day than ethnic Dutch The journey time of Turks is significantly lower than that of ethnic Dutch. The distance

[2] Original in Dutch: Leefsituatie Allochtone Stedelingen (LAS)

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covered is for all foreigner groups significantly lower than that of ethnic Dutch. Part of differences can be explained by the higher share of non-mobile persons among the foreign respondents. The share of non mobile Turks and Moroccans is significantly higher than that of ethnic Dutch. Concerning the number of journeys of the respondents which did travel on the effective day there is no significant difference between foreigners and ethnic Dutch. The same is true for the journey time. Nevertheless mobile Turks, Moroccans and Surinamese cover a significantly lower distance than their mobile ethnic Dutch counterparts.

Table A.2: Number of journeys, journey time and distances covered per person and day, persons between 20 and 65 years. (Harms, 2007)

	Turks	Moroccans	Surinamese	Antilleans	ethnic Dutch
Number of journeys	1.35**	1.46**	1.91	1.72*	2.02
Journey time (min)	51.5**	57.7	67.7	54.0	71.0
Distance covered (km)[a]	17.5**	17.8**	23.4**	24.7**	34.4

a) without journeys >300 km (1.8 %)

* Significant differences compared with ethnic Dutch (** 0.01, * 0.05)

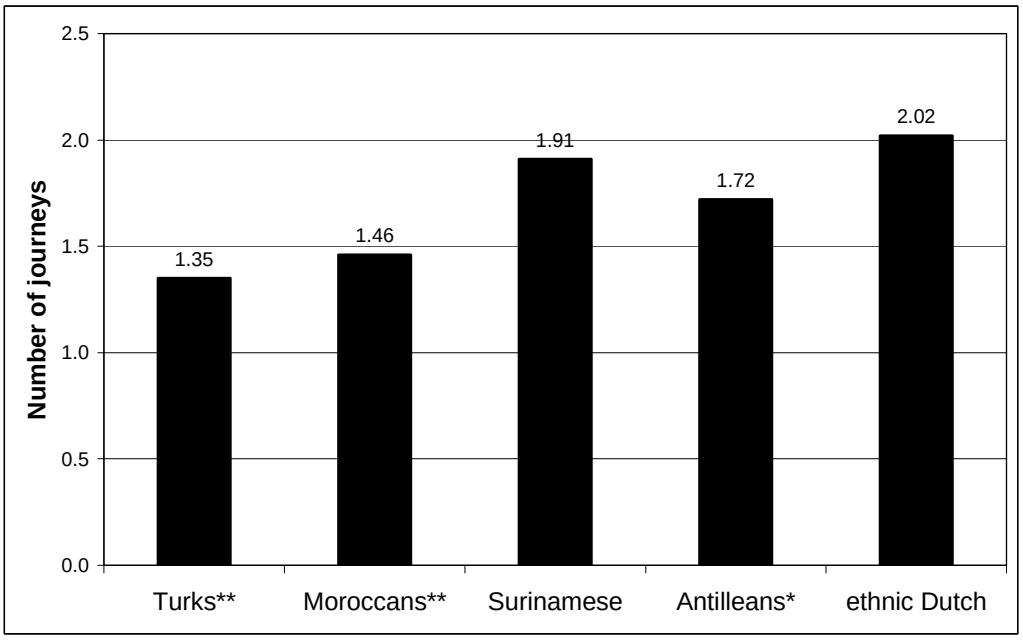

Figure A.7: Number of journeys per person and day by nationality. (Harms, 2007)

* Significant differences compared with ethnic Dutch (** 0.01, * 0.05)

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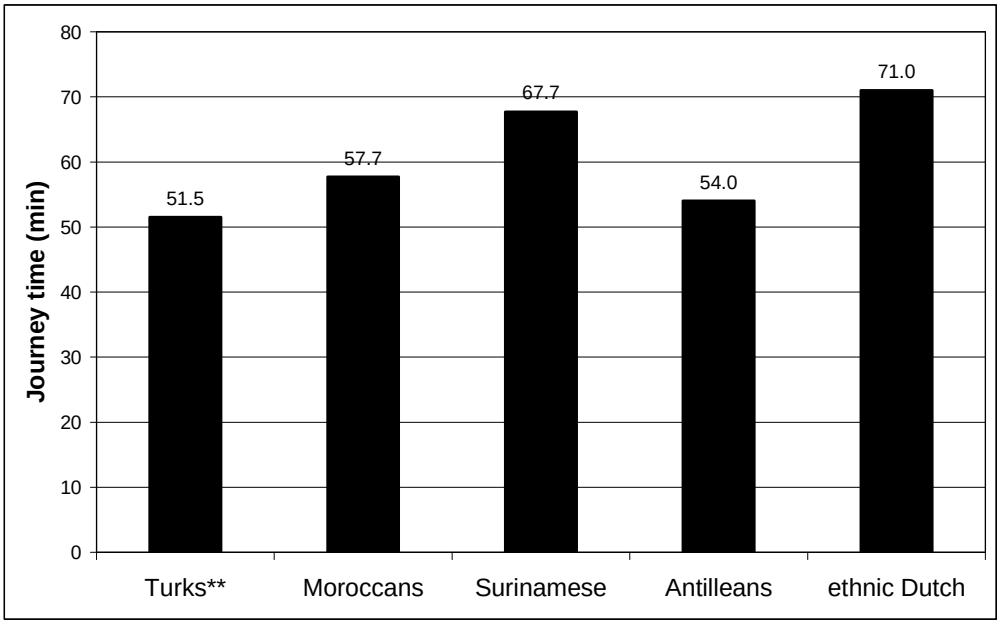

Figure A.8: Journey time per person and day by nationality. (Harms, 2007)

* Significant differences compared with ethnic Dutch (** 0.01, * 0.05)

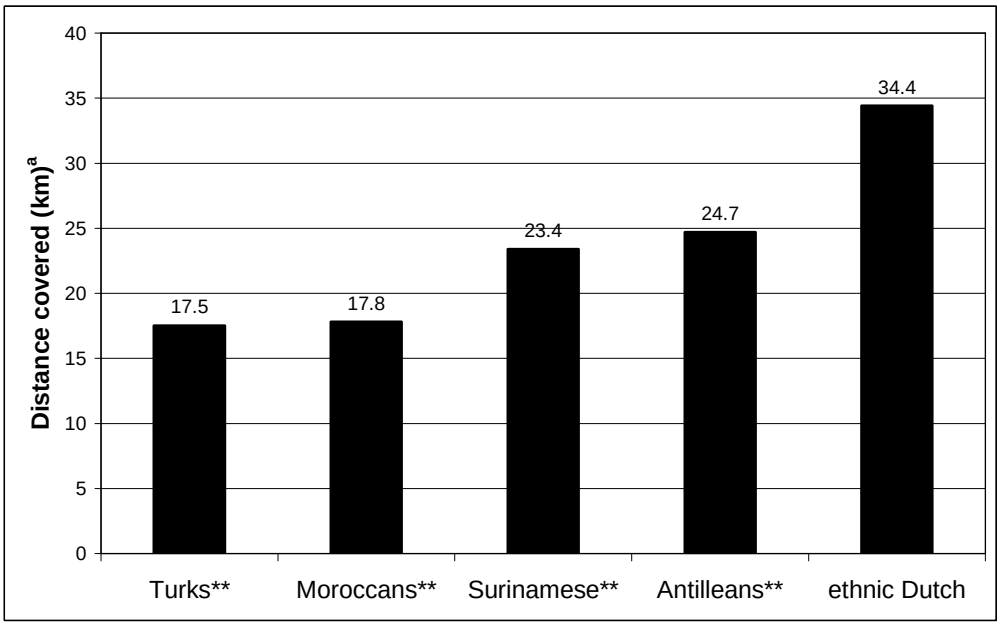

Figure A.9: Distance covered per person and day by nationality. (Harms, 2007)

a) without journeys >300 km (1.8 %). * Significant differences compared with ethnic Dutch (** 0.01, * 0.05)

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Table A.3: Number of journeys, journey time and distances covered per person and day, without persons who have not travelled, persons between 20 and 65 years. (Harms, 2007)

	Turks	Moroccans	Surinamese	Antilleans	ethnic Dutch
Percentage of persons who did not travel	41**	43**	28	26	22
Number of journeys	2.31	2.56	2.64	2.33	2.58
Journey time (min)	87.9	101.5	93.6	86.4	90.6
Distance covered (km)[a]	30.4**	31.7*	32.4*	33.7	44.0

a) without journeys >300 km (1.8 %)

* Significant differences compared with ethnic Dutch (** 0.01, * 0.05)

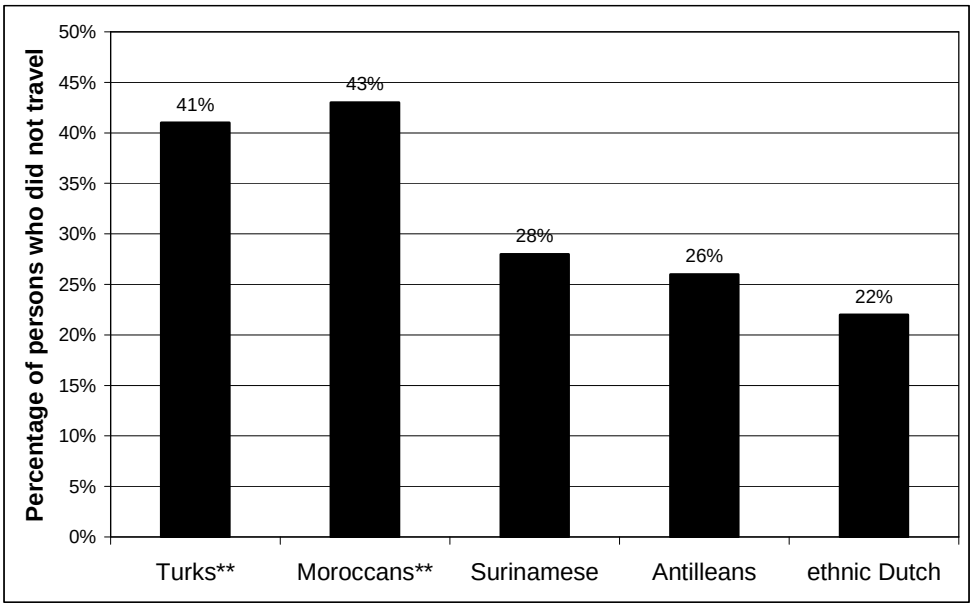

Figure A.10: Percentage of persons who did not travel on the effective day by nationality. (Harms, 2007)

* Significant differences compared with ethnic Dutch (** 0.01, * 0.05)

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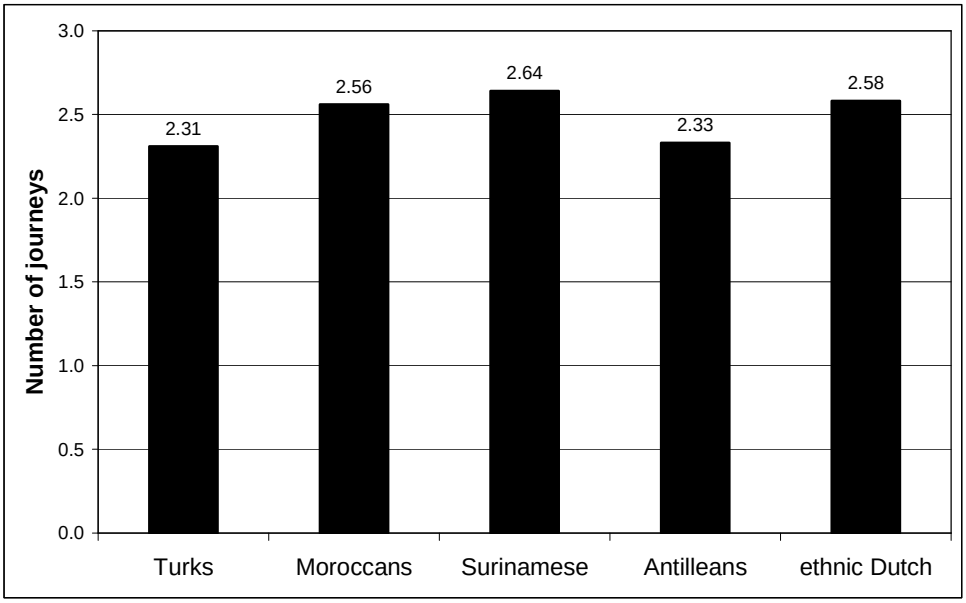

Figure A.11: Number of journeys per mobile person and day by nationality. (Harms, 2007)

* Significant differences compared with ethnic Dutch (** 0.01, * 0.05)

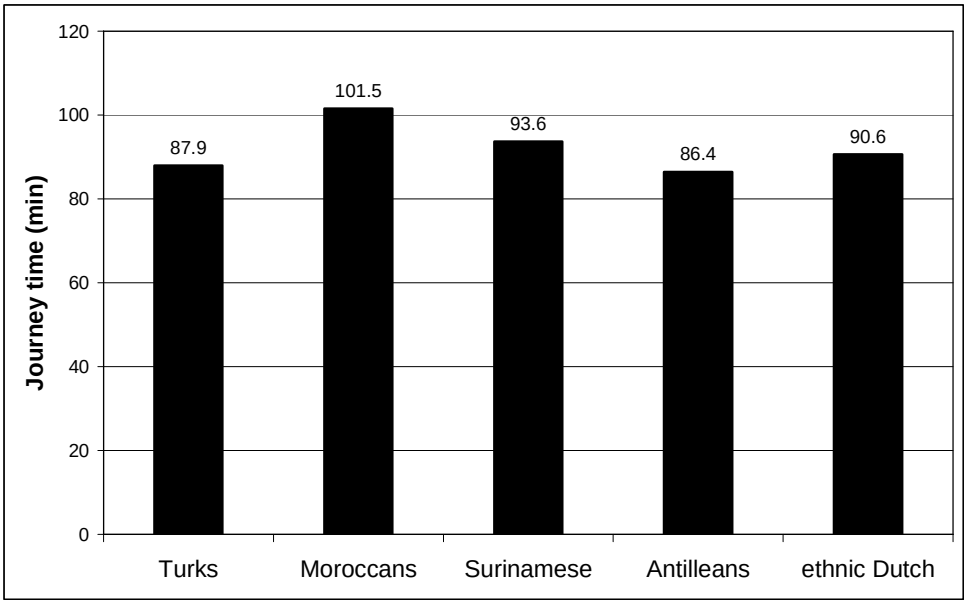

Figure A.12: Journey time per mobile person and day by nationality. (Harms, 2007)

* Significant differences compared with ethnic Dutch (** 0.01, * 0.05)

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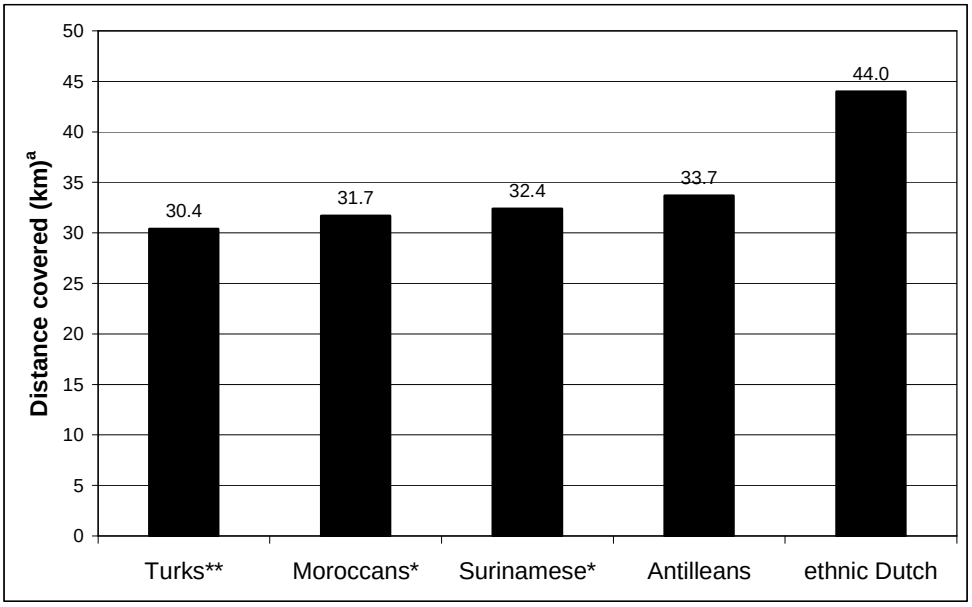

Figure A.13: Distance covered per mobile person and day by nationality. (Harms, 2007)

a) without journeys >300 km (1.8 %)

* Significant differences compared with ethnic Dutch (** 0.01, * 0.05)

Modal Split

In (Harms, 2007) explicit values for the share of car, public transport and bicycle use are given. The share of the mode "Other" in figure A.1.14 was calculated as the difference of the sum of these values to 100%. It is assumed that the majority of these trips are walking trips. The most obvious result is that foreigners use bicycles less than ethnic Dutch.

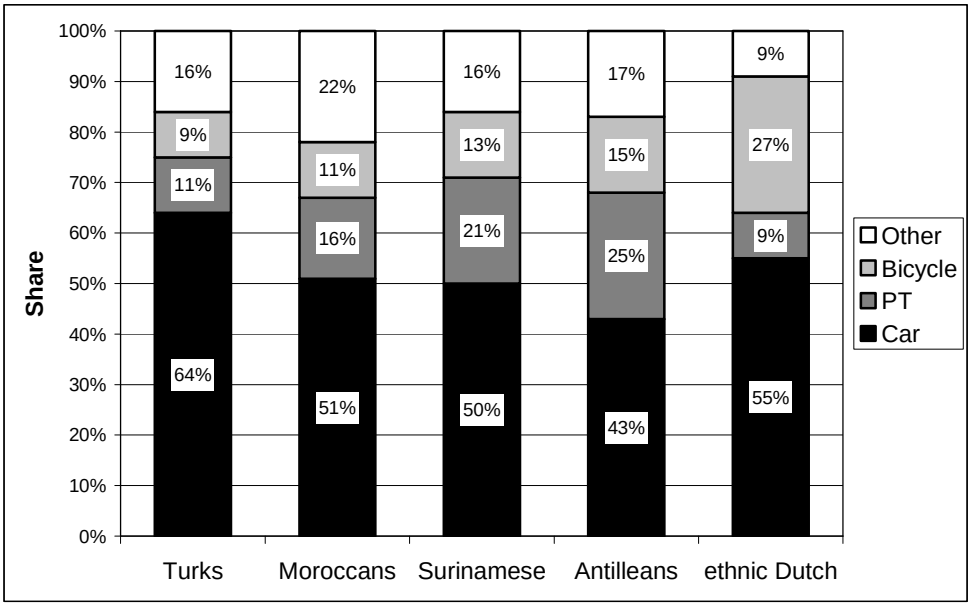

Figure A.14: Use of transport modes as shares of journeys undertaken per person and day, persons between 20 and 65. (Harms, 2007)

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Explanation for differences

It is likely that the differences between the nationality groups are at least to a certain degree caused by different "background characteristics" (e.g. gender, unemployment, level of education) rather than the variable nationality. (Harms, 2007) used variate statistical methods to take these differences into account. these allow to calculate "undistorted" effects of the variable nationality. *In other words: How big would the differences in mobility behaviour between foreigners and the ethnic Dutch be if there were no differences between them with respect to background characteristics (e.g., employment or unemployment)?* (Harms, 2007) p. 4.

The principle of the used multivariate logit regression analysis is to consider the probability of something occurring against the probability of it not occurring. The results are so-called odds ratios. The closer the ratio is to 1, the smaller are the differences between a group and the control group (e.g. Turks and ethnic Dutch as the control group). If the odds ratio is equal to 1, then there is no difference. If the odds ratio is closer to 0, then the probability of the considered group to do something is lower than in the control group. If the odds ratio is higher than 1, then the probability of the considered group to do something is higher than in the control group.

Figures A.1.15 – A.1.18 show the respective results for the level of activities out of home, car use, public transport use and bicycle use. Differences between foreigners and ethnic Dutch were controlled for

- from a socio-demographic point of view (gender, age, size of family),
- from a socio-economic perspective (societal position, e.g. employed or unemployed, level of education), and
- in terms of spatial characteristics (physical density of place of residence, residence outside Amsterdam, Rotterdam, The Hague, and Utrecht).

Figure A.1.15 shows the odds ratios for the occurrence of activities out of home. The probability that foreigners carry out activities out of home is lower than in the ethnic Dutch control group. All odds ratios are higher if the results are controlled for the background variables. I.e. the difference in the background explains part of the differences in the out of home activities of the foreigners. The controlled odds ratio for the nationality Antilleans is near to 1, i.e. being Antillean does not explain the difference in out of home activities. On the other hand being Turkish or Moroccan explains a rather large part of the difference to ethnic Dutch.

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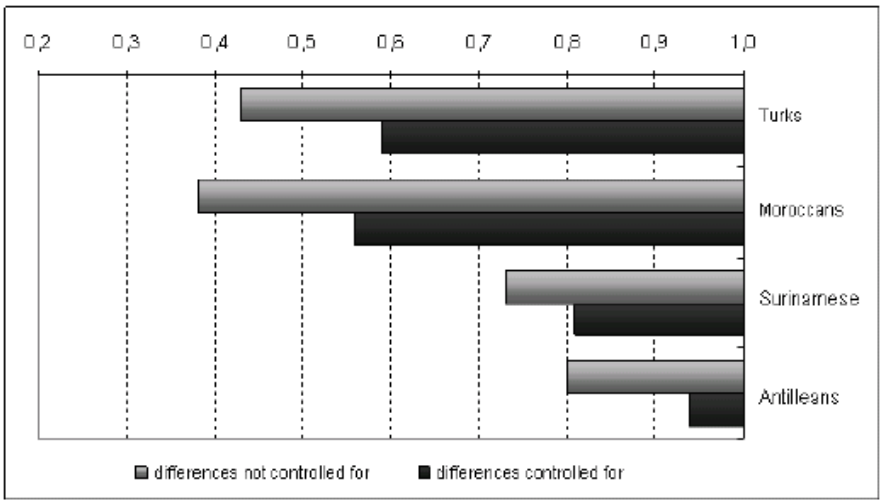

Figure A.15: Not controlled for and controlled for differences in the level of activities outside the home in comparison with ethnic Dutch in odds ratios, persons between 20 and 65. (Harms, 2007)

Figure A.1.16 shows the odds ratios for the occurrence of using the car. If the background is not controlled for, then the probability that Moroccans, Surinamese or Antilleans use the car is significantly smaller than for ethnic Dutch. If the background is controlled for then the difference is rather small for Moroccans and Surinamese. Antilleans still travel significantly less by car but the difference is smaller than in the uncontrolled version. Turks are an exception. In the uncontrolled version they travel more by car then the ethnic Dutch (although not statistically significant). If the background variables are controlled for, then the difference increases sharply. If the background variables would be similar then Turks would use the car significantly more than ethnic Dutch. Possible explanations given by (Harms, 2007) are a higher status of the car in the Turkish community and a higher number of self-employed entrepreneurs among residents of Turkish origin.

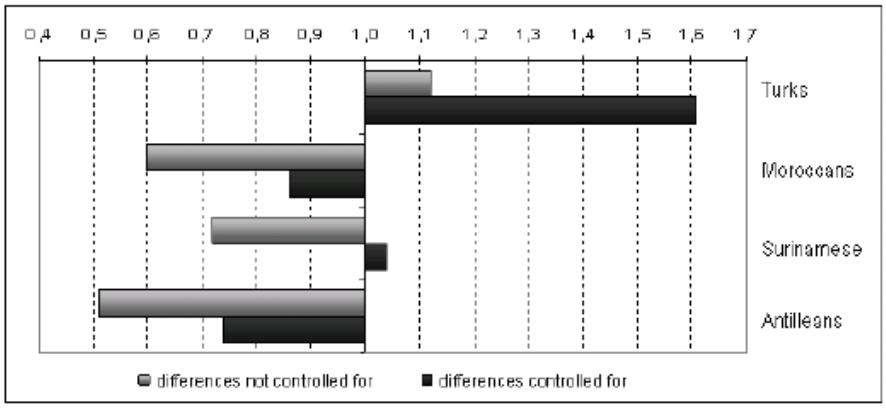

Figure A.16: Not controlled for and controlled for differences in car use in comparison with ethnic Dutch in odds ratios, persons between 20 and 65. (Harms, 2007)

Figure A.1.17 shows the odds ratios for the occurrence of using public transport. Surinamese and Antilleans particularly travel more often by public transport than ethnic Dutch. If the background variables are controlled for there is nearly no change among Turks and Moroccans, i.e. the background does not explain the difference. If the background variables are controlled for then the

odds ratios for Surinamese and Antilleans decrease, i.e. a certain part of the observed difference is explained by the background.

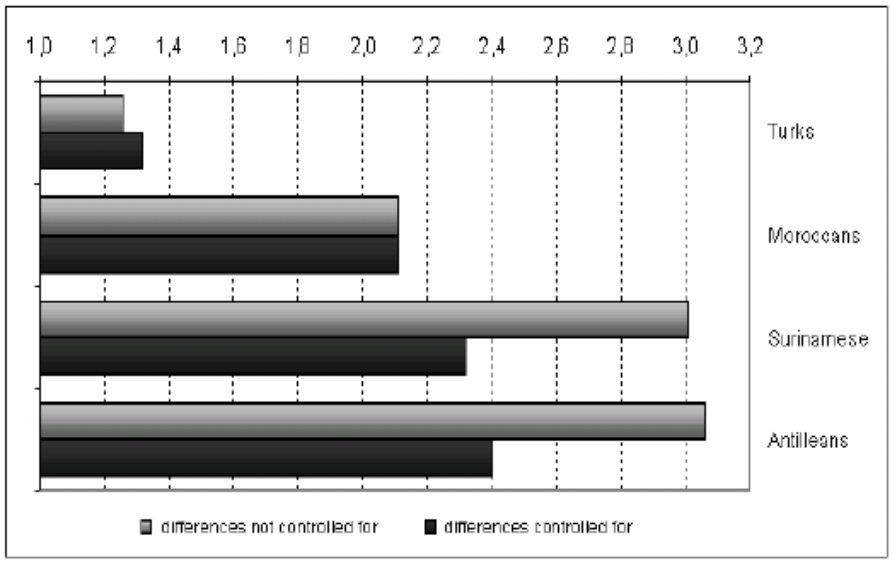

Figure A.17: Not controlled for and controlled for differences in public transport use in comparison with ethnic Dutch in odds ratios, persons between 20 and 65. (Harms, 2007)

Figure A.1.18 shows the odds ratios for the occurrence of using the bicycle. Foreigners are far less likely to use the bicycle than ethnic Dutch. The difference is most pronounced for Turks. There is nearly not difference between the controlled and not controlled versions, i.e. the background plays an insignificant role in explaining the difference to ethnic Dutch.

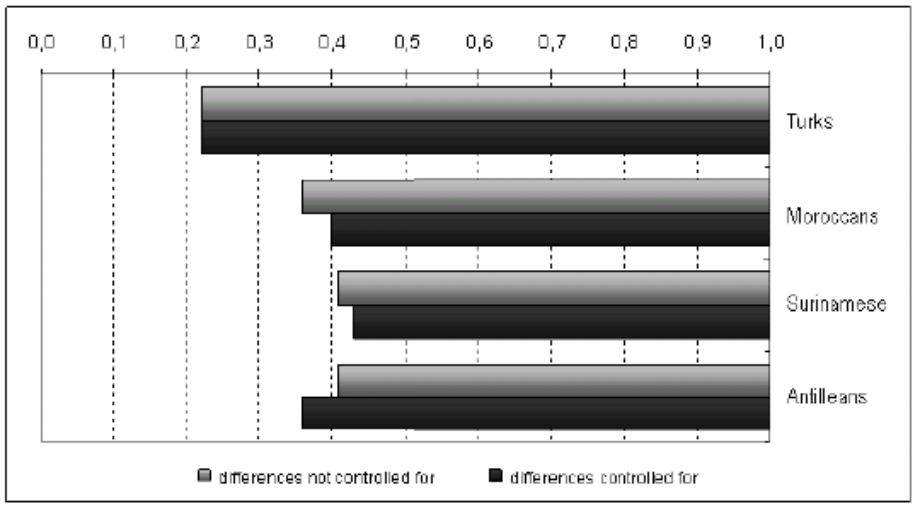

Figure A.18: Not controlled for and controlled for differences in bicycle use in comparison with ethnic Dutch in odds ratios, persons between 20 and 65. (Harms, 2007)

Conclusions

Again the key question is whether the mobility of immigrants is more or less energy efficient and sustainable than the mobility of the autochthonous population. Table 8 summarises and compares factors indicating energy consumption of immigrants mobility in the Netherlands. The comparison of positive and negative effects gives an indication that the mobility of immigrants is more energy efficient and sustainable than that of their ethnic Dutch counterparts. Due to the high share of car use the Turkish community might be an exception. *People of foreign origin travel more seldom and shorter distances; with the exception of Turks, they use bicycles less frequently and public transport more often* (Harms, 2007) p. 4.

Table 1: Factors indicating energy efficiency of immigrants mobility in the Netherlands

Factors indicating a lower energy consumption of immigrant mobility	Factors indicating a higher energy consumption of immigrant mobility
• Higher share of non-mobile people • Lower journey rate • Shorter distances travelled • Lower share of car use (Moroccans, Surinamese, Antilleans) • Higher share of PT use	• Lower share of bicycle use • Higher share of car use (Turks)

Using some rough estimates about the specific energy consumption of cars and public transport, car occupancy rate and the average journey distance for the different modes makes it possible to calculate the end energy consumption for mobility from the data about number of journeys, distance travelled and modal split. Figure A.1.19 shows the results. It can be seen that the end energy use of foreigners is lower than for ethnic Dutch. Despite the higher share of car use this is even true for Turks. The reason for this is higher distance travelled by ethnic Dutch.

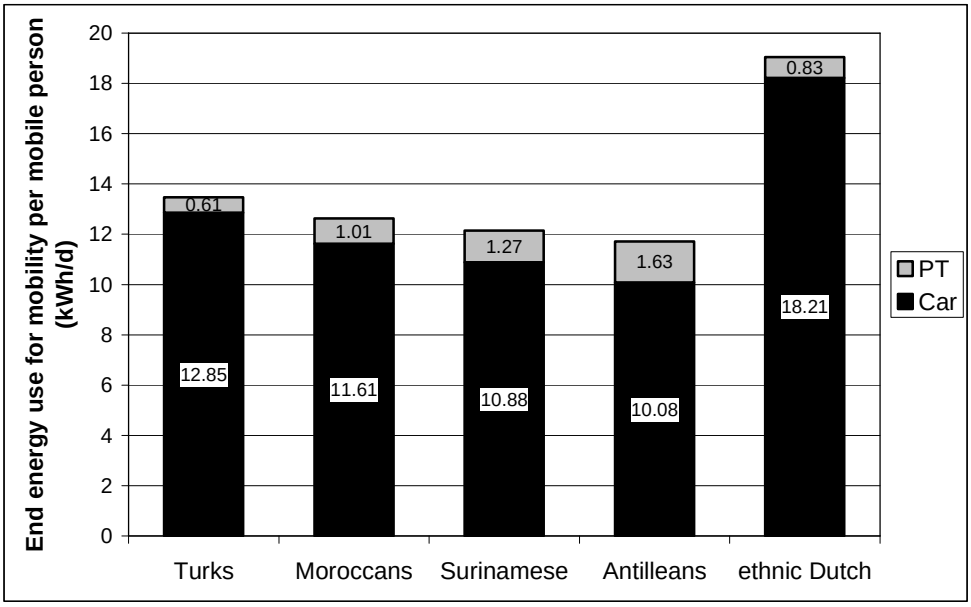

Figure A.19: End energy us for mobility per mobile person and day by nationality. (Harms, 2007), own estimates and calculations

The analysis carried out in (Harms, 2007) shows that a significant part of the different mobility behaviour of foreigners and ethnic Dutch can be attributed to the variable nationality. Only a part of the difference can be attributed to the different socio-demographic, socio-economic and spatial characteristics background of the different nationalities. These results provide a strong argument for targeting ethnic groups with specific tailor made mobility trainings.

The analysis shows that the differences concerning cycle use are more or less exclusively caused by the variable nationality (Figure A.1.18). This delivers a strong argument for specifically targeting the ethnic groups in order to improve the image and status of cycling among them. The Turkish community would even increase its car use if their socio-demographic, socio-economic and spatial characteristics background would be the same than that of their ethnic Dutch counterparts. This gives an argument for targeting them on the one hand with initiatives to improve the image of other means of transport and on the other hand with Eco Driving trainings.