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Mapping and analysis of types of migration from CEE countries

Country report the Netherlands

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1 Introduction

The objective of this country report about the Netherlands is to describe the size and nature of migration from Central and Eastern European (CEE) countries to the Netherlands (chapter 2), to identify two urban regions and six separate municipalities within these regions as research locations for this study and to collect available information about CEE migrants in these regions (chapter 3) and, finally, to identify the most relevant types of CEE migrants in the Netherlands (chapter 4). We will start, however, with a discussion of the available data sources and research about CEE migrants in the Netherlands. In general, there are three different sources of information about CEE migrants in the Netherlands.

1. Information from population registers (GBA) and official migration statistics

Basic information about CEE migrants residing in the Netherlands are derived from Dutch population registers (GBA). Also official migration statistics are based on population registers. When registering and arriving from abroad, one is registered as an immigrant. In that case, someone is also asked for his/her migration motive. Population statistics give reliable information about all *registered* CEE migrants in the Netherlands. However, as many CEE migrants in the Netherlands do not register – strictly spoken, only migrants who (intend to) stay more than 4 months need to register – these official residence and migration statistics are incomplete and socially selective. Obviously, particularly more settled migrants, who intend to stay longer, are registered, whereas temporary and less integrated migrants often do not register.

2. Information from representative surveys based on samples of registered CEE migrants

The same limitation goes for survey data about CEE migrants that are based on representative samples of migrants registered in GBA (De Boom, Weltevrede, Rezai, & Engbersen, 2008; Dagevos, 2011; Gijssberts & Lubbers, 2013). These surveys give a reliable picture of all registered CEE migrants in the Netherlands, including non-working individuals such as students, non-working spouses and children of migrants, but may be not representative for the specific category of (less integrated!) CEE labour migrants that are often not registered and, therefore, do not appear in these surveys.

3. Information from non-representative surveys about specific categories of CEE migrants

Finally, some surveys specifically focused on CEE labour migrants using snowball sampling and similar methods to find respondents instead of using GBA as a sampling frame (Weltevrede, De Boom, Rezai, Zuiderwijk, & Engbersen, 2009; Engbersen, Ilies, Leerkes, Snel, & Van der Meij 2011; Engbersen, Leerkes, Grabowska-Lusinska, Snel, & Burgers, 2013; Snel, Faber, & Engbersen, 2014). As a result, these cannot claim to be representative for all CEE migrants in the Netherlands. As these studies also include non-registered migrants, they give better insight into the more volatile category of temporary and often less integrated CEE migrants in the Netherlands. On the other hand, unemployed and other non-working migrants tend to be absent in these studies.

Besides these surveys, several other studies examine specific issues related to CEE migration to the Netherlands (De Bondt, 2008; Heyma, Berkhout, Van der Werff, & Hoff, 2008; Timmermans &

Verhoeven, 2008; Van den Berg, Brukman, & Van Rij, 2008). In 2011, the Dutch parliament also conducted a broad parliamentary inquiry into the situation of CEE migrants in the Netherlands covering issues such as the labour market situation and housing of CEE migrants (Temporary Parliamentary Commission, 2011).

Less information is available about CEE migrants in specific cities and communities. Limited information on the local level is available from official population statistics. Some cities produce annual reports about CEE migrants in their territory (at least, Rotterdam and The Hague do so). As the study of Engbersen et al. (2011; 2013) is based on several local surveys, it gives information about CEE migrants in four of the six municipalities featuring in the present study (Rotterdam, The Hague, Westland, and Lansingerland). However, the number of respondents in each locality is low (150 respondents in Rotterdam, 123 in The Hague, 90 in Westland, and 25 in Lansingerland). About the other two municipalities in this study (Schiedam and Delft), we found very limited information on CEE migrants.

In this report, we will also use some information from qualitative interviews to supplement the quantitative data. These interviews were conducted in the period September-December 2013 with more than 10 experts¹ active at the local level of the selected urban regions. In the next paragraphs we will present this official, survey and interview data on the national, urban and municipal levels to finally be able to make some concluding remarks.

2 National background on CEE migrants in the Netherlands

2.1 Stocks and flows

Migration from Central and Eastern Europe to the Netherlands did not just start with the EU-enlargements of 2004 and 2007. Already before and shortly after World War II several thousands CEE nationals (mainly from Poland and Slovenia) arrived to work in the Dutch mines (Brassé & Van Schelven, 1980). A second category of Poles that settled in the Netherlands were Polish soldiers that fought with the allied forces to liberate the Netherlands from the German occupation during World War II and married here. Furthermore, the Netherlands also received three distinct waves of refugees from CEE countries, namely from Hungary (1956), Czechoslovakia (1968), and from Poland (1981) (Bonjour, 1980, p. 48). Furthermore, there was some marital migration of females from CEE countries (particularly from Poland) that married Dutch males – the so-called ‘Polish brides’ (Dagevos, 2011). More importantly, however, was the arrival of relatively large numbers of Polish labour migrants. In the late 1980s, 50,000 Poles are estimated to work as seasonal workers in the Dutch horticulture (Dagevos 2011, p. 31). These numbers considerably decreased in the 1990s, but strongly increased after the accession of Poland to the EU in 2004, and after the requirement to have a valid work permit expired for Poles in 2007.

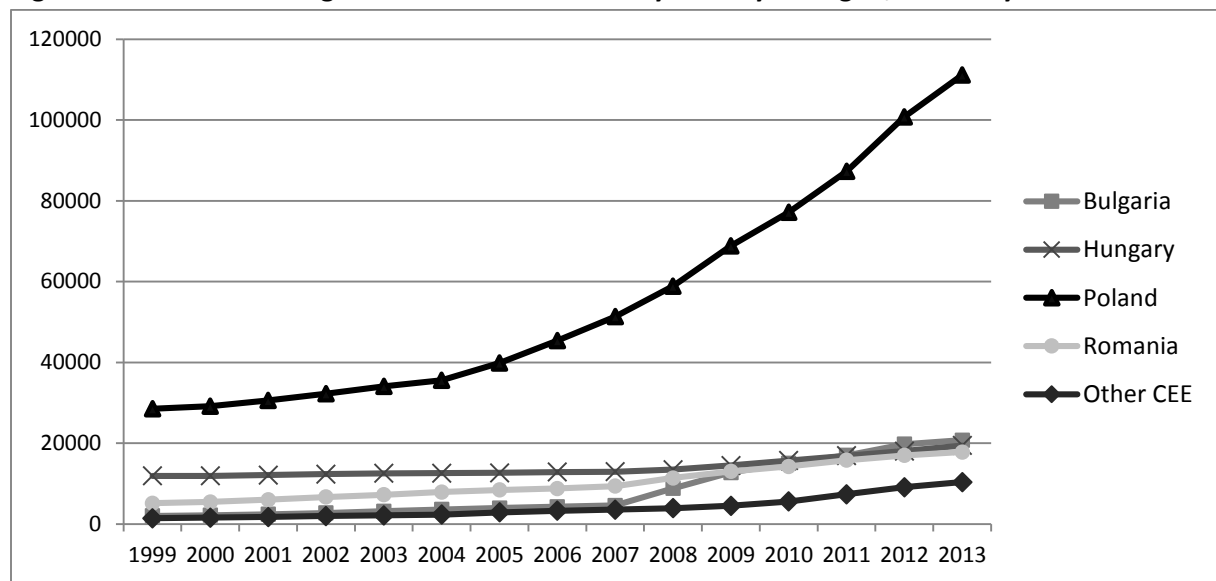
After the EU-enlargements in 2004 and 2007², the number of (officially registered) residents

¹ Policymakers and civil servants in Rotterdam (5), The Hague (3) and Westland (3), migrant organisations, employer organisations and migrant churches in Rotterdam and The Hague.

² In 2004, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovakia, and Slovenia joined the EU. In 2007, Bulgaria and Romania acceded the EU.

from CEE countries in the Netherlands increased rapidly (Figure 1). In the late 1990s, there were about 50,000 CEE residents in the Netherlands³. In 2003, shortly before the EU-enlargement of 2004, there were about 62,000 CEE residents in the Netherlands. In 2013, their numbers had increased to almost 180,000 thousands – nearly three times more than in 2003. By far the largest subcategory among the CEE migrants in the Netherlands are the Poles. Their numbers more than tripled between 2004 and 2013 (from almost 36,000 to 111,000). Particularly after 2007, when the Netherlands lifted the transitional restrictions for Poles and residents from the other new member states of 2004, the number of Polish residents in the Netherlands increased rapidly. The other three main CEE migrant categories in the Netherlands are Bulgarians (almost 21,000 persons in 2013), Hungarians (almost 19,500 persons) and Romanians (almost 18,000 persons). The number of Bulgarians in the Netherlands in 2013 was almost five times higher than in 2007, when Bulgaria acceded the EU. Hungary joined the EU already in 2004. However, the majority of the Hungarian residents in the Netherlands already lived here at that time. About one third of the current Hungarian residents in the Netherlands arrived since 2004. The number of Romanians in the Netherlands almost doubled since Romania acceded the EU in 2007.

Figure 1. Stocks of CEE migrants in the Netherlands by country of origin⁴, 1 January 1999 to 2013



Source: Statistics Netherlands (2013a), own calculations.

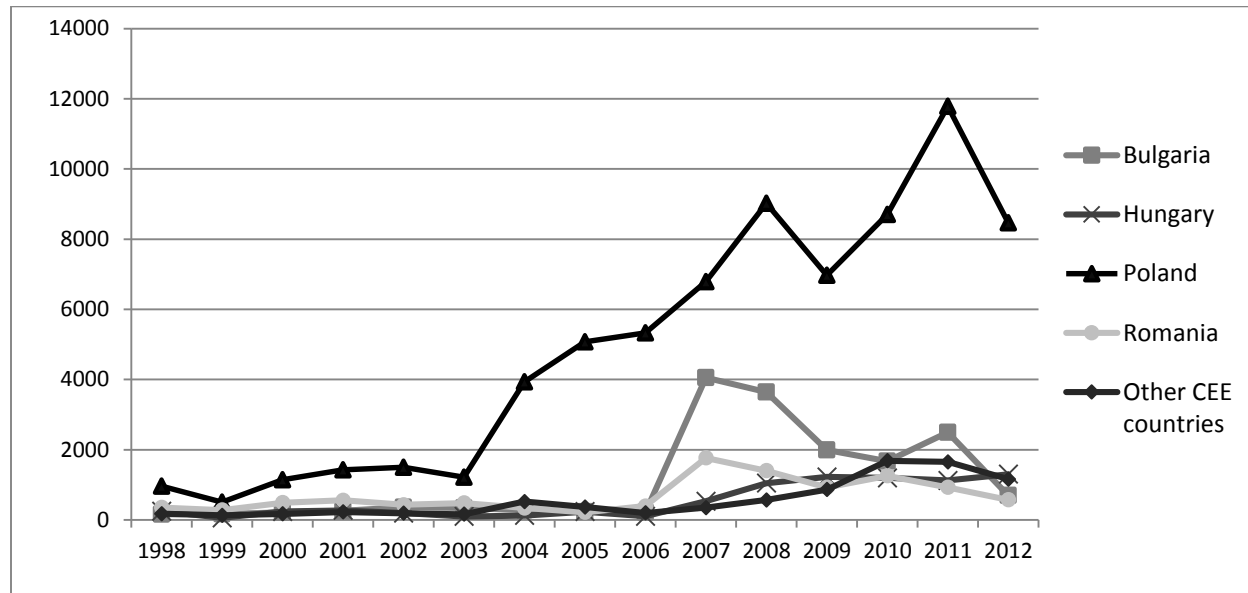
In the following, we will focus on migrants from the following four countries: Poland, Bulgaria, Hungary and Romania. The selection of these four sending countries is confirmed by the figures about immigration (Annex 1) and net-immigration (=immigration minus emigration) of migrants from these countries (Figure 2). The net-immigration³ of Bulgarian migrants increased exponentially to 4,000 in 2007, but decreased to 1,000 in 2012. While the curve of the net-immigration of Polish migrants is

³ The data refer to individuals born in one of the CEE countries, not to CEE nationals.

⁴ In this figure, the Dutch definition of ‘allochtonous’ is used. Anyone born outside the Netherlands or with at least one foreign born parent is categorized as “allochtonous”. These stocks thus include first and second generation immigrants. Also note that this figure presents the stocks on 1 *January*, while Figure 2 presents the flows on 31 *December*.

increasing, in 2009 and 2012, there is a decline in the net-immigration. The curve of the net-immigration of Hungarians is increasing, and the numbers of Hungarian migrants immigrating to the Netherlands (minus those who emigrate) are even higher than the numbers of Romanian and Bulgarian migrants in 2012.

Figure 2. Net immigration (immigration – emigration) from CEE countries (country of birth) towards the Netherlands in the period of 31 December 1998 to 31 December 2012



Source: Statistics Netherland (2013b), own calculations.

However, all these figures relate to the number of officially registered CEE migrants in the Netherlands. As many CEE migrants in the Netherlands appear not to register formally as mentioned before, the actual number of CEE migrants is much larger (Table 1). According to estimations of Van der Heijden, Cruiff, and Van Gils (2011, 2013), there were about 340,000 CEE nationals actually present in the Netherlands in 2010 – almost twice as many as the number of officially registered CEE migrants in the same year (Table 1). Particularly, the estimated numbers of Romanians and, to a lesser extent, Bulgarians are significantly higher than the numbers of formally registered migrants from these countries. This clearly indicates a ‘grey zone’ between registered and estimated stock data.

Table 1. Number of officially registered migrants per nationality and estimations (figures 2010)

	Registered*	Estimated	95% CI		% difference between estimated and registered
			min	max	
Poland	130,277	169,759	159,976	182,707	1.3
Romania	9,233	69,225	62,693	77,692	7.5
Bulgaria	13,773	38,784	34,374	44,234	2.8
Other CEE**	28,687	63,327	58,856	69,116	2.2
Total	181,960	341,094	322,244	366,057	1.9

*Registered in local municipality (GBA) and/or in data of legally working employees (WNB)

**‘Other CEE’ consists of the countries: Hungary, Czech Republic, Slovakia, Slovenia, Latvia, Lithuania, and Estonia.

Source: Adapted from Van der Heijden et al. (2013).

2.2 Background information

2.2.1 Gender, age, and marital status

In line with recent migration research that observes a tendency towards feminisation of migration (Castles & Miller, 1998), a small majority of the officially registered CEE migrants (indicated per nationality) in the Netherlands are females (varying from 51% of the Bulgarians to 60% of the Romanians in the Netherlands, see Table 2). Although female *labour* migrants are a minority (Nicolaas 2011a; Jennissen, 2011), females are overrepresented in migration for family motives (Gijsberts & Lubbers, 2013). Another characteristic feature of CEE migrants in the Netherlands is that the large majority is in the working age (between 20 and 40 years old, ranging from 55% of the Bulgarians to 71% of the Romanians in the Netherlands). The number of children (between 0 and 20 years) from CEE countries is up to now rather limited (ranging from about 14% of all Romanians and Hungarians in the Netherlands to 19% of all Poles), though almost a quarter of the Bulgarians is below the age of 20. The number of elderly migrants (50+) from these countries is even more limited (from 4.2% of all Romanians to 6.4% of all Poles). The majority of CEE migrants is not married. The share of unmarried CEE migrants varies from 55% among Romanians to 76% among Bulgarians in the Netherlands (Annex 2). However, married migrants may live separately from their partner. Weltevrede et al. (2009, p. 46-47) shows that 18% of the Polish respondents and 26% of their Romanian and Bulgarian respondents have a partner who still lives in the country of residence.

Table 2. Gender and age of persons born in four CEE countries (% between brackets) on 1 January 2013

	Poland	Bulgaria	Hungary	Romania
Gender				
Male	36,160 (48.5)	86,22 (48.9)	4,260 (46.1)	3,811 (40.1)
Female	38,469 (51.1)	89,93 (51.1)	4,985 (53.9)	5,685 (59.9)
Age				
0-20 years	14,333 (19.2)	4,021 (22.9)	1,264 (13.7)	1,325 (13.9)
20-40 years	46,335 (62.1)	9,711 (55.1)	6,296 (68.1)	6,727 (70.8)
Over 40 years	13,961 (18.6)	3,883 (22.1)	1,685 (18.3)	1,444 (4.2)
Total	74,629 (100.0)	17,615 (100.0)	9,245 (100.0)	9,496 (100.0)

Source: Statistics Netherlands (2013c), own calculations.

2.2.2 Migration motives

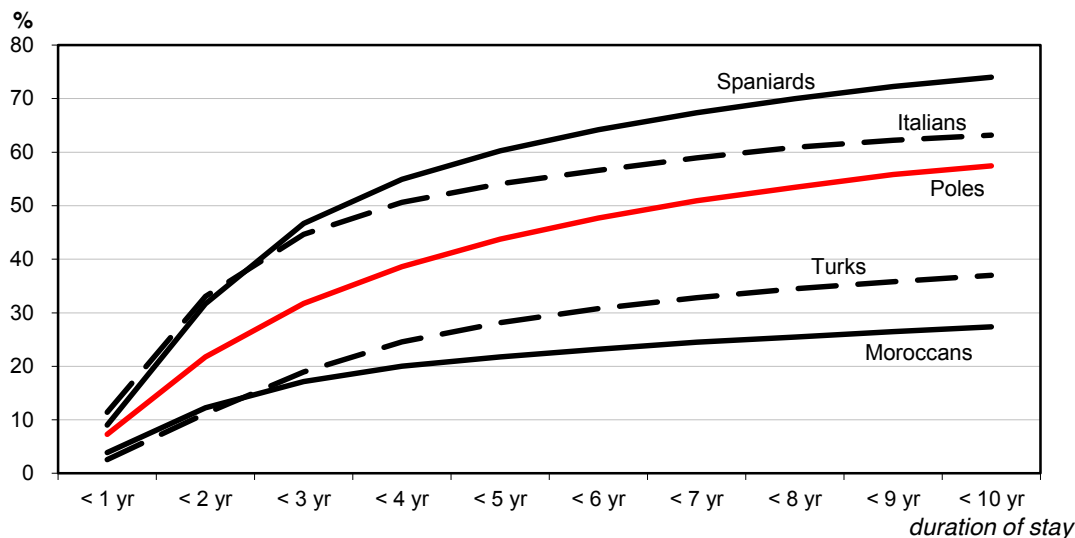
When officially registering in the Netherlands, immigrants also have to register their main migration motive. It is questionable how these migration motives relate to their actual situation. After all, someone who migrated for family reasons or to study may actually be working. Data about (the development of) the main migration motives of CEE migrants, however, gives some first insight in the type of CEE migration to the Netherlands. Until recently, the large majority of all immigrants in the Netherlands arrived here for family reasons (family reunification, but increasingly also marital migration). However, in recent years, 'work' is again the dominant motive for immigrants arriving in the Netherlands. This is mainly due to the influx of labour migrants from CEE countries. Before Poland,

Bulgaria, Hungary and Romania acceded the EU, the majority of the immigrants from these countries came to the Netherlands either for family reasons or to study. According to the most recent figures (2011), work is by far the dominant migration motive for CEE migrants. The share of CEE migrants who came to the Netherlands to work varies from 78% of all Hungarians who arrived in 2011, to 56% of all Poles. In absolute numbers, only in 2011, more than 13,000 Poles arrived in the Netherlands to work (Annex 3).

2.2.3 Duration of stay and return migration

Another and politically highly sensitive question is the duration of stay of CEE migrants. Are CEE labour migrants only temporary in the Netherlands and will they return after the job is done? Or are they in the Netherlands to stay – like the previous guest workers from Mediterranean countries in the 1960s and 1970s? There is limited evidence about actual return migration of CEE migrants. Figure 2 compares return migration of Polish migrants who arrived in the Netherlands since 2000 with return migration of various guest workers groups from the 1960s. It shows that almost 60% of all Poles left the Netherlands within ten years after arrival. This is far more than the share of return migrants among Turks and Moroccans who came to the Netherlands in the 1960 but less than the share of return migrants among Spanish and Italian guest workers groups who came in the same period.

Figure 3. Return migration of migrants from Mediterranean countries* and Poland by duration of stay in the Netherlands**



* Immigrated between 1964-1973

** Immigrated between 2000-2009

Source: Adapted from Nicolaas (2011b).

There are also data about the duration of stay of officially registered CEE migrants in the Netherlands (Annex 4, figures from 2012). Almost 40% of all Poles, Hungarians, Bulgarians and Romanians in the Netherlands have stayed in this country for two years at most. The share of recently arrived Bulgarians (less than 2 years) is somewhat larger (45%). Relatively few CEE migrants in the Netherlands are long-term migrants in the sense that they lived in the country for ten years or more (18%). Particularly

Hungarian migrants appear to have lived in the Netherlands relatively long. Almost one third of all registered Hungarians lived in the Netherlands for ten years or more; one fourth of all Hungarians in the Netherlands lived here for at least 15 years. These migrants may be Hungarian refugees from the 1950s. Of course, these data about the current duration of stay in the Netherlands do not give any indication whether CEE migrants are mainly temporary migrants or settlement migrants. After all, migrants who have arrived in the Netherlands recently may decide to settle here – and become permanent migrants. Return intentions may indicate the expected duration of stay of CEE migrants. Survey data among CEE labour migrants come to divergent outcomes. Engbersen et al. (2011, p. 86) find that one fourth of their Polish, Romanian and Bulgarian respondents intend to stay in the Netherlands for two years at most. Polish respondents intend to stay longer in the Netherlands than Romanians and Bulgarians. Weltevrede et al. (2009) found that even 35% of their CEE respondents intend to stay in the Netherlands for two years at most. These respondents are typical temporary labour migrants and seasonal workers. On the other hand, the share of CEE respondents who intend to stay in the Netherlands for at least 5 years or tend to settle here permanently varies between 21% (Weltevrede et al., 2009), 31% (Engbersen et al. 2011) or even between 45% (Poles) en 26% (Bulgarians) (Gijsberts and Lubbers, 2013, p. 125). Remarkable is the large share of CEE labour migrants (30%) who say that they do not know how long they will stay in the Netherlands, 40% of them of Bulgarian origin (Engbersen et al., 2011). This so-called “intentional unpredictability” (Eade, 2007) is said to be typical for many CEE labour migrants: they often do not know whether they will stay, return or go to a third (European) country (Engbersen et al., 2013).

2.2.4 Educational level

Most data presented thus far are derived from official population and migration statistics. Since the Netherlands does not have a census, we have to rely on available survey data to describe the educational level and labour market participation of CEE migrants. As we explained before, there are two different kinds of surveys about CEE migrants available: surveys that examine a representative sample of CEE migrants (or certain nationalities) registered in GBA and surveys that used snowball methods to find CEE labour migrants, including non-registered migrants. As we shall see, both kinds of surveys come to different findings.

The survey of Gijsberts and Lubbers (2013) among Polish and Bulgarians in the Netherlands is an example of a study of the first type. Their respondents are not only labour migrants, but also students and family migrants. Gijsberts and Lubbers found large differences in the educational levels of the two CEE migrant groups they studied. In their survey, 30% of the Polish residents (only those who have left school) is low educated. This is similar as among the native Dutch population. However, the majority (64%) of the Bulgarians in their sample is low educated (students not included). On the other hand, whereas 19% of their Polish respondents has an academic educational level, this goes for only 6% of the Bulgarians. We may draw two conclusions from these findings. Firstly, there are significant differences in the educational levels of various CEE migrant groups. Secondly, the relatively high educational level of many Polish migrants already indicate that there is a serious problem of de-qualification. As we shall see in the following, the large majority of Polish labour migrants in the Netherlands are involved in low-skilled work.

The studies of Weltevrede et al. (2009) and Engbersen et al. (2011 & 2013) are examples of studies of the second type. They focus on labour migrants only, but include both registered and non-registered migrants in their samples. Weltevrede et al. (2009, p. 61, p. 153) also found relatively high educational levels among CEE migrants. On the one hand, they found that only 28% of their CEE respondents is low educated. This is significantly less than among more traditional migrant categories in the Netherlands (such as the former guest workers and their families from countries like Turkey and Morocco), but also less than among the native Dutch population. On the other hand, Weltevrede et al. (2009) found that 20% of their respondents has completed higher education.

Engbersen et al. (2011, p. 28), in their study about Polish, Romanian and Bulgarian labour migrants in the Netherlands, found even more variation in the educational levels of CEE migrants. Only a small minority of their respondents (13%) can be classified as low-skilled in the sense that they have finished primary or lower secondary (up to the age of 15 years) education. However, among the Bulgarian respondents there are more low-skilled individuals (30%). In all migrant groups, the (large) majority of all respondents has finished at least “high school” (higher secondary education up to the age of 18). Moreover, 15% of the Polish and more than 38% of the Romanian have completed higher education.

2.2.5 Labour market position

A final point in the description of background information of CEE migrants in the Netherlands relates to their labour market position. We examine two different issues: whether CEE migrants are employed (or working otherwise) and, if so, what kind of work they are doing. Again, different kinds of surveys come to divergent outcomes. However, registration data are also available on whether CEE migrants are employed. These data will be discussed first.

By combining different data on migrants who are registered in GBA, König, Van der Linden, Sluiter, and Verschuren (2013) calculated the number of migrants who are unemployed by December 2012. They find that the number of unemployed migrants from Bulgaria is quite high: 59% (Annex 5). However, 40% of these unemployed are children and students. Among Polish migrants, around 30% is unemployed, of which more than half are children, students, and elderly. Of the Romanian migrants who are registered in GBA, 42% is unemployed (of which 35% consists of children, students, and elderly), and of the Hungarian migrants, 28% is unemployed (of which some 50% consists of children, students, and elderly).

Dagevos (2011, p. 69), examining a representative sample of recently arrived Poles in the Netherlands, found that the majority (69%) of their respondents is working (employed or self-employed), while 13% of their respondents was unemployed at the time of the interview. Gijsberts and Lubbers (2013, p. 77, p. 82), also studying a representative sample of recently arrived Poles and Bulgarians in the Netherlands, found that the large majority of the Poles (84%) was working shortly after arriving in the Netherlands. However, only 52% of the Bulgarian respondents were employed shortly after arriving, whereas 45% of them reported to be unemployed. This indicates a sizeable unemployment rate among Bulgarian migrants in the Netherlands. However, it is unclear whether these Bulgarians immigrants have not yet found employment after arriving in the Netherlands or to what extent they are involved in informal economic activities and only say they are unemployed.

Both Weltevrede et al. (2009) and Engbersen et al. (2011, 2013) specifically focused on CEE labour migrants, including both formally registered and non-registered immigrants in their samples. By doing so, they included a more volatile and less integrated category of immigrants in their surveys than the previous studies did. Weltevrede et al. (2009, p. 64-65) found that the large majority (95%) of their respondents was actually working. Only among Romanians and Bulgarians in their sample, there were respondents still looking for work (10%). Most labour migrants (84%) work in flexible employment relations (temporary contracts, employment agencies, self-employed). Particularly, Romanian and Bulgarian respondents were relatively often self-employed (31%). The reason is that at the time of the interview the transitional restrictions were still at place. These regulations allowed self-employed workers to settle in the Netherlands, whereas formal employment was limited. Remarkable is also that 15% of the Romanian or Bulgarian respondents in the study of Weltevrede et al. reported to be moonlighting – a category that failed in the studies of Dagevos (2011) and of Gijsberts and Lubbers (2013). Engbersen et al. (2011) come to similar outcomes with regard to the share of working CEE labour migrants. However, they found that even more respondents work on an informal basis: 14% of all respondents, and not less than 41% of all Bulgarian respondents.

The other topic is *what kind* of work CEE labour migrants are doing in the Netherlands. All studies agree that CEE labour migrants are generally concentrated in the secondary labour market. Most labour migrants work in elementary occupations, particularly in the Dutch horticulture (that has a tradition of hiring Central and Eastern European seasonal workers), but also in construction, various industries, cleaning, catering and in private households. Dagevos (2011, p. 73) found that 74% of their Polish respondents worked in elementary occupations; twice as many as native Dutch workers. Gijsberts and Lubbers (2013, p. 90) found that 50% of their Polish and 40% of their Bulgarian respondents worked in elementary occupations. They also found that far fewer Polish or Bulgarian migrants worked in such low qualified occupations at home. Migration thus results in a *decrease* of the occupational level (but probably a financial increase).

Engbersen et al. (2011, 2013) also found that the majority of their respondents (62%) are either unskilled manual workers or farm workers (including agriculture). However, they also found that some CEE migrants (8% of their Romanians, 6% of the Bulgarians) were working in “higher service” occupations such as engineer, dentist, manager, architect, software developer or financial analyst. These outcomes show that CEE labour migrants are a more differentiated category than is often expected.

3 CEE migrants in two urban regions in the Netherlands

3.1 Background of the two urban regions

The Dutch case study focuses on two urban regions in the Netherlands, the regions of Rotterdam and The Hague. Both regions are situated in the southern part of the province South-Holland. Recently, both regions and their central cities, Rotterdam and The Hague, cooperate in what is called the “Metropool region”. However, we should emphasise that both regions are not administrative entities. All cities and rural towns in both regions are independent municipalities. We selected six municipalities as the focus for our further research: besides both core cities Rotterdam and The Hague, these are Schiedam and

Lansingerland in the Rotterdam area and Delft and Westland in the The Hague area. Schiedam and Delft are cities with relatively many CEE residents.⁵ Westland and Lansingerland are chosen because they are rural municipalities with a strong horticultural sector that traditionally hires many seasonal workers from CEE countries, especially from Poland.

Figure 4. Map of the Rotterdam-The Hague Metropool region



Source: Metropoolregio Rotterdam en Den Haag (MRDH), 2014.

The “Metropool region” as a whole contains 24 different municipalities and about 2.25 million residents. **Rotterdam** is with 616,000 residents the largest city in the region, and in fact the second largest city of the Netherlands. A huge part of the Rotterdam territory is harbour area. Although few people are living there, these areas are an important economic generator for the country (Municipality Rotterdam, 2012). As Table 3 shows, Rotterdam has a sizeable non-native population (27.7%). With 166 different nationalities, Rotterdam has an ethnically extremely divers population. The largest non-native categories are migrants and their offspring from Western countries (including EU), from Surinam, and from Turkey. Each migrant group is about 8% of the Rotterdam population (Annex 6). Rotterdam also has a relatively

⁵ Schiedam has 1612 residents from the selected four CEE countries (Table 3), more than the other municipalities in the Rotterdam area (Vlaardingen 958, Capelle aan den IJssel 437, Spijkenisse 347, Maassluis 229 and Lansingerland 228, Hellevoetsluis 214, Ridderkerk 129, Barendrecht 124, Brielle 81, Krimpen aan den IJssel 79, Westvoorne 48, Albrandswaard 46, Bernisse 22. In the The Hague area, Westland hosts the largest number of CEE migrants: 3113 persons. Delft has 710 CEE residents, Zoetermeer 585, and Leidschendam-Voorburg 478, Rijswijk 465, Pijnacker-Nootdorp 239, Wassenaar 149, Midden-Delfland 76 (figures from 2013; Statistics Netherlands, 2013d).

young population. More than 70% of the people settling in Rotterdam is under the age of 34 (including many students). More than in other Dutch cities, families with children – particularly native Dutch families – tend to leave the city.

Schiedam is with 76,000 residents a neighbouring city of Rotterdam. Some parts of Schiedam are actually neighbouring districts in the west of Rotterdam. Schiedam has 20.3% residents who are not born in the Netherlands, and is ethnically less diverse than Rotterdam. **Lansingerland** is the third municipality in the Rotterdam region that is included in this study. The municipality of Lansingerland exists only since 2007 as a merger of various previous rural communities. Lansingerland has a predominantly native Dutch population (92.7% of the population is native Dutch; see Table 3).

Table 3. Basic information about six municipalities on 1 January 2013 (% between brackets)

	Population total	Foreign born	CEE migrants
Rotterdam	616,294	170,588 (27.7)	9,105 (1.5)
Schiedam	76,216	15,461 (20.3)	1,612 (2.1)
Lansingerland	56,506	4,144 (7.3)	228 (0.4)
The Hague	505,856	154,522 (30.5)	14,036 (2.8)
Delft	99,097	20,599 (20.8)	926 (0.9)
Westland	102,698	7,925 (7.7)	3,113 (3.0)

Source: Statistics Netherlands (2013d), own calculations.

The Hague, with 506,000 residents the third city of the Netherlands, is the other core city in our study. The Hague is known as the “political capital” of the Netherlands and the residency of the royal family. It also hosts numerous international organisations. Like Rotterdam, The Hague is characterized by a large ethnic diversity: 50% of the population is native Dutch, 15% comes from various “industrialised countries” (including EU countries), all others are migrants and their offspring from non-Western countries. Here as well, Surinamese and Turks are the largest “minority categories” in The Hague (Annex 6).

Delft, situated between The Hague and Rotterdam, is the second city in the The Hague region. Delft has 99,000 residents and is well-known because of its Technical University and several industries related to the university. The Delft population is relatively young, also because of its many students (including foreign students from CEE countries). Ethnically, the Delft population consists of about one fifth non-native residents. The last municipality in our study is **Westland**. Westland has 103,000 residents and exists only since 2004 as a merger of several rural villages. Westland is internationally known for its greenhouses and as a centre of Dutch horticulture. Traditionally, the horticulture sector employs many seasonal migrants, including migrant workers from CEE countries. Ethnically, Westland is less diverse compared to the other municipalities in our study. The large majority of the Westland population (92.3%) is born in the Netherlands.

3.2 CEE migrants in the two urban regions

3.2.1 Stocks, gender, age and duration of stay

Table 3 also shows the number of CEE residents in each of our six research locations. **Rotterdam** houses 9,105 registered CEE residents: 5,066 Poles, 2,360 Bulgarians, 865 Hungarians, and 814 Romanians (Statistics Netherlands, 2013d). Together, CEE residents are almost 2% of the Rotterdam population. However, given these numbers and the fact that many CEE residents do not formally register, the Rotterdam authorities estimate that there are between 29,000 and 49,000 CEE migrants in the city (Municipality Rotterdam, 2013a). Only for the registered Romanians in Rotterdam, the gender distribution is uneven (37% males, 63% females) (Annex 9). More than two third (68%) of the CEE residents in Rotterdam is younger than 34 years old (Annex 10). This includes 20% children (up to 17 years old) with a CEE background. This may indicate that CEE labour migrants have started to have their children come over and that they, more than previously, tend to permanent settlement. Younger CEE residents in Rotterdam also include students from the Erasmus University Rotterdam and other higher education institutions in Rotterdam.

Schiedam has 1612 residents from CEE countries: 903 Poles, 554 Bulgarians, 79 Hungarians and 76 Romanians (figures 2013). Between 2010 and 2013, the stock of CEE residents in Schiedam almost doubled (Municipality Schiedam, 2013). The gender ratio of CEE migrants in Schiedam is more or less even (Annex 9). Only with the Romanians, the gender ratio is uneven (38% males, 62% females). One in five of the CEE residents in Schiedam is a child younger than 14 years (Annex 10). The large majority (70%) of the CEE residents in Schiedam is between 15 and 40 years old. Only 10% of the CEE residents is 50 years or older. About one third of the CEE residents in Schiedam (38%) lives in the city less than one year. Almost half of them (47%) lived in Schiedam between one and five years. The remaining 15% of its CEE residents lived in Schiedam more than five years (Municipality Schiedam, 2012).

Lansingerland is a much smaller agricultural community north of Rotterdam. In 2013, Lansingerland housed 228 CEE residents: 148 Poles, 32 Hungarians, 32 Romanians and 16 Bulgarians (Statistics Netherlands, 2013d). Like in the previous municipalities, the gender ratio of CEE migrants in Lansingerland is more or less even – except for Romanians (23 of the 32 registered Romanians in the municipality are female) (Annex 9). As in other localities, the large majority (81.5%) of the registered CEE migrants in Lansingerland are relatively young (up to 45 years old) (Annex 10).

In 2013, 14,036 registered CEE migrants reside in **The Hague**: 7650 Poles, 4392 Bulgarians persons, 1026 Hungarians, and 968 Romanians. However, as many CEE migrants do not register, the municipality of The Hague estimates it hosts about 31,000 CEE residents in 2013 (Annex 7). Interviewed experts even estimated that there are 30,000 Poles present in The Hague (implying that the total number of CEE migrants in the city is even higher). The male-female ration of CEE residents in The Hague is almost even (48% male, 52% female). However, among both Romanians and Hungarians, women are overrepresented (63% females in the Hungarian group, 60% females in the Romanian group) (Annex 9). More than one third (37%) of the CEE residents in The Hague is younger than 25 years (Annex 10). As local officials observed, the number of CEE children (up to 19 years) in The Hague increased strongly in recent years. Data from schools in The Hague also indicate this development (Starrenburg & Van der Velden, 2013). Especially Romanian migrants are often young (many students). Almost half of the CEE

residents in The Hague (44%) is between 26 and 40 years old; and 19% is older than 40. About 20% of the Polish and Bulgarian migrants live in the city less than one year, while this share of Hungarian and Romanian migrants is much higher (respectively 36% and 27%). More than half of the migrants live in The Hague between one and five years, and between 2% and 14% live more than 5 years in The Hague (Starrenburg & Van der Velden, 2013).

Westland is one of the main centres of the Dutch horticulture and agriculture industry. Traditionally, the Dutch horticulture employs many foreign temporary workers – since the late 1990s, particularly temporary labour migrants from Poland. Also today, Westland has the largest share of foreign workers (as a percentage of the total workforce) in the whole region. About one in five employed individuals in Westland is a labour migrant (Annex 8). However, not all labour migrants working in Westland actually live there. Quite a few of them work in Westland, but live in neighbouring cities such as Rotterdam, The Hague or Schiedam. Local registrations show that Westland hosted 3,113 CEE migrants in 2013. The large majority came from Poland (3,001 persons). Relatively few CEE migrants came from other countries: 41 Romanians, 39 Hungarians, and 32 Bulgarians (Statistics Netherlands, 2013d). However, also the Westland local authorities estimate that the actual number of CEE migrants is much larger. Estimations range from 9,000 to 15,000 (Tieleman, 2013). The gap between the actual and estimated numbers of CEE migrants is in Westland even larger than elsewhere because Westland has many temporary labour migrants that officially do not need to register. Half (51%) of the registered CEE migrants in Westland are women, the large majority of them (88%) is between 15 and 44 years old (Annex 9 & 10).

Delft is the second city in the The Hague region. In 2012, Delft hosted 926 CEE migrants: 456 Poles, 240 Romanians, 127 Bulgarians, and 103 Hungarians (Statistics Netherlands, 2013d). The Delft University is one of the attractions for CEE migrants. In 2012, 166 students from CEE countries were registered at Delft University (TU Delft, 2012). Somewhat more than half (56%) of the CEE migrants in Delft are females. The large majority of them (78%) is between 15 and 44 years old (Annex 9 & 10).

3.2.2 Educational level and occupational level

The study of Engbersen et al. (2011, 2013), based on surveys among CEE labour migrants in various Dutch municipalities, included four of the six municipalities that are also included in this study (Rotterdam, The Hague, Westland, Lansingerland). The disadvantage is that these local surveys have rather limited numbers of respondents. The number of respondents of these local surveys varied from 150 in the city of Rotterdam to only 25 respondents in Lansingerland. The remaining two municipalities in the present study, Delft and Schiedam, did not participate in this research neither did we find any other survey data about CEE migrants in both cities. Because of lacking information, the following will focus on the four municipalities that were described in the Engbersen et al. study, disregarding CEE migrants in Delft and Schiedam.

Table 4 gives an overview of the educational level, labour market position and occupational status of CEE labour migrants in the Engbersen et al. (2011, 2013) study. The table starts with the educational level of the respondents. The figures confirm the previous picture that, unlike the former guest workers from the 1960s and 1970s, CEE labour migrants are generally well educated. In each municipality, the

(large) majority of the respondents had finished at least higher secondary education (that is, “high school”-level between 15 and 18 years old). Only a small minority of the respondents had finished only primary education or lower secondary education. The latter refers to schooling up to the age of 15 years old, like lower vocational school. In the Netherlands, persons with only lower secondary education are generally considered as being inadequate prepared for labour market participation. Only in Rotterdam, there are somewhat more low-skilled respondents (28%). The low-skilled respondents in Rotterdam are all of Bulgarian origin. This confirms the outcomes of national Dutch surveys among CEE migrants, that Bulgarians are generally lower educated compared to migrants from the other CEE countries.

Table 4. Educational level and labour market position of CEE labour migrants in four municipalities (%)

	Rotterdam	The Hague	Westland	Lansingerland
Educational level				
Only primary	5	1	2	0
Lower secondary	23	2	12	0
Higher secondary	44	55	80	80
Higher and academic	21	39	6	16
Other (incl. still studying)	7	2	0	4
Total (N)	(150)	(123)	(90)	(25)
Labour market position				
Temporary (incl. temporary employment agency)	27	30	98	92
Fixed contracts	8	13	1	0
Self employed	11	15	0	8
Informal (verbal contract)	37	36	0	0
Own household	3	0	0	0
Looking for work	12	4	0	0
Other	3	1	1	0
Total (N)	(147)	(123)	(90)	(25)
Occupational status*				
Higher & Lower professionals (I & II)	12	18	0	-
Routine workers & Self-employed (III & IV)	24	9	1	-
Supervisors & Skilled manual (V & VI)	19	21	11	-
Unskilled manual (VIIa)	38	39	11	-
Agriculture (VIIb)	8	13	77	-
Total (N)	(130)	(119)	(90)	(25)

*Occupations classified according to the classification of the EGP-class scheme (Erikson, Goldthorpe & Portocarero, 1979).

Sources: Snel et al., 2010 (Rotterdam), Snel et al., 2011a (The Hague), Engbersen et al., 2011 (Westland), Rusinovic et al., 2011 (Lansingerland), own computations.

The second level in Table 4 shows the labour market position of CEE labour migrants in the four municipalities in terms of their employment status. The figures show some notable differences between the labour market position of CEE migrants in the cities (Rotterdam and The Hague) and in the two rural municipalities (Westland and Lansingerland). The large majority of the respondents in Westland and Lansingerland were temporary workers in the local horticulture (greenhouses): they have temporary employment contracts or are employed by temporary employment agencies. In Rotterdam and The Hague, the labour market positions of interviewed CEE migrants are more diverse. Here as well, quite a few respondents work on the basis of temporary employment contract (27% in Rotterdam, 30% in The Hague). However, more remarkable are the large numbers of respondents working in informal work arrangements. In both cities, more than one in three respondents is involved in informal work. However, in reality these numbers may even be larger. Closer analysis of the data revealed that quite a few respondents in this survey who reported to be self-employed (11% in Rotterdam, 15% in The Hague) also stated they were not officially registered as being “self-employed”. This probably means that at least some of them also work informally (Snel et al., 2014). Respondents in both cities who reported to work informally were often Bulgarians, quite a few of them belonging to the Turkish-speaking minority in Bulgaria, who appeared to be employed by Turkish employers in Rotterdam or The Hague (for instance, in Turkish restaurants or snack bars).

Remarkable is also the relatively large number of unemployed respondents in Rotterdam (12%). Closer analysis shows these are also predominantly Bulgarians. In the other three research localities, there were only few or no unemployed respondents. Unemployment among Bulgarian labour migrants in Rotterdam may nevertheless be a serious problem that is also observed in other studies (Gijberts & Lubbers, 2013). Apparently, numerous Bulgarians come to the Netherlands (and probably to other EU countries as well) with the intention to find work, but without having organized employment before arrival. This means they have to find work after arrival. Some find regular (mostly temporary) employment, others end up in the informal sector of the urban economy, and others again have difficulties finding employment. Particularly the latter category may end up in so-called informal survival strategies (categorized as ‘other’ in Table 4). Four respondents in Rotterdam (all Bulgarians), two in The Hague (a Pole and a Romanian) and one in Westland (a Pole) were involved in informal survival strategies such as being a street musician, selling newspapers on the street (probably homeless newspapers), collecting old iron in the streets or begging.

The third level in Table 4 shows the occupational status of employed or self-employed respondents (both formal and informal) in the four municipalities. In the two rural research locations (Westland and Lansingerland), the large majority of the respondents are working in the local greenhouses and horticulture industries⁶. But also many respondents living in Rotterdam or The Hague work in the horticulture industry. These are labour migrants who work in nearby Westland, but were housed in Rotterdam or The Hague because of insufficient housing facilities in Westland itself. Temporary employment agencies generally facilitate transport from the place where labour migrants live and where they work. Other respondents in Rotterdam or The Hague work in so-called unskilled or

⁶ In the report of Lansingerland (Rusinovic et al., 2011), no information is given about their occupational status. However, 21 (84%) respondents work in the horti- and agricultural sector, one respondent works in the factory sector (4%), and 3 respondents work in the service sector (12%), for example being a cleaner or driver.

semi-skilled manual jobs. This category includes a wide variety of different jobs and occupations, ranging from factory work, cleaning (mostly in private households), dish washing, kitchen help or cook in restaurants or snack bars, etc. About one in five of the respondents in Rotterdam and The Hague work as supervisors or in skilled occupations. These are mainly construction workers, but also painters, locksmiths, carpenters, hairdressers and supervisors in for instance warehouses. One in four of the working respondents in Rotterdam, and one in ten in The Hague, is classified as 'routine worker' or 'self-employed'. However, the large number of self-employed labour migrants in Rotterdam in particular may be somewhat exaggerated because – as we already mentioned – some respondents say they are 'self-employed' but appear not to be officially registered as such (and *de facto* work informally). Finally, a surprising category are the relatively large numbers of respondents working in 'higher or lower service occupations'. One in eight of the Rotterdam respondents, and almost one in five in The Hague, belong to this category. They work as consultants, accountants, IT-specialists, teachers or scientists. This is, indeed, an interesting category because it contradicts the widespread assumption that most or all CEE labour migrants work in low-qualified occupations. There is more heterogeneity among CEE labour migrants in the Netherlands, and probably in other West-European countries as well, than is often assumed (Engbersen et al., 2013).

4 Types of CEE migrants

In this section we describe seven different types of CEE migrants we can distinguish, amongst others, in the Netherlands: horticultural workers, highly skilled workers and students, own account workers, informal workers in the cleaning, catering and care, sex workers and children of CEE labour migrants.

4.1 Horticultural workers

Already before the EU enlargement in 2004, the Dutch greenhouses and horticulture attracted particularly many Polish seasonal workers. In the late 1980s, about 50,000 Poles worked in this industry (Dagevos, 2011, p. 31). More recent studies come to various outcomes regarding the number of CEE labour migrants working in the horticulture. Studies that examine a representative sample of CEE migrants in the Netherlands based on GBA, estimate that between 3% and 17% of all CEE migrants in the Netherlands work in the horti- and agriculture (De Boom et al., 2008; Dagevos, 2011; Gijsberts & Lubbers, 2013; Timmermans et al., 2012). Studies specifically focusing on CEE labour migrants using snowball sampling and similar methods come to much higher numbers (31% to 50%) of CEE migrants working in horticulture (Engbersen et al., 2011; Municipality Rotterdam, 2008; Weltevrede et al., 2009). Timmermans et al. (2012) present one explanation for the differences in percentages between these two types of studies. Their study is based on registration data. Migrants, who are working through an employment agency in agriculture, are not registered in the agriculture sector, but in the sector of the employment agency. They find that of the migrants who are working in the sector of employment agencies, 47% actually works in the agricultural sector.

Another possible explanation for the differences in outcomes between both types of studies is that they have interviewed different kinds of respondents. As mentioned before, migrants who settle register themselves more often than temporary migrants. Studies based on a representative sample of migrants in GBA contain therefore more permanent migrants than studies that make use of snowball sampling. From both types of studies, it appears that especially migrants who have been in the Netherlands for only a short time work in horticulture or agriculture (Heyma et al., 2008; Timmermans et al., 2012; Weltevrede et al., 2009). Moreover, more than CEE migrants working in other economic branches, migrants working in horticulture tend to be typical seasonal or circular migrants. Many stay and work in the country for only a few months, and then return home. In the study of Engbersen et al. (2011) this is especially the case for the region of Westland, with a high concentration of horticultural businesses. Another interesting finding is that especially Poles are working in this sector, rather than Bulgarians or Romanians (Engbersen et al., 2011; Gijsberts and Lubbers, 2013; Weltevrede et al., 2009), which is confirmed by interviewed experts in Westland. Migrants who work in the agricultural sector are significantly likely to earn less than migrants working in other sectors (Weltevrede et al., 2009).

4.2 Highly skilled workers and students

One of the remarkable outcomes of the study of Engbersen et al. (2011, 2013) is that there is more heterogeneity among CEE labour migrants than is often assumed. Although many CEE labour migrants in the Netherlands work in low-qualified and low-paid jobs, there are also exceptions of CEE labour migrants working at Dutch universities or in similar professional occupations. Also the numerous international organizations in The Hague employ some CEE nationals. Interviewed experts indicate that especially among Romanian and Hungarian migrants living in The Hague, there is a group which is highly educated and highly skilled. These migrants speak English well and therefore have different networks and sources of social capital.

Another category that does not fit in the popular image of CEE nationals working at the bottom of the Dutch labour market are foreign students from these countries. Both Rotterdam and Delft have a university that also attracts students from CEE countries. In 2012, 166 students from CEE countries were registered at Delft University (29 Bulgarian, 21 Hungarian, 37 Polish, and 79 Romanian students) (TU Delft, 2012). In fact, the interviews for the Engbersen et al. (2011) study were mainly conducted by Polish, Romanian and Bulgarian students from the Erasmus University Rotterdam.

4.3 Self-employed workers

Until 2014, Bulgarians and Romanians were ineligible to work in the Netherlands without a valid working permit. After January 1st, this obligation is no longer applied. But before 2014, many Romanians and Bulgarians who came to work in the Netherlands without having the required work permit tried to work as “self-employed workers”. More than one fourth of the Bulgarian respondents of Engbersen et al. (2011, p. 38) said he or she worked as self-employed worker. However, closer analysis showed that some of them had not formally registered as being self-employed (as is required by Dutch labour legislation). They were, in fact, informal workers (Snel et al., 2014). According to interviewed experts, most self-employed in The Hague and Rotterdam worked in the construction sector. In Westland, there

are few self-employed workers since most CEE workers were employed by temporary employment agencies of other intermediaries.

4.4 Informal workers (cleaning, catering, care)

Data about informal work is hard to collect. However, the Engbersen et al. (2011) study shows that 14% of the respondents work in informal arrangements. In the interviews, we asked the respondents whether they “work with an informal/verbal employment contract” and took this as an indicator for informal work. Informal work is particularly very common among the Bulgarians; more than half of the Bulgarians report to work in informal arrangements. They work mainly as cleaning workers, construction workers, bartenders and painters. The Hague interviewed experts indicate that there is a growing group of CEE migrants working in domestic care and in the cleaning sector. This could be informal, but for the experts it is hard to indicate whether this is the fact. Overall, the end of the transitional rule makes it easier to get access to the formal labour market for Bulgarian and Romanian migrants (Snel et al., 2014).

4.5 Sex workers

Sex workers are a rather invisible social category, therefore they are mentioned before in this report. Although prostitution is, under certain conditions⁷, legalised in the Netherlands, there are no official statistics on the number and origin of sex workers. It is, therefore, unknown how many CEE migrants work as prostitutes in the Netherlands. However, some research gives an indication of the presence of CEE migrants among sex workers in the Netherlands. In a study by Dekker, Tap and Homburg (2006) on the social position of 354 prostitutes, nine percent of them is of Central-Eastern European origin. These CEE prostitutes are mainly working in the illegal part of the prostitution sector. Other research show that under-aged boy prostitutes are particularly coming from Romania (MOVISIE, 2009). A report from the Public Health Service (GGD) of Amsterdam (Van der Helm, 2008) about the activities of ‘trust women’ (Dutch: ‘vertrouwensvrouwen’) report on an increase between 2005 and 2007 in Romanian, Bulgarian and Hungarian women among the Amsterdam window prostitutes.

Regarding the local level, only for The Hague city, limited data on CEE sex workers is available. Recent research of Heuts, Tromp and Homburg (2012), based on estimates of experts, come up with a total number of 1000 to 1500 prostitutes working in licensed prostitution businesses. After the EU enlargements of both 2004 and 2007, experts saw an increase in the number of sex workers coming from the CEE countries Romania, Bulgaria and Hungary. According to the experts, a quarter of all (legal) window prostitutes in The Hague are coming from these three CEE countries.

In the Netherlands, a considerable part of the (possible) victims of human trafficking⁸ are coming from CEE countries. In 2012, most (possible) victims of human trafficking were coming from Bulgaria (18 percent). But other CEE countries are also well represented in the list of origin countries of (possible)

⁷ Those forms of prostitution in which adult prostitutes are voluntary engaged, are under certain conditions legalised (Daalder, 2007).

⁸ In the Netherlands, CoMensha is responsible for the registration of human trafficking. At the slightest suspicion of practices of human trafficking, investigative agencies like the Royal Military Constabulary and police investigation departments are obliged to report these (possible) victims of human trafficking to CoMensha (CoMensha, 2012).

victims of human trafficking: Hungary (13 percent), Romania (8 percent) and Poland (4 percent). A possible explanation for the high number of Bulgarian, but also Romanian, (possible) victims of human trafficking, lies in the fact that Bulgaria and Romania are no members of the Schengen-zone, and therefore 100% passport controls are taking place at Dutch airports. Most female (possible) victims of human trafficking are exploited in prostitution, most male (possible) victims of human trafficking are exploited in the agricultural sector (CoMensha, 2012).

4.6 Survival strategies (homeless, beggars, street musicians, etc.)

As about other informal migrant categories, there are few reliable data about homeless CEE migrants and CEE migrants involved in various informal survival strategies in the Dutch cities. This is also due to the fact that homeless CEE migrants are generally excluded from homeless shelters. The formal criterion is “regional attachment”: only homeless individuals present in the city for at least two year have access to a homeless shelter – a requirement most homeless CEE migrants cannot meet (Snel et al. 2011b). However, when city temperatures are expected to be too cold to sleeping rough, this requirement expires during winter. In the cold winter of 2012, homeless shelters in the four largest cities in the Netherlands provided shelter to 16 to 131 CEE migrants. Some studies also nuance this ‘homelessness’ rather as ‘marginal residents’, people with uncertain places of stay, instead of typifying them, in general, as ‘real’ homeless (Van Gestel, Van Straalen, Verhoeven & Kouwenberg, 2013, p. 84).

Nevertheless, there is political commotion, particularly in The Hague, about homeless CEE nationals, mainly Poles. There are complaints about nuisance caused by Polish homeless individuals sleeping rough in the city. Some years ago, the The Hague authorities estimated there are about 600 homeless CEE nationals in the city. This number is probably exaggerated because they counted CEE nationals making use of day care facilities for the homeless. These individuals are not necessarily really homeless (Engbersen et al., 2011; Snel et al. 2011b). In addition, other sources indicate much smaller and decreasing numbers of homeless CEE nationals in cities like Rotterdam and The Hague. In 2012, only 6 CEE nationals made use of homeless shelters in Rotterdam, which is a decrease of 18% in comparison with 2011 (Municipality Rotterdam, 2013a). The number of CEE migrants sleeping rough is also low. In 2011, The Hague indicated 135 CEE migrants sleeping rough (Bertram & Van Aartsen, 2012: 5). This could be an effect of the Rotterdam and The Hague collaboration with Barka, a Polish organisation that organises the voluntary return for Polish nationals without any means of existence. In addition, the fact that sleeping rough is officially forbidden in Rotterdam may scare off homeless CEE nationals from the city.

The low number of homelessness or beggars is confirmed by our interviewed experts. However, Rotterdam experts indicate an increasing number of CEE migrants (especially non-registered Bulgarians) selling homeless journals in the streets: this “is real work for them”. It seems that street musicians and people selling street newspapers, having more informal strategies of survival, are more visible in Rotterdam and The Hague. To be eligible to sell homeless journals, one needs a pass. At the moment, the maximum of 500 passes is reached in Rotterdam.

4.7 Children of CEE migrants

In Rotterdam, interviewed experts indicate that “80% of the CEE migrant cases is related to families. Not a first wave of males, that is not any longer. Women, for instance Polish women, are more independent. Therefore you see more single parent families”. The amount of children is increasing in both the cities of Rotterdam and The Hague, represented by the numbers of registered pupils. In Rotterdam, 2,228 children of CEE migrants are registered in GBA (age 4-22 years), of which 65% (1,437) are getting education (in the academic year 2011-2012). Most children (955) are in the age of 4-11 years or in the age of 0-3 years (864) (Municipality Rotterdam, 2013a, p. 27). In The Hague, the total amount of school-going CEE children has nearly doubled since 2010: from 1,077 in 2010 to 2,083 in 2013. Not only in early schooling, but also in primary education, the numbers of CEE children have increased: from 532 in 2008 to 1,224 in 2013 (Starrenburg & Van der Velden, 2013).

5 Conclusion

Polish, Bulgarian, Hungarian, and Romanian migrants appear to be the four largest (registered) migrant groups in the Netherlands. However, the majority of the Hungarian migrants was already residing in the Netherlands before the EU enlargements in 2004 and 2007. In this report, the focus lies on the urban regions of The Hague and Rotterdam. In the Rotterdam region, we focused on two other municipalities (Schiedam and Lansingerland) next to the central city Rotterdam. Also in the The Hague region, we focused on three municipalities: The municipality of The Hague itself, Delft and Westland. Especially Westland is an important centre of Dutch horticulture that traditionally attracts many seasonal migrants from CEE countries.

In the six selected municipalities, a more or less even distribution of gender among the migrant groups was found. Only among the Romanian migrants, females are overrepresented in all municipalities. This aspect needs further in-depth research. Most CEE migrants are relatively young and unmarried. In the cities, the share of children is highest, while the rural area of Westland has the highest share of CEE migrants between 15 and 45 years old.

Rotterdam and The Hague, as the largest municipalities in the urban regions, have an important labour but also housing function for the broader region. Labour migrants work in the horticulture in Westland, but some are housed in neighbouring cities like The Hague, Schiedam, and Rotterdam. Horticultural work seems to have an important entrance function for CEE migrants in gaining resources or future perspectives in the Netherlands. While Westland face mostly with horticultural workers, the cities are housing a more diverse population of migrants. Another temporary group seems to be the highly skilled and the foreign students. In the construction sector, the self-employed are an important migrant group in the cities of Rotterdam and The Hague. However, we do not know whether this is a temporary group. We also do not have much information about two other types of migrants which we distinguish: informal workers and sex workers. The number of homeless CEE migrants in The Hague and Rotterdam are low, but the number of CEE migrants using other forms of survival strategies are increasing. Finally, the larger cities appear to be mostly the domain of CEE migrants residing with

children. In a follow-up study, we need to examine what implications the presence of these types of migrants have for the urban regions of The Hague and Rotterdam. For example, which social problems the cities face relating to the housing of labour migrants in poor areas of these cities needs to be discussed in future research.

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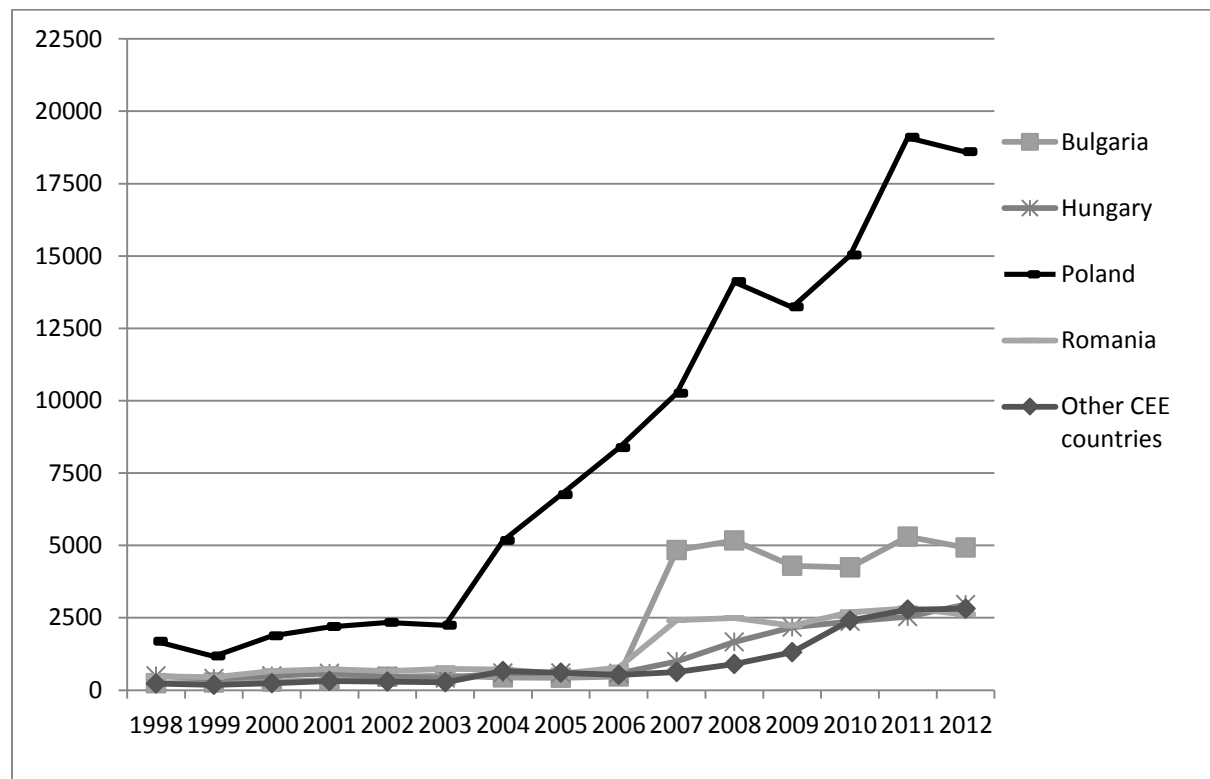
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Annexes

Annex 1 Immigrant flows

Figure A1. Immigration CEE countries (country of birth) towards the Netherlands, 31 December 1998 - 2012



Source: Statistics Netherlands (2013b), own calculations.

Annex 2 Distribution of marital status

Table A1. Marital status of first generation migrants, 1 January 2013

	Bulgaria	Hungary	Poland	Romania
Unmarried	13,783 (76.0)	7,410 (63.6)	50,598 (58.9)	7,401 (54.6)
Married	3,611 (19.9)	3,090 (26.5)	28,499 (33.2)	4,839 (35.7)
Widowed	104 (0.6)	362 (3.1)	1,279 (1.5)	209 (1.5)
Divorced	641 (3.5)	784 (6.7)	5,552 (6.5)	1,098 (8.1)
Total	18,139 (100.0)	11,646 (100.0)	85,928 (100.0)	13,547 (100.0)

Source: Statistics Netherlands (2013e), own calculations.

Annex 3 Migration motives

Table A2. Migration motives of migrants per country of birth in the period of 1998 to 2011, in percentages (migration motive asylum is excluded).

	1998	2000	2002	2004	2006	2007	2009	2011
Bulgaria								
Labour	33 (14.2)	64 (22.3)	454 (12.1)	60 (13.9)	105 (22.9)	3,001 (62.1)	2,553 (59.6)	3,089 (58.6)
Family	142 (60.9)	120 (41.8)	55 (52.2)	186 (43.1)	126 (27.5)	1,068 (22.1)	1,089 (25.4)	1,389 (26.4)
Study	41 (17.6)	57 (19.9)	237 (22.0)	137 (31.7)	209 (45.6)	390 (8.1)	434 (10.1)	524 (9.9)
Au pair/internship	4 (1.7)	18 (6.3)	100 (4.8)	23 (5.3)	6 (1.3)	32 (0.7)	11 (0.3)	10 (0.2)
Other	10 (4.3)	13 (4.5)	22 (7.3)	24 (5.6)	11 (2.4)	329 (6.8)	168 (3.9)	218 (4.1)
Total	233 (100.0)	287 (100.0)	454 (100.0)	432 (100.0)	458 (100.0)	4,832 (100.0)	4,281 (100.0)	5,268 (100.0)
Hungary								
Labour	91 (19.6)	118 (25.3)	102 (23.0)	180 (31.9)	236 (41.9)	570 (59.0)	1,442 (67.2)	1,929 (77.6)
Family	182 (39.1)	156 (33.5)	159 (35.9)	159 (28.1)	94 (16.7)	178 (18.4)	360 (16.8)	391 (15.7)
Study	125 (26.9)	139 (29.8)	156 (35.2)	164 (29.0)	177 (31.4)	125 (12.9)	163 (7.6)	58 (2.3)
Au pair/internship	56 (12.0)	33 (7.1)	11 (2.5)	16 (2.8)	6 (1.1)	22 (2.3)	19 (0.9)	27 (1.1)
Other	7 (1.5)	19 (4.1)	6 (1.4)	46 (8.1)	50 (8.9)	71 (7.3)	162 (7.6)	79 (3.2)
Total	465 (100.0)	466 (100.0)	443 (100.0)	565 (100.0)	563 (100.0)	966 (100.0)	2,145 (100.0)	2,485 (100.0)
Poland								
Labour	297 (18.2)	550 (30.6)	701 (31.1)	1,961 (38.5)	4,611 (55.6)	6,384 (62.7)	8,792 (66.9)	13,077 (68.9)
Family	913 (56.0)	818 (45.4)	1,024 (45.4)	1,771 (34.7)	2,442 (29.4)	2,538 (24.9)	3,018 (23.0)	4,120 (21.7)
Study	123 (7.5)	199 (11.1)	324 (14.4)	451 (8.8)	449 (5.4)	345 (3.4)	360 (2.7)	448 (2.4)
Au pair/internship	226 (13.9)	153 (8.5)	169 (7.5)	184 (3.6)	100 (1.2)	223 (2.2)	94 (0.7)	224 (1.2)
Other	57 (3.5)	57 (3.2)	29 (1.3)	731 (14.3)	695 (8.4)	685 (6.7)	878 (6.7)	1,112 (5.9)
Total	1,631 (100.0)	1,800 (100.0)	2,254 (100.0)	5,097 (100.0)	8,298 (100.0)	10,175 (100.0)	13,142 (100.0)	18,982 (100.0)
Romania								
Labour	120 (25.6)	157 (25.1)	175 (27.4)	166 (23.8)	303 (40.0)	1,046 (43.9)	1,160 (52.8)	1,558 (56.3)
Family	260 (55.4)	313 (50.1)	335 (52.5)	318 (45.6)	244 (32.2)	741 (31.1)	509 (23.2)	637 (23.0)
Study	40 (8.5)	87 (13.9)	92 (14.4)	137 (19.6)	111 (14.6)	186 (7.8)	228 (10.4)	336 (12.1)
Au pair/internship	16 (3.4)	34 (5.4)	13 (2.0)	40 (5.7)	77 (10.2)	49 (2.1)	28 (1.3)	16 (0.6)
Other	26 (5.5)	20 (3.2)	10 (1.6)	37 (5.3)	17 (2.2)	357 (15.0)	242 (1.0)	211 (7.6)
Total	469 (100.0)	625 (100.0)	638 (100.0)	698 (100.0)	758 (100.0)	2,380 (100.0)	2,196 (100.0)	2,767 (100.0)

Source: Netherlands Statistics (2012), own calculations.

Annex 4 Duration of stay per first generation immigrants (percentages between brackets).

Table A3. Duration of stay per first generation immigrants (percentages between brackets) on 1 January 2012

	< 1 year	1 year	2-5 years	5-10 years	10-15 years	> 15 years	Total
Bulgaria	4,898 (28.1)	2,861 (16.4)	7,102 (40.7)	1,142 (6.5)	679 (3.9)	782 (4.5)	17,464 (100.0)
Hungary	2,307 (22.1)	1,575 (15.1)	2,339 (22.4)	880 (8.4)	627 (6.0)	2,682 (25.7)	10,420 (100.0)
Poland	18,078 (23.3)	11,507 (14.8)	23,116 (29.8)	11,800 (15.2)	3,631 (4.7)	9,479 (12.2)	77,642 (100.0)
Romania	2,507 (19.3)	1,724 (13.3)	3,456 (26.6)	1,796 (13.8)	1,385 (10.7)	2,119 (16.3)	12,989 (100.0)
Total	27,790 (23.4)	17,667 (14.9)	3,6013 (30.4)	15,618 (13.2)	6,322 (5.3)	15,062 (12.7)	118,515 (100.0)

Source: Netherlands Statistics (2013f), own calculations.

Annex 5 Unemployment rates, national data

Table A4. Migrants (as indicated by parent's country of birth) registered in GBA without a paid job, percentages, 31 December

	2007	2008	2009	2010
Bulgaria				
N without a paid job	5,260	7,460	8,550	9,970
Total N	8,835	12,755	15,056	16,961
%	59.54	58.49	56.79	58.78
<i>Of which:</i>				
Children (< 18 years)	10.65	12.33	14.74	16.25
Students	19.01	20.51	23.04	24.37
Elderly (> 64 years)	2.28	1.74	1.75	1.50
Working partner	15.97	14.88	14.74	13.44
Receiving welfare	5.32	4.02	4.21	4.41
Hungary				
N without a paid job	3,660	3,890	4,330	4,650
Total N	13,438	14,464	15,710	16,901
%	27.24	26.89	27.56	27.51
<i>Of which:</i>				
Children (< 18 years)	8.20	9.25	10.85	12.90
Students	10.38	11.05	13.39	14.41
Elderly (> 64 years)	35.52	32.65	28.87	26.67
Working partner	17.76	17.74	18.71	18.28
Receiving welfare	10.11	9.77	10.39	9.89
Poland				
N without a paid job	18,680	21,890	24,410	15,950
Total N	58,853	68,844	77,178	87,323
%	31.74	31.80	31.63	29.72
<i>Of which:</i>				
Children (< 18 years)	17.93	20.69	22.86	24.86
Students	18.36	20.05	22.20	24.35
Elderly (> 64 years)	7.98	6.94	6.23	6.09
Working partner	27.57	25.54	26.42	25.39
Receiving welfare	9.64	9.00	11.39	11.60
Romania				
N without a paid job	4,480	5,280	5,990	6,690
Total N	11,392	13,036	14,259	15,785
%	39.33	40.50	42.01	42.38
<i>Of which:</i>				
Children (< 18 years)	10.71	10.80	10.35	10.46
Students	17.41	17.80	18.70	20.18
Elderly (> 64 years)	6.03	5.49	4.84	4.48
Working partner	29.02	26.89	25.71	23.77
Receiving welfare	10.49	9.66	10.52	10.01

Note: percentages do not add up to 100% as people can exist in several categories.

Source: König et al. (2013); Statistics Netherlands (2013a), own calculations.

Annex 6 Diversity in Rotterdam and The Hague (in percentages)

Table A5. Ethnic diversity in Rotterdam and The Hague on 1 January 2012

	%
Rotterdam	
Surinamese	8.6
Antilleans	3.7
Cape Verdians	2.5
Turks	7.8
Moroccans	6.7
Other non-Western immigrants	7.9
Dutch	51.4
Immigrants of European Union	6.9
Other Western immigrants	4.6
Unknown	0.0
Total	100.0
The Hague	
Surinamese	9
Antilleans & Aruban	2
Turks	8
Moroccans	6
Non industrial	14
Other industrial	10
Dutch	50
Southern Europe	1
Total	100.0

Source: Municipality The Hague COO (2012, p. 7); Hoppesteyn (2012, p. 35).

Annex 7 Estimated stocks of CEE- Migrants in Rotterdam and The Hague 2008-2012

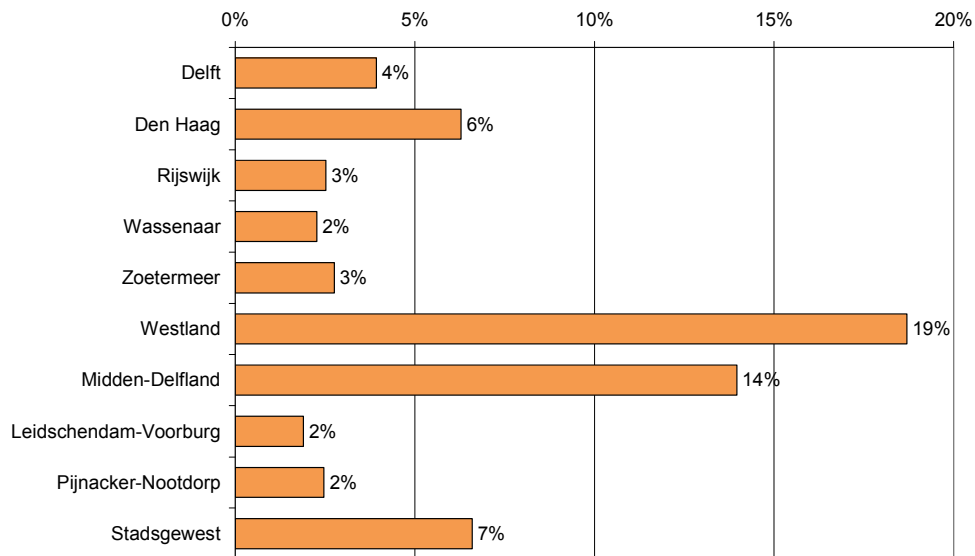
Table A6. Estimated stocks of CEE- migrants in Rotterdam and The Hague, 2008-2012

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Rotterdam						
Estimate	15000	15000	22000	27000-45000	37000	30.000-50.000
Registered	4964	5636	8916	10851	11783	'almost 12000'
The Hague						
Estimate	-	-	30000	30000-35000	31000	31000
Registered	5435	8385	10265	12122	14255	15745

Source: Starrenburg & Van der Velden (2013); Municipality Rotterdam (2013b).

Annex 8 Amount of labour migrants as percentage of total number of employed persons.

Figure A2. Amount of labour migrants as percentage of total number of employed persons in the municipalities belonging to the urban region of The Hague in 2009.



Source: Adapted from Timmermans et al. (2012, p. 10)

Annex 9 Gender ratio's in the selected municipalities

Table A7. Gender of CEE- migrants per country of birth per municipality in percentages, 1 January 2013

	Men	Women	Total	Total N
Rotterdam				
Bulgaria	48.9	51.1	100.0	2,360
Hungary	49.7	50.3	100.0	865
Poland	46.3	53.7	100.0	5,066
Romania	37.0	63.0	100.0	814
Total	46.5	53.5	100.0	9,105
Schiedam				
Bulgaria	49.6	50.4	100.0	554
Hungary	54.4	45.6	100.0	79
Poland	48.3	51.7	100.0	903
Romania	38.2	61.8	100.0	76
Total	48.6	51.4	100.0	1,612
Lansingerland				
Bulgaria	56.3	43.8	100.0	16
Hungary	53.1	46.9	100.0	32
Poland	41.9	58.1	100.0	148
Romania	28.1	71.9	100.0	32
Total	42.5	57.5	100.0	228
The Hague				
Bulgaria	52.7	47.3	100.0	4,392
Hungary	37.2	62.8	100.0	1,026
Poland	45.3	54.7	100.0	7,650
Romania	38.9	61.1	100.0	968
Total	46.6	53.4	100.0	14,036
Westland				
Bulgaria	46.9	53.1	100.0	32
Hungary	35.9	64.1	100.0	39
Poland	49.0	51.0	100.0	3,001
Romania	41.5	58.5	100.0	41
Total	48.7	51.3	100.0	3,113
Delft				
Bulgaria	52.8	47.2	100.0	127
Hungary	45.6	54.4	100.0	103
Poland	38.4	61.6	100.0	456
Romania	50.8	49.2	100.0	240
Total	44.4	55.6	100.0	926

Source: Statistics Netherlands (2013d), own calculations.

Annex 10 Age distribution in the selected municipalities

Table A8. Age of CEE- migrants per country of birth per municipality in percentages on 1 January 2013

	0 to 14	15 to 44	45 to 64	> 65	Total	Total N
Rotterdam						
Bulgaria	14.5	72.6	12.0	0.9	100.0	2,360
Hungary	8.4	74.0	12.1	5.4	100.0	865
Poland	9.4	73.3	15.4	1.9	100.0	5,066
Romania	3.7	78.6	14.3	3.4	100.0	814
Total	10.1	73.7	14.1	2.1	100.0	9,105
Schiedam						
Bulgaria	20.4	68.6	10.8	0.2	100.0	554
Hungary	3.8	70.9	16.5	8.9	100.0	79
Poland	11.2	76.4	12.0	0.4	100.0	903
Romania	7.9	65.8	21.1	5.3	100.0	76
Total	13.8	73.0	12.2	1.0	100.0	1,612
Lansingerland						
Bulgaria	18.8	56.3	18.8	6.3	100.0	16
Hungary	15.6	56.3	12.5	15.6	100.0	32
Poland	8.1	79.1	12.8	0.0	100.0	148
Romania	6.3	62.5	25.0	6.3	100.0	32
Total	9.6	71.9	14.9	3.5	100.0	228
The Hague						
Bulgaria	10.2	73.6	15.6	0.6	100.0	4,392
Hungary	6.5	78.7	9.7	5.1	100.0	1,026
Poland	10.7	77.0	11.4	1.0	100.0	7,650
Romania	6.3	75.2	15.5	3.0	100.0	968
Total	9.9	75.9	12.8	1.3	100.0	14,036
Westland						
Bulgaria	25.0	65.6	9.4	0.0	100.0	32
Hungary	2.6	56.4	30.8	10.3	100.0	39
Poland	2.2	89.3	8.4	0.1	100.0	3,001
Romania	7.3	70.7	17.1	4.9	100.0	41
Total	2.5	88.4	8.8	0.3	100.0	3,113
Delft						
Bulgaria	7.9	80.3	11.8	0.0	100.0	127
Hungary	1.9	67.0	16.5	14.6	100.0	103
Poland	5.3	74.6	16.9	3.3	100.0	456
Romania	1.3	87.5	9.2	2.1	100.0	240
Total	4.2	77.9	14.1	3.8	100.0	926

Source: Statistics Netherlands (2013d), own calculations.