



Home Office

Emigration from the UK

Second Edition

Research Report 68 November 2012

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The views expressed in this report are those of the authors, not necessarily those of the Home Office (nor do they represent Government policy).

Contents

Summary	3
1. Introduction	6
2. Who emigrates from the UK?	10
3. Where do those leaving the UK emigrate to?.....	16
4. How long do people emigrate for?	21
5. Why do people emigrate from the UK?	28
Appendix 1. References	48
Appendix 2. Data sources and methods	51
Appendix 3. Charts comparing economic variables with emigration by citizen group	54
Appendix 4. Excel data tables (published in a separate Excel document alongside this report)	

Keywords

Emigrate
Emigration
Outward migration
Employment
Retirement
Abroad
British
UK
Economic drivers

Summary

This report sets out to summarise the key aspects of the scale and nature of long-term emigration from the UK, including some trends over the last 20 years. It draws on a range of information sources, including published academic research, and on survey data produced by the Office for National Statistics (ONS) including Long-Term Migration estimates (LTIM) and International Passenger Survey (IPS) estimates.¹ The report also presents some associations between economic factors and emigration by particular groups.

Key findings:

- Of those emigrating from the UK in 2011 with an intention to change their normal place of residence and to stay there more than a year, around 43 per cent (149,000) were British citizens; the remaining 57 per cent (most of whom were returning to their country of origin) comprised almost equal numbers of European Union (EU) citizens and non-EU citizens.
- The majority of emigrants from the UK leave for work-related reasons (72% of those migrating from the UK who provided a reason, in 2011).
- Over the last ten years, more than a third of British, EU and non-EU citizens who emigrated, left to take up definite jobs but a much smaller proportion (18%) of British citizens compared to the other two groups (34% of EU citizens and 42% of non-EU citizens) left to look for work.
- A large and increasing proportion of British citizens emigrating from the UK are those from professional or managerial occupations and this may have implications for the availability of skills in the UK. In 2010 almost one-half (48%) of British emigrants were previously in professional or managerial roles.
- There appears to be an association between changes in levels of British and EU citizens' emigration from the UK and changes in both levels of unemployment and relevant exchange rates. Emigration of non-EU citizens from the UK appears less associated with these economic factors.
- Migration of EU citizens to the UK is much more 'circular' than of non-EU citizens reflecting the greater freedom of movement of EU citizens, and lower distances and travel costs to return home. Larger proportions of non-EU migrants who came to the UK have settled permanently.

Australia has consistently been the most popular destination country for British emigrants over the last 20 years. Other key destinations for British emigrants include Spain, the USA, France, Germany, Canada and New Zealand. An estimated 4.7 million UK-born people live abroad with the largest stocks in Australia, the USA, Canada, Spain and Ireland. The UK ranks eighth highest in the world in terms of the number of its nationals living abroad (World Bank, 2011).

British citizens, responding to the IPS, most frequently said their main reason² for emigrating was to take up a definite job. Most were planning to be away for four years or more.

1 The estimates relate to 'long-term migrants' using the following definition from the United Nations Statistics Division (1998): 'long-term migrants are persons who move to a country other than that of their usual residence for a period of at least one year, so that the country of destination effectively becomes their new country of usual residence'.
2 The IPS asks for an individual's 'main reason' for migrating and the data reflects just one reason for each respondent even though many may be migrating for more than one reason.

The majority of British people emigrating abroad are of working age (89 % in 2008 to 2010). Despite this, a lot of research on UK emigration has focused on those retiring overseas, particularly within Europe. There was a sharp increase in British people over retirement age, moving abroad in 2005 and 2006, reaching a peak of 22,000 in 2006. This has since fallen back to previous levels of around 4,000 to 8,000 retired British people emigrating each year. The growth in house values in the UK compared to elsewhere in Europe may have enabled British property owners to sell up and live more cheaply abroad, while enjoying a better climate and quality of life. However, this may have changed since the recession.

Numbers of British citizens going abroad for formal study have remained around five to ten thousand a year despite the increase (by around one-fifth over the last ten years) in numbers of British people going to university (Universities UK, 2011). Recent changes to English university fees may lead more British citizens to go abroad for study in the future. A higher proportion of EU citizens emigrating from the UK over the last ten years, compared to British or non-EU citizens, were emigrating for formal study.

There appears to be an inverse association between British emigration and unemployment in the UK. In general, as UK unemployment falls, more British people emigrate and when unemployment in the UK is high, fewer British people emigrate. This seems counter-intuitive but might be partly due to unemployed people having fewer resources to fund a move abroad and also due to simultaneous downturns in the economies of some of the key destinations for British emigrants. This association varies depending on where people are emigrating to, with the relationship appearing stronger among those emigrating to the EU (dominated by flows to Spain and France) in the mid- to late-2000s and weaker among those going to the USA. It might imply that economic recovery both in the UK and in key destination countries would lead to more British citizens emigrating for work.

Among non-British citizens who emigrated from the UK between 1991 and 2010, around 78 per cent were leaving after a stay of between one and four years. This proportion was similar among EU and non-EU migrants but it only includes those who actually left the UK. A higher proportion of non-EU migrants remain permanently in the UK compared to EU migrants. Among non-EU migrants to the UK, citizens of 'New Commonwealth' countries, particularly those from Bangladesh, Pakistan and India, were much more likely to stay permanently in the UK when compared to migrants from 'Old Commonwealth' countries such as Australia and New Zealand. Therefore, although outward migration of foreign nationals depends to a large extent on previous inward migration, it is not simply the overall level of migration into the UK that has affected later emigration (and net migration) but also the relative proportions coming from different areas of the world and the extent to which their migration tends to be circular or permanent.

Associations between emigration from the UK and economic factors such as employment and currency exchange rates suggest that emigration of EU citizens is more sensitive to such factors than emigration of non-EU citizens. There appears to be little relationship between emigration of non-EU citizens from the UK and changes in economic conditions in the UK relative to source countries. It may be that even in the recent economic downturn, for migrants from poorer countries, the UK still offers more attractive economic opportunities than returning home. Also in

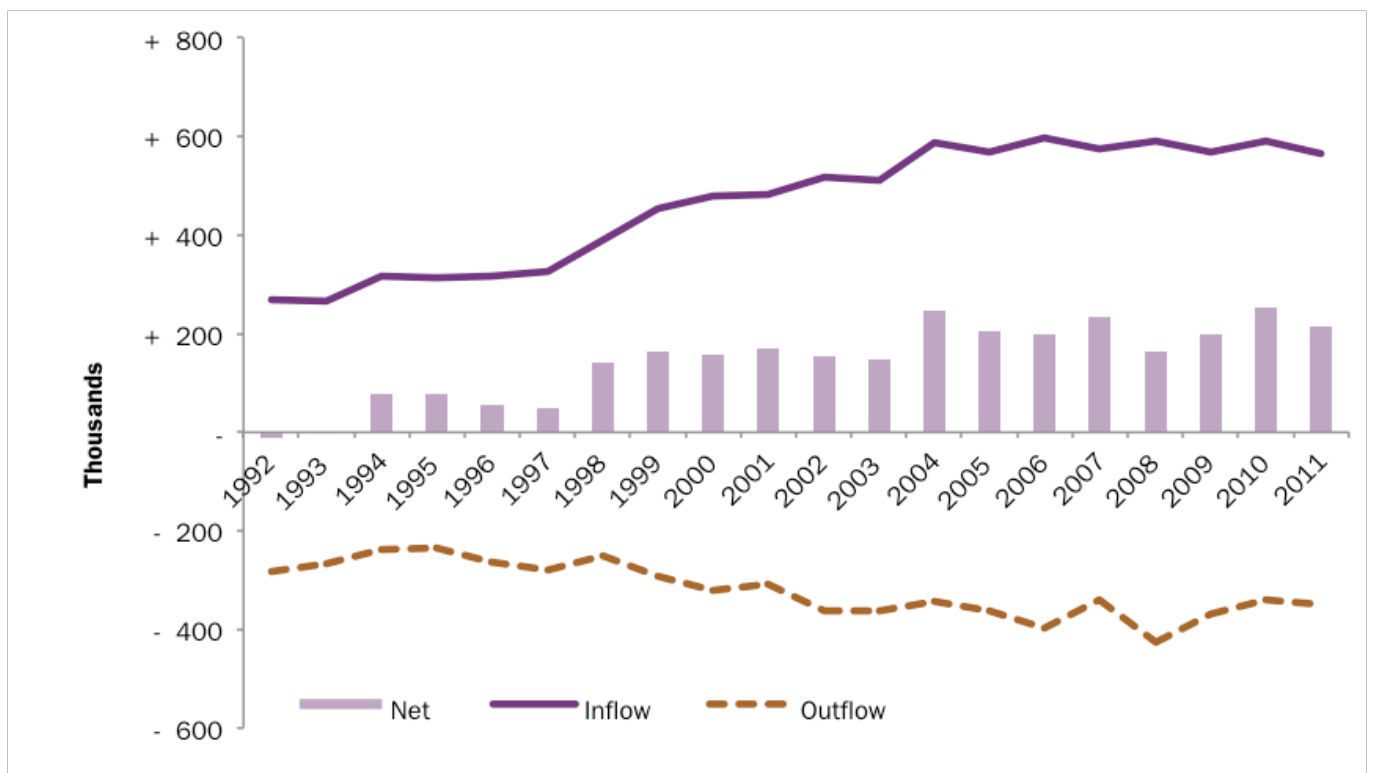
practical terms, travel within Europe is generally cheaper and quicker than from further afield and EU citizens have free movement, enabling them to easily leave and return to the UK later if they choose to.

1. Introduction

Emigration from the UK increased significantly during the last decade, from around 363,000 in 2002 to a peak of 427,000 in 2008 (LTIM estimates, Appendix 4, Table A1). The increased emigration in part mirrored the higher levels of immigration which in the UK exceeded 500,000 in every year since 2002. However, since 2009, emigration has fallen back to around 350,000 each year but inward migration has remained fairly steady at over 500,000 each year (Figure 1).

The LTIM estimates relate to 'long-term migrants' using the following definition from the United Nations Statistics Division (1998): 'long-term migrants are persons who move to a country other than that of their usual residence for a period of at least one year, so that the country of destination effectively becomes their new country of usual residence'. Some will be moving away from the UK permanently and others will be moving abroad temporarily (although for more than a year), with an intention to return.

Figure 1. LTIM estimates of long-term UK immigration, emigration and net migration from 1992 to 2011 (ONS), all citizenships, in thousands



Figures 2, 3 and 4 show the contribution made to the total UK inward, outward and net migration, separately by those with British citizenship, EU citizenship (excluding British) and non-EU citizenship between 1992 and 2011. More British citizens migrate from the UK than return to the UK each year, while the opposite is true for EU and non-EU citizens.

Figure 2. LTIM estimates of long-term UK immigration, emigration and net migration from 1992 to 2011 (ONS), British citizens only, thousands

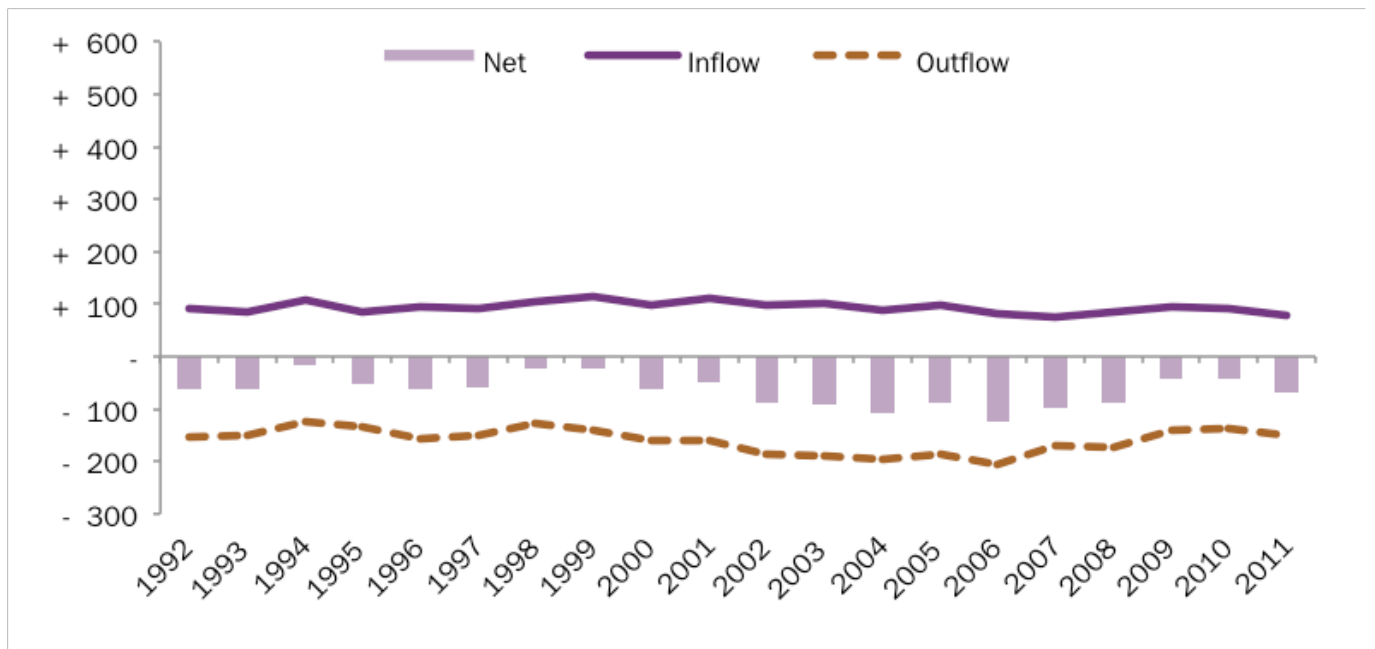


Figure 3. LTIM estimates of long-term UK immigration, emigration and net migration from 1992 to 2011 (ONS), EU citizens (excluding British) only, thousands

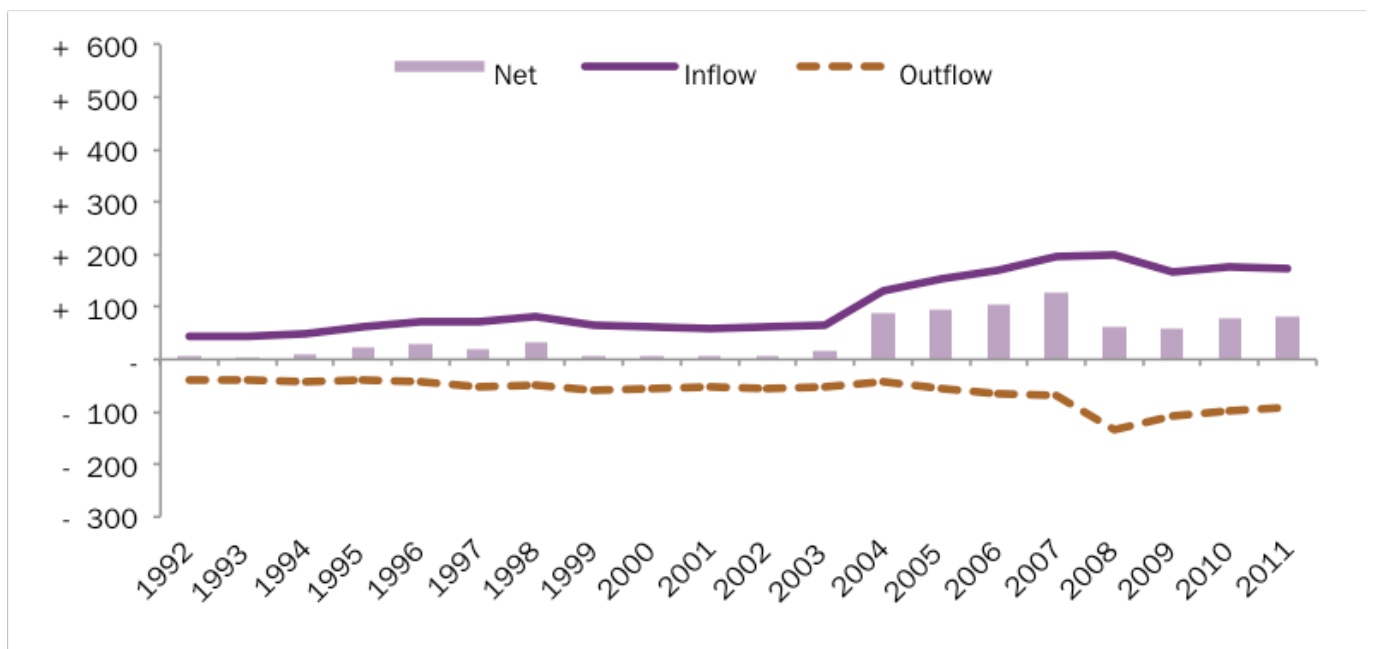
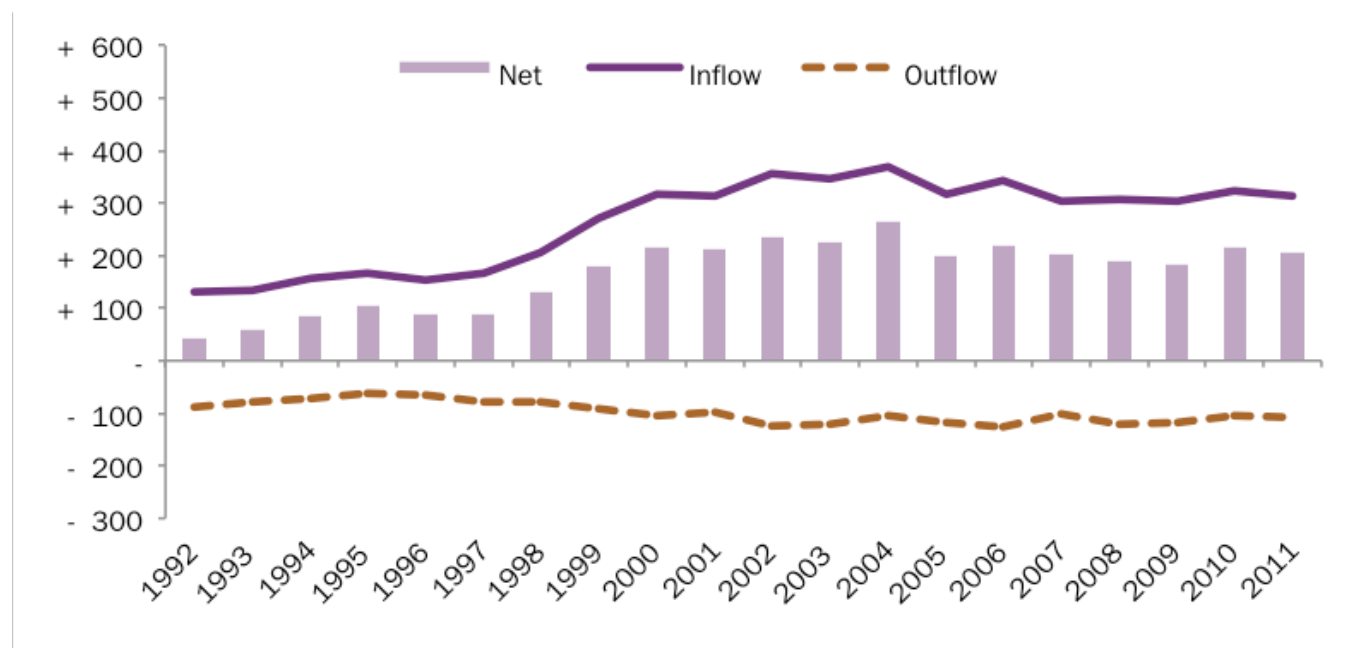


Figure 4. LTIM estimates of long-term UK immigration, emigration and net migration from 1992 to 2011 (ONS), non-EU citizens, thousands



Information sources

The key information sources used in this report are outlined below. A more detailed description of the methods and sources used is in Appendix 2.

The report includes:

- Estimates of numbers of people migrating to and from the UK and their characteristics using data from the International Passenger Survey (IPS) and Long-Term International Migration estimates (LTIM)³, produced by the Office for National Statistics (ONS).⁴

The sampling error (as indicated by Standard Errors and Confidence Intervals) associated with these estimates means that some smaller estimates are not as reliable as others and this needs to be considered when interpreting trends. Links to tables including the Confidence Intervals or Standard Errors are in Appendix 2 of this report⁵. Where appropriate this analysis has grouped a

3 LTIM estimates are based on the IPS estimates but enhanced with asylum seeker data, additional data on land border crossings into and out of Northern Ireland and adjustments for those who change their intentions about length of stay.

4 The estimates relate to 'long-term migrants' using the following definition from the United Nations Statistics Division (1998): 'long-term migrants are persons who move to a country other than that of their usual residence for a period of at least one year, so that the country of destination effectively becomes their new country of usual residence'. Some will be moving away from the UK permanently and others will be moving abroad temporarily with an intention to return.

5 ONS switched to publishing Confidence Intervals for these estimates in 2012. Before 2012, Standard Errors were provided as an indication of reliability.

number of years in order to provide more robust estimates. The report also cites the most recent available estimates. These include provisional estimates for the year ending December 2011 where available, and in other cases, 2010 data. Information presented includes the following:

- Estimates of stocks of citizens living abroad, from OECD, (World Bank).
- Information about motivations and experiences of those emigrating from the UK, from a review of research literature.
- Associations between economic variables and emigration by specific groups, to identify possible economic drivers for UK emigration.

UK emigration has been studied by academics and policy-makers far less than the immigration of people into the UK. The research on emigration by British citizens tends to focus on reasons for emigration and characterises it mainly as 'lifestyle migration'. This reflects the positive choices made by many emigrants to move abroad for better opportunities including work, retirement, study or business, or to enjoy a warmer climate or different environment. Much of the research focuses on British citizens retiring abroad rather than working abroad (e.g. Casado-Diaz, 2006; Gustafson, 2008; Howard, 2008; King and Patterson, 1998; King et al., 2000; O'Reilly, 2000b, Rodriguez et al., 1998; Warnes et al., 1999; Williams et al., 1997) even though, as we will show, the numbers of British citizens who emigrate for work far exceeds those doing so in retirement.

2. Who emigrates from the UK?

In 2011 an estimated 350,000 people left the UK to change their usual place of residence for at least a year (LTIM estimates, Table A1).

Around 43 per cent (149,000) of UK emigrants in 2011 were British citizens and 57 per cent (201,000) were non-British citizens.

- For most of the last two decades, British citizens comprised between 50 and 60 per cent of long-term emigrants from the UK, but from 2008 this proportion dropped to its current level of 43 per cent. Initially this was due to a rise in non-British emigration (reflecting the preceding growth in migrant inflows), and subsequently due to a decline in numbers of British long-term emigrants (for reasons which will be discussed later in this report).
- In 2010 long-term emigration by British citizens (136,000) reached a lower level than at any other time in the last decade, having peaked at 207,000 in 2006.

Almost half of the non-British citizens emigrating in 2011 were European Union citizens.

The proportion of non-British emigrants who were European has increased since 2004 as a result of the recent EU Accessions, from an average of 36 per cent across the decade prior to accession (1994–2003) to an average of 50 per cent in the period 2008–2011. In contrast, out of those non-British migrants entering the UK during the last 20 years EU citizens have consistently made up less than 40 per cent of the total (Table A1.2). Figures 3 and 4 illustrate the levels of migration into and out of the UK by EU and non-EU citizens. While we would not expect an exact match between inward and outward migration each year (particularly as the estimates refer to those staying or leaving for more than a year), it can be seen that, in both groups, the number of migrants entering the UK each year exceeds the number of migrants leaving the UK. On average over the last ten years, the number of EU migrants leaving the UK has been around half (52%) the number EU citizens migrating to the UK whereas the number of non-EU migrants leaving was only just over one-third (35%) of non-EU citizens migrating to the UK (Table A1.3). A larger proportion of non-EU citizens remain permanently in the UK. This greater circular migration of EU citizens reflects the freedom of movement for citizens of European Union countries within the EU.

The majority (61%) of those emigrating from the UK in 2010 were single: 37 per cent were married and two per cent were widowed or divorced (LTIM data, Table A2.1).

A slightly higher proportion of men than women emigrated in 2010: around 55 per cent of those emigrating from the UK were men and 45 per cent were women (Table A2.2).

Most of the long-term emigrants from the UK were of working age⁶. Almost 93 per cent of those emigrating in 2010 were aged between 15 and 59 or 64 years (for women and men respectively).

- Of 339,000 emigrating in 2010, around 316,000 (93%) were aged between 15 and 59 years for women and 15 and 64 years for men (Table A2.5).

⁶ 'Working age', as used in this report, includes those in the age groups 15 to 59 years for women and 15 to 64 years for men (60 years and 65 years previously were the respective state pension ages for women and men). Minimum school leaving age has risen so these age groups do not map exactly on to working age but provide a reasonable approximation. Not all of those of working age will necessarily be working and some, for example, may have retired early.

- Twenty-five per cent of those emigrating were between 15 and 25 years; 59 per cent were aged between 25 and 44 years and ten per cent were aged between 45 and 59/64 years.
- Only two per cent (or 6,000) of those emigrating were over the state pension age of 60 years for women and 65 years for men; however, some of those who are younger may also be retired or semi-retired.

Table 1. Emigration from the UK by age and gender 2008 to 2010 combined (from LTIM Table 2.07)

Age	Males in thousands	Females in thousands	Percentage of males	Percentage of females
Under 15 years	26	33	4%	6%
15 to 24 years	141	134	23%	26%
25 to 44 years	372	300	60%	58%
45 to 59 or 64 years	65	39	11%	8%
60 or 65 years and over	11	13	2%	3%
All ages	615	519	100%	100%

Table 2. Emigration from the UK by age and citizenship group 2008 to 2010 data combined (from IPS Table 3.05b)

Age	Estimates in thousands			Percentage		
	British	EU	Non-EU	British	EU	non-EU
Under 15 years	30	10	11	7%	3%	4%
15 to 24 years	87	81	81	21%	25%	26%
25 to 44 years	223	218	199	53%	67%	64%
45 to 59 or 64 years	62	15	19	15%	5%	6%
60 or 65 years or over	16	1	3	4%	0%	1%
All ages	418	325	313	100%	100%	100%

For British, EU and non-EU citizens, emigrating from the UK in 2010, the largest numbers were in the 25-to-44-years age group (Table A2.6).

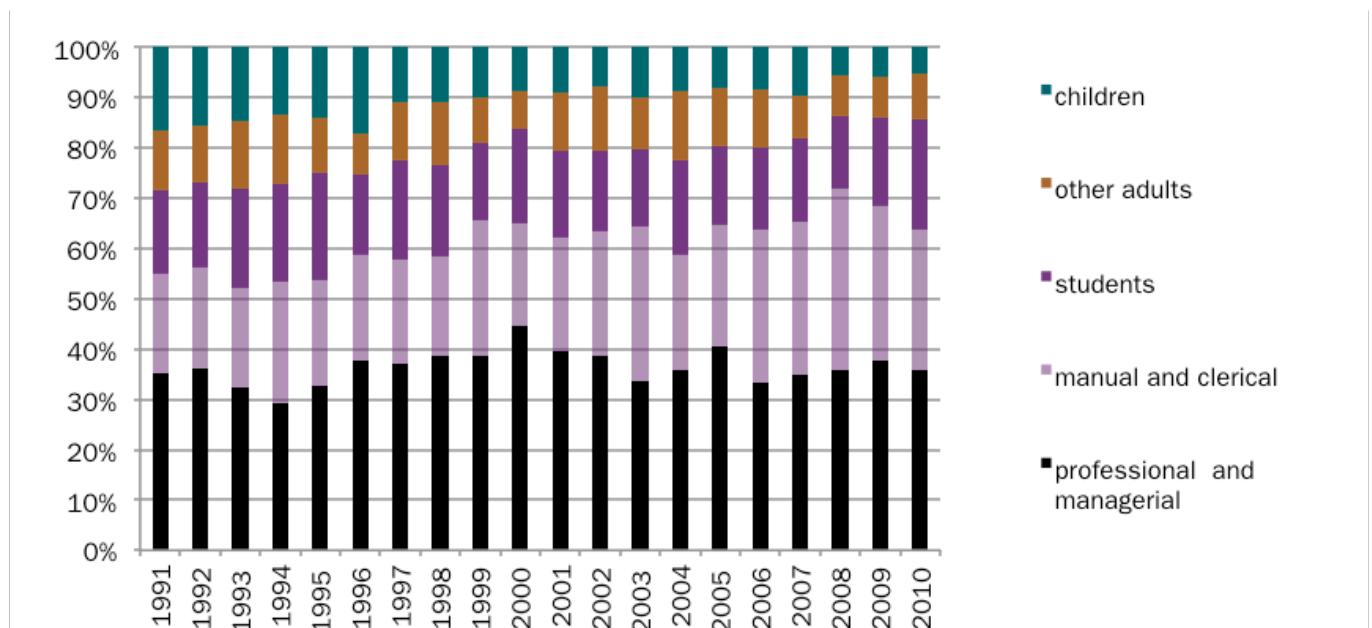
- Fifty-five per cent of British citizens (69,000) who emigrated in 2010, and 63 per cent of non-British citizens (117,000) who emigrated in 2010, were aged 25 to 44.
- For British citizens over the last two decades, the proportion of those emigrating who were in the 25-to-44 age group has fluctuated around the 45 per cent mark.
- Among non-British citizens emigrating from the UK, the proportion aged 25 to 44 years has risen from around 50 per cent in the early part of the decade to around 60 per cent, mainly as a result of the return of new European Accession state nationals.

British citizens who emigrated in 2010 were more likely than those who were non-British citizens to be older.

- Nineteen per cent of British citizens (23,000) who emigrated in 2010, and six per cent of non-British citizens (11,000) who emigrated in 2010, were aged 45 or older.
- Although around three per cent of British emigrants were of retirement age, there were very few foreign national emigrants in these age groups. It was not possible to identify those British emigrants who had been born abroad and acquired British citizenship but who might have been returning to their country of birth.

What type of occupations did those emigrating from the UK in 2010 have, prior to emigrating? (LTIM data, Table A2.3, Appendix 4)

Figure 5. The proportion of all UK emigrants in different occupational groups, 1991–2010 (IPS)



Of the 339,000 people of all nationalities emigrating from the UK in 2010, 121,000 (36%) had a previous occupation that was categorised as ‘professional or managerial’. This was the largest of the five categories of emigrants.

- 95,000 (28%) were previously in ‘manual or clerical’ occupations.
- 75,000 (22%) were previously students (although some former students may have taken up employment before leaving the UK and may be recorded in one of the ‘work’ groups).
- 30,000 (9%) were categorised as ‘other adults’.
- 18,000 (5%) were children.

When the previous occupations of British emigrants from the UK are compared with those of EU and non-EU emigrants, as shown in Figures 6, 7 and 8, there are some clear differences.

Among British citizens emigrating between 1991 and 2010, the largest group has consistently been those with a previous occupation that was 'professional or managerial'. This group comprised 37 per cent of British emigrants in 1991 and 48 per cent in 2010. The second largest group among British citizens was those with a previous manual or clerical occupation (comprising 27% of the total in 2010). The long-term trend has been one of rising numbers of British citizens in professional and managerial occupations going abroad up to the mid-2000s, and then of numbers dropping slightly in recent years, probably due to the global recession. In 2010 when 48 per cent of British citizens who emigrated from the UK had previously had a 'professional and managerial' occupation, this was true for around 26 per cent of EU citizens and 31 per cent of non-EU citizens emigrating.

Figure 6. UK emigration of British citizens by previous occupational group 1991 to 2010 (in thousands)

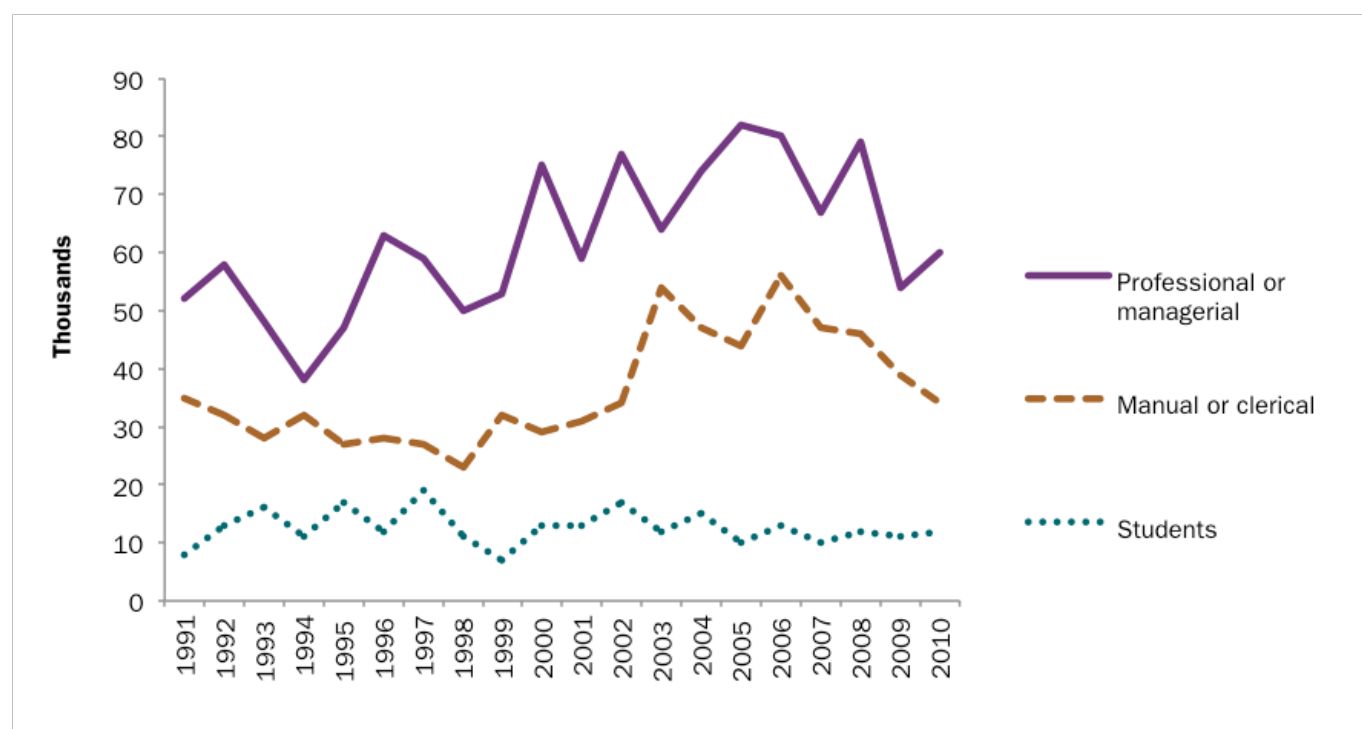


Figure 7. UK emigration of EU citizens by previous occupational group 1991 to 2010 (in thousands)

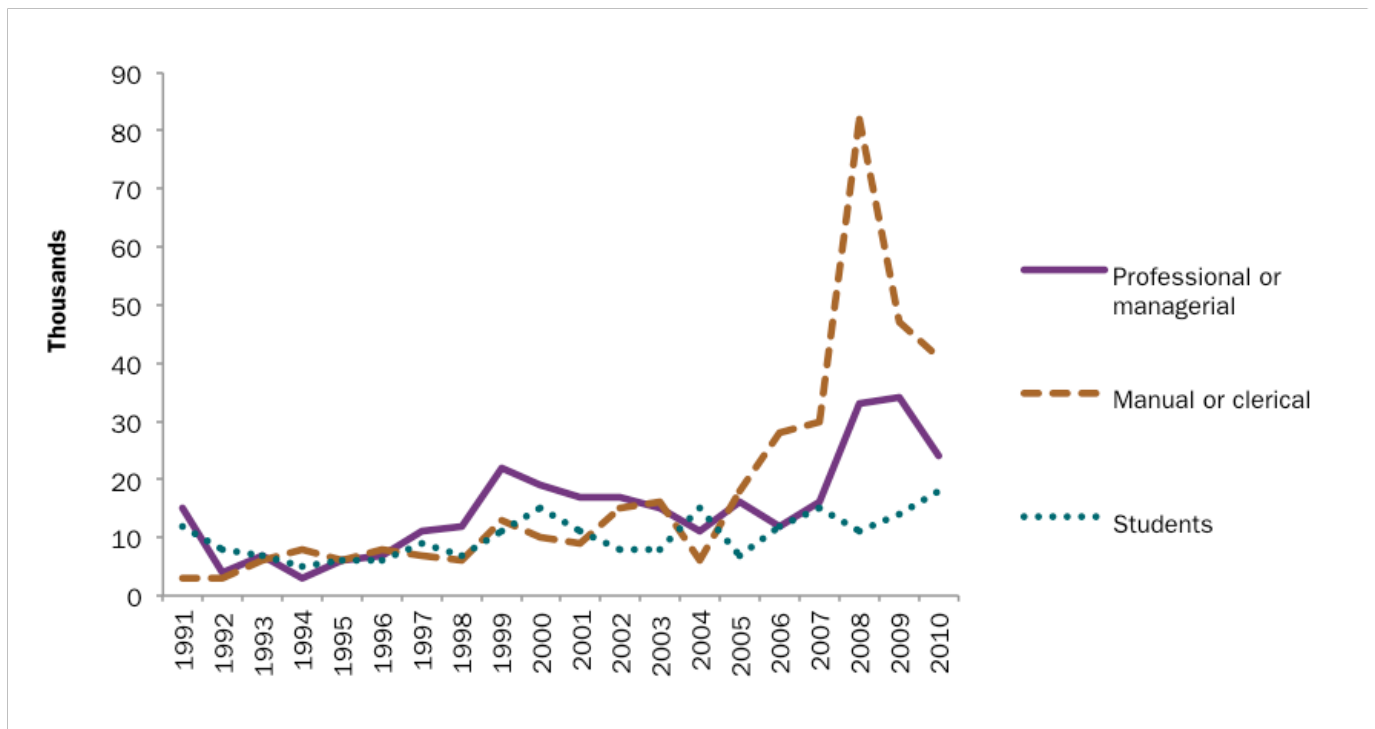
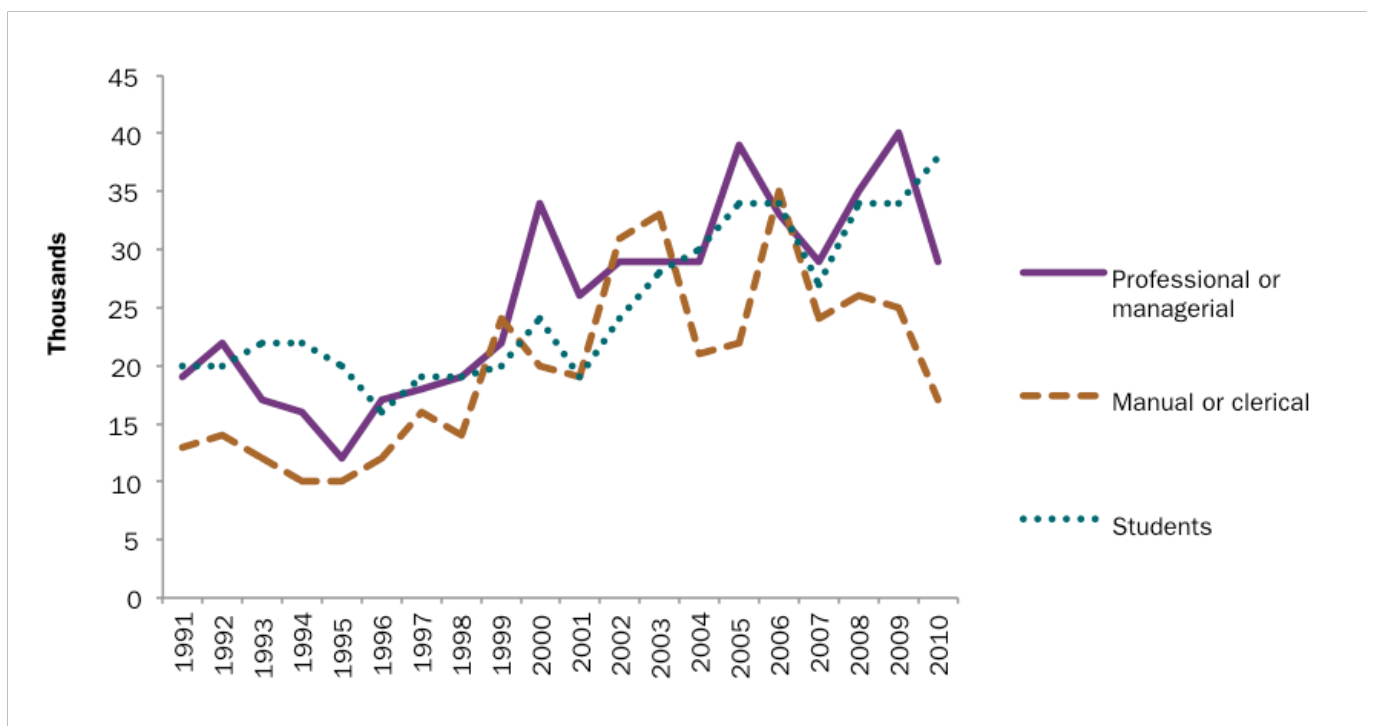


Figure 8. UK emigration of non-EU citizens by previous occupational group 1991 to 2010 (in thousands)



Among EU citizens, numbers in the three occupation groups were fairly similar and all rose slightly between 1991 and 2003. After Accession in 2004, numbers of EU migrants leaving the UK, who had been working in manual or clerical occupations, rose sharply, reaching a peak of over 80,000 in 2008 before dropping back to around 40,000 each year in 2009 and 2010. The spike in 'manual or clerical' workers reflects the increased numbers of EU Accession migrants to the UK, some of whom will have only stayed in the UK for a few years before returning home. It will also reflect the impact of the recession that began in 2008 on those migrants with freedom of movement rights, many of whom preferred to return home to their families rather than remain in the UK when work opportunities became scarcer.

Among non-EU migrants leaving the UK, numbers in all three groups were at broadly similar levels and rose fairly steadily until around 2008 when numbers in the manual or clerical group fell.

Currently, there are two questions in the IPS data that could identify people who came to the UK to study. Those entering the UK and planning to stay at least a year are asked for their main reason for coming to the UK⁷ and students may be identified at that point. However, to then identify the students in the group of people emigrating from the UK is much more difficult. Those leaving the UK are asked what their previous occupation was before emigrating from the UK. Many who have been students then work in the UK after graduation so when they are asked about their 'previous occupation' before emigrating, their response will reflect their period of work rather than study.⁸

The number of children emigrating from the UK has declined over the last 20 years. The proportion of British emigrants who were children reduced from 19 per cent (27,000) in 1991 to six per cent (7,000) in 2010. In 1991, 14 per cent (15,000) of non-British citizens emigrating were children, and this had fallen to four per cent (8,000) by 2010 (Appendix 4 Table A2.4).

7 As previously noted, just one 'main reason' is recorded so an individual coming to work and study will only contribute to the estimates of one of those reasons.

8 ONS have introduced a new question in the International Passenger Survey to identify the original reason people leaving the UK had for coming. The first data from this new question are expected to become available in August 2013.

3. Where do those leaving the UK emigrate to?

Australia, the USA and New Zealand have consistently been popular destinations for those emigrating from the UK over the last 20 years. The popularity of other destinations has changed. For example, Japan is no longer a key destination for emigration but Spain has risen in popularity. Poland, India and China have emerged as new destinations for those emigrating from the UK, largely due to emigration (return) by citizens of those countries.

Where did those leaving the UK emigrate to in 2010?

The most recent complete year of LTIM estimates provides a snapshot of the key destinations (Table A3). Of the 339,000 long-term emigrants⁹ of all nationalities leaving the UK in 2010:

- 40 per cent (136,000) went to other countries in the European Union.
- four per cent (15,000) went to the remainder of Europe.
- 19 per cent (64,000) went to countries in the 'Old Commonwealth' (including 40,000 to Australia).
- 11 per cent (38,000) went to countries in the 'New Commonwealth' (including 21,000 to the Indian sub-continent).
- seven per cent (25,000) went to the United States of America.

(ONS, 2011)

Table A3 shows the numbers emigrating from the UK to these destinations each year from 1991 to 2010 (extracted from LTIM 2.02, ONS, 2011).

Those emigrating to Poland are likely to be Polish citizens returning home after working in the UK. Similarly, those non-British citizens emigrating to India and China are likely to mainly comprise citizens of those countries but they may be returning home after periods of study as large numbers of citizens from these countries come to the UK as students.

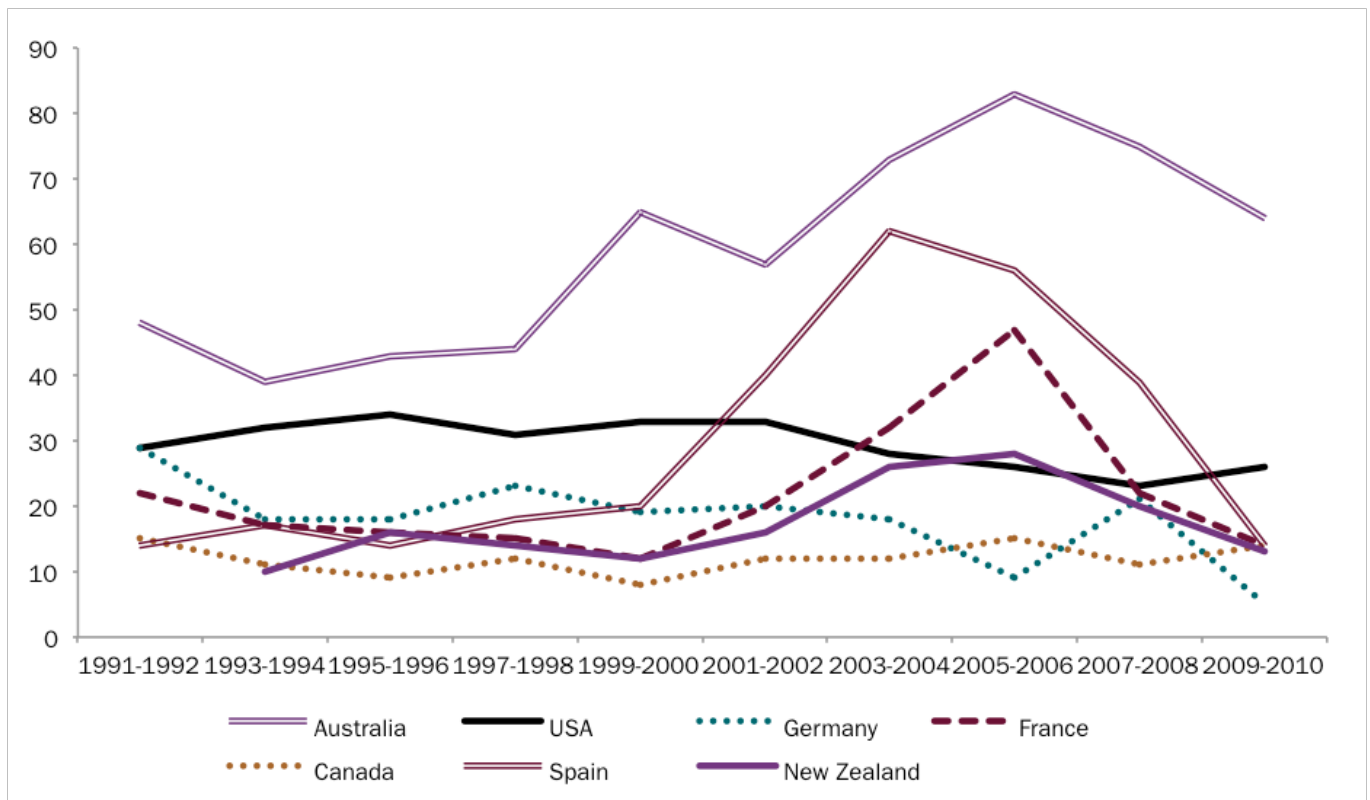
Trends in top destinations for British citizens emigrating from the UK

- Australia was consistently the top destination for British long-term migrants leaving the UK over 1991 to 2010, and for much of that period the number of British emigrants to Australia has been growing – rising from 48,000 in 1991–92 to 64,000 in 2009–10 (both two-year totals).
- The USA was the second most popular destination until 2001–02 when Spain became more popular, with numbers of British emigrants to Spain growing to 2003–04, and then slowly reducing again back to their earlier levels by 2009–10.
- Emigration to France also showed a similar growth between 1999–2000 and 2005–06, but like Spain as a destination, has since returned to earlier levels.
- Other popular destinations for British citizens during this period were Germany, Canada and New Zealand.

⁹ The estimates relate to 'long-term migrants' using the following definition from the United Nations Statistics Division (1998): 'long-term migrants are persons who move to a country other than that of their usual residence for a period of at least one year, so that the country of destination effectively becomes their new country of usual residence'. Some will be moving away from the UK permanently and others will be moving abroad temporarily with an intention to return.

- Together these seven countries were the destinations for 58 per cent of all British long-term emigrants over the period 1991 to 2010, and 54 per cent of all British long-term emigrants in the statistics for the most recent two-year period (2009–10) available in the data.

Figure 9. Trends in British citizens' emigration to top destinations from 1991 to 2010 (IPS, in thousands)



For British citizens, over the period 2000 to 2010, Australia, Spain, the USA and France were in the top five destinations in all age groups, as shown in Table A3.1. Australia is the top destination for the three younger age groups (aged 44 years and under) whereas Spain and France are the top destinations for older age groups. This is also reflected in the academic research on retirement to Spain and France (e.g. Finch et al. 2010).

Non-British citizens emigrating from the UK between 2001 and 2010 were mainly returning home to the area they came from. For example, over 90 per cent of EU8 citizens were going to EU8 countries and over 90 per cent of Old Commonwealth citizens were going to Old Commonwealth countries. Around 85 per cent of EU15 citizens were returning to EU15 countries with some going to other areas, particularly to Australia, European countries outside the EU and the USA. Over 85 per cent of those with New Commonwealth citizenship were returning to New Commonwealth countries, particularly to the Indian sub-continent although some others were migrating to the USA, Australia, Canada and the Middle East (Table A3.2).

British citizens or UK-born people living abroad

Stocks of UK-born emigrants living abroad are difficult to estimate but several approaches have been taken, using a variety of data sources. These different approaches have produced estimates ranging from around 4.5 to 5.5 million UK-born people resident abroad.

The most recent estimates are from the Migration and Remittances Factbook published by the World Bank, which estimated there were 4.7 million UK emigrants (around 7.5 per cent of the UK population) living abroad (World Bank, 2011). These estimates were based mainly on analysis by Parsons et al. (2007) at Sussex University and details about the information source are in Appendix 2. They report the largest stocks of UK-born, based abroad, to be living in Australia, the USA, Canada, Spain, Ireland, New Zealand, France and Germany, as shown in Table 3.

Another analysis, using a variety of data sources and methods of extrapolation to update older data (Srisankarajah and Drew, IPPR, 2006)¹⁰, estimated that there were around 5.5 million British people (or 9.2% of the UK population) living abroad for a year or more, in 2006, with an additional 500,000 living abroad for part of the year.

Table 3. Top ten countries for stocks of UK-born citizens resident abroad (World Bank, 2011)

Country of residence	Resident stocks of UK-born citizens
Australia	1,208,000
USA	701,000
Canada	675,000
Spain	411,000
Ireland	397,000
New Zealand	268,000
France	173,000
Germany	155,000
Netherlands	46,000
Philippines	42,000

Extrapolating from the number of passports issued each year gives an estimate of 4.5 million people with British passports living overseas (Hansard 2006 cited from Srisankarajah and Drew, 2006). This may be an underestimate because it excludes those living abroad who renew their passports in the UK when visiting friends and family, but will also overestimate the number because it includes those only abroad for a short time (so not really emigrants) but whose passports are lost or stolen abroad. However, this estimate is broadly similar to the number suggested by other sources.

¹⁰ Details of methods used are in Appendix 2.

Table 4. Top ten source countries with overseas emigrant stock (World Bank, 2011)

Source country	Stocks of nationals living abroad	Total resident population in country of origin ¹¹	Percentage of country's population living abroad
Mexico	11,859,236	112,336,538	11
India	11,360,823	1,210,193,422	1
Russian Federation	11,034,681	143,030,106	8
China	8,344,726	1,347,350,000	1
Ukraine	6,525,145	45,644,419	14
Bangladesh	5,384,875	142,319,000	4
Pakistan	5,384,875	178,773,000	3
UK	4,666,172	62,300,000	7
Philippines	4,275,612	94,013,200	5
Turkey	4,261,786	74,724,269	6

In terms of the absolute number of its citizens to be living abroad, the UK is ranked eighth highest. The ten countries with the largest number of their population living abroad are shown in Table 4 together with an indication of the approximate percentage of each source country's population that the emigrants represent.

In comparison with other 'High-Income' OECD countries the UK has the largest stocks living abroad (in terms of absolute numbers but not in terms of proportion of population). Table 5 shows the estimated number of UK-born people living abroad together with stocks of those from other 'High-Income' OECD countries, including selected EU countries. As a proportion of population, the numbers of nationals resident abroad is considerably higher for countries such as Portugal and Ireland.

¹¹ Population data are the most recent estimate or projection by the national census authority or the estimate from the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2011.

Table 5. Overseas emigrant stock from selected High-Income OECD source countries (World Bank, 2011)

Source country	Stocks of nationals living abroad	Total resident population in country of origin ¹²	Percentage of country's population living abroad
UK	4,666,172	62,300,000	7%
Germany	3,529,460	81,796,000	4%
Italy	3,480,280	60,757,278	6%
Poland	3,155,509	38,092,000	8%
USA	2,423,175	313,064,000	1%
Portugal	2,229,620	10,561,614	21%
France	1,738,006	65,350,000	3%
Spain	1,373,024	46,196,278	3%
Greece	1,209,813	10,787,690	11%
Canada	1,185,392	33,476,688	4%
Netherlands	992,913	16,725,902	6%
Ireland	736,889	4,581,269	16%
New Zealand	624,623	4,438,800	14%
Belgium	454,522	10,839,905	4%
Australia	442,632	22,839,186	2%

Population data are the most recent estimate or projection by the national census authority or the estimate from the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2011

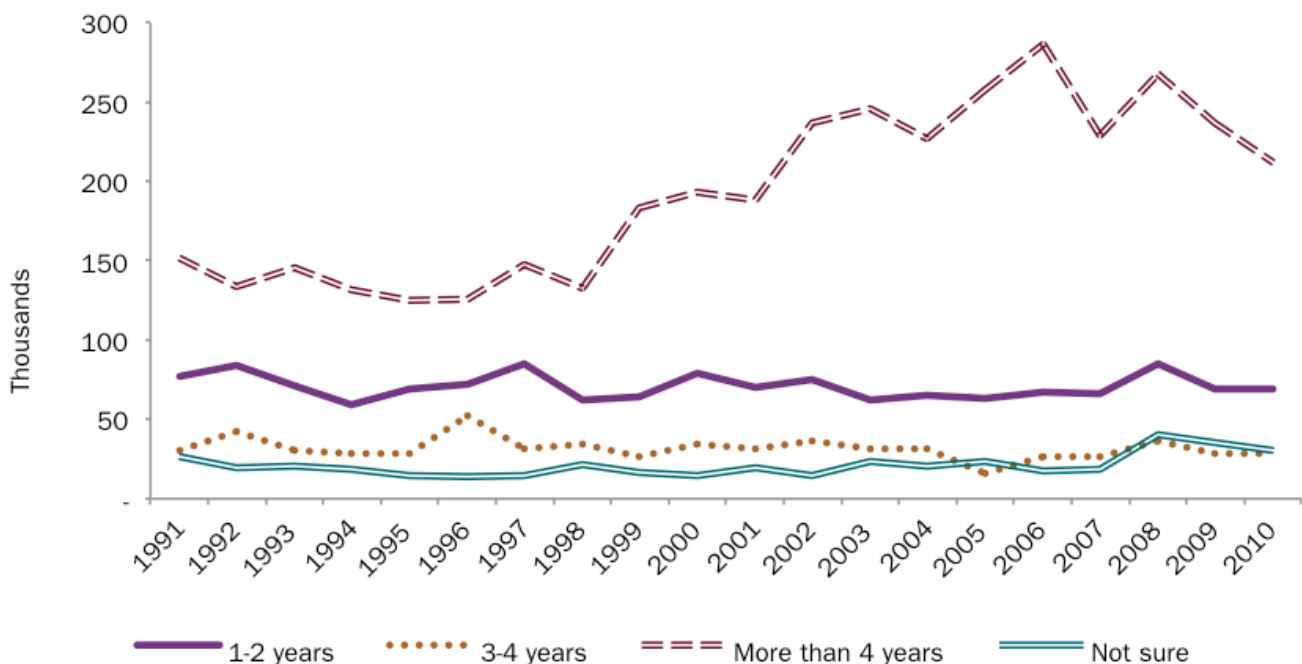
¹² Population data are the most recent estimate or projection by the national census authority or the estimate from the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2011.

4. How long do people emigrate for?

People who emigrate may not intend to leave permanently and may not have intended making a permanent move when coming to the UK. The IPS provides some information that might indicate how long people who emigrate from the UK stay away before returning to the UK (if they return) and how many then emigrate again. Those leaving the country are asked in the IPS how long they intend to be away and those entering the country are asked how long they were actually away before returning.

The largest proportion of emigrants intended to stay away for more than four years. This includes those intending to leave the UK permanently. The increase in numbers of emigrants from the late 1990s was in this group of longer-term migrants intending to stay away for more than four years rather than in the groups planning shorter stays away from the UK as shown in Figure 10.

Figure 10. Intended length of stay of those emigrating from the UK 1991 to 2010
LTIM estimates.



British citizens (Table A4.)

Around half (53%) of British citizens emigrating between 2000 and 2010 said they intended living abroad for more than four years. Nearly a third (30%) intended emigrating for between one and two years and 11 per cent for more than two and up to four years. The remaining seven percent were unsure about their intended length of stay (ONS, 2011).¹³

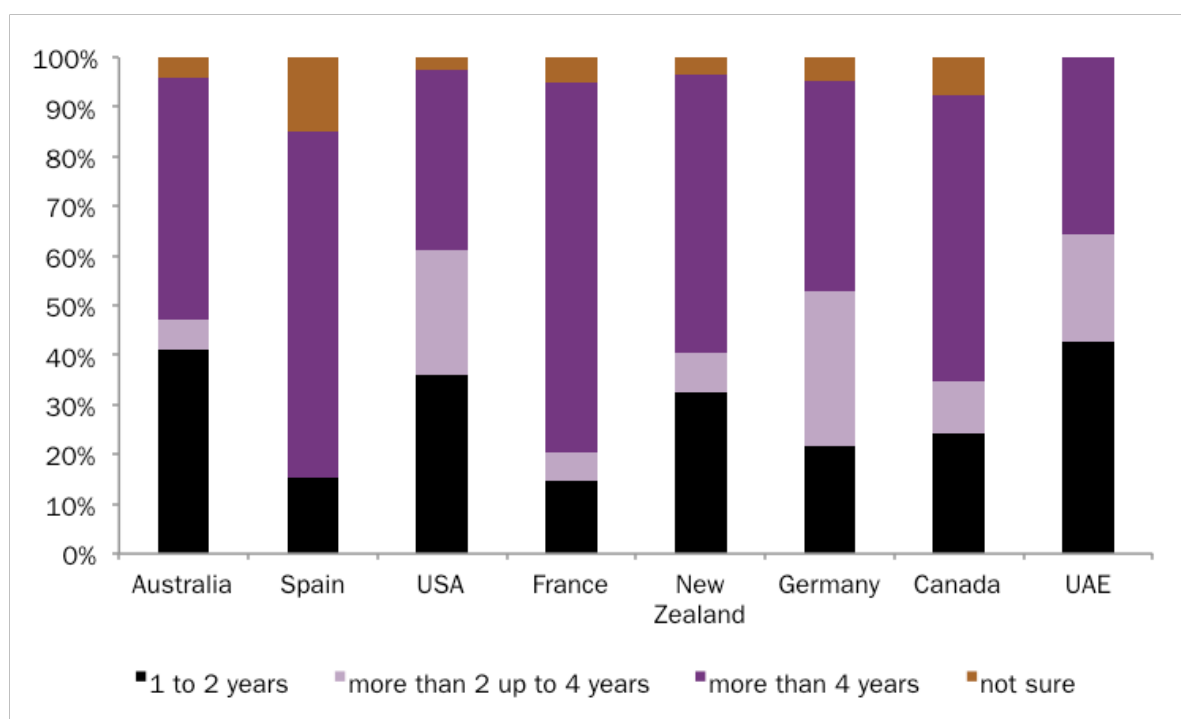
13 Percentages may not sum to 100 per cent due to rounding.

The proportions of British emigrants saying they intended staying abroad for different lengths of time differed according to their intended destinations.¹⁴ For the top eight destination countries for British citizens emigrating from the UK, the numbers intending to stay for the different periods are shown in Table 6 and percentages in Figure 11.

Table 6. Intended length of stay by top eight destination countries, British citizen emigrants in thousands (2000–10 combined, IPS)

Country of next residence	1 to 2 years	more than 2 up to 4 years	more than 4 years	not sure	total estimate for each destination
Australia	159	24	188	16	387
Spain	33	-	151	32	216
USA	56	39	56	4	155
France	21	8	106	7	142
New Zealand	36	9	62	4	111
Germany	18	26	35	4	83
Canada	16	7	38	5	66
United Arab Emirates	18	9	15	-	42

Figure 11. British citizens emigrating to eight key destination countries (2000–10 combined, IPS) – percentage intending to stay for different lengths of time



14 Analysis of IPS data showing 'intended length of stay' for UK emigrants, by destination country, separately for British and non-British citizens, was provided on request by ONS. (Data for the top ten countries in each response category are provided in Table A4.3).

The most popular destination country is Australia. Almost half (49%) of British citizens migrating to Australia planned to stay for more than four years, slightly more than the number planning to stay just one to two years (41%). The large numbers of travellers who visit Australia for a trip of less than a year's duration will not be included in these figures.

Long-term migrants were more common amongst those going to Spain and France, with 70 per cent and 75 per cent respectively of the British citizens emigrating to these two countries reporting they intended to stay for more than four years. This suggests that around a quarter of a million British citizens left the UK to live in France and Spain for an extended period, if not permanently, over the last decade.

There is no reliable measure of how accurately people predict the length of time they will stay abroad when they emigrate from the UK, and there will be a variety of reasons why some may choose to return. The IPS asks those British citizens returning to the UK following a period of more than a year abroad, how long they were away.

The total number of British citizens returning from a period of emigration abroad during 1991–2010 varied between a minimum of 71,000 in 2007 and a maximum of 114,000 in 1999 (ONS).

On average over the decade 2001 to 2010, of those who stated how long they had been away, 57 per cent had been away for one to four years, 16 per cent for five to nine years and 15 per cent had been away for ten years or longer. Eleven per cent of British citizens recorded as 'returning' migrants had never lived in the UK before (e.g. they were born abroad) (Table A4.1).

Where the research literature mentions length of stay, its focus is the period that current emigrants have been outside of the UK (rather than intentions, or actual length of stay of returning emigrants). Findings are not directly comparable to the IPS data but they offer another part of the picture. For example, an online survey of over 3,800 British emigrants living outside the UK, by Sriskandarajah and Drew (2006), found 17 per cent had been away for over 20 years, 19 per cent for between 10 and 20 years, 22 per cent between five and nine years, 22 per cent between one and four years and ten per cent for less than one year.

The length of stay abroad is likely to depend on the purpose of emigration as well as the actual experience. For example, research on British citizens emigrating to New York with transnational corporations found that most of these intra-company transfers were for between one and three years (Beaverstock, 2005). In contrast, British scientists emigrating to Boston to work in pharmaceutical and biotechnology companies stayed in the USA for an average of 12 years (Harvey, 2011). Migrants who move abroad for retirement are likely to remain abroad longer, if indeed they return at all.

In their survey of British citizens living abroad, Sriskandarajah and Drew (2006) found that 36 per cent stated that they would not want to swap their lifestyle and climate for that of the UK. Another 19 per cent said they would stay abroad for professional or educational opportunities, while 16 per cent gave family or personal reasons for staying abroad and 14 per cent said they would stay

abroad for the favourable cost of living. This might suggest that the majority of British emigrants are making a lifestyle choice and only a minority choose to leave the UK primarily for professional or employment reasons.

Amongst the older emigrants who returned to the UK, the main motivation for coming back was due to missing family and friends. In a study of lifestyle emigration to the Costa Del Sol, the main reasons participants gave for returning to the UK were: for family reasons, due to the death of a partner, due to the failure of business and due to an unfavourable exchange rate (O'Reilly, 2000a). For the highly skilled, return was most often cited as being due to an end to pre-defined work commitments (Sriskandarajah and Drew, 2006).

How many British citizens who emigrate from the UK have done so before? How long do they stay in the UK before emigrating again? (Table A4.2)

The majority (an average 69%) of British citizens emigrating from the UK between 1991 and 2010 who responded to this question said they were emigrating for the first time. The percentage rose during this period from 59 per cent (65,000) in 1994 to a peak of 82 per cent (149,000) in 2006.

In 2010, when a total of 124,000 British citizens emigrated from the UK, 68 per cent of those giving a response said they were doing so for the first time. Twelve per cent had previously emigrated from the UK ten or more years ago, and 20 per cent reported living in the UK for less than ten years.

Non-British citizens

The vast majority (81 to 91%) of non-British citizens migrating into the UK between 1991 and 2010 said they had not lived in the UK before. Around 10 to 20 per cent were returning, having previously left the UK. For EU citizens migrating into the UK between 1991 and 2010, the proportion of those coming to the UK for the first time tended to be slightly smaller than for non-EU migrants (Table A 4.1).

Of those non-British migrants who emigrated from the UK in 2010, nearly three-quarters (72%) were leaving within four years of arriving in the UK and only eight per cent had been in the UK for ten years or more (ONS, 2011). Comparing the length of time EU citizens and non-EU citizens emigrating from the UK over the last 20 years had been in the UK before they emigrated, showed that the two groups were fairly similar in terms of proportions staying for each length of time (although the numbers in the non-EU groups were much larger). The numbers and proportions are shown in Table 7. It must be remembered that these estimates only include those emigrating from the UK and exclude those migrants who settle permanently (a larger proportion of non-EU migrants to the UK have settled permanently).

Table 7. Length of time living in the UK before emigrating: EU citizens and non-EU citizens leaving the UK in the two decades 1991 to 2000 and 2001 to 2010

Length of stay	1991 to 2000				2001 to 2010			
	EU Citizens		Non-EU Citizens		EU Citizens		Non-EU Citizens	
	thousands	per cent	thousands	per cent	thousands	per cent	thousands	per cent
1-4 years	221	77%	558	81%	456	73%	748	79%
5-9 years	40	14%	73	11%	106	17%	137	14%
10 yrs +	20	7%	24	4%	39	6%	37	4%
Never left / lived in UK before	7	2%	28	4%	20	3%	24	3%

Calculated from IPS actual length of stay 3.15 IPS CIT by actual LOS. Those who did not provide a response to the question on length of stay have been excluded from the calculations.

Rendall and Ball, (2004) and Dustmann and Weiss, (2007) reported that non-British citizens' length of stay in the UK varied according to the characteristics of the migrants, such as age, sex, education, country of origin and occupational skills. Their key findings suggested that:

- Younger migrants stayed longer than older migrants.
- Women stayed longer than men.
- Those from the Indian sub-continent and Africa stayed longer than those from Europe, Americas, Australia, Middle East, remainder of Asia and other countries.
- Those with fewer years of full-time education stayed longer than the more educated.
- Migrants in lower-skilled occupations appear to have stayed longer than those in highly- skilled occupations (although the data on this are less clear).

Rendall and Ball (2004) analysed a number of datasets and estimated that 29 per cent of the overseas-born migrants to the UK in the 1980s and 1990s emigrated from the UK within two years of arrival and nearly half had emigrated within five years. Analysis by Dustmann and Weiss (2007) of LFS data from the years 1992 to 2004, suggested that, taking as their base the non-British migrants who had been in the UK for a year, around 40 per cent of men and 55 per cent of women had left Britain five years later.

Dustmann and Weiss (2007) found differences in how long non-British citizens stayed in the UK before emigrating, depending on age, education and level of occupational skill. Those emigrating sooner after arrival tended to be older than average and tended to have had more full-time education than those remaining longer in the UK. The proportion in occupations categorised as 'highly skilled' drops particularly between five and ten years after arrival in the UK. This is likely to be largely due to highly skilled migrants to the UK leaving sooner than the lower skilled migrants. As previously reported, certain lengths of stay are associated with particular reasons for emigration (Beaverstock, 2005). For example, a period of stay of one to three years is common

for those on intra-company transfers. This may partly explain the prominence of the one-to-four years category in the IPS length of stay analysis (for both lengths of stay abroad, and in the UK, for British and non-British groups).

The length of stay in the UK before re-emigrating also varied by region of origin. Dustmann and Weiss (2007) analysed the data by four main geographical areas of origin. More than 45 per cent of migrants from two of the broad areas, 'Europe, Americas, Australia' and 'Middle East, remainder of Asia and other countries', had returned five years after their arrival in the UK and others also returned between five and ten years after arrival. Those from the other two areas, the Indian sub-continent and Africa, showed far lower likelihood of emigrating from the UK. Broadly speaking, this would appear to show that migrants from poorer countries of origin will be less likely to leave the UK again following their arrival. Recent migrants from comparatively poorer EU states have been more likely to return home, perhaps reflecting the freedom of movement rights for EU citizens, cheaper and quicker travel, and of course the financial resources available to the individual migrants.

Rendall and Ball (2004) identified differences in how long migrants to the UK stayed before emigrating, depending on their country of birth. They compared the proportion of overseas-born migrants arriving in the UK (flows) from particular countries of origin between 1981 and 2000 with the proportions represented by the same groups within stocks of foreign-born migrants in the UK in 2001. Total estimated flows to the UK of 3.3 million overseas-born migrants between 1981 and 2000 included significant proportions from the European Union (excluding those from the Irish Republic) (22%), Australia and New Zealand (13%) and the USA and Canada (11%). Within stocks of overseas-born migrants resident in the UK in 2001, migrants from these countries of origin made up much smaller proportions (European Union: 15%; Australia and New Zealand: 4%; and the USA and Canada: 5%), indicating that many may have subsequently emigrated from the UK. They found 44 per cent of immigrants from Australia and New Zealand emigrated from the UK within two years of arrival (probably due to the large numbers arriving on two-year, young persons' working visas) and 57 per cent within five years. Two-thirds of those from the USA and Canada emigrated from the UK within five years.

In contrast to this, migrants to the UK from the Indian sub-continent and the Caribbean Commonwealth made up smaller proportions of the 1981 to 2000 flows of overseas-born than of the 2001 stocks. Indian migrants made up 13 per cent of flows but 21 per cent of stocks, while those of Caribbean origin made up one per cent of flows but five per cent of stocks. Rendall and Ball (2004) interpreted this as being consistent with both reductions in inflows from these regions since the 1960s and with lower rates of emigration from the UK by these groups, reflecting the findings from the other studies mentioned. Further analysis showed that just ten per cent of migrants to the UK from the Indian sub-continent emigrated within two years and 15 per cent within five years. The more detailed analysis of length of stay relates to migrants who came to the UK in the 1980s and 1990s.

Recent analysis (Acható et al., 2011) found similar results in terms of higher proportions of migrants from the Indian sub-continent settling in the UK in comparison to migrants from Australia, New Zealand and the USA. For example, among those migrants entering the UK in 2004 with

visas (both short and long durations) under the family route, 86 per cent of Bangladeshi, 81 per cent of Pakistani, and 70 per cent of Indian migrants had acquired UK settlement five years later (by 2009). In contrast, only ten per cent of Australian, 11 per cent of New Zealander and 30 per cent of American migrants entering the UK via this route in 2004, had settled permanently by 2009.

The same analysis found that among those migrants entering the UK in 2004 with visas under the 'work leading to settlement' route, the highest numbers were of Indian, American, and Filipino nationalities. In these groups, 69 per cent of Filipino and 32 per cent of Indian migrants had UK settlement by 2009 compared with just nine per cent of American migrants.

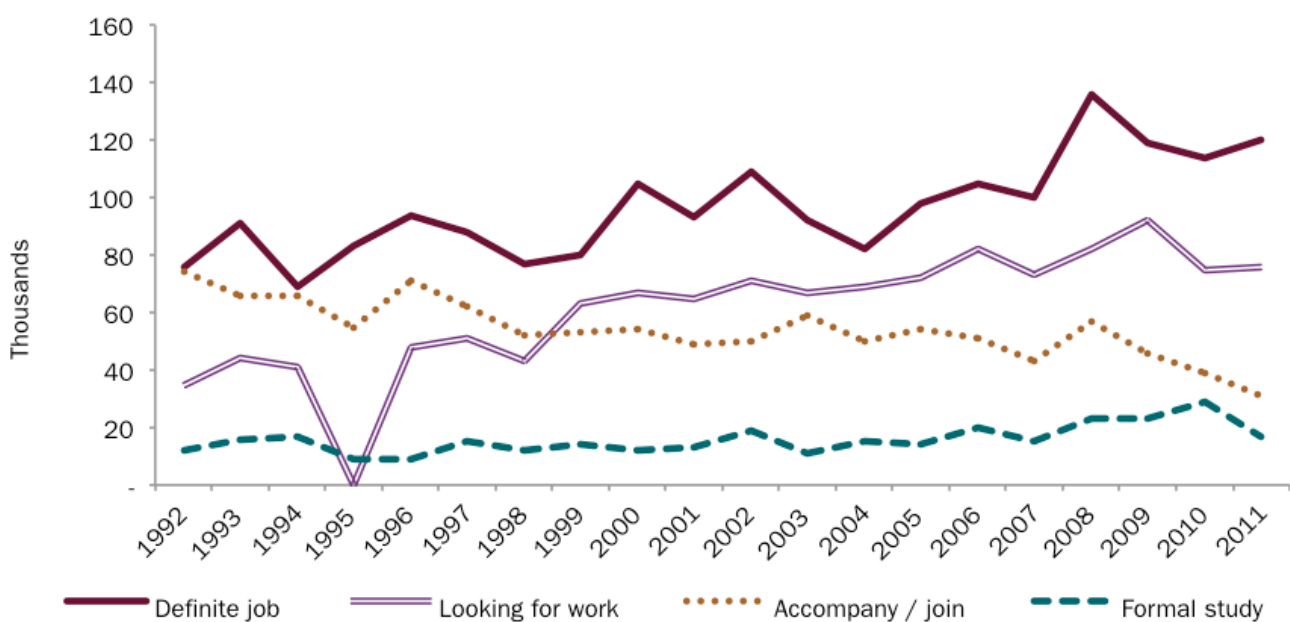
A general conclusion appears to be that those migrants who had greater freedom of movement – either because of legal freedoms (such as those within the EU) or financial freedom (perhaps applying to the older, more skilled or migrants from wealthier countries) – tend to be less likely to regard their migration as permanent, perhaps because they are more able to return when they might wish to do so. This conclusion is also supported by a recent European Migration Network report on temporary and circular migration (2011).

5. Why do people emigrate from the UK?

The majority of people emigrating from the UK are emigrating for work but the proportions going for different reasons vary to some extent with gender, age and citizenship and also reflect changes in the economic environment.

The IPS asks people leaving the UK for a year or more what their main reason is for emigrating, and their responses are categorised by their main intended activity when abroad such as ‘looking for work’ or ‘study’. In 2011, nearly three-quarters (72%) of those emigrating, who provided a reason to the IPS, reported that they either had a job to go to or were going abroad to seek work.¹⁵ Figure 12 shows the LTIM estimates of people emigrating from the UK in each of the four main reason categories, from 1992 to 2011.

Figure 12. Main reasons for emigrating from the UK, all citizenships, 1992–2011 (LTIM)



Note: In 1995 responses for ‘looking for work’ were incorporated into the ‘other’ category(not shown here).

- Having a ‘definite job’ to go to was the most frequently cited main reason for those who emigrated in 2011 (44% or 120,000 of those who provided a reason), as it had been over the last two decades.
- In 2011, ‘looking for work’ accounted for 28 per cent (76,000) of those who emigrated and notwithstanding the economic conditions overseas, this number has been growing for most of the last 20 years.

¹⁵ Eighteen per cent or 59,000 of those who emigrated in 2011 and gave a main reason, had their response categorised as ‘other’. Between 1991 and 2010, the estimate for ‘no reason stated’ was sometimes as high as a quarter of the total estimate for all reasons. This needs to be borne in mind when considering the estimates of numbers emigrating for a definite job, looking for work, study and accompany/join reasons.

- Around 11 per cent (31,000) of those who emigrated in 2011 and gave a reason, said it was to ‘accompany or join’ someone. Among adults, far more women than men emigrate to ‘accompany or join’ and in 2010 women made up three-quarters of those giving this reason for emigration. From 1991 until around 1999, ‘accompany or join’ was the most important reason given by female respondents to the IPS. This reason has gradually decreased in importance for women, reaching a similar level as ‘definite job’ and ‘looking for work’ from 2000 onwards (Table A5.1).
- Unsurprisingly, ‘accompany or join’ was the reason for emigration given by all of those under 15 year olds who provided a reason (12,000 or 86% of a total of 14,000 under 15s emigrating in 2010), who would almost all be emigrating with their parents. The remaining 2,000 under 15 year olds did not provide a reason for emigrating (Table A5.2).
- ‘Formal study’ was the reason given by an estimated six per cent (17,000) of those emigrating in 2011 who gave a reason. Those emigrating for ‘formal study’ in 2010 were, in the main, aged between 15 and 24 years and just over half (58%) were female.
- There are no IPS estimates specifically of people emigrating from the UK for retirement but an estimated 4,000 people who emigrated in 2010 were of current UK retirement age. They were all British citizens. Three-quarters of those in this age group who emigrated in 2010 declined to give a reason for emigrating (Table A5.2). Some of those emigrants in the 45-to-59/64-years age group are also likely to be taking early retirement but it is not possible to estimate their number from the IPS data.

The proportions giving the different reasons for emigration differed between British, and EU and non-EU emigrants from the UK as shown in Table 8 (further detail in Tables A5.3, A5.4 and A5.5).

A fairly similar proportion of British, EU and non-EU citizens were emigrating for a definite job, but ‘looking for work’ was much less frequently mentioned by British citizens than by EU or non-EU citizens. This may be related to the higher proportion of people from professional or managerial occupations within the British group.

Table 8. Emigrants from the UK: Reasons by citizenship group (IPS: 2002 to 2011 combined)

Reason for emigration	British citizens		EU citizens		Non-EU citizens	
	Thousands	Per cent	Thousands	Per cent	Thousands	Per cent
Definite job	527	40%	179	39%	319	35%
Looking for work	240	18%	157	34%	385	42%
Accompany or join	304	23%	41	9%	109	12%
Formal study	57	4%	60	13%	55	6%
Other	178	14%	26	6%	44	5%
All reasons	1,306		463		912	

Note: Those who did not provide a reason for emigration are excluded from this table.

A higher proportion of EU citizens, compared to other groups, were emigrating for formal study and a higher proportion of British citizens gave ‘accompany or join’ as a reason, in comparison with EU and non-EU citizens.

In view of these differences, the reasons for British, EU and non-EU citizens’ emigration from the UK are analysed here separately.

British citizens’ reasons for emigration

British citizens who emigrated from the UK over the last 20 years have mainly done so to work or to accompany or join someone. However, the proportion leaving to accompany or join someone else has been falling over the decade.

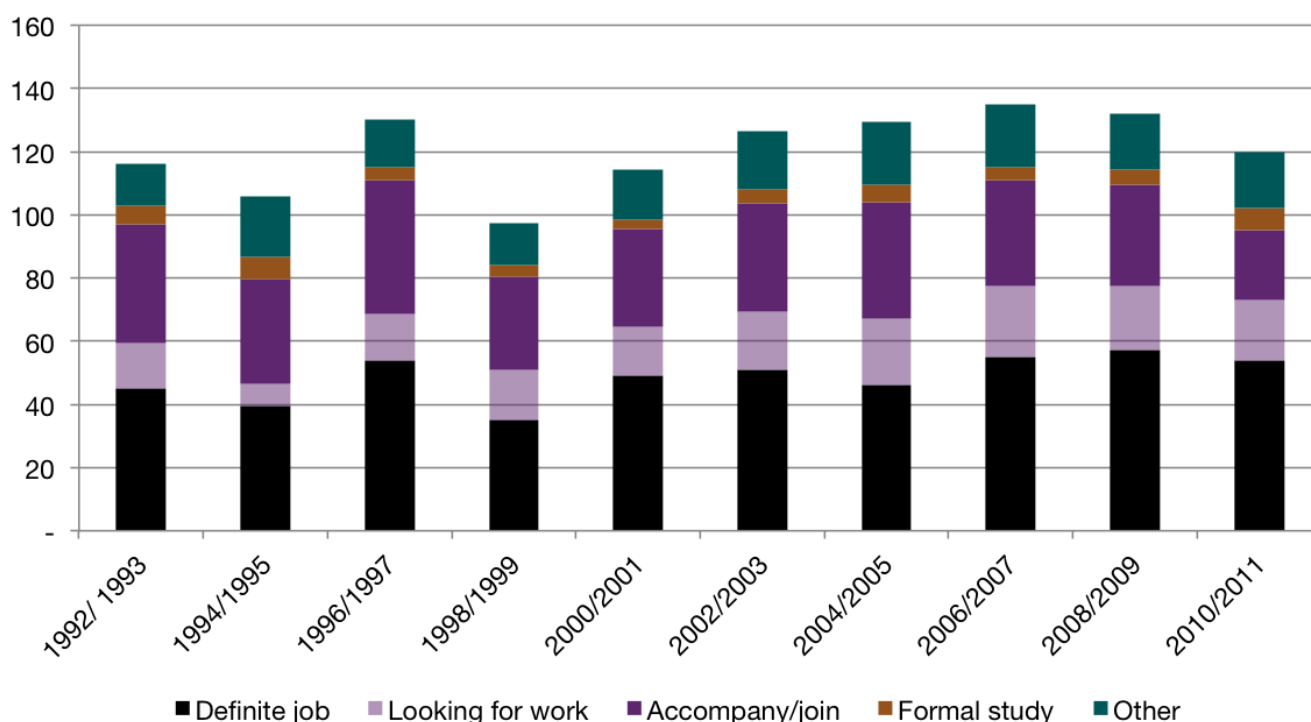
Emigration for work

Of the British citizens who emigrated over the 2000–2010 period and gave a reason for moving, those who had previously worked in ‘professional or managerial’ occupations were the most likely to be emigrating to take up a definite job. Sixty-one per cent of this group moved for a definite job, compared with 38 per cent who had previously worked in manual or clerical occupations and 25 per cent of those who had been students (Table A5.6).

In the same period, only 16 per cent of British citizens from professional or managerial professions who gave a reason for emigrating, were emigrating to look for work (that is, did not have a definite job to go to). Amongst those who had previously been in manual or clerical occupations, 25 per

cent were emigrating to look for work. Of those who had been students and who gave a reason for emigrating, 13 per cent said they were seeking work.

Figure 13. Reasons for emigration amongst British citizens leaving, yearly average for two-year periods 1992–2011 (IPS)



Note: In 1995 responses for 'looking for work' were incorporated into the 'other' category.

The top three destinations for British citizens emigrating over the decade 2000–10 for a 'definite job' were: Australia (92,000), USA (72,000) and Spain (44,000) (Table A5.7).

For those British emigrants 'looking for work' during the same period, top destinations were: Australia (96,000), New Zealand (26,000) and Spain (16,000).

A review of the literature on emigration for work identified studies referring to three types of work migration associated with British citizens moving abroad:

- Setting up a business or work within the existing British emigrant community (such as building, hairdressing, or running a guest house).
- Intra-company transfers (mainly for periods of less than four years).
- Emigrating within a specific, skilled career.

Those who emigrated to set up a business or work within the emigrant community were mainly emigrating for 'lifestyle' purposes (O'Reilly, 2000b). Emigrants utilised the capital from high UK property prices and low destination costs to gain access to a less pressured lifestyle in a higher

quality environment and better climate than that available in the UK (Benson, 2010, 2011). The disparity between high UK property prices and low property prices in some countries of destination meant that emigrants could afford to buy a property abroad, sometimes without a mortgage, and use the equity to set up a small business in the destination country (Drake and Collard, 2008).

Those emigrating as intra-company transfers were moving to improve their career prospects. Large transnational corporations (TNCs) are one of the outcomes of the effects of globalisation on company structures. Within TNCs preferences have changed toward frequent short-term non-permanent transfers of company staff over long-term, permanent migration (Beaverstock, 2005). In this group, the traditional 'expat' is being replaced by the 'nomadic' worker. TNC intra-company transfers are becoming more frequent between global cities and within groups of highly skilled transnational service professionals. This is having consequences for the inward flow of foreign skilled workers to the UK, as well as for British emigrants.

Emigration for specialist career advancement has been studied with a particular focus on the careers of scientists (Harvey, 2011), academics (Richardson and Mallon, 2005) and pharmacists (Hassell et al., 2008). Emigration within a specific career was driven by a combination of factors. Some scientists reported moving as a result of an intra-company transfer or for postdoctoral research opportunities. For all groups, international moves helped to advance careers while improving lifestyle, 'adventure' and family reasons were also a driver for some emigrants.

Emigration to accompany or join someone

Over the ten years between 2000 and 2010, the top destinations for those British citizens whose main reason for emigrating was to accompany or join someone were: Australia (for 92,000 British emigrants), Germany (for 41,000 British emigrants) and USA (for 40,000 British emigrants) (Table A5.7).

Emigration for 'formal study'

Of the British citizens emigrating in 2010 who gave a reason for their move, just seven per cent said they were going abroad for 'formal study' (Table A5.3b).

Findlay and King (2010) were commissioned by the Department for Business, Innovation and Skills to conduct a survey of UK students studying abroad. They found that the main motivations for emigrating to study were: to attend a world-class university; that study outside the UK was an opportunity for adventure; as the first step towards an international career; in response to limited places in the UK; high student fees in the UK; and family encouragement to study outside the UK. To date, this is the largest survey undertaken of UK students studying abroad.

Findlay and King's (2010) report found that for British students emigrating to study, the most popular destinations, in order of importance, were the USA, Ireland, Australia, France and Germany. IPS estimates between 2000 and 2010 also suggest that over this period top destinations of British citizens whose main reason for emigrating was 'formal study' were the USA and Australia (although the numbers each year are small).

A study by Brooks and Walters (2009) found that some undergraduate students saw emigration as a second chance to gain admission to high-quality universities, if they had not been offered places in the best UK universities, while postgraduate students were attracted abroad by research funding opportunities they had not been able to find in the UK. An article in the Sunday Times (March, 2012) reported interviews with British students who were considering applying to study at the University of Maastricht and those who were already studying there. Some were attracted mainly by the lower fees and living costs but others liked the teaching style and were impressed by the high proportion of their graduates going straight into graduate-level jobs. The University of Maastricht reported substantial increases in applications from British students in the last few years, although no exact figures were provided.

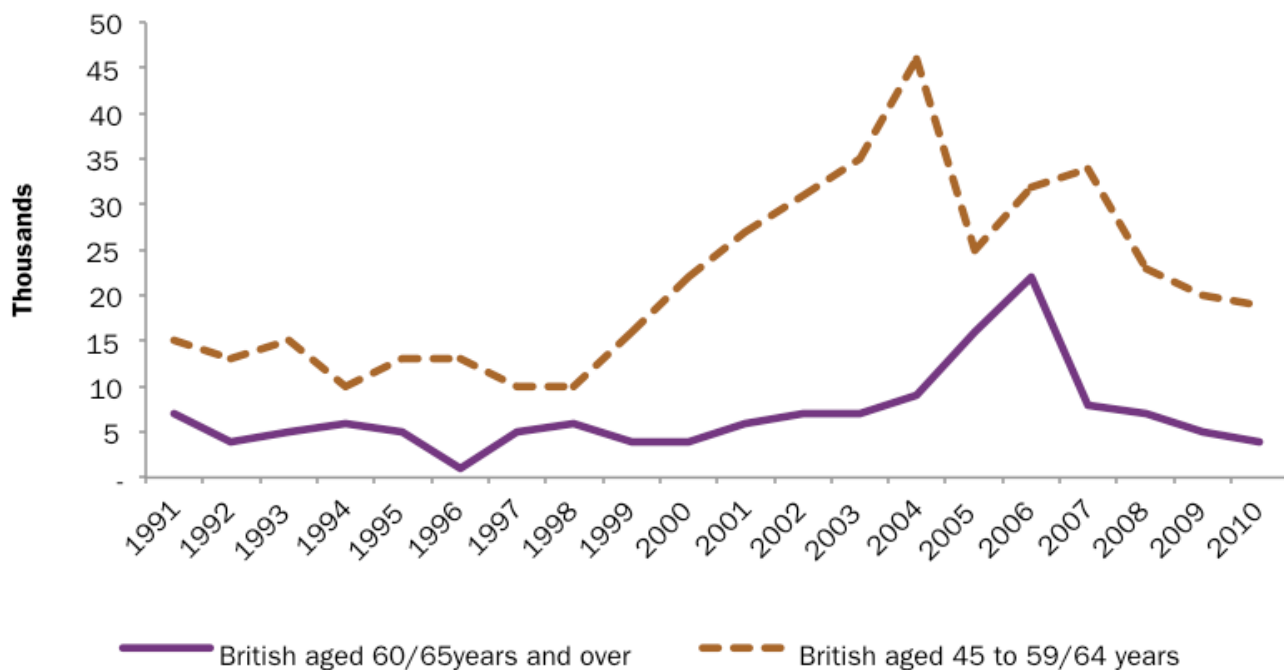
Retirement

There are no IPS estimates specifically of people emigrating from the UK for retirement but an estimated 4,000 people who emigrated in 2010 were aged 60 years or over (for women) or 65 or over (for men). Numbers of British people over current retirement age emigrating from the UK increased sharply in 2005 and 2006, to a peak of 22,000 in 2006 before falling back to previous levels of between 4,000 and 8,000 each year (Figure 14), perhaps reflecting the fall in the value of the pound after 2006, although these estimates are also based on relatively small sample sizes and so annual fluctuations could be deceptive.

Some of those emigrants in the 45-to-59/64-years age group are also likely to be taking early retirement but it is not possible to identify them from the IPS.

The largest numbers of UK pensioners living abroad are in Australia, Canada and the USA. This reflects not only those retiring abroad recently but those who settled in these countries years ago and who have now reached retirement age. A survey by Finch et al. (2010) suggested that the proportion of UK pensioners living abroad increased from 7.6 per cent of UK pensioners in 2000 to 9.2 per cent in 2009. Finch et al. (2010) reported the highest rates of growth for British pensioners emigrating to be in France, Spain and Italy, although, as already described, these rates slowed after 2006.

Figure 14. Emigration from the UK by British citizens in older age groups, 1991 to 2010 (IPS, thousands)



Note: These estimates have large standard errors and therefore figures for individual years may be unreliable.

The motivation for retirement emigration of UK citizens to southern Europe has been researched more widely than for retirement emigration to other destinations. Researchers found that retirement emigration to southern Europe was fuelled by the difference in property prices and familiarity with the area from British mass tourism to these areas (King et al., 2000). The main reasons the retirees gave for migrating to southern Europe were to enjoy the better climate and physical environment of the area, while still being within easy access from the UK (Warnes et al., 1999, Casado-Díaz, 2006, O'Reilly, 2000a, Rodríguez et al., 1998).

Drivers of British emigration

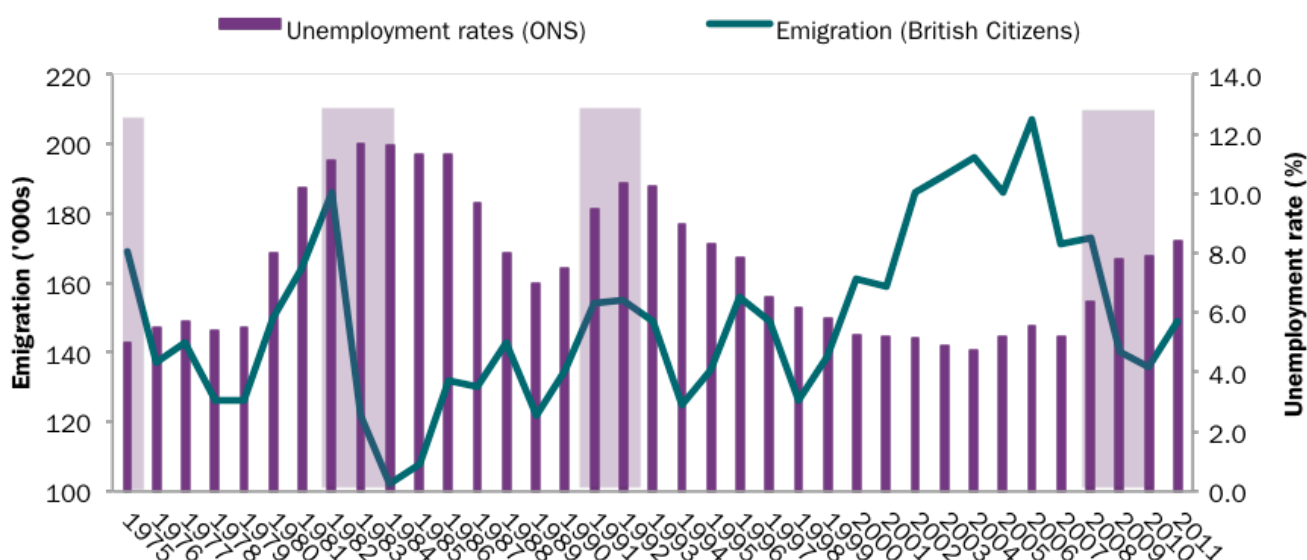
When thinking about why British people emigrate there is not only the question of what the person is intending to do abroad (e.g. to work, retire or study) but also why they go when they do. The emigration decision can be looked at as comprising the incentive to emigrate and the capacity to emigrate and depends on the overall costs and benefits of migration. Unemployment and other economic variables can be seen as a contributor to the incentive to migrate, but also as a determinant of the capacity to migrate, i.e. unemployment may motivate an individual to migrate to look for a job but also deprive them of the resources needed to move to another country. If they have those resources in place despite being unemployed (as they might in the case of a funded redundancy), they can use them to emigrate in search of other employment. Previous research including Hatton (2003), Dustmann and Weiss (2007) and Mitchell and Riley (2011) supports the importance of economic variables in emigration decisions.

Economic conditions and immigration policies in the receiving country, family or other connections and other factors will also affect the migration decision. Also, different economic factors may specifically affect emigration for a particular purpose more than for other reasons. For example, unemployment may affect emigration for work reasons whereas relative exchange rates may have more impact on those retiring abroad. These complex effects may make it difficult to see the impact of any single factor on overall emigration numbers. The section that follows attempts to explore some of these issues, but should be seen as descriptive analysis only as no detailed statistical analysis was conducted to test for causation.

The evidence presented below does suggest that UK unemployment might be closely associated with emigration levels for British citizens, particularly to Spain and other EU15 countries. British emigration has tended to decrease when unemployment in the UK was high or growing, and has tended to increase when unemployment in the UK was low or falling. Changes in the relative value of currencies may also contribute to emigration trends.

Long-term trends in British emigration show some relationship between emigration and economic conditions, such as the unemployment rate and recession, as the largest variations in emigration have occurred around times of recession (shaded in Figure 15), or in the lead up to recessions. High unemployment and periods of recession, for example in 2008 to 2009, have tended to coincide with lower levels of British emigration.

Figure 15. British emigration against UK unemployment and recessions, 1975 to 2011

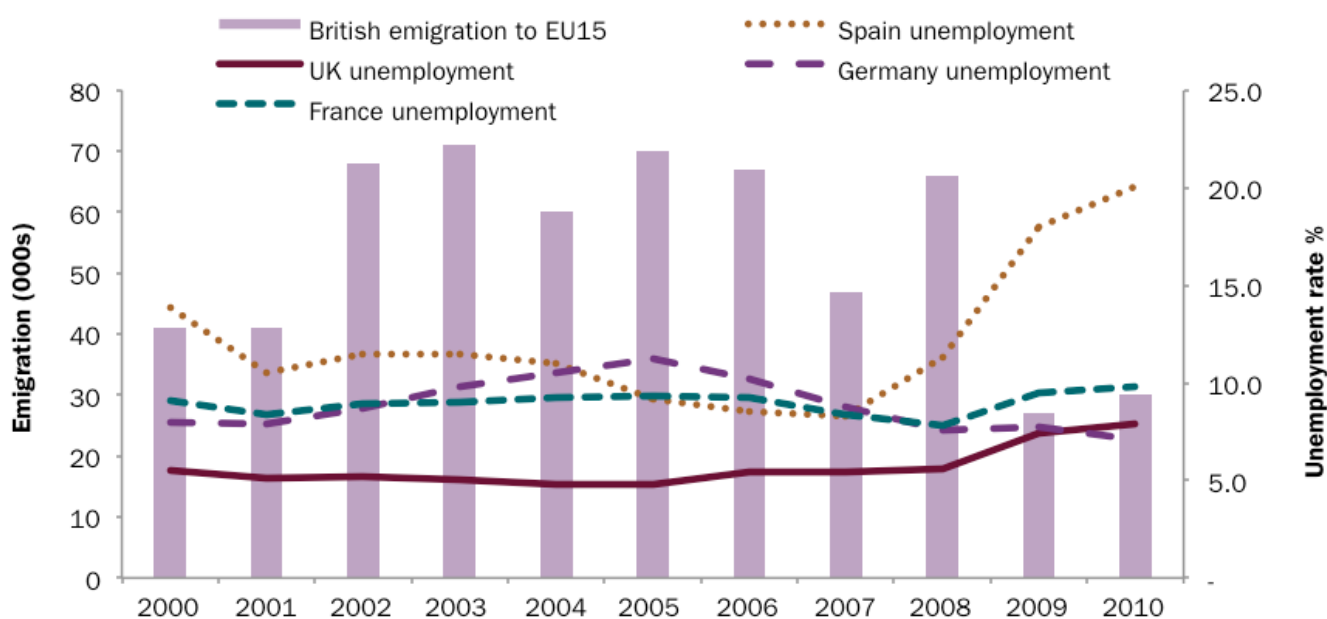


Source: LTIM estimates of British emigration levels, ONS unemployment rates, 1975-2011.

This may appear counter-intuitive at first, but it suggests that in terms of economic factors the capacity, or income, effect may be more important than the incentive effect, i.e. that low unemployment suggests a higher stock of the population with the capacity to emigrate giving a broadly inverse relationship between unemployment rates and British emigration. Put another way, in a time of unemployment individuals' first priority may be to secure some employment at home, and only then when receiving an income will they be able to plan and resource a move abroad.

Given differences in legal restrictions, proximity and the existing stocks of British citizens in the EU15, emigration of British citizens to the EU15 might have different drivers compared to those influencing decisions to migrate elsewhere, such as the USA or Australia. Figure 16 shows British emigration to the EU15 fell significantly from 2008 after unemployment in France and Spain rose, most significantly for Spain, which may explain a large part of the fall in British emigration in recent years. At its peak in 2005-06, 37 per cent of British emigration was to other countries in the European Union, and 15 per cent of total British emigration (or 41% of British emigration to EU countries) was to Spain.

Figure 16. British emigration to the EU15 and unemployment rates, 2000 to 2010



Source: International Passenger Survey (IPS) – Office for National Statistics and IMF (unemployment rates), 2000–10.

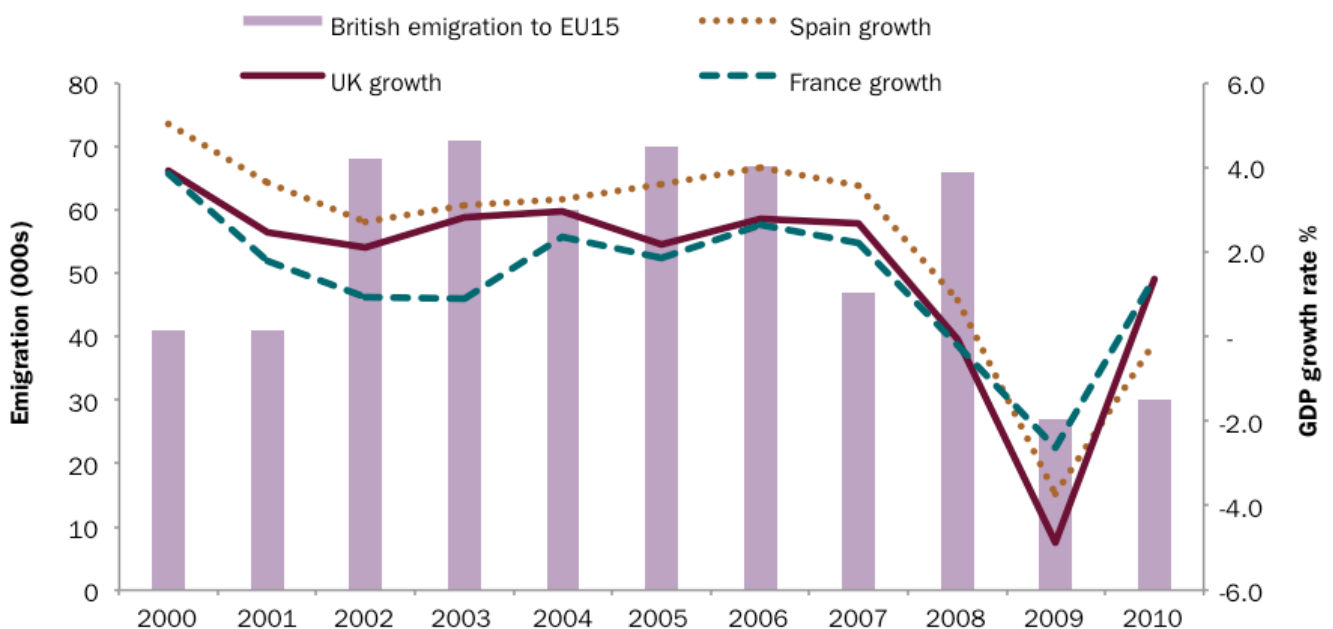
Australia received 22 per cent of British nationals who emigrated over the period 2000–10 and has consistently been the most popular destination for British emigrants over the last few decades. A sustained low and falling level of UK and Australian unemployment from 2000 to 2006 coincided with large outflows of British citizens to Australia, reaching an estimated 49,000 in 2006. From 2006, British emigration to Australia declined, as UK unemployment rates increased, falling to 28,000 in 2010 – the lowest number of British national emigrants to Australia since 2002 (Figure A1 in Appendix 3).

In contrast, there appears to be little relationship between British emigration to the US and unemployment between 2000 and 2010. This may be because emigration to the US is driven by other factors such as immigration policy in the US, family ties or the opportunities available in the US regardless of general economic conditions (Figure A2 in Appendix 3).

Overall, there appears to have been some long-running link between British emigration and the level of unemployment in the UK, although this appears strongest for British emigrants to the EU15, in particular to Spain and France in the mid- to late-2000s.

Looking at other economic measures, such as growth rates, draws similar conclusions. From 2002 through to about 2006–07, British emigration rose dramatically, despite relatively similar growth rates in other key European countries, implying that the general strength of the receiving economies might be of limited importance in this respect and that other drivers such as family networks or migration policy may have a stronger influence on emigration, at least within the EU. British emigration reached the lowest point in 20 years during the recession in 2009, possibly due both to low capacity to emigrate and low job opportunities across the EU15. British emigration to the EU15 also fell significantly in 2009 at the same time as there were large reductions in GDP growth in the UK and in other key European economies.

Figure 17. British emigration to EU15 and GDP growth, 2000 to 2010



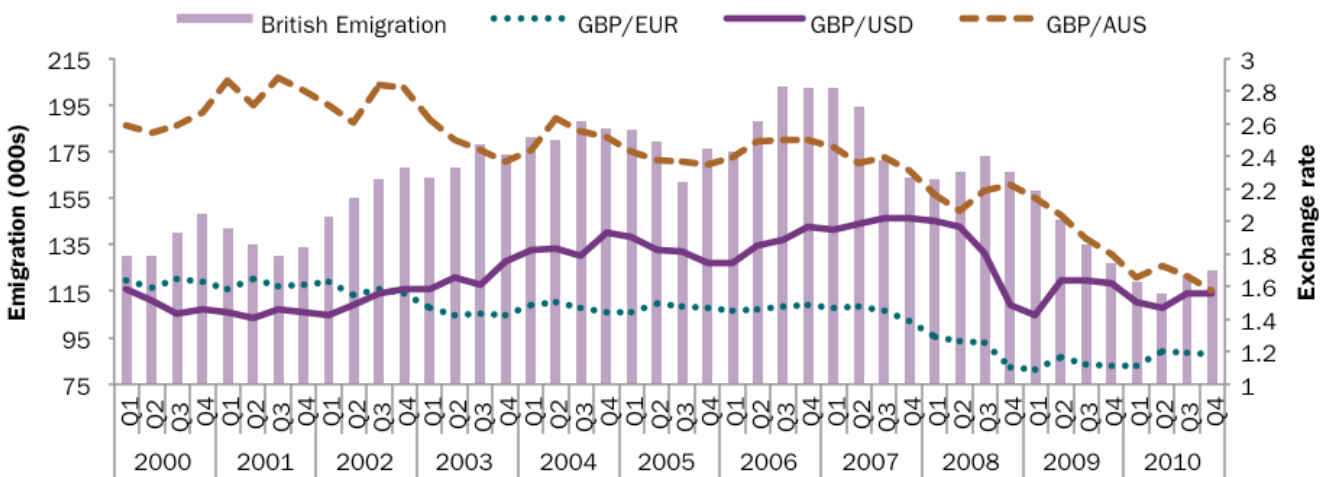
Source: International Passenger Survey (IPS) - Office for National Statistics and IMF (growth rates), 2000–10.

For outflows of British nationals to Australia and the US (two other key destination countries), there appears to be no clear relationship between GDP growth and emigration (Figures A3 and A4 in Appendix 3).

Overall, there does not appear to be a close relationship between British emigration and relative growth rates across the key destinations assessed.

Decisions to emigrate may be influenced by exchange rates as these affect the value of savings and relative purchasing power from income earned overseas (see Dustmann and Weiss, 2007). Data from 2000 to 2010 suggest that sustained falls in British emigration since 2007 have been mirrored by the depreciation of the pound against the Australian dollar, the Euro and the US dollar (Figure 18).

Figure 18. British emigration and relative exchange rates (Australian dollar, US dollar and Euro), 2000 to 2010



Source: International Passenger Survey (IPS) – Office for National Statistics and Oanda (exchange rates), 2000–10

It is difficult to examine these relationships at a more disaggregated level due to the relatively small sample size of the IPS data and therefore high risk of sampling variation blurring some of the changes in the estimates. It is also clear that people’s decisions to move country are the product of a range of factors, of which the relative value of currency is only one. However, trends in British emigration to Australia, the EU15 and US against exchange rates are shown in Figures A5, A6 and A7 in Appendix 3, and lend some support to exchange rates being linked to changes in emigration over the 2000s – but this relationship is not necessarily causal as exchange rates may be correlated with other economic conditions.

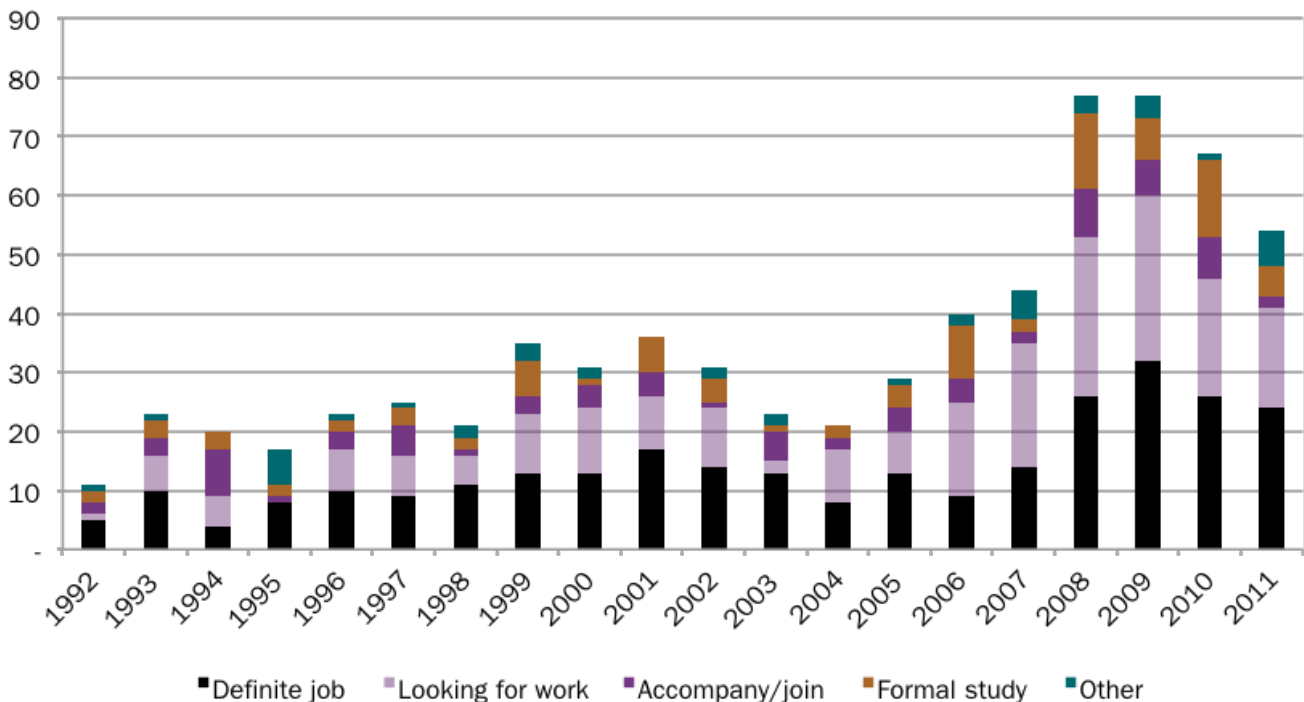
EU citizens' reasons for emigration (excluding British citizens)

Most EU citizens leaving the UK to reside in another country for more than a year went to other EU countries and they appeared to be mainly returning home.

The main growth in emigration of EU citizens from the UK over the last two decades has been amongst those leaving for work reasons, either to take up definite jobs or looking for work, as can be seen in Figure 19.

EU migrants coming to the UK for work (and a larger proportion of EU migrants are coming for work compared to non-EU migrants) are able to move back to EU countries relatively easily in the event of deteriorating economic conditions in the UK. The proximity, improved and cheaper travel, favourable policy environment (freedom of movement) and other reasons such as family connections mean that we might expect greater circular migration from EU migrants. Since accession in 2004 a large number of EU8 citizens entered the UK looking for work. In subsequent years, we also saw a significant outflow of EU8 citizens returning to EU member states, mainly the EU8 countries – again implying return migration.

Figure 19. Main reasons for emigration amongst EU citizens leaving the UK, 1992–2011 (IPS, thousands)

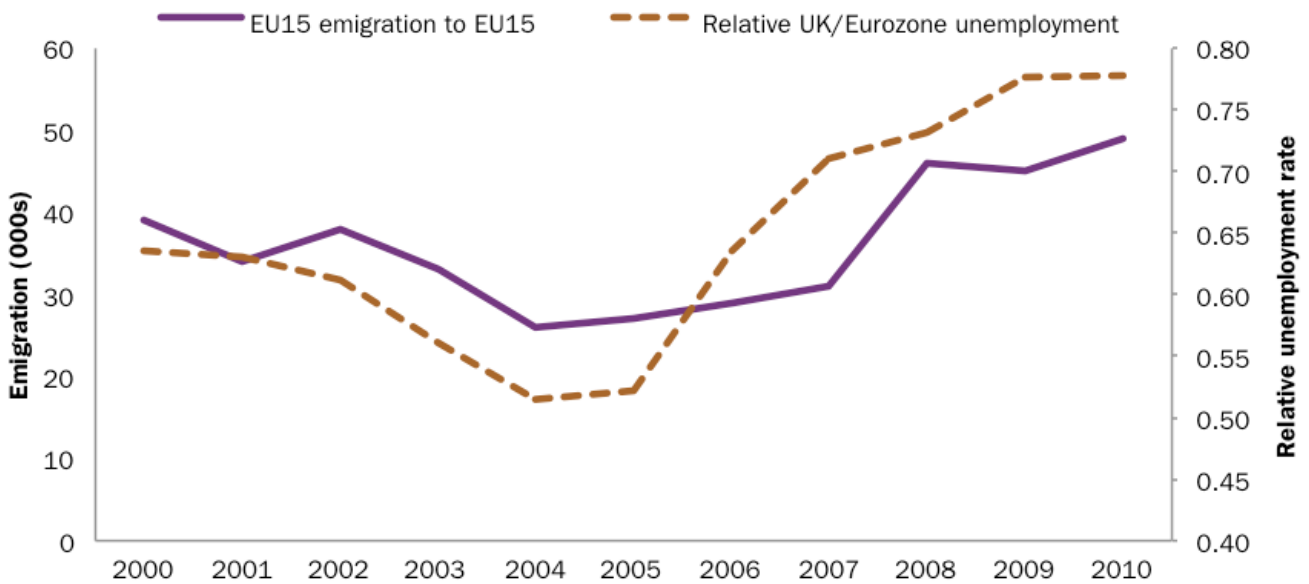


Note: In 1995 responses for 'looking for work' were incorporated into the 'other' category.

Drivers of EU15 emigration

Figure 20 shows the trend in emigration of EU15 citizens to the EU15 against the ratio of UK to Eurozone unemployment rates (note – we use Eurozone unemployment rates rather than EU unemployment rates as EU rates include information for the UK and EU8 countries, whereas Eurozone estimates do not). From 2004, UK unemployment rates increased relative to those experienced in the Eurozone as a whole, and soon after emigration of EU15 citizens to the EU15 also increased.

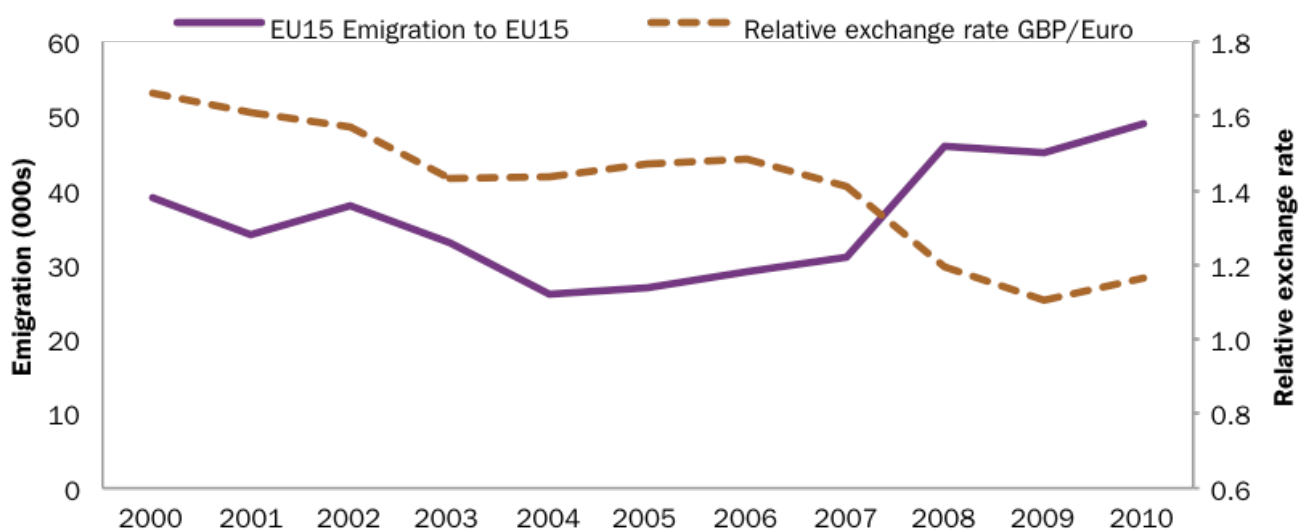
Figure 20. EU15 emigration to EU15 and relative unemployment rates, 2000 to 2010



Source: International Passenger Survey (IPS) – Office for National Statistics and IMF (unemployment rates), 2000–10.

Figure 21 shows emigration of EU15 citizens to the EU15 against the UK/Euro exchange rate. The data show some signs of an inverse relationship, although this is not obvious until more recent years when there were larger changes in currency values. As the value of the British pound fell relative to the Euro after 2006, there was a marked rise in EU15 emigration to other EU15 countries – a possible sign of return migration by EU15 migrants, possibly in response to both conditions in the UK economy or changes in the relative value of their savings in their home country.

Figure 21. EU15 emigration to EU15 and UK/Euro exchange rate, 2000 to 2010



Source: International Passenger Survey (IPS) – Office for National Statistics and Oanda (exchange rates), 2000–10.

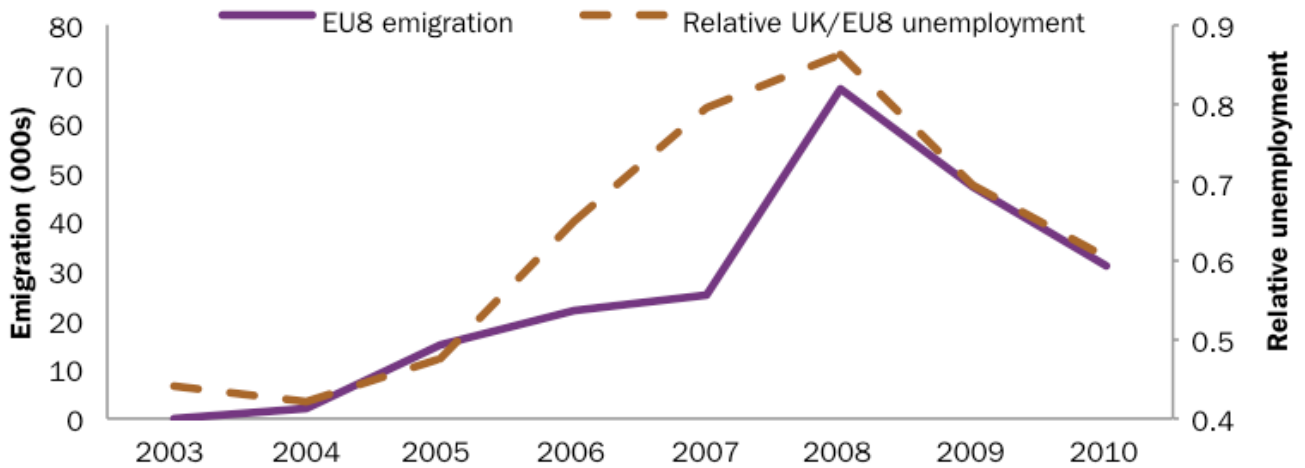
Drivers of EU8 emigration

Migrants from the new member states of the EU following the 2004 Accession have high employment rates in the UK and their main reason for coming is for work. Similarly, the main reason for their emigration was for work (mainly looking for work). A large majority reported their main occupation as manual and clerical, in line with the profile of immigration from the EU8 to the UK since 2004. The average ratio of outflows to inflows between 2005 and 2010 for EU8 migrants was 0.5, but this rose to 0.9 in 2009, probably due to the economic downturn. This might suggest that a large proportion of EU8 citizens who came to the UK looking for work returned to their home country and this proportion increased once the economic situation in the UK declined.

In a study conducted at the start of the UK recession (Igllicka, 2009) Polish return migration was found to be driven by individuals losing their jobs in the UK. However, earlier research, conducted prior to the recession (Finch et al., 2009) suggested motives for return of Polish migrants were more personal, such as missing home and family, and a better quality of life.

Figure 22 shows emigration of EU8 citizens peaked at just over 60,000 in 2008, the same year that relative UK unemployment was at its highest relative to the EU8 economies. The relationship appears strong, unsurprisingly given the high proportions of this group who came to the UK for work-related reasons, implying that relative unemployment rates could be strongly associated with emigration of EU8 citizens.

Figure 22: EU8 emigration and relative unemployment rates, 2003 to 2010

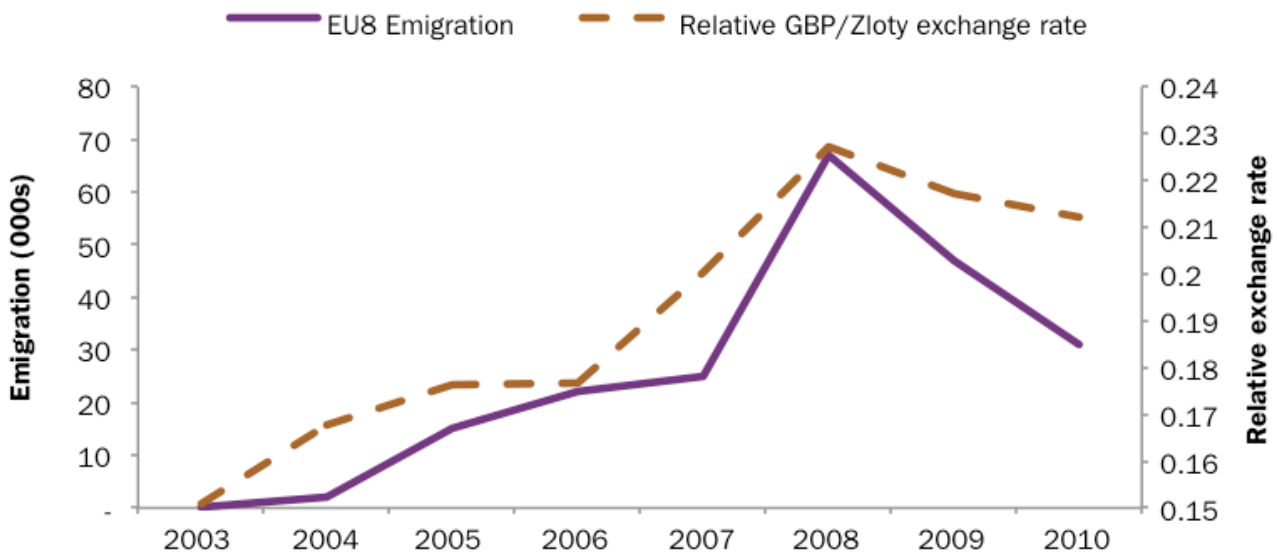


Source: International Passenger Survey (IPS) – Office for National Statistics and Eurostat (unemployment rates)

Figure 23 shows a similar correlation between EU8 emigration and the GBP/Polish zloty exchange rate. National Insurance Number registration (NINo) data (DWP, 2012) suggest around 60 per cent of EU8 migrants who registered for an NINo in the UK between 2002/03 and 2011/12 were Poles, and changes in the Polish currency are likely therefore to be the dominant influence on EU8 migration from currency changes.¹⁶ As the Polish zloty appreciated against the pound between 2004 and 2008 (diminishing the value of income, savings and remittances in the UK), emigration of EU8 citizens increased. A subsequent depreciation in the Polish zloty against the British pound from 2008 onward was almost immediately reflected in a decline in EU8 emigration.

¹⁶ NINo data for EU8 countries and calculations are shown in Appendix 2, 'EU8 NINo data'.

Figure 23: EU8 emigration and relative exchange rates, 2003 to 2010



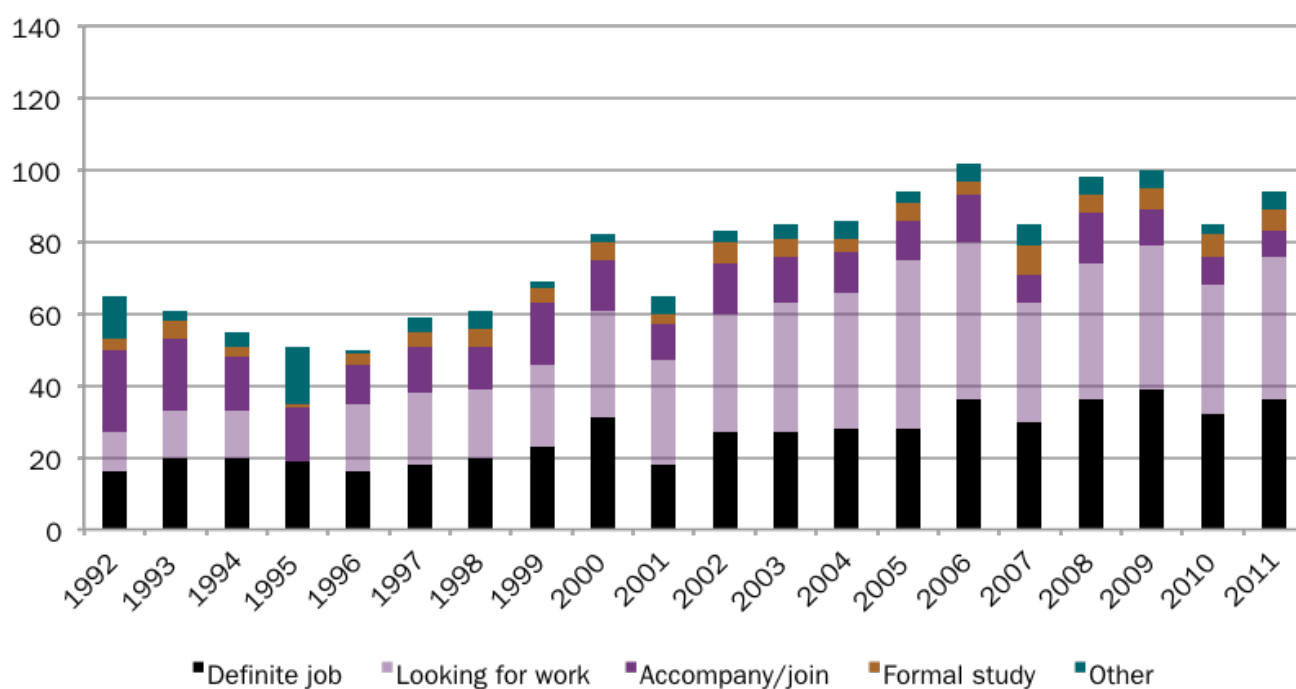
Source: International Passenger Survey (IPS) – Office for National Statistics and Oanda (exchange rates)

However, the latter change in EU8 migration occurred at the same time as the UK began to suffer from a recession and it is difficult to disentangle these two effects. Being relatively close to their home country, migrants from the EU8 countries can also easily return home if they lose their job, finish studying, or want to rejoin their family.

Non-EU citizens' reasons for emigration

IPS estimates show that most non-EU citizens migrating from the UK are returning to the areas they came from, similarly to EU citizens, and can therefore be regarded as return migrants. However, non-EU migrants come to the UK for a wider variety of reasons and the numbers emigrating will vary considerably depending on whether they are coming to the UK for work, family or study. Whilst some non-EU migrants will be intending to leave the UK at some point, perhaps after a skilled job contract ends or their studies are completed, others may have an intention to stay longer term. The numbers of non-EU long-term migrants leaving the UK are considerably lower than the numbers arriving suggesting that a significant proportion choose to remain in the UK. Those who choose to leave are predominantly doing so for work-related reasons, either because they have a job offer or to look for work (77% of those non-EU nationals emigrating from the UK between 2002 and 2011 gave work as the main reason).

Figure 24. Main reasons for emigration amongst non-EU citizens leaving the UK, 1992–2011 (IPS, thousands)



Note: In 1995 responses for 'looking for work' were incorporated into the 'other' category.

Academic research on return migration (defined as non-British emigration from the UK by Finch et al., 2009) has focused on several distinct groups of emigrants from the UK. One group was emigrants returning to the Caribbean after migrating to the UK in the 1950s and 1960s (Potter and Philips, 2005). Return emigration to the Caribbean was usually in later life and motivated by a desire to return 'home' after a full working life in the UK. Such return migrants might have obtained British citizenship and if so would be included in the IPS estimates of British emigrants. Family links and a better quality of life were key drivers for this group of return emigrants and many had intended returning home sooner than they eventually did (Horst, 2007). Numbers of people emigrating to return to their country of origin in retirement appear to be fairly low. IPS estimates show an average of around 8,000 (British and non-British) people of UK retirement age emigrated from the UK each year between 1991 and 2010.¹⁷

Research conducted with those returning to New Zealand after short periods in the UK revealed different motives. Most had come to the UK on two-year working holiday visas and had not intended to stay longer (Williams, Chaban and Holland, 2011). The Youth Mobility Scheme allows young people from a small number of select countries (currently Australia, Canada, Japan, New Zealand, Monaco, Taiwan and Korea) to stay in the UK for up to two years (UK Border Agency, 2012). This makes migration for these groups more attractive and feasible, and the scheme seems to be used as intended, with high return rates within the selected nationalities.

17 There were large standard errors around these estimates.

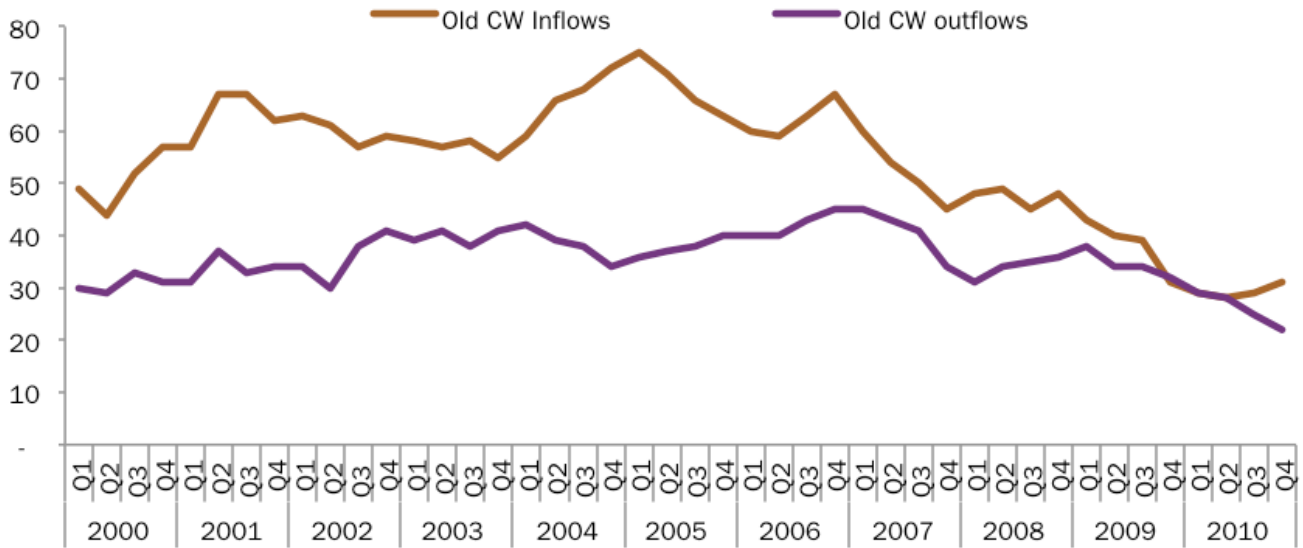
Drivers of non-EU citizen emigration

Restrictions on non-EU migrants, as well as lack of proximity, make migration to and from non-EU countries considerably more difficult and costly than British and EU migration within the EU. By its nature, therefore, we would not expect flows to be as responsive to short-run changes in relative GDP growth and unemployment rates, though we might perhaps anticipate a relationship with exchange rates which affect the overall costs of migration and the value of income and savings overseas.

Non-EU emigration patterns are likely to vary significantly between different citizenship groups, for example between the relatively wealthy Old Commonwealth countries (such as Australia, South Africa, New Zealand and Canada) and New Commonwealth countries (such as India, Pakistan and Bangladesh). The next sections look at two of the largest non-EU groups identified in the migration statistics – Old and New Commonwealth – to compare immigration and emigration trends, although it is important to note that sample sizes at this level of disaggregation are small and so small changes could be misleading. Other important groups in non-EU emigration include the US and China which are included in the Other-Foreign group and are not discussed here.

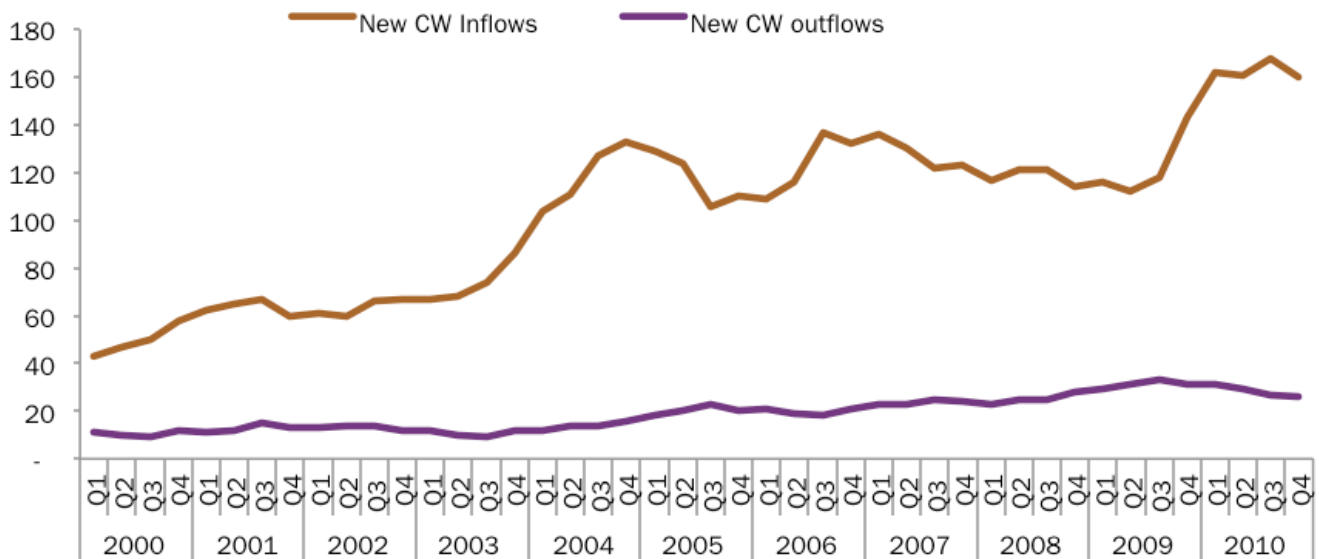
The pattern of emigration of Old Commonwealth citizens followed the pattern of immigration from Old Commonwealth countries relatively well over the same time period, and the gap between inflows and outflows decreased over time, implying higher circular or return migration (Figure 25). Levels of emigration of New Commonwealth citizens, in contrast, have not closely followed levels of immigration from New Commonwealth countries between 2000 and 2010 (Figure 26). This indicates that a high proportion of New Commonwealth immigrants decide to stay and settle in the UK. This reinforces evidence set out in the Migrant Journey report (Achato et al., 2011), suggesting nationals from New Commonwealth countries, in particular from India, Pakistan and Bangladesh, have higher propensities to settle in the UK. Levels of Other-Foreign emigration also appear to follow previous levels of immigration from Other-Foreign citizens, although the settlement and return rates are likely to vary across key nationalities, such as the US and China.

Figure 25 Old Commonwealth immigration and emigration to and from the UK, 2000 to 2010



Source: International Passenger Survey (IPS) – Office for National Statistics, 2000–10

Figure 26 New Commonwealth immigration and emigration to and from the UK, 2000 to 2010



Source: International Passenger Survey (IPS) – Office for National Statistics, 2000–10

It is possible these patterns could also be explained both by the characteristics of the migrants from these country groups and by the migration policy context in the UK. Skilled work schemes, UK ancestry and the Youth Mobility Scheme, for example, may facilitate more migration from

higher-skilled and/or young Old Commonwealth migrants and allow higher circular migration than for New Commonwealth citizens. It may be that the more recent migration of New Commonwealth citizens, coming to the UK as students, will be more circular in nature.

There does not appear to be evidence of a strong relationship between Old Commonwealth or New Commonwealth emigration and relative economic conditions such as unemployment and relative growth (see Figures A8 to A13 in Appendix 3). The costs of migration (given the distance), or factors such as returning to family and friends and immigration policies across countries, are more likely to play a more significant role in the emigration decisions for these groups.

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Appendix 2. Data sources and methods

Migration into and out of the UK

IPS estimates and LTIM (flows into and out of the UK)

The IPS is a face-to-face survey of randomly sampled passengers entering and leaving the UK by air, sea or the Channel Tunnel.

The most reliable estimates of UK immigration and emigration are Long-Term International Migration (LTIM) estimates which are based mainly on the International Passenger Survey (IPS) estimates, augmented with data on passengers travelling to and from Northern Ireland and those seeking asylum and their dependants, and adjusting for people who stay for longer or shorter periods than they planned, thus switching their status from visitor to migrant or vice versa. The estimates used are from documents and tables on international migration produced by the Office for National Statistics, available on the UK Statistics Publications Hub.

Provisional estimates for migration by citizenship and main reason for migration for the year ending December 2011 are from the tables linked to the following report.

Migration Statistics Quarterly Report – August 2012

Released: 30 August 2012

All other reported estimates are from the tables linked to the report 'Long-term international migration, November 2010' released on 22 November 2011.

These are:

- Long-term International Migration: 2 Series – LTIM, 2010
- Long-term international Migration: 3 Series – IPS Calendar Year, 2010

The estimates are available in tables with standard errors to indicate the level of reliability of the estimates. There is also a document explaining the IPS methodology in more detail.

All can be found at the following address:

<http://www.ons.gov.uk/ons/publications/re-reference-tables.html?edition=tcm%3A77-235198>

The estimates relate to 'long-term migrants' using the following definition from the United Nations Statistics Division (1998): 'long-term migrants are persons who move to a country other than that of their usual residence for a period of at least one year, so that the country of destination effectively becomes their new country of usual residence'.

Stocks of British living abroad

a) UN Population Division and OECD data

Estimates are based on the database of the UN Population Division (UNPD) which is the most comprehensive source of information on international migrant stocks for the period 1960–2010 (UNPD, 2009). Preliminary efforts to estimate bilateral migration data include data by Harrison (2004), the University of Sussex data originally constructed for the Global Trade Analysis Project trade modelling, and data by the Development Prospects Group of the World Bank used for estimating South–South migration and remittance flows (Ratha and Shaw, 2007). Parsons et al. (2007) have created a “composite” matrix that contains estimates of bilateral migrant stocks for 226 x 226 countries. Because these data were constructed for modelling purposes, Parsons et al. use a variety of assumptions to make total immigrant stock add up to total emigrant stock. The bilateral migration matrix which set out migration between a large set of countries (Ratha and Shaw, 2007) was updated using data from various sources such as national censuses compiled by the UNPD (2010), the International Migration Database (OECD, 2010), and where the most recent census data was from 2000 censuses it was supplemented or updated with data from national level labour surveys and population surveys, where available. These were usually from around 2005–2007. Details of data used are described in this document.

<http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTPROSPECTS/Resources/334934-1199807908806/FactbookDataNotes.pdf>

b) Estimates from ‘Brits Abroad, mapping the scale and nature of British emigration ’ by Dhananjayan Sriskandarajah and Catherine Drew (IPPR, 2006)

The report contains the following explanation of the methodology used to arrive at their estimates of stocks of Britons living abroad.

‘Where robust and official time series data (either census or annual population surveys) does exist, we have, where necessary, updated it in line with previous rates of growth or decline to estimate 2006 volumes of British people living overseas. In Spain, France and Portugal, where there is evidence of high rates of non-registration, we have further increased the official numbers of the British population in popular holiday destinations in line with estimates of non-registration and other data (note: An estimated two-thirds of British expatriates living permanently in Spain do not register with the local authorities (Huber and O’Reilly, 2004)).

Where there is accurate official data but trends cannot be calculated, we have generally extrapolated a 2006 estimate of British people living permanently overseas using the growth rate in the number of UK state pensioners in that country. Where official data are absent, inaccurate or out of date and where UK state pensions data are too small or inappropriate to use, we have generally used an estimate of the number of British passports issued during the last 10 years. The use of passports data is complicated by factors such as some overseas-issued passports being replacements for lost and stolen documents, many British people choosing to renew their passport when they are visiting the UK (where it is less expensive and where they may still have a registered postal address), and some dual nationals choosing to use another country’s passport.

In some cases, where we think that the passport issuing rates are anomalous, we have used local consular estimates. Finally, in some countries where passport data was not available, we have used consular estimates (for example, in high-risk countries where Britons living abroad are more likely to register with their local British mission).’

Other data sources considered but not included in this report

Evans, Vickers and Wright (2007) produced an analysis of alternative administrative data sources to measure emigration: these are pension, health and driving licence data.

The Department for Work and Pensions (DWP) hold data on UK citizens receiving a state pension while living abroad so this could have potential for estimating numbers of British pensioners who are living abroad. However, pension-based data tends to underestimate emigration as not all migrants inform DWP of their departure. Conversely, the data can overestimate emigration when people inform DWP they are emigrating and therefore get counted as migrants, but then return within 12 months. Also, some foreign national women receive UK State pensions overseas, based on their husband’s previous work in the UK, so they could be included in estimates of UK emigrants even though they have never been to the UK themselves.

Data on those who inform their General Practitioner when they are leaving the country are gathered from the National Health Service Central Register (NHSCR). However, there is little or no incentive for patients to notify the NHS of their departure from the UK, leaving considerable scope for underestimation when using NHSCR data to estimate emigration.

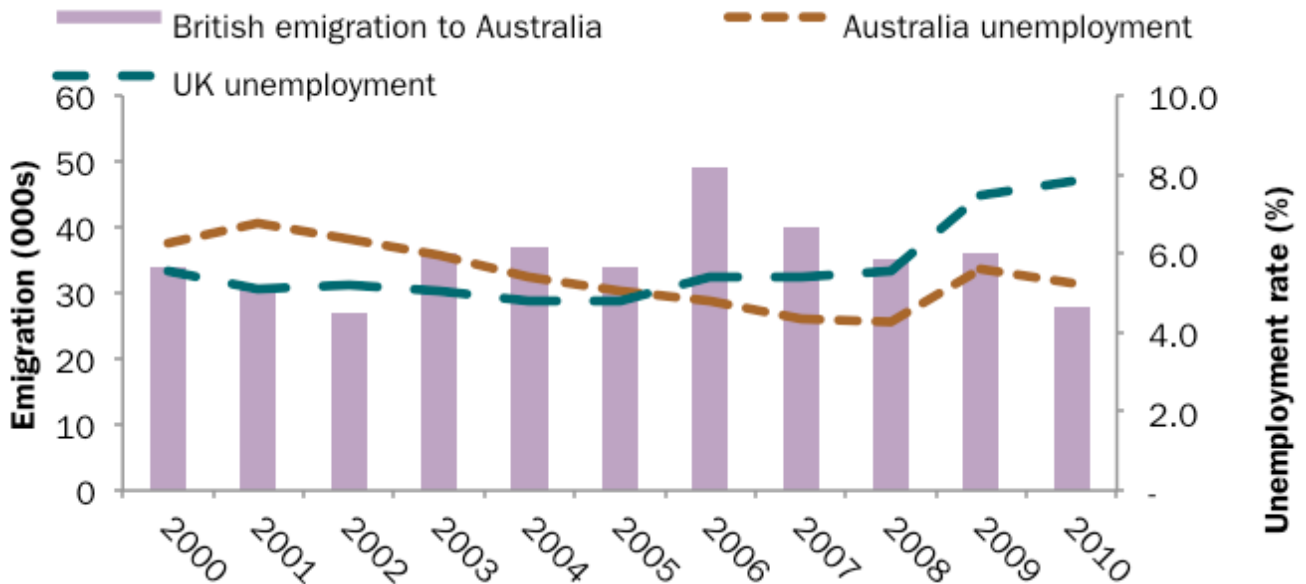
Driving licence data from the Driver and Vehicle Licensing Agency (DVLA), specifically data on drivers surrendering their driving licence in exchange for a foreign licence, can be used to estimate emigration from the UK. One drawback of such data is that persons who have mislaid their licences on holiday are also characterised as having emigrated. Hence driving licence data are found to be unreliable in providing accurate estimates of emigration (Evans et al., 2007, Bulusu, 1991).

Future data

The e-Borders programme (collecting and processing Advanced Passenger Information (API)) will continue to be developed, extending its coverage. Exit checks (which are not currently conducted in the UK) are currently planned to be reintroduced by the end of 2015. In future this will help to flag non-compliance and allow the Agency to ascertain whether a migrant has departed the UK prior to or upon expiry of their leave. Over time this will provide a much better picture of those who are in the country and this will allow the UK Border Agency to target those who remain in the UK without permission. It will also contribute to the improvement of international migration statistics including statistics on emigration.

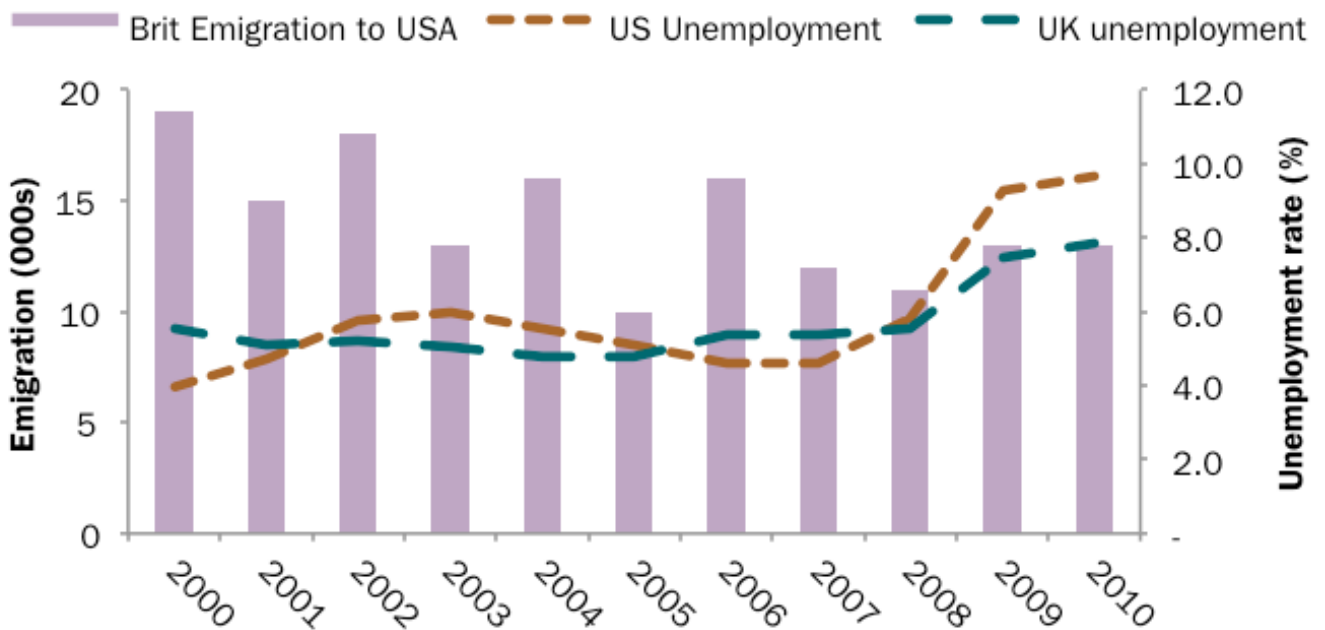
Appendix 3. Charts comparing economic variables with emigration by citizenship group

Figure A1 British emigration to Australia and unemployment, 2000 to 2010



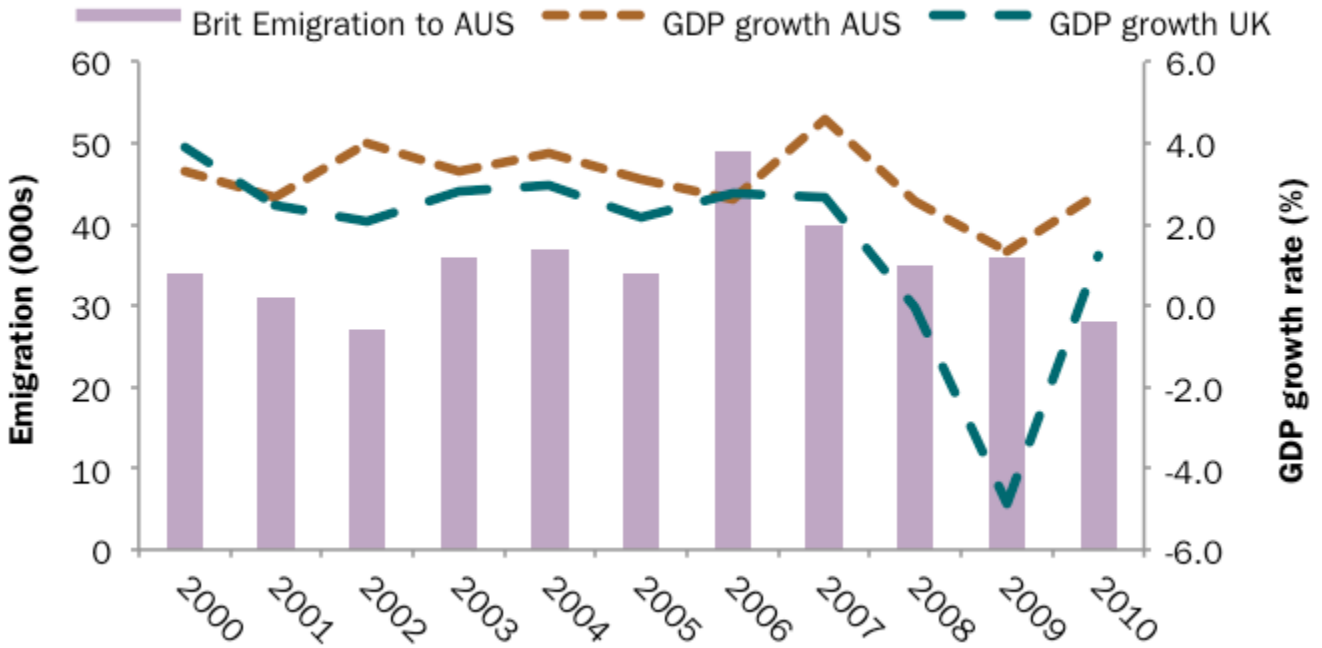
Source: International Passenger Survey (IPS) – Office for National Statistics and IMF (unemployment rates), 2000-10

Figure A2 British emigration to the US and unemployment, 2000 to 2010



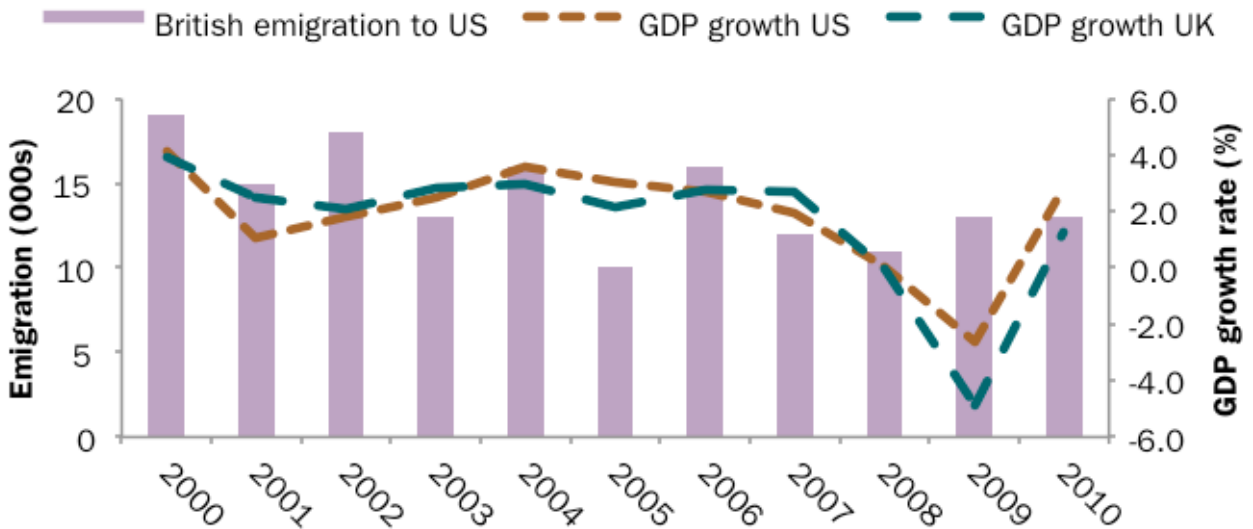
Source: International Passenger Survey (IPS) - Office for National Statistics and IMF (unemployment rates), 2000-10

Figure A3 British emigration to Australia and GDP growth, 2000 to 2010



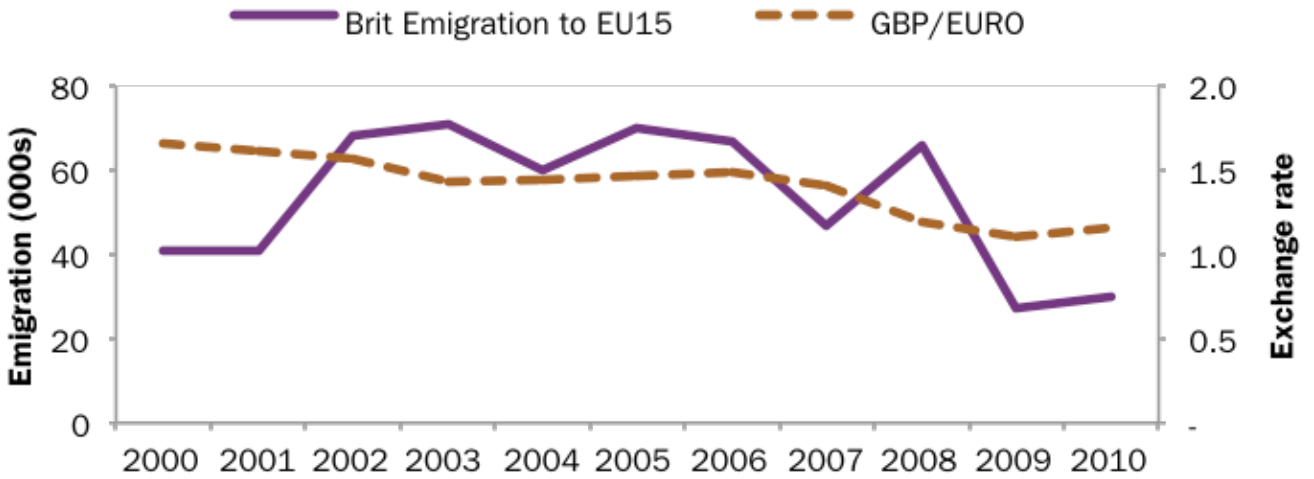
Source: International Passenger Survey (IPS) – Office for National Statistics and IMF (growth rates), 2000–10

Figure A4 British emigration to the US and GDP growth, 2000 to 2010



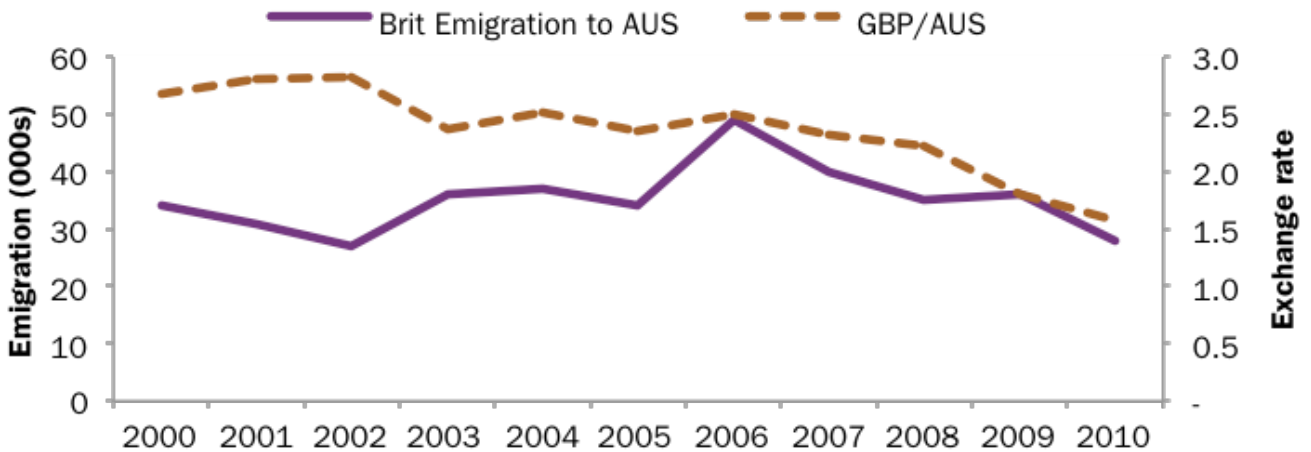
Source: International Passenger Survey (IPS) – Office for National Statistics and IMF (growth rates), 2000–10

Figure A5 British emigration to the EU15 and relative exchange rate, 2000 to 2010



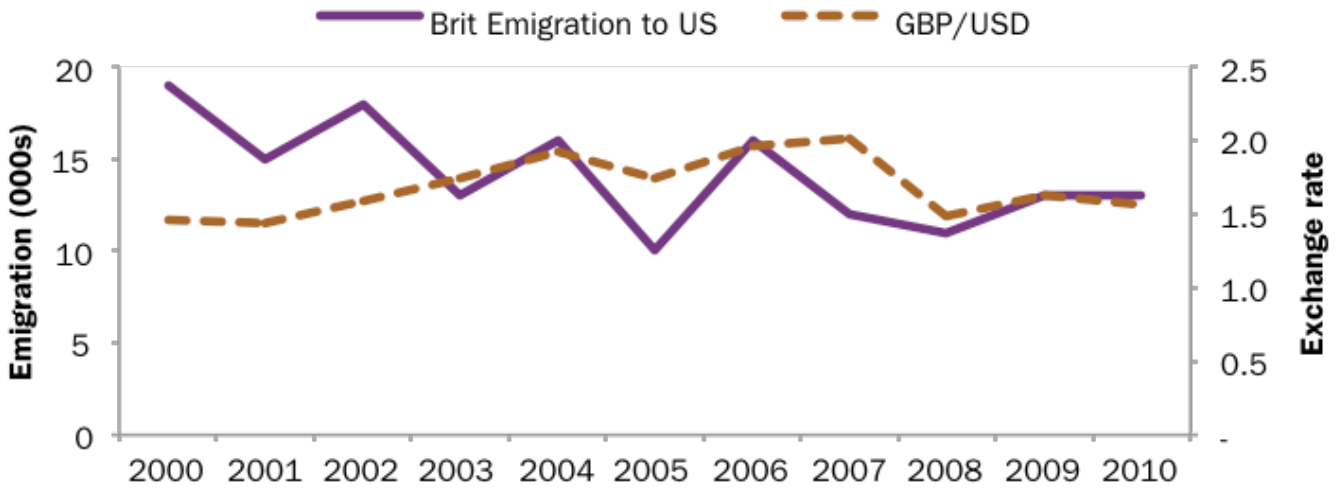
Source: International Passenger Survey (IPS) – Office for National Statistics and Oanda (exchange rates)

Figure A6 British emigration to Australia and relative exchange rate, 2000 to 2010



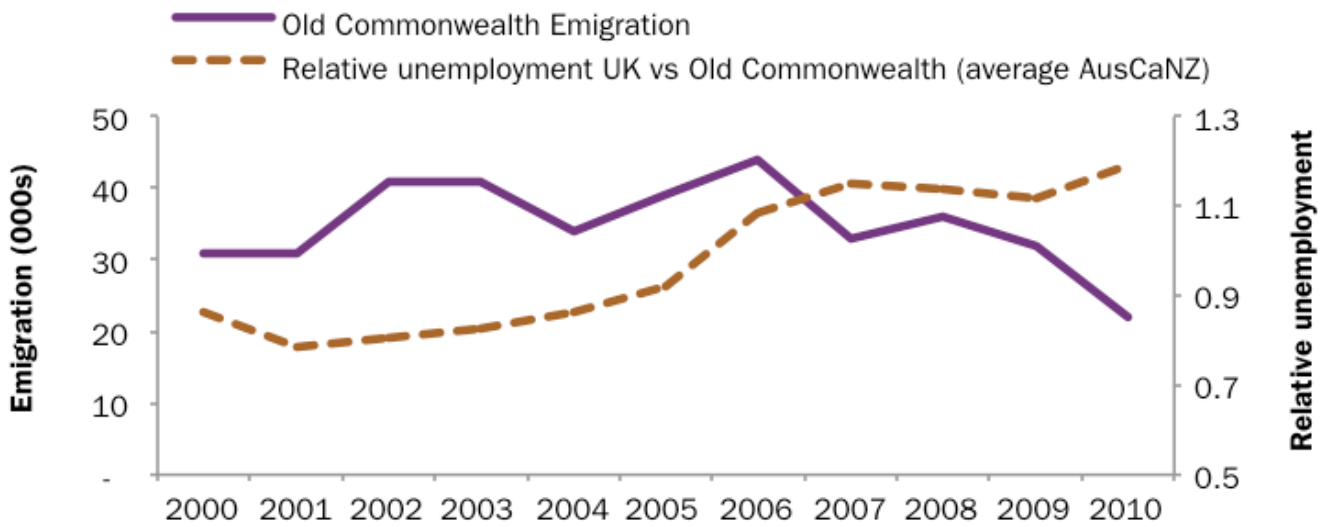
Source: International Passenger Survey (IPS) –Office for National Statistics and Oanda (exchange rates)

Figure A7 British emigration to US and relative exchange rate, 2000 to 2010



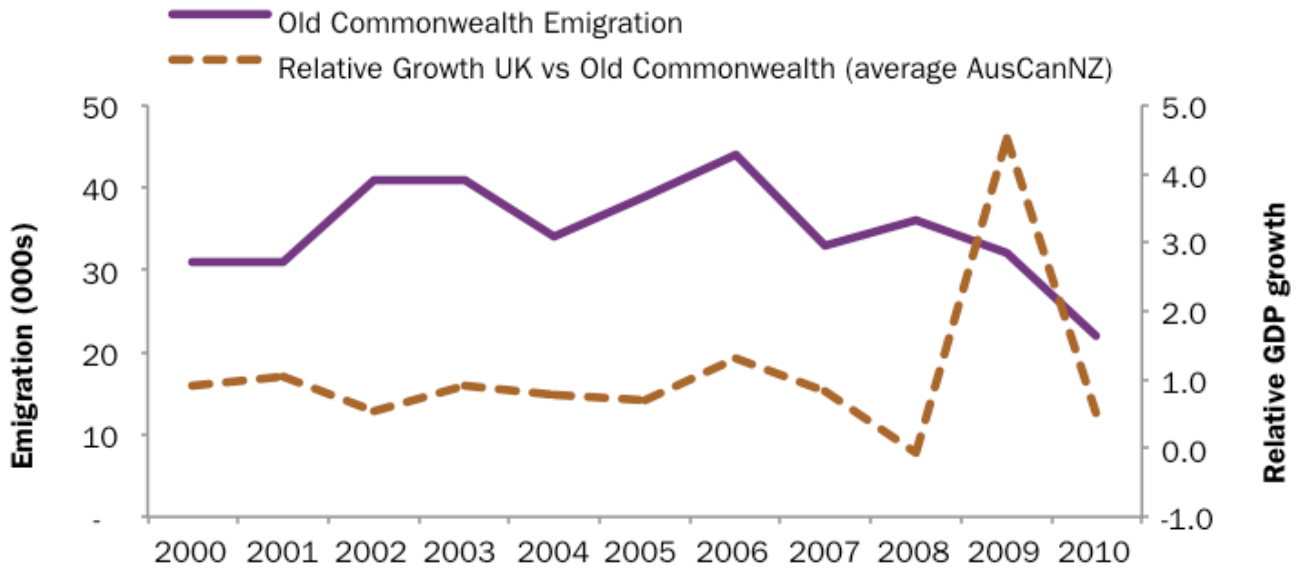
Source: International Passenger Survey (IPS) –Office for National Statistics and Oanda (exchange rates)

Figure A8 Old Commonwealth emigration and relative unemployment rates, 2000 to 2010



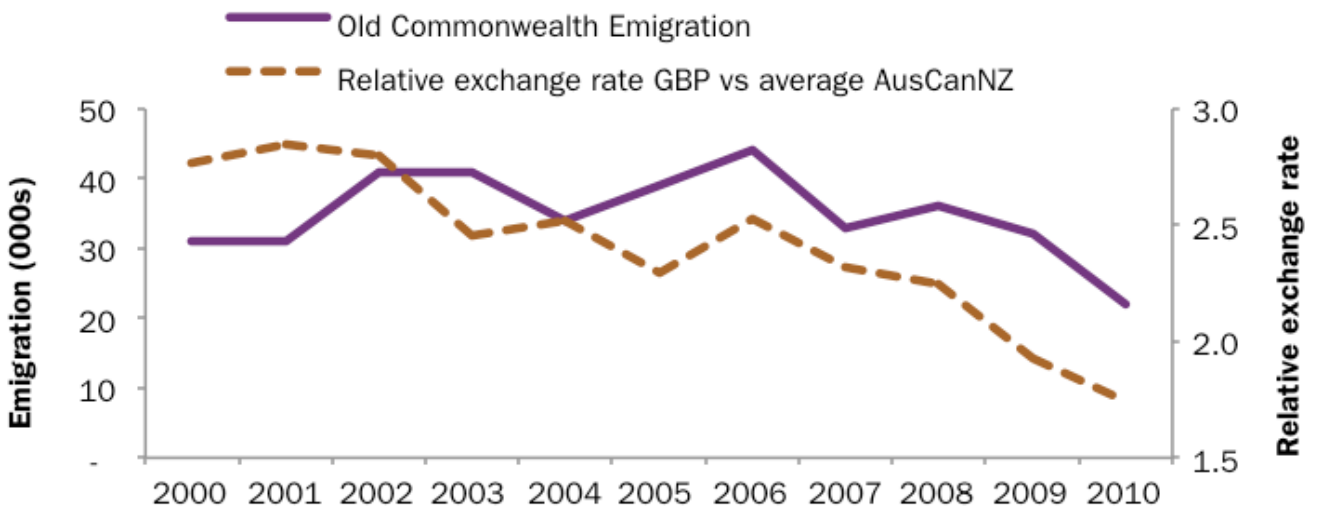
Source: International Passenger Survey (IPS) – Office for National Statistics and IMF (unemployment rates), 2000–10. Note: Old Commonwealth unemployment rate is measured as an average of Australia, Canada and New Zealand unemployment rates.

Figure A9 Old Commonwealth emigration and relative growth rates, 2000 to 2010



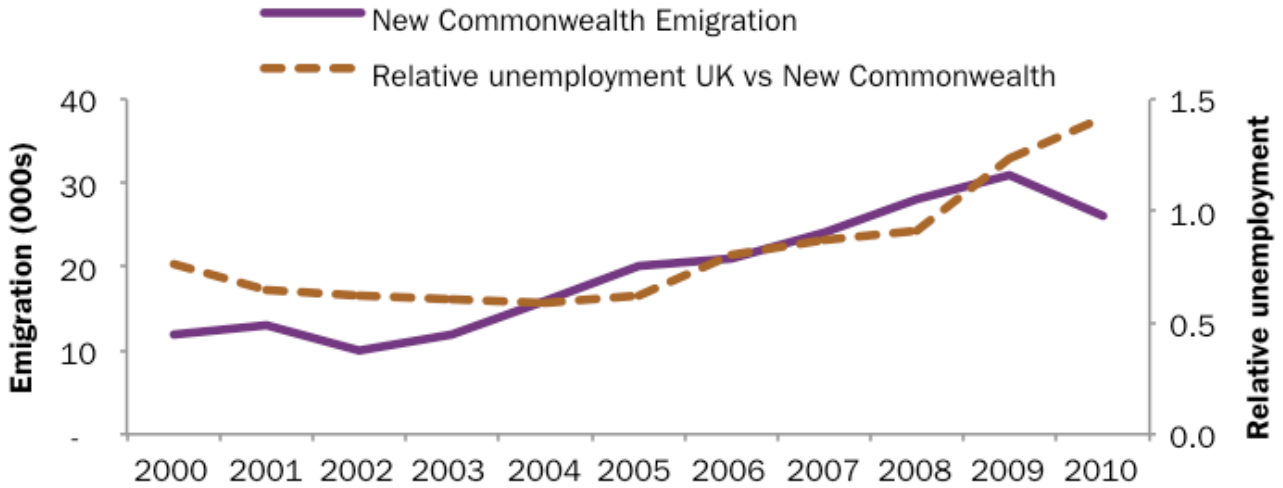
Source: International Passenger Survey (IPS) – Office for National Statistics and IMF (growth rates), 2000–10. Note: Old Commonwealth growth rate is measured as an average of Australia, Canada and New Zealand growth rates.

Figure A10 Old Commonwealth emigration and relative exchange rates 2000 to 2010



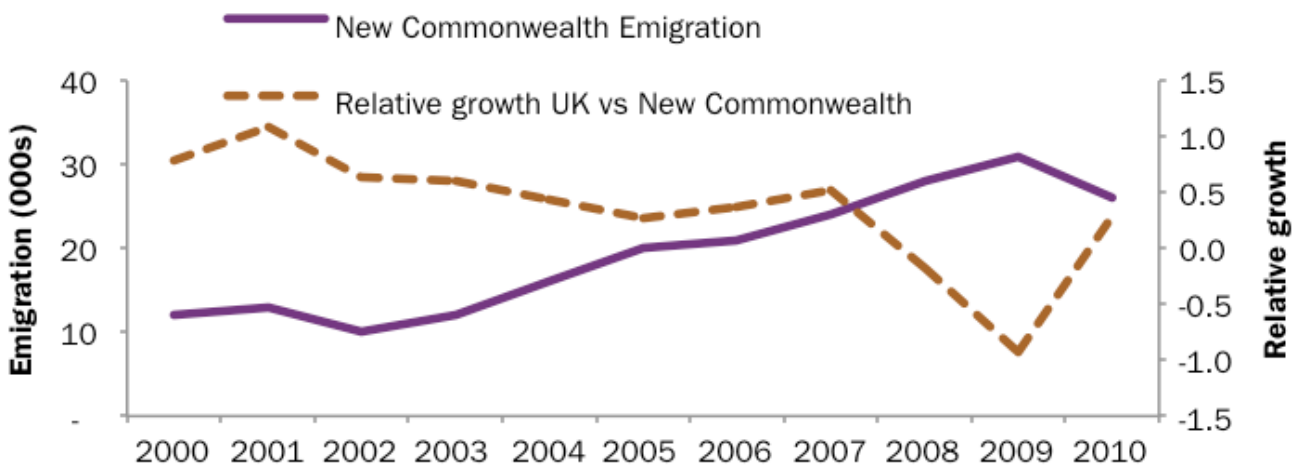
Source: International Passenger Survey (IPS) – Office for National Statistics and Oanda (exchange rates). Note: Old Commonwealth currency exchange rate is measured as an average of Australia, Canada and New Zealand currencies.

Figure A11 New Commonwealth emigration and relative unemployment, 2000 to 2010



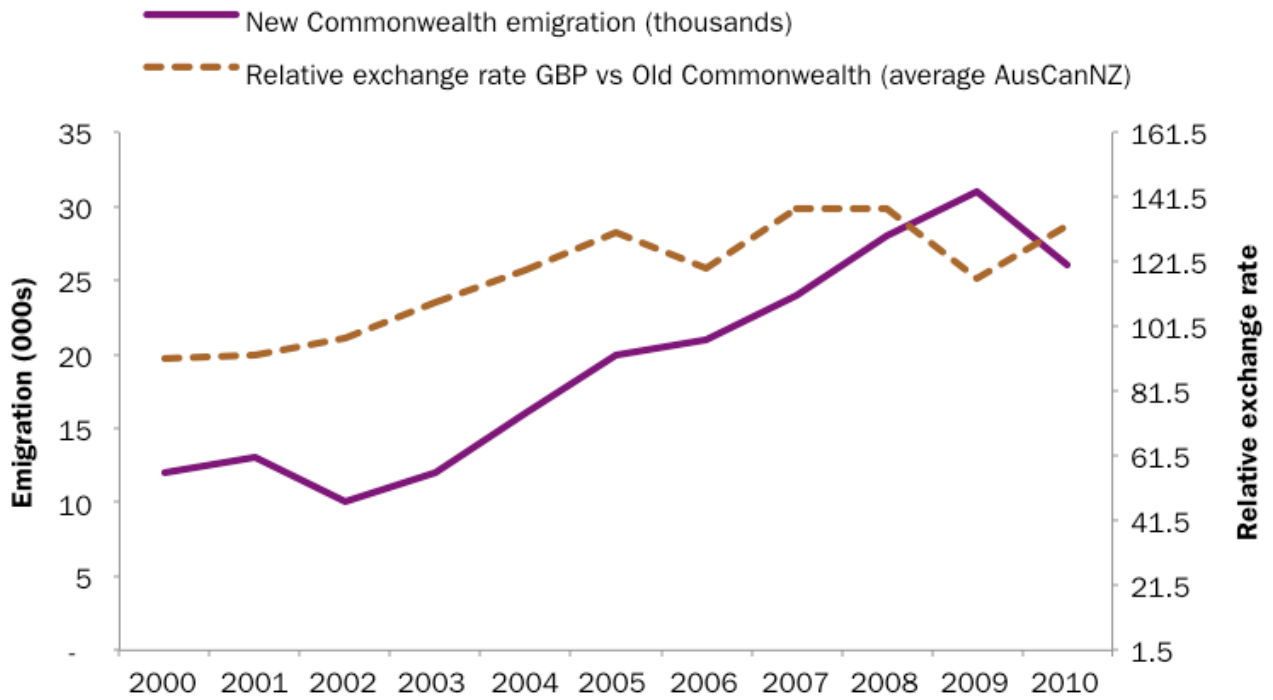
Source: International Passenger Survey (IPS) – Office for National Statistics and IMF (unemployment rates), 2000–10. Note: New Commonwealth unemployment rate is measured as an average of Pakistan and Sri Lanka unemployment rates.

Figure A12: New Commonwealth emigration and relative growth rates, 2000 to 2010



Source: International Passenger Survey (IPS) – Office for National Statistics and IMF (growth rates), 2000–10. Note: New Commonwealth growth rate is measured as an average of India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka and Bangladesh growth rates.

Figure A13. New Commonwealth emigration and relative exchange rates 2000 to 2010



Source: International Passenger Survey (IPS) – Office for National Statistics. Note: New Commonwealth Exchange rate is measured as GBP against an average of Indian, Pakistani and Sri Lankan currencies.

Second edition – correction

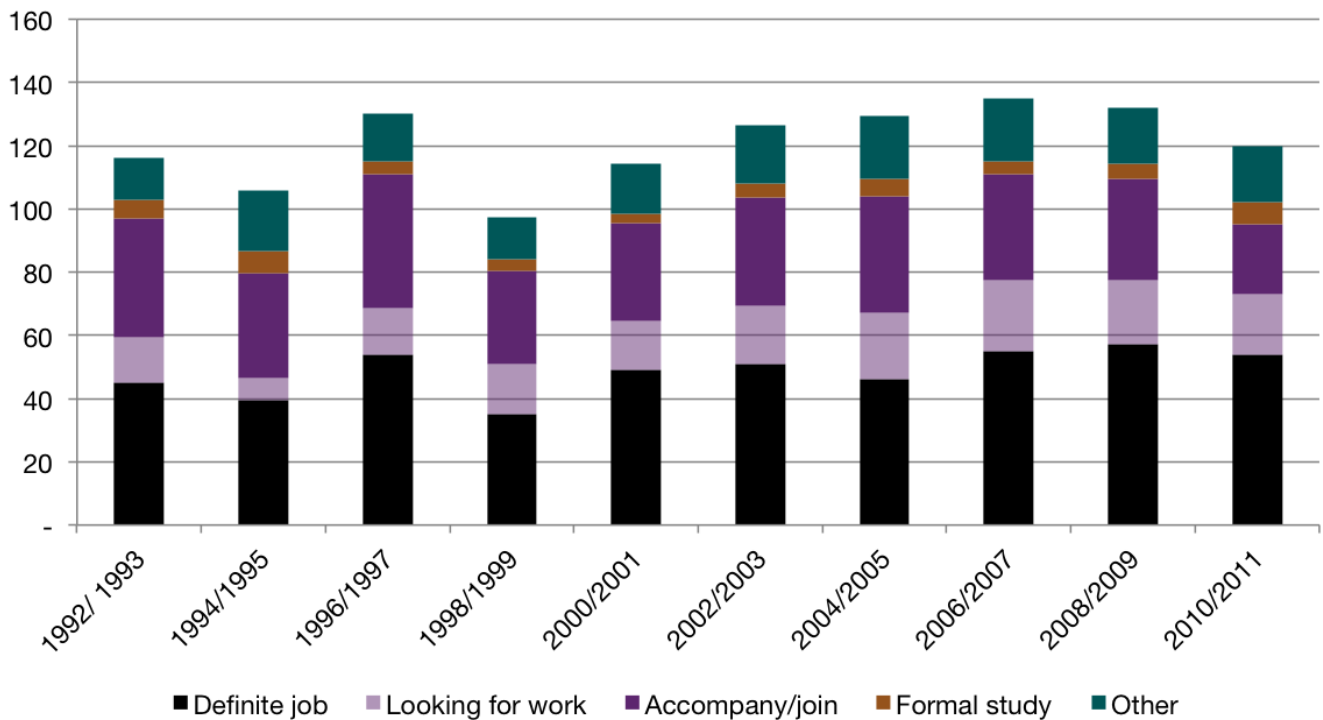
The following error was amended after publication of the first edition:

Page 31, Figure 13; The data for 2010/2011 is incorrect.

It should be:

2010/11		and not:	2010/11	
Definite job	54		Definite job	55
Looking for work	19		Looking for work	38
Accompany/join	22		Accompany/join	16
Formal study	7		Formal study	10
Other	18		Other	13

Figure 13 should therefore be:



rather than:

