

KAUNAS UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY
FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES, ARTS AND HUMANITIES

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**THE EUROPEAN UNION POLICIES FOR INCREASING
MOBILITY OF HIGHLY QUALIFIED WORKERS**

Master's Thesis

Supervisor

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KAUNO TECHNOLOGIJOS UNIVERSITETAS
SOCIALINIŲ, HUMANITARINIŲ MOKSLŲ IR MENŲ FAKULTETAS

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EUROPOS SAJUNGOS POLITIKOS AUKŠTOS
KVALIFIKACIJOS DARBUOTOJŲ MOBILUMUI SKATINTI

Baigiamasis magistro projektas

Vadovė

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Patvirtinu, kad mano, **Lauros Janavičiūtės**, baigiamasis projektas tema „The European Union policies for increasing mobility of highly qualified workers“ yra parašytas visiškai savarankiškai ir visi pateikti duomenys ar tyrimų rezultatai yra teisingi ir gauti sąžiningai. Šiame darbe nei viena dalis nėra plagijuota nuo jokių spausdintinių ar internetinių šaltinių, visos kitų šaltinių tiesioginės ir netiesioginės citatos nurodytos literatūros nuorodose. Įstatymų nenumatytų pinigų sumų už šį darbą niekam nesu mokėjęs.

Aš suprantu, kad išaiškėjus nesąžiningumo faktui, man bus taikomos nuobaudos, remiantis Kauno technologijos universitete galiojančia tvarka.

(vardą ir pavardę įrašyti ranka)

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LIST OF MAIN TERMS

Activity rate – the proportion of a country's total population that makes up the country's labour force (Financial Dictionary).

Country of origin – the country which is the source of migratory flows and of which a migrant may have citizenship (European Commission, EUIP glossary).

Directive – an EU legal instrument that is binding, as to the results to be achieved, upon each EU country to which it is addressed. Each country is responsible for implementing the Directive into its own national legislation (European Commission, EUIP glossary).

Employment rate – The percentage of the labour force that is employed. The employment rate is one of the economic indicators that economists examine to help understand the state of the economy (Financial Dictionary).

Highly qualified worker – a person who is employed in an EU country, is protected as an employee under national employment law and/or in accordance with national practice, irrespective of the legal relationship, for the purpose of exercising genuine and effective work for, or under the direction of, someone else; is paid; and has the required adequate and specific competence, as proven by higher professional qualifications (European Commission, EUIP glossary).

Labour market – the labour market consists of labour supply of the population of the one hand and labour demand of enterprises and other production units on the other hand. Labour markets may be local or national (European Commission, EUIP glossary).

Labour mobility – the degree to which people are able and willing to move from one job to another or from one area to another in order to work (Cambridge Dictionary).

Initiatives – new plans or processes to achieve something or solve a problem (Cambridge Dictionary).

Immigration – in EU context, the action by which a person from a non-EU country establishes his or her usual residence in the territory of an EU country for a period that is, or is expected to be, at least twelve months (European Commission, EUIP glossary).

Non-EU worker – a person of a state that is not member of the EU nor a citizen of Iceland, Lichtenstein, Norway or Switzerland that temporarily comes to work to the EU Member States (Cambridge Dictionary).

Residence permit – and authorisation issued by the competent authorities of an EU country allowing a non-EU citizen to stay legally on its territory (European Commission, EUIP glossary).

Unemployment rate – the number or percentage of people in a country or area who do not have jobs (Cambridge Dictionary).

Workforce – the group of people who work in a company, industry, country, etc. (Cambridge Dictionary).

Work permit – an authorisation issued by the competent authorities of an EU country allowing a non-EU citizen to work legally in its territory (European Commission, EUIP glossary).

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Reikšminiai žodžiai: *Europos Sąjunga, darbo rinka, aukštos kvalifikacijos darbuotojai, darbo mobilumas, iniciatyvos, ne ES piliečiai, imigracija.*

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SANTRAUKA

Europos Sąjunga visuomet darė ir vis daro didelę įtaką Europos Sąjungos piliečių gyvenimui, nuo pat Europos Ekonominės Bendrijos pradžios. ES politikos reguliuoja daugybę sričių, kaip kad aplinkos apsaugą, konkurencingumą, prekybą, teisingumą, vidaus reikalus, užsienio ir saugumo politikas bei žemės ūkio politikas. Kasmet gyventojų ES viduje vis daugėja, o tai reiškia naujus iššūkius ir sunkumus. Didžioji ES piliečių dalis mato trūkumų šiandieninėje darbo rinkoje.

Aukštos kvalifikacijos darbuotojai palieka savo gimtąsias šalis, ieško geresnių gyvenimo sąlygų kitose ES šalyse, taip pat dalinasi darbo vietomis su aukštos kvalifikacijos darbuotojais iš ne ES šalių, todėl emigracija ir imigracija, ir toliau išlieka itin didelės svarbos procesais Europos Sąjungoje. Senėjanti visuomenė ir gyventojų skaičiaus mažėjimas aktualizuoja kvalifikuotos darbo jėgos pritraukimą iš už ES ribų. Aukštos kvalifikacijos darbuotojų svarba pradėta diskutuoti, kuomet XXI a. pradžioje šių darbuotojų pradėjo trūkti Europos Sąjungoje.

ES darbo rinka turi daug tarptautinių konkurentų, tokių kaip JAV, Kanada, Australija, Naujoji Zelandija, kurių darbo rinkos šiai dienai yra vis dar patrauklesnės nei Europos Sąjungos, dėl aukšto užimtumo ir žemo nedarbo lygių bei iniciatyvų, kuriomis į tas šalis yra pritraukiami aukštos kvalifikacijos darbuotojai. Siekdama ir toliau išlaikyti konkurenciją, didinti patrauklumą ir skatinti aukštos kvalifikacijos darbuotojų mobilumą ES viduje ir iš ne ES šalių, Europos Sąjunga vykdo įvairias iniciatyvas šalių narių nacionaliniu lygmeniu ir bendru ES lygmeniu. Šių iniciatyvų pagalba yra suteikiamos visos reikalingos galimybės ES piliečiams laisvai judėti darbo rinkos viduje ir siekiama padidinti ES darbo rinkos patrauklumą tarp aukštos kvalifikacijos darbuotojų iš ne ES šalių.

Baigiamojo darbo struktūra:

1. Pirmajame skyriuje „**Bendrinės Europos Sąjungos darbo rinkos sąlygos ir jos tarptautiniai konkurentai**“ pateikiama informacija apie ES darbo rinkos tarptautines perspektyvas,

jos dabartinę situaciją ir ateities strategijas, taip pat apie ES darbo rinkos tarptautinius konkurentus ir jų vykdomas politikas.

2. Antrajame skyriuje „**Aukštos kvalifikacijos darbuotojų mobilumo ir įdarbinimo iniciatyvos Europos Sąjungoje**“ pabrėžiama, kaip yra vykdomas darbo jėgos mobilumas ES viduje ir aukštos kvalifikacijos darbuotojų iš ne ES šalių imigracijos svarba ES.

3. Trečiasis šio darbo skyrius „**Aukštos kvalifikacijos darbuotojų iš ES ir ne ES šalių mobilumas ir pritraukimo iniciatyvų empirinis tyrimas**“ pateikia ES darbo rinkos įvertinimą ir aukštos kvalifikacijos darbuotojų iš ES ir ne ES šalių įdarbinimo iniciatyvų sėkmingumą.

Darbas atliktas naudojant aprašomąjį, interpretacinį ir gretinamąjį metodus.

Darbo rezultatai. Literatūros apžvalga parodė, kad žmonių užimtumas yra vienas svarbiausių klausimų Europos Sąjungos politikos formavimuisi. Įdarbinti kuo daugiau žmonių tampa vis sudėtingiau, kuomet daugelyje Europos šalių vyrauja aukštas nedarbo lygis. Kad atitiktų šių dienų darbo rinkos reikalavimus žmonės privalo turėti tam tikrus įgūdžius ir būti praėję tam tikrus mokymus. Su ekonomika susiję pokyčiai vyksta daug greičiau, nei politiniai. Aukštos kvalifikacijos darbuotojai yra be galo vertinami šiandieniniame pasaulyje. Pasaulinė konkurencija dėl šalių lyderiavimo, ekonomikos augimo, didėjančio aukštos kvalifikacijos darbuotojų poreikio, priverčia turtingas pasaulio šalis kurti tarptautines įdarbinimo strategijas, kad pritrauktų kuo daugiau aukštos kvalifikacijos darbuotojų iš užsienio. Laisvo asmenų judėjimo laisvė yra labai vertinama Europos Sąjungoje ir laikoma vienu svarbiausių ES pasiekimų.

Darbo jėgos mobilumas padeda spręsti problemas susijusias su įgūdžių ir darbo jėgos trūkumais. ES iniciatyvos pritraukiant aukštos kvalifikacijos darbuotojus yra vykdomos dviem lygmenimis: šalių narių nacionaliniu lygmeniu ir bendrinio ES lygiu. Kiekvienais metais tūkstančiai žmonių palieka savo gimtąsias šalis, kad galėtų susikurti geresnį gyvenimą kitose Europos Sąjungos šalyse narėse. Kiekvienais metais mobiliųjų ES gyventojų vis daugėja, todėl ES mobilumo direktyvą galima būtų laikyti sėkminga, tačiau tobulintina, todėl kad iš visų mobiliųjų ES gyventojų, tik labai maža dalis yra aukštos kvalifikacijos darbuotojai. 2013-2014 metais, aukštos kvalifikacijos darbuotojams iš ne ES šalių buvo išduoti 67 994 nacionaliniai leidimai ir 26 816 ES Mėlynosios kortelės. Populiariausi traukos centrai buvo Vokietija, Nyderlandai, Danija, Švedija ir Prancūzija. Empirinis tyrimas parodė, kad palyginus nacionalinių iniciatyvų ir Mėlynosios kortelės veiksmingumą, pastaroji galėtų būti įvertinta tik kaip dalinai veiksminga.

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SUMMARY

The European Union has always had and still has an innumerable impact on the lives of the EU citizens, since the beginning of the European Economic Community. The EU policies regulate a wide range of areas, including agriculture, competition, environment, home affairs, foreign and security policy, justice and trade. Every year, the EU population is growing, which means new challenges and difficulties. The most of the EU citizens see weaknesses in today's labour market.

Highly qualified workers leave their home countries, search for better living conditions in other EU countries, as well as share jobs with highly qualified workers from non-EU countries. Accordingly to this, emigration and immigration continues to be extremely important processes in the European Union. An aging population and depopulation highlights the need of the recruitment of highly qualified workers from outside the EU. Importance of highly qualified workers became widely discussed, when the beginning of the 21st century brought a lack of such workers in the European Union.

The EU labour market has a lot of international competitors, such as the United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand whose labour markets to this day are still more attractive than the European Union, because of high employment and low unemployment rates, also initiatives that attracts highly qualified workers to those countries. In order to remain competitive, to increase the attractiveness and encourage mobility of highly qualified workers in the EU and from non-EU countries, the European Union has to pursue a variety of initiatives at national level of the Member States and at the EU level in general. With support of these initiatives all necessary opportunities for the EU citizens to move freely within the labour market are provided and it increases the attractiveness of the EU labour market among the highly qualified workers from non-EU countries.

Structure:

1. The first chapter of this work '**General labour market conditions in the European Union and its international competitors**' contains information about the EU labour market in an international perspective, its current situation and future strategies and international competitors of the EU labour market and their labour policies.

2. The second chapter of this work '**Highly qualified workers movement and recruitment initiatives in the European Union**' examines the labour mobility within the EU and the importance of the highly qualified workers immigration into the EU from non-EU countries.

3. The third chapter of this work '**Mobility of highly qualified workers within the EU and from non-EU countries: situation and recruitment initiatives empirical research**' gives the evaluation of the situation in the EU labour market and discusses of initiatives for labour mobility of highly qualified workers within the EU and from non-EU countries.

Descriptive, interpretative and comparative methods of research were used in this paper.

The results of the research. Literature review revealed that employment is one of the main issues in the European Union policy making. To get a job becomes an issue, when many parts of Europe face high rates of unemployment. Highly qualified workers are the most valuable workforce in today's world. The global competition of countries for leadership, economic growth, growing need of highly qualified work force, makes rich countries to create the international recruitment strategies to attract and hire highly qualified workers from abroad. The right of free movement of persons is very important for the European Union and it is kept to be one of the best accomplishments of the EU.

Labour mobility helps to solve problems related to skill gaps and labour shortages. The initiatives for attracting highly qualified workers to the EU are carried out in two ways: at national level of Member States and at general level of the EU. Every year thousands of people are leaving their home countries in order to find a better life in other European Union Member States. With the years the number is increasing. Thus the EU Mobility directive could be evaluated as bringing benefits, yet with a room for improvement, because highly qualified workers still make just a small part in all the mobile citizens' population. 67 994 National permits were issued to highly qualified workers from non-EU countries in 2013-2014, and on the same year, 26 816 EU Blue Cards were issued. The most popular destinations were Germany, Netherlands, Denmark, Sweden and France. The empirical research showed that National initiatives are more effective in fostering the mobility of highly qualified workers, but this has the threat of unequal benefits in different EU regions; the EU

Blue Card initiative effectiveness is weak but with high potential, thus needs further improvements in its issuing policies.

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INTRODUCTION

The European Union has always had and still has an innumerable impact on the lives of the EU citizens, since the beginning of the European Economic Community. The EU policies regulate a wide range of areas, including agriculture, competition, environment, home affairs, foreign and security policy, justice and trade. Every year, the EU population is growing, which means new challenges and difficulties. The most of the EU citizens see weaknesses in today's labour market. Highly qualified workers leave their home countries, search for better living conditions in other EU countries, as well as share jobs with highly qualified workers from non-EU countries.

Accordingly to this, emigration and immigration continues to be extremely important processes in the European Union. An aging population and depopulation promotes the recruitment of highly qualified workers from outside the EU. Importance of highly qualified workers became widely discussed, when the beginning of the 21st century brought a lack of such workers in the European Union. The EU labour market has a lot of international competitors, such as the United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand whose labour markets to this day are still more attractive than the European Union, because of high employment and low unemployment rates, also initiatives that attracts highly qualified workers to those countries.

In order to remain competitive, to increase the attractiveness and encourage mobility of highly qualified workers within the EU and from non-EU countries, the European Union has to pursue a variety of initiatives at national level of the Member States and at the EU level in general. With support of these initiatives all necessary opportunities for the EU citizens to move freely within the labour market are provided and it increases the attractiveness of the EU labour market among the highly qualified workers from non-EU countries.

In 21st century scientists proceeded examining the EU labour market, the mobility of highly qualified workers, the positive and negative aspects of migration. These topics are not widely discussed among the Lithuanian authors, but at this point there are several important studies to mention: "Analysis of migration as the element of demographic changes in the Europe and Union context" by Beržinskienė, D., Kairienė, S., and Virbickaitė, R. (2009); "Labour market segmentation" (liet. „Darbo rinkos segmentacija“) by Jakštienė, S. (2013); "International labour migration: its essence, form and determinants" (liet. „Tarptautinė darbo jėgos migracija: jos esmė, formos ir sąlygojantys veiksniai“) by Kripaitis, R. and Romikaitytė, B. (2005); "Active labour market policies:

theory and practice” (liet. „Aktyvi darbo rinkos politika: teorija ir praktika“) by Moksvina, J. and Okunevičiūtė-Neverauskienė, L. (2011).

Foreign authors are more likely to notice and analyse the EU labour market and focus on highly qualified workers. The EU labour market was analysed by, among others, Gold, M. (2009); Blanpain, R. (2010) and Barnard, C. (2013). Mobility and immigration of highly qualified workers were discussed by Boswell, C. and Geddes, A. (2011) and Foti, K. (2015). Recruitment initiatives of highly qualified workers were investigated by Zimmermann, K. F. (2009); Mannila, S. and others (2010) and Grove, C. (2012).

Relevance of the topic. Year of 2016 has been very difficult for the European Union. From the refugee crisis to the economic slowdown in emerging markets, from increasing acts of terrorism to cyber-attacks, from the decision of the UK voters to withdraw from the EU to the uncertain future of the European Union. This year’s “Global Risks report” (2016) draws a lot of attention to the global risks that will influence the global development over the next decade. Across Europe, a major concern is given to societal and economic risks. The report states that the European region mostly will suffer from the involuntary migration and unemployment or underemployment. All these problems are well known as the ones that torture the continent for decades, but the EU representatives cannot find appropriate solutions to solve these problems. Researchers Boswell and Geddes (2011) that have analysed mobility of highly qualified workers, state that the employment policy in the EU is used as a measure to regulate the relations with other world countries. This highlights the need to assess the situation of labour market and look for recommendations that could help to foster mobility. Such a research can help to observe the current situation in the EU labour market and evaluate effectiveness of initiatives for the mobility of the EU citizens and non-EU citizens. This final thesis takes the above stated topic could be used for practical purposes to improve the EU labour market.

Research problem. Over the past years, a substantial change in the European Union’s labour market, both in positive and negative sense, has occurred. The changes have to be researched and explained. Many EU countries face demographic problems, while at the same time, the labour market experiences the greater need for innovations and the lack of highly qualified workers. The mobility of highly qualified workers within the EU and from non-EU countries is very important to maintain the effective labour market. There are different initiatives to make the labour market even more effective and attractive, but these initiatives need to be assessed in more detail. The questions yet to be answered are: How to remain competitive among the powerful international labour market competitors, while sustaining good international relations with them? How to increase the EU labour market

attractiveness and are the current initiatives for attracting highly qualified workers effective? These are currently among the top issues throughout the European Union.

The object of this final project is the European Union policies for labour mobility of highly qualified workers.

The subject of this final project is the European Union labour market situation and the general European, as well as National level initiatives for attracting highly qualified workers and dealing with labour mobility.

The aim of this final project is to assess the European Union policies related to labour mobility of highly qualified workers.

The tasks of this final project are the following:

1. To discuss the general labour market conditions in the European Union.
2. To identify and compare highly qualified workers' movement and recruitment initiatives in the European Union.
3. To assess the trends of labour mobility of highly qualified workers in the EU and discuss the success of relevant recruitment initiatives.
4. To develop recommendations to the European Commission on how to increase the European Union labour market attractiveness.

Structure:

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Research methodology:

Descriptive, interpretative and comparative methods of research were used in this paper.

The results of the research. Literature review revealed that employment is one of the main issues in the European Union policy making. To get a job becomes an issue, when many parts of Europe face high rates of unemployment. People need skills and training to meet today's labour market requirements. Economic related changes are moving faster than political ones. Highly qualified workers are the most valuable workforce in today's world. The global competition of countries for leadership, economic growth, growing need of highly qualified work force, makes rich countries to create the international recruitment strategies to attract and hire highly qualified workers from abroad. The right of free movement of persons is very important for the European Union and it is kept to be one of the best accomplishments of the EU.

Labour mobility helps to solve problems related to skill gaps and labour shortages. The initiatives for attracting highly qualified workers to the EU are carried out in two ways: at national level of Member States and at general level of the EU. Every year thousands of people are leaving their home countries in order to find a better life in other European Union Member States. With the years the number is increasing. Thus the EU Mobility directive could be evaluated as bringing benefits, yet with a room for improvement, because highly qualified workers still make just a small part in all the mobile citizens' population. 67 994 National permits were issued to highly qualified workers from non-EU countries in 2013-2014, and on the same year, 26 816 EU Blue Cards were issued. The most popular destinations were Germany, Netherlands, Denmark, Sweden and France. The empirical research showed that National initiatives are more effective in fostering the mobility of highly qualified workers, but this has the threat of unequal benefits in different EU regions; the EU Blue Card initiative effectiveness is weak but with high potential, thus needs further improvements in its issuing policies.

1. GENERAL LABOUR MARKET CONDITIONS IN THE EUROPEAN UNION AND ITS INTERNATIONAL COMPETITORS

Since the establishment in 1957 as the European Economic Community (EEC), till nowadays European Union (EU), this derivative always has had an innumerable impact on the lives of everyone living in the territory of the EU. Union's policies regulate wide range of public life, including agriculture, competition, consumer affairs, and environment, as well as home affairs, foreign and security policy, justice and trade. *"The Single European Market programme and Economic and Monetary Union have refashioned the European business environment by eliminating non-tariff barriers to trade, deregulating markets and consolidating neo-liberal economic agendas"* (Gold, 2009 : xviii). The population of the EU increases with every wave of expansion, which means that every time the Union encounters with more challenges and difficulties. Nowadays labour market is one of the areas where the European Union citizens see weaknesses. Highly qualified workers leave their own countries and migrate within the EU for better work conditions, also have to share work places with highly qualified workers from non-EU countries. The EU labour market has many international competitors, such as USA, Canada, China, Russia and etc. that has more attractive labour markets. Part of this paper contains literature review that covers the title of the Master's Thesis "The European Union policies for increasing labour mobility of highly qualified workers" and includes information about the European Union labour market, its current situation, future plans and international competitors. This material will help to identify main information related to the labour market and compare it with international labour markets.

1.1. The EU labour market in an international perspective

Job creation is a priority for all countries in the world. Yet breakthrough is hard to reach because today's economic environment and policy circumstances are not correlating for common goal. Employment challenges, such as *"fighting unemployment and joblessness have been key priorities for policymakers since the early post-war years"* (Clasen and Clegg, 2011:318). Recent decades have seen changes in people welfare and in governance of social policies in many European countries. *"Changes in governance have been associated with strategies to cope with societal and economic changes"* (van Berkel and Borghi, 2007:280). Since the European Union has become a closely interrelated system and its directives, recommendations and regulations affect all policy areas of Member States, national employment policies can only be studied in the context of the EU. Taking into account only European level, employment is one of the main issues in policy making. The times of crisis brought high level of

unemployment, on the other hand recovering after it and increasing employment rates brought the problem of social inclusions in a broader sense.

The integration processes in the European Community and the European Union affect many national law branches. One of them – labour law that regulates employment relations and are closely related with public relations. At the moment the European Union applies many different law rules that regulate the labour relations in the Member States. The European Community and now - the European Union - has become not only an economic, monetary union or the single market in which free movement of goods, services, capital and people is possible, but it has also become a social union that provides a high level protection of workers' social and labour rights.

Closer and more diverse co-operation of Western European countries after the Second World War has been led by the economic reasons. Several years after the end of war, impoverished economy showed few signs of vitality, preventing recovery of other sectors. First of all, a complicated situation in the European Coal and Steel Community led Member States to seek for common solutions to fight against the crisis. The creation of common coal and steel market and united regulation of all Member States coal and steel sector was the most acceptable and effective way to solve regional economic problems. *“On the other hand, by uniting countries coal and steel capacity, it was aimed to reach political objectives – to consolidate the reconciliation in the Western Europe, to start unification of the whole continent for peace and the common welfare”* (Martikonis and Sinkevičius, 2002:114). After all, the European Coal and Steel Community activity was too narrow and specialized. Member States wanted to see economic growth, preservation and increase of employment, also the welfare of the population. For economic reasons, the Member States of the European Community established the fundamental freedoms of free movement of workers within one common market.

“The period from the 1950s through to the early 1970s is often described as the Community's golden age when a rapid rise in rates of growth and a corresponding increase in overall living standards appeared” (Kenner, 2003:23). As long ago as the 1950s, workers were getting benefits from aid program in the European Coal and Steel Community (ECSC). The European Social Fund (ESF), established in the beginning of 1960s, was the main weapon in combating unemployment. In the 1980s and 1990s, action programmes on employment focused on specific target groups, and a number of observatory and documentation systems were established. With a purpose to encourage free movement and help workers to find a job place in another Member State, the European Employment Service (EURES) was established in 1992. According to the European Commission (2016g), EURES can be named as a network for cooperation of the European Commission and the Public Employment Services of the EEA Member States (plus Switzerland) and also other associate organisations. Because of the high unemployment in the biggest part of EU countries, the White Paper launched discussion on

Europe's employment and economic strategy by bringing the employment issue to the top for the first time. In 1997, the European Employment Strategy was launched (Luxembourg Jobs Summit/ Amsterdam Treaty). The idea was to develop the co-ordination and convergence of employment policies in Europe in order to tackle the persistent unemployment levels in many Member States and to be equipped to deal with macroeconomic shocks.

“Due to the ongoing process of macroeconomic integration, including the European Monetary Union, there was the understanding that structural problems in the labour market of one country would diminish its economic performance and therefore have negative impacts on the economies of other European countries and the European Union in general” (FEANTSA, 2009:1). Establishment of Amsterdam Treaty did not change the principles in the employment policies, but it gave the European Institutions, new tasks and tools in the area of employment. Luxembourg Job Summit in November 1997 initiated the European Employment strategy (EES) together with the open method of coordination, so called Luxembourg process (EUR-Lex, 2005). The main components that had to facilitate the implementation of the strategy were: adoption of Employment Guidelines, yearly Joint Employment Report, National Action Plans for Employment and etc. Even a new working method at the EU level was initiated, in order to help to take action in a policy field where there is no direct legal basis for the EU.

The Amsterdam Treaty was established to help to change and supplement Communities and European Union establishment agreements. *“On 1 of May, 1999 the Amsterdam Treaty not only extended and deepened the cooperative areas of Member States. For labour law it is significant because of slightly changes and supplements of social policy were transferred to the European Community Treaty”* (Davulis, 2004:56). The main goals in the treaty were significantly expanded in order to achieve better results and involve Member States in more active participation in Communities life. The Community encouraged the equality of women and men, so all the people would have equal rights to get a job, would enjoy equal wages and work principles. The Amsterdam Treaty abolished the risk to have two types of the EU labour law. This Treaty provided the establishment of an Employment Committee with advisory status to promote coordination between Member States on Employment and labour market policies. *“The tasks of the Committee shall be:*

- *to monitor the employment situation and employment policies in the Member States and the Community;*
- *to formulate opinions at the request of either the Council of the Commission or on its own initiative and help the Council regarding employment matters (reporting, guidelines and the like)”* (Blanpain, 2010:88).

The Committee is composed of two members per Member State. The Committee has to consult Member States on questions related to management and labour.

On 23-24 March 2000 the European Council held a meeting in Lisbon to make an agreement on new goal for the Union in order to foster economic reform, employment and social cohesion as part of a knowledge-based economy. *“This strategic goal was for the Union to become the most competitive and dynamic knowledge based economy in the world, capable of sustainable economic growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion”* (Barnard, 2012:111). The heads of all Member States agreed that to achieve main goal, they need a strategy. *“As originally conceived, Lisbon was about harnessing the internal market strategy, the Broad Economic Policy Guidelines and the Employment Guidelines to enable the Union to regain the conditions for full employment, not just a high level of employment as envisaged by Article 2 EC”* (Barnard, 2012:112). The Lisbon strategy was reconsidered in 2005 and replaced by the Europe 2020 in June 2010. The Europe 2020 strategy will be discussed in 1.2 sub-chapter.

Looking to the history of the European Union from the beginning to nowadays it is obvious that the Union faced problems not only related to the employment, but also problems related to **migration**. It could be even said that Europe’s history has been shaped by migration. Through the second half of the 20th century, European countries have experienced four main migration periods (OECD, 2016b). Post-war migration was known as the return of ethnic citizens and other displaced persons to their home countries. This kind of migration flows all across the Europe caused large labour shortages. Many firms and private agencies actively tried to recruit migrant workers. *“These major migration movements within Europe and from developing countries contributed to the economic development and unparalleled growth which took place in Europe between 1945 and 1975, often referred to as the Trente Glorieuses”* (Garson and Loizillon (OECD), 2003:2). During this migration period European countries experienced strong economic growth that was boosted by the development of building, heavy industry, manufacturing and public work sectors. All stages of migration can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1. Types of migration periods in Europe (Globalisation, Migration and Development, OECD 2016)

YEAR	TYPE OF MIGRATION
1945 – 1975	War adjustment and decolonization
1970s – 1980s	Labour migration, economic crisis
1980s – 1990s	Asylum seekers, refugees and ethnic minorities
1990s – Present	Skilled workers, asylum seekers/refugees

The beginning of the second period of migration was noted by the economic crisis and the oil price increase in 1973. Some European countries tried to do everything what was possible to reduce immigration. Until the late 1980s the employment related migration flows dramatically decreased, but there was significant increase in other categories of migration. People that came to the Europe with first flow tried to bring their whole families with the second one. The whole situation got worse and governments had to stop all recruitment policies. In order to stop workers migrations, governments increased costs of recruitments, limited categories of workers and introduced annual quotas, also tried to encourage migrant workers to return to their own countries. Because of the economic crisis migrants stayed in Europe and tried to benefit from their social rights, which were similar to native workers. Garson and Loizillon (2003) stated that by some United Nations calculations, in two-year period only 10% of immigrant workers have returned to their home countries that followed the 1973 crisis. The European Community countries once again understood that migration is very closely connected to the labour market needs.

In the late 1980s the third migration period began. Most popular European recipient countries among the migrants were Ireland, Italy, Greece, Portugal and Spain. Immigrants were coming not only from former colonies, but also from Africa and Asia. More people appeared to be asylum seekers and refugees that were leaving their own countries for political reasons and regional conflicts. In 1997 Europe received 70 000 asylum seekers from former Yugoslavia due to the civil war (Garson and Loizillon (OECD), 2003). Increased restrictions in migration policies did not let so many migrants come to Europe, but people used regional conflicts to become asylum applicants. After the collapse of Soviet Union, movement of ethnic minorities increased. The shocking changes were brought by the fourth migration period. The development of education and health, communication and information technology sectors caused highly skilled workers shortage in some countries. This increase in employment-related migration also included unskilled foreign labour in agriculture, constructions, domestic services and public works.

Over the past 60 years, Europe has undergone a movement of inside workers and immigration from other countries. At first the European Community was open for migrant workers, but later, when the number of migrant workers was unstoppable some restrictions appeared. Prior to the start of World War I, there were no borders controls, but later passports and visas were introduced in Europe. After the World War II labour mobility was encouraged again, because of the lack of highly qualified workers. The right of free movement was intended for very active population to see if people are able to support themselves in new destination countries. People were brave to test free mobility and face national administrative decisions. The real meaning of worker was expanded to include not only

workers in industry sectors, but also those that work short-term or have seasonal employment. In 1990 the freedom of movement was guaranteed for working people families, pensioners, students and even unemployed. The Treaty of Amsterdam incorporated Schengen rules that helped European citizens travel across European borders without showing their passports. Every expansion of the European Union brings more workers that want to take advantage of free movement of people.

1.2. The current situation of the EU labour market and future strategies

In today's global society, social and labour market policies can and should complement each other. The European Union in recent years carried out reforms in the field of social security and has developed active inclusion policies that influenced growth of economy and more jobs creation. *“Economists, sociologists, geographers, and policy analysts frequently refer to labour markets. Most agree that a market is the aggregation of exchanges between buyers and sellers for some good. Thus a labour market is created through the hiring of workers by employers”* (Tomaskovic-Devey, 2013:46). To get a job becomes an issue when many parts of Europe face high rates of unemployment. People need skills and trainings to meet today's labour market requirements. The European Social Fund (ESF) provides help to local, regional and national organisations. Many traineeships, outplacement initiatives and efforts are given to help people to travel across the EU for work and receiving all needed competences.

Europe is considered as one of the world's most prosperous regions and many citizens enjoy living here. According to the data of the European Commission (2014) about 124 million of people living in the EU (24% of whole population) are considered to be in or at risk of social exclusion and poverty. One more very important aspect talking about the job is education. In order to be competitive and sure about the future, people have to be well educated. Everything begins at school where young people get formal education. With good qualifications they are ready to enter the labour market or go on to university. Choosing what to study at the university help young people to concentrate on the field where they want to work and get all necessary skills and trainings. Poor quality and inefficient public services holds a country back from economic growth. The European Union also funds programmes and projects for training of civil servants and all government systems.

The European Union citizens' prosperity depends on the variety of goods that they need, quality of services that they get and of course being well paid at work. For Union more working people means

avoidance of exclusion and poverty. *“The employment status under which a worker carries out his or her work is crucially connected to employment rights and social security”* (Muehlberger, 2007:44). Having better work and higher quality jobs with higher earnings, chances to make progress, take opportunities and enjoy working that is what everyone need. For millions of people job is one of the most important and sometimes the only source of income. *“The job consists of social functioning and self-evaluation basis. Persons, who do not work, can result serious consequences not only in material, but also in moral way”* (Moskvina and Okunevičiūtė - Neverauskienė, 2011:10). Despite the importance of the development of social policy, employment measures in many European countries for some time were neglected. A lot of attention was given to the problems resulting the high unemployment rate and a lot less to measures, which could help to reduce this level.

For better understanding of the European Union labour market current situation it is necessary to look through the statistics of activity, employment, unemployment, minimum wage rate and statistics of employment rate compared with other worlds labour markets. APPENDIX 1 shows information about activity rate of EU population aged 15-64. The activity rate is the percentage of economically active people of that age. According to the definitions of the International Labour Organization (ILO) for the purposes of the labour market statistics people are classified as employed, unemployed and economically inactive. Activity rate of people aged 15-64 in the EU in 2014 reached 72,3%. The biggest rate of activity in the age group of 15-64 was in Sweden – 81,5% , Netherlands – 79% and Denmark 78,1%. The lowest rate of activity was in Italy – 63,9%, Romania 65,7% and in Croatia 66,1%. Looking through this statistic from 2010 to 2014 it is clear that the activity rate in some countries is steady increasing, while in other countries it is fluctuating or even decreasing.

The unemployment rate in the EU is around 10%, which is a high, compared to other world countries. Eurostat estimates that 20,973 million men and women in the EU-28, of whom 16,326 million were in the euro area, were unemployed in August 2016. Looking at the Member States (Figure 1), the lowest unemployment rates in August 2016 were in Czech Republic – 3,9% and Germany – 4,2%, while the highest rates have been registered in Greece – 23,4% and Spain – 19,5%. Comparing EU-28 and EA-19 (Euro Area) with US and Japan (see APPENDIX 2) unemployment rates from 2000 to 2014, it could be seen that the worst situation was and still is in the European Union. In 2000 the unemployment rate in Japan was 4,9% and US – 4%, while in EU – 9,3%. In 2016 the same rate in Japan – 3% and US – 4,9%, while on EU-28 – 8,7% and EA-19 – 10,1%. During the financial crisis that started in 2008, the EU, Japan and US suffered from high unemployment rates, but Japan and US decreased the number significantly, while the EU was not able to do the same. Many

reasons can be pointed out to understand what causes unemployment. Some of them are: the education gap, not having enough skills, low wages and etc.

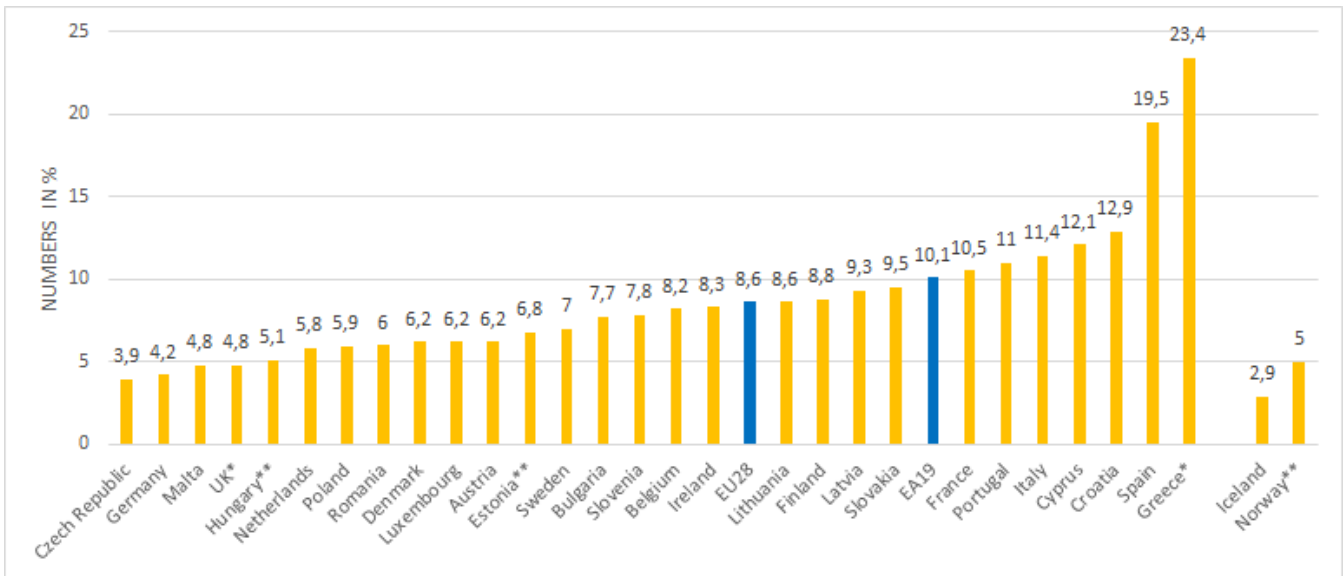


Figure 1. Unemployment rates in the EU, 2016, August *July 2016; **July 2016 (Eurostat, 2016e).

The employment rate is the proportion of the working age population that is in employment (OECD, 2016c). Employed people are those who do any work that is paid by employers, those who work in their own business that are temporary absent due to illness, maternity or paternity leave. Looking to the employment rate, age group 15-64, period 2010-2014 (see APPENDIX 3) in some countries the employment rate through that period increased, in other decreased or was fluctuating. In 2014 the highest employment rate was in Sweden – 74,9% and Germany – 71,8%, while the lowest employment rate was in Greece – 49,4%. Comparing with Japan – 72,7% and US – 68,1% in 2014, the average of EU-28 is 64,9% that is also less. Assessment of the situation changes when employment rate of 2015 by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) is analysed. Figure 2 (below) shows the European Union in world context. Top 3 countries with high employment rate are: Iceland – 86,3%, Switzerland - 80,7% and Sweden – 76,3%. Top 3 countries with low employment rate are: South Africa – 42,6%, Turkey – 50,8% and Greece – 52,2%. In two years situation in Greece got better, because employment rate increased by 2,8%. In 2016 EU (28 countries) average is 65,5% which is really low compared with other world labour markets that are more advanced in employment: Iceland, Switzerland, Norway, New Zealand, Japan, Canada and other. Of course between countries with high employment rate we can see the European Union countries, such as Sweden, Netherlands, Germany, Denmark, but it is not enough to increase the average of employment rate of the Union, when the other part of countries are near the bottom.

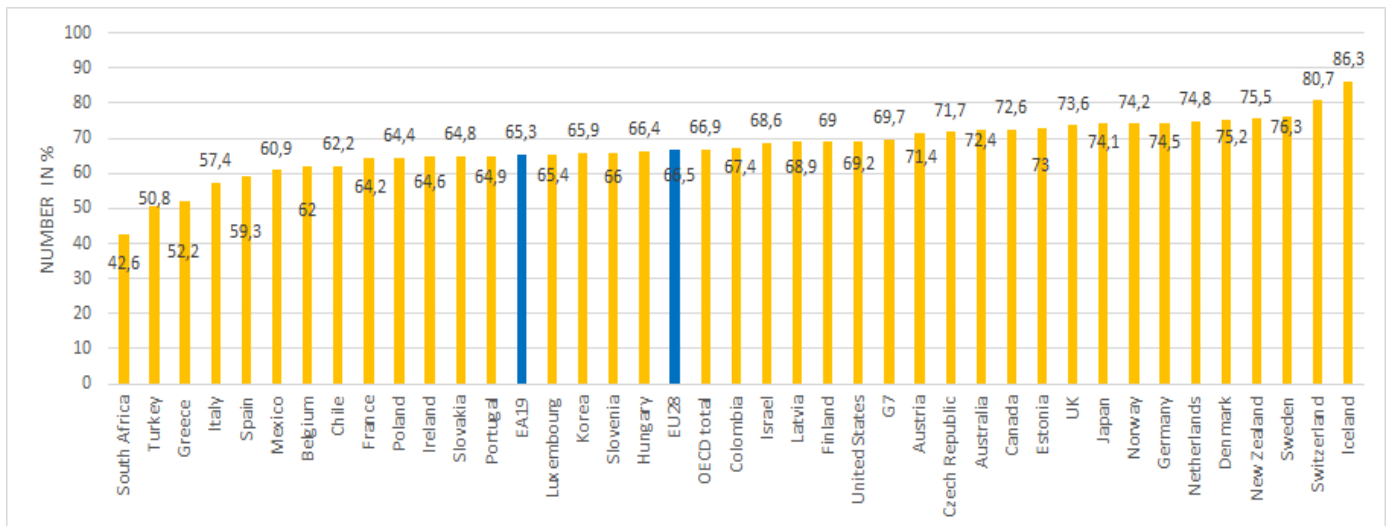


Figure 2. Employment rate in the world, age group 15-64, 2016 (OECD 2016a).

Employment rates highly depend on the level of educational attainment and statistics are often based on the age group 25 to 64. The employment rate of people who had completed a tertiary (bachelor's, master's or doctoral) education was 83,7% in Eu-28 in 2014 (see APPENDIX 4), a lot higher than the rate of 52,6% of those who have attained no more than a primary or lower secondary education. The employment rate of persons in EU-28 with an upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education – 73,4%. This statistics shows that a person having a tertiary education is more likely to be active in a labour market than the person with only primary or lower secondary education. At this point a question arises: do people get what they deserve? The numbers of wages and salaries do not look positive. It seems that people are well educated, employed and should get huge salaries. The EU-28 average labour cost per hour is EUR 25.03 in 2015 (see APPENDIX 5). However, there are significant differences between Member States where hourly labour costs are ranging between EUR 4.08 and EUR 41.31. *Eurostat* states that labour costs are made up of costs for wages and salaries plus non-wage costs such as employers' social contributions. At this place, as an example could be taken Lithuania and Denmark, when people in Lithuania with highest percentage in tertiary education get one of the lowest hourly costs, while people in Denmark having high percentage of tertiary education get the highest labour costs in the European Union.

Year of 2010 can be marked as the new beginning for the European Union. Economic changes have been moving faster than political ones. A lot of people were suffering from the unemployment and serious actions had to be taken by the EU. Economists (Rogowski, Salais and Whiteside, 2011) in their book wrote about labour market transitions, dramatic transformations and future of employment policy. In 2010 J. M. Barroso had a speech about the situation in the EU: *“To achieve a sustainable*

future, we must already look beyond the short term. Europe needs to get back on track. Then it must stay on track. That is the purpose of Europe 2020. It's about more jobs and better lives". Back to 2010, the European Union initiated its growth strategy for decade 2010-2020 called "Europe2020". Following the same path as the Lisbon Strategy, Europe2020 accomplished further steps towards more coordinated and integrated EU policies, giving more attention to economic growth.

In accordance with this context, employment has become one of the key priorities. In the framework of the Lisbon Strategy, employment policies have been consolidated with other policy fields, such as social policies. *"Europe2020 goes beyond this and has integrated all dimensions of European policies in tackling employment and labour market issues"* (Zimmermann and Fuertes, 2014:3). Since the beginning of the Lisbon Strategy, all previous EU employment policies have been strongly interrelated with each other, mainly focusing on economic growth. Whereas the Lisbon Strategy mostly highlighted ecological, economic, employment and social issues, the Europe2020 is focused on providing more detailed targets. Five main targets of the Europe2020 are: climate change/energy, education, employment, research and innovation, social inclusions and poverty reduction (European Commission, 2011). This 10-year strategy for jobs and smart, sustainable and inclusive growth defined for the first time a number of headline targets, including:

- labour market: increase the labour market participation of people aged 20 to 64 to 75% by 2020, reducing structural unemployment and promoting job quality;
- developing a skilled workforce responding to labour market needs and promoting lifelong learning;
- social inclusion and combating poverty: lift at least 20 million people out of the risk of poverty and exclusion;
- improving the quality and performance of education and training systems: reduce the proportion of early school leavers to 10% (from 15%) and increase the share of 30-34-years-olds having completed tertiary or equivalent education to at least 40% (instead of 31%).

Europe2020 seeks to make equal all Member States budgets and economic policies to be sure that the implementation of key targets will happen. The implementation of the Europe2020 strategy follows, in the framework of the European Semester, a set of priorities defined in the Annual Growth Survey (Zimmermann and Fuertes, 2014). The Annual Growth Survey prepared by the European Commission, arranges the general economic and social priorities for the EU for the upcoming year. Fighting with the social consequences of the crisis, dealing with unemployment, fostering growth and

competitiveness, are currently key priorities of the Annual Growth Survey. Employment very well integrates in this wide framework of EU economic policies. *“Although economic growth has been closely linked to demand-side employment policies, with special focus on job creation and labour demand is observable both in the Lisbon Strategy and Europe2020 strategy, these priorities have been reinforced in the context of the Employment Package, 2012”* (Zimmermann and Fuertes, 2014:4). Job creation conditions, labour market flexibility measures, labour tax reductions and other macro-policies are now precisely part of EU employment policies. Moreover, they are related to the supply side measures which have prevailed since the beginning of the European Employment Strategy in 1997.

The EU employment priorities and targets for Member States’ policies are set by the most significant employment policy mechanism the Employment Guidelines (Zimmermann and Fuertes, 2014). The Employment Guidelines are not obligatory for the Member States. Though these guidelines clearly provide the priorities, it is still far away of being a concrete policy programme. Before the backdrop of this wider framework of employment policies, a detailed annual process of interaction between European bodies and governments of Member States’, took place. The Commission proposed to integrate the Employment Guidelines in the broader Economic Guidelines and it was approved by the European Council on the basis of the Annual Growth Survey. That is how the Europe2020 Integrated Guidelines are formed. All EU targets and priorities for national employment policies that are formulated in the Employment Guidelines are introduced in country specific recommendations. Member States follows these guidelines when they do changes in their National Reforms that have to be in line with the Europe2020 targets.

All responsibility remains at the Member States’ level, because the EU has no legislative powers in employment policies. How can we discuss about European employment policies, when the European Union has no power to develop and implement them? At this point of view, the EU employment policies should be embedded in framework of European governance as a whole. For many years, European integration has been qualified by increasing regulatory powers of EU bodies in several policy areas. Still, this did not influenced any changes in employment and social policies. Seeing that the EU has no legislative powers in the field of employment policies, the coordination of the policy differs from the ordinary legislative procedure. The European Semester process can be explained as whole policy coordination system. *“The European Semester is a yearly cycle of policy alignment, fostering macroeconomic coordination of Member States’ policies alongside the key targets of Europe2020”* (Zimmermann and Fuertes, 2014:6). Strategic planning for the European Union level is reinforced and better embedded in the monitoring process.

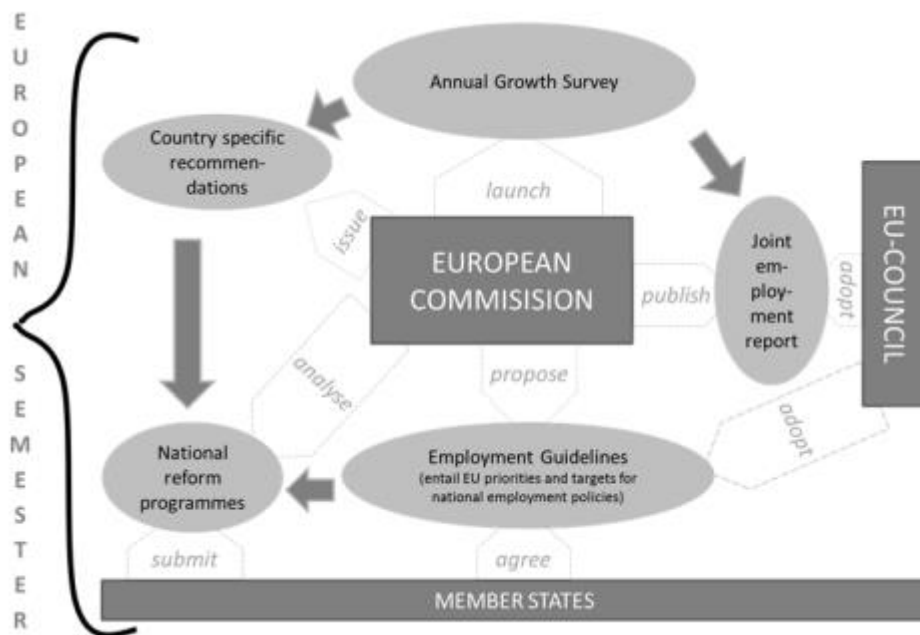


Figure 3. Employment policy coordination in the framework of the European Semester (Zimmermann and Fuertes, 2014).

Figure 3 above shows the role of different EU bodies in the coordination of employment policies in the framework of the European Semester. The main instruments for accountability of European employment policies can be seen in the Figure 3 above, where governance tools are listed: benchmarking, evaluation, monitoring, reporting and etc. The launch of the European Employment Strategy in 1997, installed the majority of these tools in employment policies. All these tools are implemented for the main programmatic employment mechanism, the EU Employment Guidelines that cover all key priorities of the EU employment policies. There is no support system for the employment in the European Union. The employment depends on Member States' systems, when it comes to policy delivery and data collecting in relation to labour market issues. All those national systems are very different.

1.3. International competitors of the EU labour market and their labour policies

The 21st century is marked to be a century of globalisation. It is the process of international integration caused by changes in world views (Cambridge dictionary). Along with globalisation, the intensive movement of people has increased and economic activities became more interrelated. Every day our society becomes more knowledge-based and this makes it more reliant on highly skilled workers. Equal societies with large middle classes are not the natural result of market forces. *“Equity, rather, is created by society, by the institutions – the laws, policies and practiced – that govern the*

society, its economy and, in particular, its labour market. Building just societies means designing institutions that support the creation of quality jobs with decent wages and working conditions, as well as enacting policies to support those who cannot work or who are unable to find work” (Berg, 2015:1). There are many circumstances that come into play when determining the attractiveness of the European Union on the global competition for skills. Looking at macro level, economic factors such as the economic characteristics and growth rate identify a destination’s attractiveness.

When economic growth has altered from the advanced economies to middle income or even low-income countries, many migrant workers with their families decided to change destination countries, as the traditional ones became less attractive. Moreover, at micro level, all migration related decisions are made by individuals considering some factors. Some of those factors are related to migration, while others are economic and non-economic ones that do not rely and cannot be changed by migration policy. Economic initiatives that can make influence to the flows of human resources are all opportunities for better salaries and self-improvement by having opportunities of promotions. Factors that have less influence to migration policies are Entrepreneurial environment, GDP, language, living standards and taxes. Professors (Arellano Ortiz, Arnkil and other 2008, Auer, Efendioglu and Leschke 2005) have discussed about developing countries, impact of globalisation, flexicurity, critical issues, and even identified similar problems and possible solutions to labour market. The institutional quality and governance effectiveness also increase destination attractiveness for highly qualified immigrants.

Since the late 1990s the international highly skilled labour migration has been moved up on the policy agenda of medium and high-income countries. Countries such as, Australia, Canada, France, Germany, the United States and the UK are the ones that attract the biggest numbers of highly qualified workers. A highly qualified workforce is the main thing that shapes knowledge-based societies and is essential in technological development and supporting economic. That is why developed and developing countries pay a lot of attention to promotion and attraction of highly qualified workers. International migration among the highly qualified workers is characterised by two main trends: increasing flows from Asia towards OECD countries and increasing exchange among developed countries. Over the next twenty years the demand of people having higher education is expected to grow. It is important for the European Union to become attractive for international students and treat them as a potential workforce. While future trends of skilled labour migration is difficult to predict, the labour market will continue increasing the number of highly qualified workers as the demand for such workers is expected to continue to grow. In order to see in what field the EU should make serious changes and what could be learned from other international competitors, it is needed to discuss their labour markets.

Switzerland is a very stable country as related to the employment. Even when world was suffering from the economic crisis, it did not cause any catastrophic effects to Switzerland. But people there work a lot. The average hours worked per week for full-time workers is 41,7. For holidays they have 20 working days that are paid. Areas located around Zurich and Geneva offer the highest net salaries. Unemployment rates depend on the region: the Italian and French speaking regions tend to have the higher rates of the unemployment than the German one. Women tend to be more affected than men and foreigners – more than Swiss. Nearly one in three workers in Switzerland is a foreigner. The Swiss economy could not function normally without foreign workers. The Aliens Act was accepted by the Swiss voters on the 24 September 2006 and entered into force on the 1 January 2008 (European Commission, 2016a). This law regulates the access to the Swiss labour market for high qualified workers from third countries. It covers the entry to the country and residence of those who are not citizens of the EU or the European Free Trade Association (EFTA), or asylum seekers.

Switzerland has a dual system of work permissions. The first one is for the citizens from EU and EFTA countries, who can come to Switzerland and look for job for 3 months (this period can be extended up to 6 months if person proves that he/she is searching for a job). The second one is for the people from non-EU countries. Before entering the country people have to have a work visa and binding work contract. The B-permission is a residence permit that is provided to people that have a permanent employment or it lasts for a minimum of 12 months. The permission is valid for 5 years and it is automatically extended for 5 more if person continues to work there. After staying in Switzerland for 10 or more years without any interruption a person can get a C-permission that is a permanent residence permit. People from Canada and the US only have to stay for 5 years to get a C-permission. This permission let the visa holder to change his work place freely and live in any place of the Switzerland he/she wants. Switzerland is among the OECD countries with largest population of immigrants – 27% of the working age. The biggest part of it comes from high-income countries like France, Germany and Italy that are neighbours of the Switzerland and other majority form non-EU countries are from former Yugoslavia and Turkey (European Commission, 2016a).

New Zealand was less affected by the global financial crisis than many other countries of the world. Though employment is expected to remain strong, the government states that the growth rate will decline for the next 2 years up until 2018. There are many work places for specialists in industries such as engineering, IT and medicine. New Zealanders not always have all skills that are in demand, so for person from foreign country with all needed qualification it will be easier to get a job and residence visa. This is because the government has determined that employers need to recruit people from foreign countries to help meet countries demand for skills. Looking through the history of New Zealand, it becomes clear that the only thing that helped its national and economic development was

immigration and that is why country continues to accept bigger numbers of immigrants than other OECD countries (European Commission, 2016b). New Zealand offers a wide range of work visas that at first are temporary, but later can lead to permanent residence.

“Since the late 1990s, many OECD countries, including New Zealand, Australia and Canada, have increasingly developed policies to attract skilled migrants using selection criteria relating to English language proficiency, qualifications and prior work experience” (Masgoret, McLeod and other, 2012:6). The Essential Skills visa was established to attract those migrants, who would fill jobs that none of the New Zealanders, would do. The maximum duration of this visa for workers with low qualifications is 1 year and for highly qualified workers is up to 5 years. The visas can be renewed if work contract is renewed. The Skilled Migrant Category is permanent residence permission for people who are coming to New Zealand for events or purposes to gain experience, or just work after studying. All candidates for this permission are evaluated by the point system. Points are given based on age, work experience, skills, qualifications and job offer if person has one. Person needs to get 140 points to be elected automatically. New Zealand’s immigration policy remained the same after the global financial crisis.

Canadas’ job market is similar to other job markets of developed countries. The most prosperous cities in Canada are: Toronto, Calgary, Vancouver and Montreal. The Highest unemployment is in the Atlantic Provinces. To get a job in Canada every person needs to get permission, without it there is no chances to get it. Canada grants permanent residence in two ways: the Family Class and the Economic Class. The Economic Class programs for permanent residence of skilled workers are the Canadian Experience, the Federal Skilled Worker program and the Federal Skilled Trades Program. All applicants are evaluated by a range of human capital factors, such as age, education, language and previous work experience (European Commission, 2016b). People are asked to know English and French languages. Canada uses online applications for all permanent residence applications. People have to fill in online applications and like this it will be clear if applicant is eligible for one or maybe more federal programs.

There are 2 temporary residence schemes for skilled workers: the International Mobility Program and the Temporary Foreign Worker Program. For filling in these applications the job offer is needed. All foreigners working in Canada must be granted equally as native Canadians with the same labour rights, benefits and working conditions. Once people become permanent residents they do not have any restrictions for mobility and labour market access. When more migrants started to come to Canada the government had to change ways entering the country for migrants. The number of applicants for permanent work programmes exceeds the number of available job places. Data basis of work permissions does not give information about applicants by their nationalities. By 6th July 2015 the top

10 countries of citizenship were: India (2687), the Philippines (2514), the UK (951), Ireland (682), China (531), the USA (521), South Korea (327), France (258), Australia (257) and Mexico (249) (European Commission, 2016b). These records do not mean that all invited candidates received the permanent residence.

Australian employment data surprised everyone, when the unemployment rate unexpectedly fell to 5, 6%, as many new job places were created. It is the lowest unemployment rate since September 2013. In 1996, Australia started to look for highly qualified migrants, to fill in empty job places and to meet labour market needs. In 2008/2009 the Australian government evaluated the highly qualified workers migration and approved a greater demand of such workers in Australia. The aim of this reform was to ensure a better labour market integration of migrants and to react to national skills shortages. There are 2 distinct streams of immigration programs in Australia: the Humanitarian Programme for Refugees and the Migration Programme for Skilled and family migrants (European Commission, 2016b). The Migration Programme for Skilled and Family Migrants first of all pays attention to the needs of the national labour market, while the family stream tries to help people to bring their families to live in Australia. All migrants that want to enter the country have to know English language, have needed skills and work experience. For all needed criterion people get points.

There are categories that do not require points based assessment: the Temporary Skilled Visa – high qualified workers can work in country up to 4 years. It is the comparable to the EU Blue Card. The Skilled-Independent Visa – a permanent visa that needs applicant interest before applying through SkillSelect. Applicant has to be younger than 50 year of age and know English language very well. The Skilled-Nominated Visa – a permanent visa that needs applicant interest before the application procedure. The applicant has to be nominated by the government. In total there is 8 categories of getting visa and all somewhat similar, with just one step different. The line between temporary and permanent migrants has become blurry, but the temporary migration is still dominating. According to the recent statistics it becomes clear that temporary migration for study and work purposes became the most popular reasons to settle in Australia. In 2011-2012, almost 40% of applicants for permanent visas were already staying in Australia and half of them already had temporary skilled permits (Parliamentary Library of Australia, 2014). Comparing the number of Blue Cards and the number of relevant Australian visas, it is clear that Australia gives twice as many high qualified permits in three months as the EU grants in 1 year. The highest number of the Blue Card holders goes to Germany, while Australia also suffers from an uneven distribution of migrants.

Russia's economic life concentrates in two centres: Moscow and St. Petersburg. About 80% of all Russian population lives in European part. Russia's largest employer is the private family sector (employs 57% of active population) and the second is state sector (up to 32%). Russian labour market

is demanding and difficult. Talking about the main migration challenges that Russia faces is the obvious brain drain. About 1 million people have left Russia in the past decade; about 80% of them were highly qualified workers. In 2011 statistics showed that 1,7 million Russian citizens live abroad. Between 1993 and 2011, more than 13 million individuals arrived to Russia to settle their lives there. In early 1990s the migration legislation in the Russian Federation appeared, when the Federal Migration Service was established. After termination of the USSR and large scale of migration across whole country led to a need to regulate and legislate many aspects of migration (European Commission, 2016b). In 2010, Russia paid a lot of attention to migration policy to attract highly qualified workers to Russia.

Every highly qualified worker can get a three-year work visa that can be extended if the applicant receives an annual salary of EUB 1-2 million from a Russian company. This visa also gives all rights for the applicant to bring his/her family. Temporary labour migration to Russia is growing. 2, 9 million of work permits were issued in 2013, while more than 3,7 million were given in 2014 (European Commission, 2016b). At the moment it is certain that Moscow has become one of the largest financial centres in which many of the high qualified workers want to do business, work in banks or even invest. However, the competition is high. The attractiveness of the labour market and high wages makes Moscow a popular destination for work not only for specialist from Western Europe, but also from the USA.

USA is surprising the world with huge changes in its labour market. Companies are hiring more workers, wages are growing and even unemployment was down to 4,9% in July 2016. Employers try to adapt many innovations such as parental leave for male and female workers, flexible hours and more generous work-from-home policies. But still that does not make the whole situation perfect. The gap between the poor and rich workers grows wider every day. *“The USA labour market is divided, because workers in the labour market are listed into separate groups by: race, gender, education, industry clusters. Scientists claimed that these groups works in different labour markets, in different conditions, institutional rules and even gets different wages”* (Jakštienė, 2013:77). According to the Gallup worldwide survey, 35% of highly qualified workers prefer the EU for migration and only 19% prefer the United States (European Commission, 2016b). Highly qualified workers can enter the USA labour markets on temporary grounds with the Green Card. Holders of such a card are kept as legal permanent residents.

The USA also has the H-1B visa that is similar to the EU Blue Card. H-1B visas are three-year, one time renewable visas for highly qualified foreign workers. The migrant has to have a higher education degree and be sponsored by the US employer. Due to high rates of unemployment, the highly qualified workers may not stay in the country to search for job. In 2014 about 65 000 H-1B

visas were given (European Commission, 2016b). In general, the annual number of H-1B visas is filled in the first months of the year. Immigrants coming to the US that are highly educated or at least have college degree make 37%, while those coming to the EU only 26% that are highly educated. The main reason for permanent migration to the US is for family reasons. Permanent residence given by Green Card was mostly given to migrants who already had some kind of temporary works in the USA.

To summarize everything, it could be said that since the European Union has become a closely interrelated system, its directives and regulations affect all policy areas of Member States. Employment is one of the main areas of policy making. In recent years the European Union has worked on new reforms of social security and developments in order to create more job places and influence growth of economy. To achieve a sustainable future the EU established a strategy called Europe2020 and employment has become one of the key priorities. This 10-year strategy will help the EU to increase the labour market participation of people aged 20-64 to 75% by 2020, reducing structural unemployment and promoting job quality. The European Union wants to become more attractive in labour market not only for highly qualified citizens, but also for highly qualified migrants, but it has to deal with other international competitors such as, Switzerland, New Zealand, Canada, etc. that attract the highest numbers of highly qualified workers. A highly qualified workforce is the main factor that helps development of knowledge-based societies and is essential in technological development and supporting economics. That is why developed and developing countries pay a lot of attention to attraction of highly qualified workers, making the international labour market a 'fight' arena.

2. HIGHLY QUALIFIED WORKERS MOVEMENT AND RECRUITMENT INITIATIVES IN THE EUROPEAN UNION

Highly qualified professionals are the most valuable workforce in today's world. This value is determined by the employee's professional competence enabling it to contribute in achieving goals and in different ways – to the country's economic and social development. In order to attract highly qualified workers countries use international recruitment strategies, which not only help to attract and hire highly qualified workers, but also to increase countries leadership, economic growth and a greater need of innovations. In traditional immigration countries such as, Australia, New Zealand, Canada and the USA, highly qualified workers recruitment initiatives have been carried out for decades. Meanwhile, the European Union for a long period did not have any special initiatives to attract highly qualified workers from abroad and even did not tried to preserve the highly qualified workers from inside EU. The main reasons why the EU suffers from shortage of highly qualified workers, could be identified as: not enough job places in adequate sectors for the EU citizens, low wages in most educated EU countries, challenges in development and implementation of initiatives not only in the EU level, but also at national level that would increase highly qualified immigrants flows to the EU to help to meet Unions requirements. Second part of this paper contains information about the highly qualified workers definition and its importance for the EU, mobility for highly qualified EU citizens and immigration of workers from non-EU countries.

2.1. Labour mobility within the EU

The right of free movement of persons is very important for the European Union and according to the Eurobarometer survey, it is one of the highest achievements of the EU (European Parliament, 2016). Panizzon, Zurcher and Fornale (2015) designates the European Union as the paradigm of success, what comes out after the evaluation of its regional integration processes, including free movement of people. Since its establishment this right has been improved and expanded, taking into account intentions of mobile EU workers. Barriers for the mobility have been reduced, while creating single market and also in order to achieve the Europe2020 goals of inclusive and smart growth. And yet there are opinions among the policy makers that EU labour mobility is too low (Barslund, M., Busses, M. and Schwarzwald, J., 2015). It is not enough to support the single labour market after the financial crisis that had impact on the Eurozone. Several years have passed since the outburst of the financial crisis and more attention is given to labour mobility to counteract the divergence in growth

and unemployment among the EU countries and within the euro area. If it would be possible to increase employee mobility, it would help to solve the problems of countries in period of crisis. Each unemployed person who finds a job in other European Union country would lower the domestic unemployment rate and diminish the burden on the state.

Though mobility trend is rising, it is still lower in the EU Member States than, for example, in the USA, where mobility is widespread. In 2013, only 4% of working age EU citizens lived and worked in other country than they were born (Arpaia, Kiss, Palvolgyi and Turrini, 2014). In the glossary of the Migration observatory the EU migrants are defined as people living in an EU country that were born in or are nationals of another EU country. Migration is one of the key components of population changes in the European Union. Over the past decades migration flows among the EU Member States and outside of the EU have made a significant impact on current population size in most Member States. Flexibility and mobility – these are the main factors for success in the EU labour market and a foundation of economically strong, stable and wealthy Europe (Wilfred Martens Centre, 2013).

The main factor of intra-EU mobility during the past decade has been the large income gap between the old Member States (EU15) and the new ones from the east (EU10) that joined the EU in 2004 and later. The biggest part of the EU15 countries had temporary restrictions to divert mobility flows from traditional destinations (Germany) to the ones that did not have any restrictions (the UK and Ireland). Flows from EU10 countries reached very high numbers. *“Poland and Latvia saw more than 0,5% of their domestic populations move to the EU15 each year in the period of 2004-2008. Annual outflows from Lithuania reached 1% and almost 1,5% of the population in Bulgari”* (Barslund and Busse, 2015:9). Citizens from those EU10 countries were choosing Italy and Spain (mainly Romanians) as their destination country, and Lithuanians and Poles were choosing Germany and the UK.

The financial crisis that touched the European Union slowed down the mobility flows from EU10 countries, as the unemployment rose in EU15 countries. Since 2011, East-West mobility flows have remained, but the rates did not increase to the ones that were before the crisis (Barslund and Busse, 2015). The crisis caused a major reversal in the EU15 countries. Bad situation in labour markets in southern Europe, especially for young people, resulted high outflows of nationals of these countries. However, wage differences are kept to be more powerful driver of mobility than unemployment rates in the EU. Supporting mobile citizens and breaking down mobility barriers will continue to be a dynamic process. There are many EU mobility related problems that the European Union should deal with. Most of the EU Member States have English as their second foreign language on the primary school curriculum, but the quality of how they speak that language differs. The crisis

has shown that there are limits of potential labour mobility within the current euro area. This happened because of the limited mobility from the large countries that were affected by the financial crisis. During the same time, the East-West mobility has not been basically affected by the crisis.

Since signing the Treaty of Rome in 1957, the freedom of movement of workers is one of the 4 freedoms connected to the EU integration. Free movement of people from around the European Union offers so many opportunities not only for those who move, but also for those who stay at home. All EU citizens are welcome in other EU countries. A number of cities in the EU have developed specific policies to deal with newcomers, to give them all necessary information, to integrate them in the local society and economy. In 2013, more than 7 million citizens of the European Union lived and worked in the EU country other than they were born. It was 3,3% of all employment in the EU. 78% of the working-age people living in another EU country were fully economically active and their employment rate was 68%. This rate is 3,5% higher than the average of those people that live and work in their own native countries. Intra-EU mobility, as compared to inter-state mobility within the US, is not that high. In the US, inter-state mobility, measured by number of people living in a different state than they were born, was 2,7% of all population in 2011-2012, while in the EU annual cross-border mobility rate is ~ 0,2%.

The EU mobility of workers has few forms: daily or weekly cross-border or short-term stay and permanent stay in another EU country. By 2013, out of 7 million of EU citizens working and residing in another EU country, about 1, 1 million were living in one country, while working in another country they are called frontier or cross-border workers (European Commission, 2014). Over the last decade, new opportunities and patterns of EU mobility have occurred:

- first of all, since the recent EU enlargement, the number of EU-12 citizens living in EU-15 Member States increased from 1,7 to 5,5 million;
- second, recent crisis in the Eurozone has made some impact for intra-EU mobility (European Commission, 2015).

Comparing 2004-2008 and 2009-2013 mobile workers characteristics, it turns out that:

- the most popular destination places are Austria, Belgium, Germany and the Scandinavian countries, and the least popular – Ireland and Spain;
- still the biggest part of people moving within the EU are young, but comparing the results a clear decline can be found from 48% to 41% of the ones aged 15-29;
- the percentage of highly educated people among the EU mobile workers is increasing (41% having tertiary education during 2009-2013 against 27% during 2004-2008) (European Commission, 2015).

During 2010-2011 the mobility rate decreased due to a decline in labour demand, but it started to recover in 2012-2013, though differences between countries remained to be the same (European Commission, 2014). Countries that were most affected by the financial crisis have had large outflows of workers to other Member States. The same happened with non-EU countries. The number of mobile workers from south has increased to 18%, while before it was 11%. Most of the EU mobile workers (~58%) came from eastern and central Member States in 2009-2013 and number of them decreased compared to 65% in 2004-2008. Free movement of workers brings many advantages. One side searches for a worker and the other needs a job. With this right every citizen of the EU gets new job opportunities. It also gives more advantages such as, improving personal skills, learning foreign languages and getting more work experience. All this helps a person to have internationally orientated jobs. With all the experience it also can become easier to get a better paid job in home country later on. Table 2 below shows top 3 nationalities that has the biggest number of their citizens in EU10 countries. Spain and Italy shows similarities as majority of EU10 citizens residing in their countries are Romanians (74% and 82% accordingly). In other countries Poles among EU10 citizens has more than 50% of their nationals among all migrants in the UK, Ireland and the Netherlands.

Table 2. Top 3 EU10 nationalities with the biggest % of all migrants workers in the EU host countries, 2013 (Host countries offices of statistics, 2015:13/ Eurofound).

HOSTCOUNTRY	NATIONALITIES OF MIGRANT WORKERS					
	Polish	Romanian	Lithuanian	Bulgarian	Hungarian	Latvian
Austria	21%	28%			21%	
Denmark	42%	19%	14%			
Germany	47%	18%		11%		
Ireland	54%		16%			9%
Italy	10%	82%		5%		
Netherlands	59%	7%		14%		
Spain	7%	74%		14%		
Sweden	50%	13%	11%			
UK	54%	9%	11%			

Labour mobility helps to solve problems related to skill gaps and labour shortages. From economic point of view, it helps to deal with unemployment disparities between Member States and even distributes efficient human resources. Incoming workers benefit the local economy by helping to deal with labour market problems and skills shortages. It also boosts competitiveness and helps to widen the range of services. By taking care of families left in the home countries and helping them by

sending remittances migrants help their home country's economy. Labour mobility for home countries brings more disadvantages than advantages. Home countries suffer from brain drain and skill shortages in specific sectors. This shows that there must be more new job opportunities for young people in home countries, so they would not be forced to leave. Still, labour mobility is a better choice for workers who in their home countries would be unemployed, because by working in other country they earn money to their families.

EU policies try to ensure the best possible solution that would meet both the needs of jobseekers and the needs of those who are searching the job. Labour mobility promotion is used only for certain categories of workers. EURES the EU job search network is ready to help with mobility for those citizens, who are ready to explore all possible opportunities of working abroad. EURES helps to make the cooperation between the European Commission and the Public Employment Services of the EU Member States (also Iceland, Liechtenstein and Norway, together with all other partner organisations (European Commission, 2015). The European Commission works in order to promote needed skills and to increase transparency of the EU labour market. To make the exchange of information easier, the Commission together with the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training and others have developed classification of competences, qualifications, skills and occupations, which can be found in common language to employers and job seekers.

All highly qualified workers in the EU can move across its borders, practise their occupation or just provide their services abroad. Directive 2005/36/EC governs the system of recognition of highly qualified workers' qualifications in the EU, recently it was amended by Directive 2013/55/EC. A modern EU system of recognition of professional experience is provided by the directive and promotes automatic recognitions of highly qualified workers professional experience across the EU (European Commission, 2016h). Directive 2005/36/EC sets the rules for:

- **temporary mobility** – this allows highly qualified workers to work in another EU Member State with a declaration made in advance:
- **establishment in another EU country** – this part of directive lays down rules for highly qualified workers who want to establish themselves as:
 - employed or self-employed person;
 - on a permanent basis;
 - in a country, where they did not obtain their qualifications of professionals;
- **systems of recognition of qualifications** – three systems of recognitions can be listed:

- **automatic recognition** is for the professions that need only a minimum training conditions (i.e. architects, dental practitioners, doctors, midwives, nurses, pharmacists and veterinary surgeons);
- **general system** is for the regulated professions, such as real estate agents, teachers and translators;
- **recognition on the basis of professional experience** is for certain professionals, such as beauticians, carpenters, upholsterers and etc.;
- **knowledge of languages and professional academic titles** (European Commission, 2016h).

Directive 2005/36/EC brings a modern EU system that recognises the professionals' experience, helps to make labour market to be more flexible and liberalise the provisions of services and promotes automatic recognitions of highly qualified workers qualifications in the EU Member States. The Professional Qualifications Directive was improved in 2013, when the European parliament and the Council of the EU adopted Directive 2013/55/EU that partly amended Directive 2005/36/EC. The transposition period was 2 years and it was implemented by 18 January 2016.

There is a huge need for cooperation among the EU Member States. The National authorities can use the Internal Market Information System (IMI) in order to facilitate the cooperation with each other, when there is a need to consider the recognitions of highly qualified workers qualifications. National authorities decide whether to recognise the highly qualified workers qualifications obtained on other EU Member States or not. There are a common rules set out in the Code of Conduct that they need to follow. Highly qualified workers who have problems in getting their professional experience recognised, may contact national courts, the SOLVIT network and public authorities, or complain to the Commission.

The recognition of highly qualified workers professional qualifications is laid down in Directive 2005/36/EC and enables the free movement of professionals, such as architects or doctors within the EU. Professions, such as aircraft controllers or sailors do not fall under this Directive and are governed by other specific legislation. There are also special laws for commercial agents and lawyers. EU Member States asked to clarify the status of regulated professions in the EU. The regulated profession are:

- **Limited access:** to get a job of regulated professions, workers need to obtain specific qualifications or a specific title.

- **Requirements vary:** there are different requirements across the EU and this may make it more difficult for highly qualified workers to apply for vacancies in the EU member States.
- **Lack of information:** it is difficult to get information on what requirements the highly qualified workers have to meet to apply for a job in another EU member State (European Commission, 2016h).

In order to better understand the regulated professions in the EU and the conditions applied to accessing those professions, EU Member States agreed to carry out a transparency and mutual evaluation exercise in the period of 2014-2016 (European Commission, 2016d). Transparency exercise means that each EU Member State has to give a list of professions that it regulates, also including those at regional level. Mutual evaluation exercise shows the conditions to access professions, because it may be different between the EU member States. This process invites EU member states to make mutual evaluation, so that there would not be any barriers to access to certain professions. In order to increase transparency for the EU citizens, the Commission created a database that allows all citizens to find out more about the professional access requirements within the EU.

The European professional card (EPC) is available since 18th January 2016 just for 5 professions: general care nurses, mountain guides, real estate agents, physiotherapists and pharmacists (European Commission, 2016d). There is a plan to extend this card availability to other professions in the future. The EPC makes the free movement of highly qualified workers in the EU much easier. This card simplifies the recognition of highly qualified workers' professional experience, increases transparency for the EU citizens and increases the trust among authorities within the EU. It is not a plastic card, but an electronic certificate issued via the first EU-wide fully online procedure for the recognition of highly qualified workers' qualifications. This procedure, based on the Internal Market Information System (IMI), allows professionals to communicate with relevant institutions inside a secure network. The EPC does not change any traditional recognition procedures (under the Professional Qualifications Directive), but offers a useful option for professionals who want to get a temporarily or permanently job in other EU Member States (European Commission, 2016h).

2.2. Highly qualified workers immigration into the EU from non-EU countries

Europe has always been a crossroad for many different cultures and a place where countless immigration processes happened. In the post-war period, immigration from Asia, Africa, Southern

Europe and former colonies had been rising in Western Europe. Among all the immigrants that came to the European Union both high and low qualified workers could be found. Europe labour market always expressed the need of more skilled workers and a number of authors have been writing about it (e.g. Bauer and Kunze 2004; Zimmermann, Bonin, Fahr and Hinte, 2007). Intense demographic changes, such as aging populations, stagnating economic development, money shortage in social-security systems and low innovation potential can be solved with highly qualified workers immigration (Zimmermann, 2009).

Theoretical elaboration of immigration as a part of migration process

Before analysing further trends of highly qualified workers recruitment, it is necessary to discuss more broadly the concept of **migration**. While studying the scientific literature on migration it became clear that the concept of migration is treated quite differently. Some authors (King 2012; Bansak, Simpson and Zavodny, 2015; Beržinskienė, Kairienė and Virbickaitė, 2009) analysing process of migration provide with a wide description, while others are satisfied with a narrow one, though the meaning mostly remains the same. The simplest and shortest definition of migration is as follows; migration is the movement of people from one place of residence to another one (Kripaitis and Romikaitytė, 2005). Of course, there are many broader, more comprehensive definitions of the phenomenon. One of them, any movement of people in one country or across its borders, for long or short period of time, voluntary or forced, searching for other work or place of unemployment, legal and illegal, migration in order to change the political, social, economic, cultural or any other environment (Laisvos rinkos institutas, 2006).

Professors Brettel and Hollifield (2015) claim that in order to better understand the migration, it is necessary to have interdisciplinary attitude, because every scientific discipline allows to know the process from different perspectives. It is stated that migration is as old as human existence. Our ancestors have been constantly wandering in order to find better places for hunting, fishing or planting food plots and of course safer settlements. *“Till now, some nations are more nomadic than settled”*, - says S. Vaitiekūnas (2006). The main migration components are emigration and immigration. Emigrant – a person that leaves his country and has intentions to stay in other country for longer period than 6 months. Immigrant – a person who has come to a different country in order to live there permanently (Cambridge dictionary).

The analysis of the literature showed that migration by the place is divided into two parts - internal and external (international). Both parts have common characteristics and effects, also different traits. In order to reveal the migration concept more understandably, it is important to know internal

and external migration concepts. International migration includes the country’s population moving to other countries, the internal migration – population movements within the country. From economic point of view, external or international migration is more important than internal. By most up-to-date United Nations data, the number of international migrants in the world reached 244 million in 2015. Around a third of the world’s migrant workers reside in Europe that is why migration will continue to be an important factor in the EU population change (Boswell and Geddes, 2011). At this moment more attention is given to international migration than to internal migration.

International migration is divided into legal and illegal migration. Legal migration is the migration happening in accordance with legal system. Citizens that leave their country for more than six months have to declare their departure. In such a case declaration of residence is filed, however, often people do not know for what period they are leaving, so the declaration can be filled already being in another country. It is claimed that filling emigrants’ declaration it is very important, since the emergence of the free movement of workers in the European Union countries, as it is the only way to see the true extent of emigration. Illegal migration includes people who did not declared their place of residence for more than six months. This form usually takes places in shadow labour market that attracts illegal immigrants and exploits them.

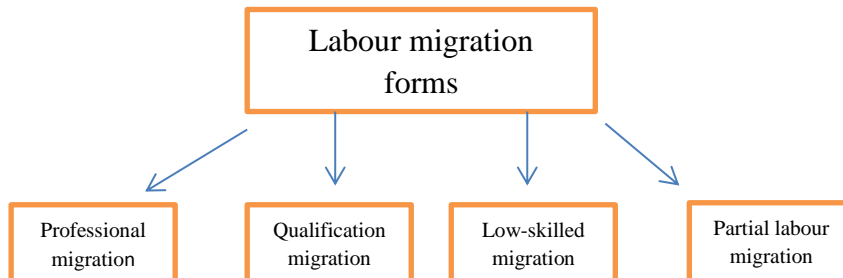


Figure 4. Labour migration forms. Made by the author, based on G. Malinauskas (2006).

In the literature, labour migration is divided into different forms. The forms are distinguished by qualifications of migrating people, migration duration, principle of territory, direction, legitimacy of migration and other features. Figure 4 above, shows how labour migration forms are listed by G. Malinauskas (2006):

1. **Professional migration** – another widely used definition synonymous to a notion of “brain drain”. This form occurs when highly qualified workers (architects, engineers, doctors and etc.) declares their departure and the main reason for emigration is higher wages, favourable working conditions and better career abroad. Often these workers emigrate with their families or spouses leave together after some time.

2. **Qualification migration** – this form is related to trainings, degree acquisition. In other words, it is highly qualified workers departure for long or short time of internship. This form includes professionals, who want to gain a higher degree, to study abroad, go to internship or just for a visit.
3. **Low-skilled migration** – this form of migration is the most common and the largest one. The main reason of this migration is the ambition to find a better job abroad, after failing to get one in the local labour market.
4. **Partial labour migration** – this form of migration is when one or more family members go to work abroad and family remains in the home country. This form of migration is the worst one, because it highlights social problems. Partial labour migration has a negative impact on both professional and family life.

In the literature, numerous concepts and forms of migration might be found. Some researchers (Guščinskienė 2001; Putvinskaitė, 2010) state that it is important to know that migration covers two different processes – emigration and immigration. Nowadays, the immigration process is very important in the context of the European Union. It is considered that a wide range of migration processes formed Europe. In the EU, immigration is viewed as a polysemous phenomenon. Some Member States have age-old history of immigration; others have just become attraction places for immigrants (Mannila, Messing et al, 2010).

Today, immigration is one of the most discussed political issues in large part of the world. It touches issues such as, border control, cultural differences, employment, public security, social security and many more important aspects. Often immigration is viewed as a negative subject that violates the host country citizens' economic and social well-being. The European Union countries lack unity in immigrant issue, because each country has different rules and that is the reason why it is hard to manage economic migration successfully. The EU is at risk of aging and declining population. Low birth rates and aging process in the future will be visible in all Member States. This kind of situation will decrease labour force together reducing economic growth. Because of all these issues the EU needs immigrants, because immigration would be one of the factors allowing countries to promote economic growth and maintain the balance.

Highly qualified workers concept and their immigration impact on labour market

Ahead of considering the importance of the highly qualified workers in the EU it is important to define concept of highly qualified workers. Going through the literature it was observed that the

European Union does not have highly qualified worker concept explanation. Most often highly qualified worker is defined as a person that has a tertiary education and huge work experience in his/her work area and it is important to mention that each Member State understands this concept in a different way. Countries' concepts depend on the national labour market needs and requirements, also use different criteria, like education, skills and wages. The EU often uses the International Labour Organisation (ILO) standard classification method to describe highly qualified workers. Still most of the times the attention is given to person's education and wages that should be paid for him/her by his/her qualification. Table 3 gives concepts of highly qualified workers in different Member States:

Table 3. Member States' definitions of highly skilled workers (European Commission 2007:15).

Member State	Definition/Practice followed
Belgium	Defines (according to the law) highly skilled workers in terms of minimum gross annual salary (2006 EUR 33,082; 2007 EUR 33,677) and duration of the permit. The relevant migration offices, who deliver the work permits for practical reasons also take into account the official qualification (...) and experience.
Estonia	No definition, as well as no specific legislation, exists for highly skilled workers. Cautious attempts are made to create definitions and categorisations out of the statistical labels by profession or education.
Germany	"Highly qualified" non-Germans (Hochqualifizierte), mainly managers, academics and scientists with outstanding qualifications, teaching personnel in high-ranking positions, as well as recognised specialists and executive personnel, are defined by law.
Italy	Legislation defines, in an indirect way, a highly skilled worker through various examples that presume a relevant preparation and a high performance capacity, such as: managers or staff of highly skilled companies having their place of business in Italy; lecturers, interpreters, artists and etc.
Sweden	Emphasis is placed on skills obtained from occupational experience, rather than simply through a formal educational programme.
The Netherlands	A "knowledge migrant" is defined as being anyone with a higher vocational or higher academic qualification and all others who play a catalysing role in innovation processes and is based on exceeding a pre-defined salary (...).
United Kingdom	Depends on the route of entry. If coming in under HSMP, 75 points or more are required. Points are based on previous earnings, qualifications, UK experience and age. There is also a separate mandatory English language requirement. (...)

In order to identify highly qualified workers and the need of them in national labour markets, Member States have different methods. A huge help from employers, government institutions and labour organisations, are needed. Because of this classification, as Kelo and Wächter (2004) state, some of the high qualified workers are kept to be as voluntary, because of having needed skills and getting permissions to live in a foreign country.

The topic of highly qualified workers became to be popular already in 1990, when there was a shortage of such workers in some work sectors. Dealing with this problem countries were creating systems to attract as much as possible highly qualified workers. Nowadays, world labour markets compete against each other for such workers. More often there is a need to fill work places with people that have higher skills, experience, because local people are unable to do so. In order to attract

outstanding talents, most of the countries change their migration policies to more flexible ones, other present special programs that help to make favourable conditions for workers from abroad to come and get a job.

The European Union pays more attention to people who have high qualifications than to those who have low ones. It is believed that EU wants to protect its citizens from negative feelings towards immigrants. There are many clashes between immigrants and natives in some locations, because immigrants try to change faces of countries, cities and even neighbourhoods across the Europe (Dancygier, 2010). Highly qualified workers get high wages, pay more taxes and are less dependent on social benefits, already know host country language, their integration is easier.

Table 4. Possible global and national effects of highly skilled international migration (Regets 2001:4).

SENDING COUNTRY		RECEIVING COUNTRY	
Positive impact	Negative impact	Positive impact	Negative impact
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Increased incentive for natives to seek higher skills; - Export opportunities for technology; - Return of natives with foreign education and human capital; - Knowledge flows and collaboration; (...) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -“Brain drain“: lost productive capacity due to at least temporary absence of higher skilled workers and students; -Less support for public funds for higher education. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Increased R&D and economic activity due to availability of additional high-skilled workers; - Knowledge flows and collaboration; -Increased ties to foreign research institutions; -Export opportunities for technology; (...) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Decreased incentive of natives to seek higher skills; - May crowd out native students from best schools; - Language and cultural barriers between native and immigrant high-skilled workers; - Technology transfers to possibly hostile countries.
POSSIBLE GLOBAL EFFECTS			
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Better international flow of knowledge; - Better job matches; - Greater employment options for workers/researchers; - Greater ability of employers to find rare/unique skills sets; - Formation of international research/technology clusters (Silicon Valley, CERN); - International competition for scarce human capital may have net positive effect on incentives for individual human capital investments. 			

High-skilled immigrants are more welcome than low-skilled workers, not only for economic reasons, but also for security issues. It is important to understand that highly qualified workers migration can have both positive and negative effects on both sending and receiving countries. All possible effects for sending, receiving countries and globally are listed in Table 4 above.

Recruitment methods for attraction of highly qualified workers to the EU

The world is experiencing a fierce struggle that might not be visible to the naked eye. The fight takes place in the labour market for highly qualified workers. Countries suffer from lack of highly qualified workers and try to attract them from all around the world. A number of countries by realising such a need have enacted legal provisions to make selection and entry procedures to be easier. Countries have defined highly qualified categories of workers for whom simplified procedures apply. In order to remain competitive in the international arena, the European Union must implement measures to encourage and increase highly qualified workers immigration. The initiatives for attracting highly qualified workers in the EU are carried out in two ways: at national level of Member States and at general level of the EU.

The National policies appointed to attract highly qualified workers do not grant people from non-EU countries the right to reside and work in any other Member State. EU-wide mobility rights are the main benefits, which EU laws can provide, but national laws cannot. Employers have interest in being able to move their staff freely in the single market. Member States try to attract highly qualified workers not only by the EU initiatives, but also through certain measures in their national territory. The group of countries that have wider migration policies would be: Belgium, Estonia, Finland, Greece, Hungary, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Slovak Republic, Slovenia and Sweden, others have separate policies developed to target highly qualified workers: Austria, Czech Republic, Germany, France, Ireland, Netherlands, Spain and the United Kingdom.

Between 2006 and 2009 **France** has signed bilateral agreements with some non-EU countries (Senegal, Gabon, Congo, Benin, Tunisia, Mauritius, Cape Verde, Burkina Faso and Cameroon). Such agreements were signed in order to distribute migration flows and to help people to integrate in the society. These agreements are valid for highly qualified workers of those sectors in which there are a lack of such workers. This also helps to prevent immigrant flows from those sectors that are unnecessary (European Commission, 2013a). In France, employers are obliged to give information about women's and men's wages, which has to be done on an annual basis before negotiations for payment. This started in 2000, in order to initiate annual negotiations on gender equality. The French Tech Ticket – a program for non-French entrepreneurs from all over the world that want to create their business in Paris. This program target is to contribute a fast development of innovations and start-up systems inside the country. 6-month program started in January 2016 with financial support on the journey and early stage start-up.

Belgium labour migration policy is shaped by the Federal authorities. There are two systems that allow highly qualified workers from non-EU countries employment in Belgium: the work permit type B and Belgian Blue Card. The main principle of Belgium migration policy is that a foreign worker is allowed to work in Belgium only when a labour market test shows that any possible candidate cannot be found inside Belgium. In order to attract foreign investment, various categories of workers are dismissed from the work permit requirement or can get work permit without the need of a labour market test. The Belgian labour migration policy pays a lot of attention to labour shortages and demands. The regional authorities make lists, which contains positions in which there is a shortage. In Belgium, there is a guidebook on job classification for employers in order to eliminate gender inequity in payment systems (European Commission, 2013b).

Spain's migration policy always has focused on unskilled labour migration and reduction of labour flows based on country's employment needs. However, this brought only negative consequences, because not enough attention was brought to the impact of mobility on international trade. Over the years many different measures have been introduced in Spain to attract highly qualified workers, even bilateral agreements have been signed (Canada and New Zealand) to promote mobility among youth (European Commission, 2013c). The Ley de Emprendedores, launched on September 2013, was created to attract foreign investment and young entrepreneurs for innovation and competitiveness in Spain. This kind of start-up policy offers five visa categories to entrepreneurs, investors and highly qualified workers. People have to have business plan in Spanish and no finances are required.

The **UK** government is in charge to ensure that the best and brightest migrants come to work to UK. In 2008, a tiered system to manage immigration to the UK was introduced. It is a hybrid type immigration system that is based on demand and point's base, as well as limit on certain categories of migrants.

- **Tier 1** is for highly qualified migrants who contribute to countries labour market growth and productivity. This tier consists of Entrepreneur, Exceptional Talent, Graduate Entrepreneur and Investor routes.
- **Tier 2** for qualified workers that has a job offer. The main aim of this tier is to fill skills gaps in UK labour market. This tier consists of the General, Intra-Company Transfer, Minister of Religion and Sportspersons routes.
- **Tier 3** for low-skilled workers that are needed for temporary shortages in labour market.
- **Tier 4** for students.

- **Tier 5** for youth mobility programmes.

Highly qualified workers from non-EU countries can enter the country under Tier 1, while other skilled workers have to choose Tier 2 (European Commission, 2013d). In the UK, higher education sector works for equal payments to fight against discrimination. This covers all categories of highly qualified workers in higher education.

Initiatives to attract highly qualified workers to the European Union do not end only by national initiatives, there is also a **Blue Card** initiative at the EU level. Highly qualified workers from non-EU countries play a key role in strengthening the EU's competitiveness. World countries face significant labour and skills shortages in certain sectors and the EU is not an exception. All these shortages limit Unions innovations, growth and productivity. Directive 2009/50/EB or just Blue Card is the newest and well known initiative to attract highly qualified workers to the continent of Europe. Name – Blue Card was elected, when it was decided to use USA Green Card idea with the colour of the European Union flag. The creation of this card was based on other traditional immigration countries systems (Australia, Canada or USA) (EU Blue Card Network, 2016).

In March 2000, the Lisbon European Council set the main goal for the Community to become the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world with better jobs, greater social cohesion and sustainable economic growth. In October 2007 two proposals were adopted by the European Commission. The first one – a Framework Directive was established for admission of highly qualified workers to the EU, later it was renamed and known as Blue Card Directive. The second one – a proposal to make all migration procedures simpler by making single application procedure, known as the single permit directive. In May 2009, the EU Blue Card directive was adopted. The main aim of this directive is to attract large number of highly qualified workers to the EU and create good conditions for them (EU Blue Card Network, 2016).

Before the emergence of the EU needs to become more attractive to highly qualified workers and developing a more coherent legal framework between the Member States, the immigration policy has been carried out only at national level. Today's immigration policy implemented in the EU is improving, because of the collaboration of the Member States, but in comparison with other legislative areas, it still remains quite weak (Grove, 2012). EU Blue Card is applied in 25 out of 28 EU Member States to highly qualified non-EU citizens. Although the EU Blue Card is recognized by 25 EU Member States, each of them has additional criteria for its own. Denmark, Ireland and the United Kingdom are those Member States that are not issuing the EU Blue Card. This card scheme is designed to make the European Union a more attractive place of destination of highly qualified workers from

outside the EU. The European initiative has a list of distinctive qualities that will make the Europe to become more attractive in worlds labour market:

- entitlement to social and economic rights;
- freedom of association;
- perspective of permanent residence;
- all needed conditions for family reunification;
- working and wages conditions the same as to nationals,;
- free movement in the Schengen area.

Non-EU citizens have to meet three key conditions to get the EU Blue Card: have a job offer in the EU, be a highly qualified worker and of course be non-EU citizen (EU Blue Card Network, 2016).

All Blue Card holders are provided with a number of benefits. Card validity period is from 1 to 4 years depending on the contract of employment. If the employer has extended the employment contract, the card validation also can be renewed. When the validity of the card ends, the cardholder is given a 3-month period during which a person may seek for a new job or extend the contract with the old one. While the Blue Card provides a number of advantages, a number of shortages in the Directive can be identified. The card holder is not able to change his/her job during the first two years. During the first 18 months, a person must work in the country, where the card was issued and mobility in the EU is obtainable after this period. If a person decides to move to another EU Member State, he/she must apply for a new Blue Card in that country that he/she is going (while waiting for the approval of the card issuance, a person may be forbidden to work) (EU Blue Card Network, 2016).

On 7th of June 2016, the European Commission presented an action plan to assist Member States to integrate non-EU nationals and encourage their contribution to the EU's economic and social life. Blue Card reform aims to help to attract and retain highly qualified non-EU nationals. It is estimated that the new Blue Card positive impact annually on the economy would be from 1,4 to 6,2 billion EUR. The new proposal sets out a common EU-wide system, which replaces many different with highly qualified work-related national systems. It is also aimed to provide greater clarity for job seekers and employers, and to ensure that the system will be more apparent and competitive. Simplified procedures, permissions for a short (up to 90 days) business trips in the Member States that applies the Blue Card, promotes the mobility within the EU.

By the new system of the Blue Card, highly qualified workers that have international protection will be able to apply for the card. There was also a proposal to strengthen the EU Blue Card holders

rights (the possibility of faster access to long-term resident status, as well as the immediate and more flexible access to the labour market) and their family members (to ensure that family members can join the EU Blue Card holder at the same time). Though integration policy still remains to national competence area, under the current circumstance, many EU Member States face similar problems, which is why the EU action based on a structural and financial support can provide additional benefits. Non-EU nationals' integration action plan proposes actions in the following key areas: integration measures before departure and before the arrival, for those that clearly need international protection; actions in education, employment and vocational areas; access to basic services and the active participation and social inclusion.

The European Commission presented a plan to create a partnership model that will strengthen and bring together the EU's external action and resources for migration management. A new type of partnership with non-EU countries will be concluded by signing special arrangements that will be taken into account for each partner country's situation and needs, as well as the fact if the country of origin, country of transit or the country that has taken many by force displaced persons. Based on the migration agenda, at first it is necessary to save human lives at sea, increase the number of returnees, create conditions for immigrants and refugees to stay close to their homes and in the long term – to promote the development of non-EU countries in order to eliminate the main causes of irregular migration. In order to achieve these results, contribution of Member States will be needed in diplomatic, financial and technical areas (European Commission, 2016f).

In conclusion, global competition between world countries for economic growth, leadership and increasing need of highly qualified workers, make those countries use international recruitment strategies, in order to attract and hire highly qualified workers from otherworld countries. One of the best accomplishments of the European Union is the right of free movement of persons. With this freedom all EU citizens can freely study, travel and work in other EU Member States. This kind of labour mobility helps to solve many job related problems, such as labour shortages and skill gaps. It also helps to deal with unemployment disparities in the EU Member States and even allocates efficient human resources. The European Union has a directive for free movement of professionals that governs the recognition of highly qualified workers qualifications within the EU. Each Member State authorities decide, if the qualifications of highly qualified workers obtained in other EU Member States will be recognised in their country or not. From 18th of January 2016, the European professional card is available just for 5 professions: general care nurses, mountain guides, real estate agents, pharmacists and physiotherapists. This card makes the free movement of professionals in the EU much easier. At the moment the European Union faces intense demographic changes, such as

aging populations, money shortages in social security systems, stagnated economic growth that can only be solved with highly qualified workers immigration from non-EU countries. The EU has two ways to attract highly qualified workers. First one – at national level of Member States and second one – at general level of the EU. At national level each Member State has many different initiatives. Bilateral agreements, schemes and programs to attract highly qualified workers from non-EU countries are used by the EU Member States. The main initiative at the EU level, which aims to attract highly qualified workers, is the EU Blue Card.

3. MOBILITY OF HIGHLY QUALIFIED WORKERS WITHIN THE EU AND FROM NON-EU COUNTRIES: STATISTICAL OVERVIEW AND EMPIRICAL RESEARCH OF RECRUITMENT INITIATIVES

Nowadays a lot of attention is given to highly qualified workers mobility, especially in the EU. The history of the European Union labour market, current situation, identification and analysis of demographic and other problems were discussed in the first chapter of this final paper. Second chapter gives information about initiatives that encourage highly qualified workers mobility inside the EU and their attraction from non-EU countries. In order to evaluate the situation and recruitment initiatives success of labour mobility of highly qualified workers within the EU and from non-EU countries, the third part of the final thesis will carry out quantitative secondary data analysis.

3.1. Methodology

Theoretical part of the final thesis showed that since the beginning of the Coal and Steel Community till nowadays, the importance of highly qualified workers mobility within the EU and from non-EU countries remains as one of the key factors for the Union. In order to the EU to achieve the main goals, remain competitive and overcome challenges in the future, it is necessary to evaluate the effectiveness of initiatives carried out inside the Union and foresee potential areas of improvement. To investigate the issues, the secondary data analysis was done on the basis of criteria that emerged in the theoretical part and which reflects highly qualified workers mobility within the EU and their immigration from non-EU countries.

The aim of the empirical research – to evaluate situation and success of recruitment initiatives of highly qualified workers within EU and non-EU countries.

The tasks of the empirical research:

1. To analyse the EU mobility and reasons of using it.
2. Identify non-EU citizens' usage of national initiatives and EU general initiatives, and reasons.
3. Identify highly qualified workers from non-EU countries arrivals.
4. Determine if the recruitment initiatives are successful.

The criteria for further analysis were developed in the theoretical part of this paper and are listed below:

1. EU labour mobility:

- The EU nationals working in other Member State, by nationality [Eurostat, 2015];
- The EU nationals working in other Member State, by place of residence [Eurostat, 2015];
- Push and pull factors [OECD, 2009];
- The most attractive job sectors [Eurostat, 2013];
- Countries where highly qualified workers obtained professional qualifications [EU Single Market database, 2013-2014];
- Countries that recognised highly qualified workers professional qualifications [EU Single Market database, 2013-2014];
- Most mobile professions within EU MS and EFTA countries [EU Single Market database, 2013-2014].

2. Non-EU countries citizens immigration:

- Assessment of labour market outcomes [Eurostat and EU-LFS, 2013];
- Factors that hinder labour market opportunities of migrant workers [EWCO, 2013];
- Immigration to the EU 2013-2014 [Eurostat, 2013-2014];
- Reasons for choosing the recipient countries [Eurostat, 2013-2014].

3. National initiatives:

- Highly qualified workers immigration to the EU 2013-2014 [Eurostat, 2013-2014];
- National initiative permissions by country of residence 2013-2014 [Eurostat, 2013-2014];

4. EU Blue Card:

- Blue Cards by country of residence 2013-2014 [Eurostat, 2013-2014];
- Blue Cards by the continents 2013-2014 [Eurostat, 2013-2014];
- Blue Cards by sectors 2013-2014 [Eurostat, 2013-2014].

The main sources of the empirical research were the statistical data from Eurostat database, OECD and the EU Single Market database. Eurostat is the statistical department of the European

Union located in Luxembourg. The main role of this department is to process and publish comparable statistical information at the European level. All statistical data is collected by Member States and sent to Eurostat. Then Eurostat places all information and compares results of all Member States. Secondary quantitative data analysis was the overall strategy of the research. Research included descriptive analysis of statistical data and comparative approach.

The research was carried out in several stages. First of all, the EU mobility flows were identified and reasons of mobility determined. Push and pull factors were also very important to see why people use the EU mobility and in what sectors they work in other Member States than they were born. Second, mobility/immigration flows from non-EU countries were identified by the analysis of issued National schemes by Member States for highly qualified workers and the EU Blue Card. This kind of statistical data also showed from which continent the biggest number of immigrants were in the chosen period of time and to which sectors they came to work. Finally, the comparative analysis of the statistical data revealed, which initiative is the most effective in order to attract highly qualified workers.

3.2. Assessment of highly qualified workers mobility within the EU

Every year thousands of people are leaving their home countries in order to find a better life in other European Union Member States and with years the number is increasing. Following the results of the year 2013 it is clear that more than 7 million people used the EU free movement of people to go and work in other Member States (see Figure 5). Top 5 countries that suffered the greatest loss were: Romania (1290,7K), Poland (1059,2K), Italy (677,3K), Portugal (571,1K) and Germany (388,3K). Top 5 countries that did not even reach 50 thousands of outgoing workers were: Luxembourg (15,7K), Slovenia (18,6K), Cyprus (21,4K), Estonia (27,3K) and Finland (45K). There weren't any considerable numbers of Maltese people, who wanted to leave Malta in 2013 and go to work to other Member State of the EU. All these numbers were counted by the total number of working migrants that had left their home country.

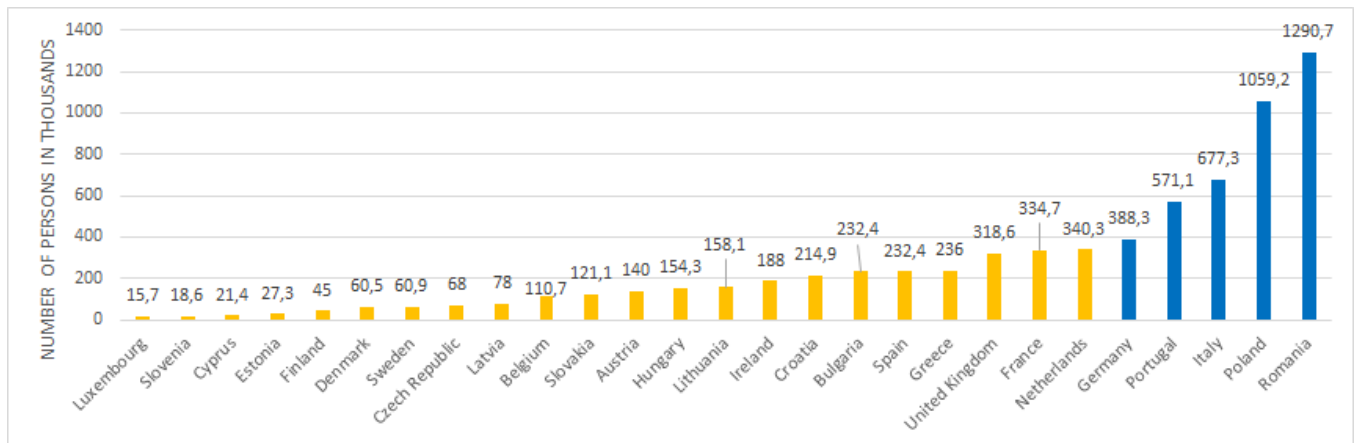


Figure 5. The EU nationals working in other Member States than their own, by nationality (2013).

Made by the author, based on Eurostat (see APPENDIX 6).

Looking through the same year statistical data, just from other perspective it can be seen to which EU Member States the biggest number of workers within the EU came (see Figure 6). Top 5 countries that received the biggest number of workers from other Member States were: Germany (1882,8K), United Kingdom (1481,7K), Italy (792,8K), Spain (764,6K) and France (597,7K). Top 5 countries that received the smallest number of workers from other Member States were: Latvia (1,9K), Estonia (2,3K), Malta (2,4K), Slovakia (3,9K) and Slovenia (3,9K). Countries like Bulgaria, Croatia, Lithuania and Romania have not received any considerable number of migrant workers from inside EU. Comparing departure and arrival statistical data, it is worth mentioning that there is no balanced distribution. Countries like Bulgaria, Croatia, Lithuania and Romania loses many working age people and do not receive similar amounts from other countries. Those countries suffer from brain drain,

while in countries like Germany, the United Kingdom and Spain number of migrant workers are higher than the numbers of nationals that decided to leave the country.

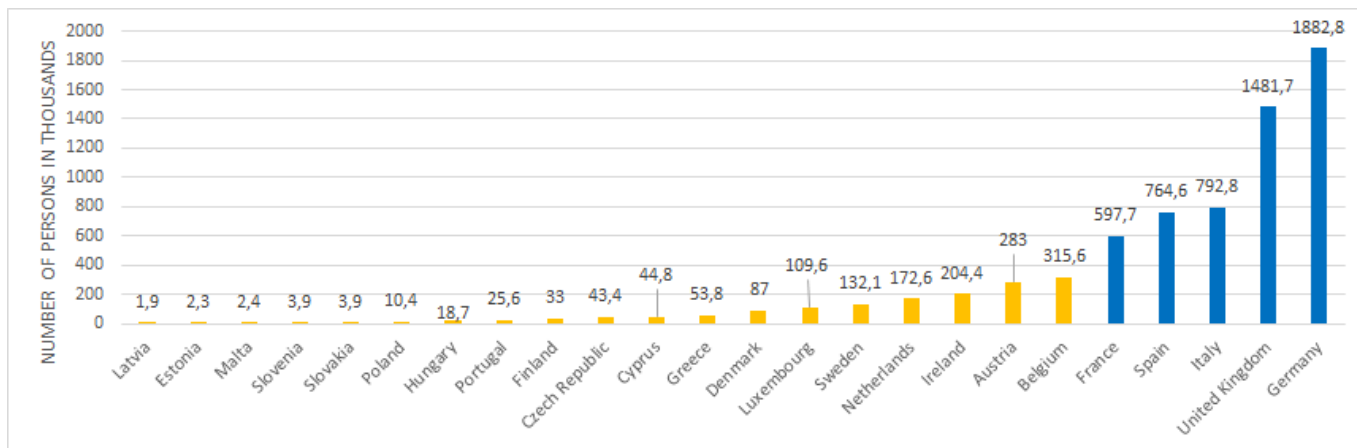


Figure 6. The EU nationals working in other Member States than their own, by MS of residence (2013).

Made by the author, based on Eurostat (see APPENDIX 7).

Going through the situation from each Member State employment rate, it is possible to see different data from the one that was given by number of persons in thousands (see APPENDIX 7). By every Member State employment rate it is clear that the biggest number of working age people lost: Croatia (15,5%), Romania (14%), Portugal (12,7%), Lithuania (12,2%) and Ireland (10%). The smallest loss has been in: Germany (1%), United Kingdom (1,1%), Sweden (1,3%), France (1,3%) and Spain (1,4%) (see Table 5 below). Comparing statistical data it is obvious that by number of people in thousands and by Member States employment rates Romania and Portugal remains between the countries that have lost the biggest number of their citizens.

By the employment rate in Member States the biggest part of migrating workers in 2013 were accepted by: Luxembourg (45,9%), Cyprus (11,9 %), Ireland (10,9%), Belgium (7%) and United Kingdom (5%). The smallest number of workers have chosen: Poland (0,1%), Latvia (0,2%), Slovakia (0,2%), Estonia (0,4%) and Hungary (0,5%), excluding those countries that no considerable number chose to come. The United Kingdom remains between the countries that received the biggest number of migrants. Latvia, Slovakia and Estonia remain between the countries that received the lowest number of migrants. According to the statistical data, the European Union citizens leave their home countries, because of the high rates of unemployment, low wages and choose countries with strong and stable economic situation.

People leave their home countries for a number of reasons. These reasons may be from different areas like: environmental, economic, cultural and socio-political. Reasons may be divided into two

groups of push and pull factors. Push factors are the ones that make the individual to move voluntary or forced, depending on the situation. Pull factors are the ones in the destination country that attract the individual with better life conditions to leave their home countries.

Table 5. Net migration rate of EU national workers as % of total employed population within EU Member countries (2013).

Made by the author, based on Eurostat (see APPENDIX 6 and 7).

Greatest emigration as % of employed people	Smallest emigration as % of employed people	Greatest immigration as % of employed people	Smallest immigration as % of employed people
Croatia – 15,5%	Germany – 1%	Luxembourg – 45,9%	Poland – 0,1%
Romania – 14%	United Kingdom – 1,1%	Cyprus – 11,9%	Latvia – 0,2 %
Portugal – 12,7%	Sweden – 1,3%	Ireland – 10,9%	Slovakia – 0,2%
Lithuania – 12,2%	France – 1,3%	Belgium – 7%	Estonia – 0,4%
Ireland – 10%	Spain – 1,4%	United Kingdom -5%	Hungary – 0,5%

Of course there are people that use the EU Mobility, not only in order to leave their home country and start a new life in other Member State, but also guided by a number of purposes like: to fill a skills gap, knowledge transfer, success plan, business need, to communicate with different cultures, etc. After accomplishing all purposes they come back to their home countries. The Table 6 below lists the most common push and pull factors leading to one or another kind of people's choices. The table of push and pull factors was made based on OECD book "The Future of International migration to OECD countries" (2009), where migration and immigration push and pull factors were widely discussed. Push and pull factors are distributed to EU citizens and non-EU citizens separately, because not all applies to both groups of mobile workers.

Table 6. Most common push and pull factors for EU and non-EU citizens.

Made by the author, based on OECD.

PUSH FACTORS	EU citizens	Non-EU citizens
Low wages	✓	✓
High unemployment rates	✓	✓
Weak and unstable country economy	✓	✓
High prices	✓	
Tax system	✓	
Weak education systems	✓	✓
Employment opportunities	✓	✓
Living and social conditions	✓	✓
Natural disasters		✓
Wars		✓
Shortages of food		✓
Poverty	✓	✓
Lack of safety/fear		✓
PULL FACTORS		
Higher wages	✓	✓
Greater employment opportunities	✓	✓
Strong and stable country economy	✓	✓
Better work conditions and equipment	✓	✓
More attractive tax system	✓	
Better education system	✓	✓
Opportunities for the improvement	✓	✓
Better living and social conditions	✓	✓
Safer atmosphere		✓
Political security		✓

Migration influencing factors are not the new ones, for many years they remain to be the same. All factors should be very important to each Member State governance to see why people are leaving and to think of possible solutions to improve the situation. People want to live secure lives and do not have any fear that is why most of the push factors are related. So, why do people emigrate? From the

statistical data analysis above, based on migration rate of EU national workers as % of total employed population, it was found that the biggest number of people uses EU free movement of people from Croatia, Romania, Portugal, Lithuania and Ireland. Some of those countries deal with high unemployment rates that are one of the most important factors that encourage migration. High unemployment rate shows instability and weakness of countries economics (see Figure 1, p.22). Countries degree of development can be judged by the risk of poverty level, which shows the population below the poverty risk threshold. Average poverty rate in the EU-28 countries is 24,4%, while in Romania poverty rate is 40,2%, Croatia 29,3%, Portugal 27,5%, Ireland 27,4% and in Lithuania 27,3% (Eurostat, 2015c data).

People are not satisfied with low wages. The biggest part of emigrants is educated people who get low wages in their home countries, while other Member States offers them 4 or even more times higher wages. Service and daily product prices, also taxes are not proportionate to the wages that people get. Prices are rising every day, but for increase of wages people have to wait for a year and sometimes even more. Inflation rate in Lithuania is 0,7%; Romania 0,1%; Croatia is -0,3%; Ireland -0,4% and in Portugal 1,1% (Eurostat, 2016b). Minimum wages in those 5 countries are: Romania 217,50 Euro, Lithuania 380 Euro, Croatia 395,61 Euro, Portugal 589,17 Euro and in Ireland 1546,36 Euro that show that Irish people migrate from their home country, not because of low wages (Eurostat, 2016c data). A lot of attention also is drawn to education as it is considered to be the main element of human development. Migrants that have children or that seek to study themselves take into account each country's educational system and a better education system can become another positive factor in taking a decision to migrate.

Some of the EU Member States have a lack of employment opportunities. Active labour market policies not only facilitate access to employment, help residents who have worked a long time ago to return to the labour market successfully, but also increase job productivity and quality. While the economic activity is increasing, the unemployment rate is reducing and this can be considered as a decisive factor for the emigration. Living and social conditions have a significant influence on the decision to emigrate. Living conditions include: income per family member, costs of housing, consumer goods, food, etc. Social conditions include: the cost of healthcare, benefits for families with children, unemployment benefits, etc. Different people, different stories, but the factors mentioned above somehow affect last decision of each who intends to migrate.

Among the most popular migration destinations in the EU countries, Luxembourg, Cyprus, Ireland, Belgium and UK can be found. People are fascinated by the growing economy, low

unemployment rates, all this promises good prospects for which even the language barrier is not so frightening. Member States expect well educated workers from sectors in which their country has a lack of workers. Across the European Union, Germany is well known for low unemployment rates, but at the same time known for having a quite strict highly qualified workers' recruitment system. People who decide to try to find a better life in Germany, but fail, try some other destinations like UK, Spain or Ireland afterwards, where employment conditions are much easier.

Emigration brings not only negative impact, but some benefits too. Using the EU Mobility, people leave their home countries, thus contributing to the reduction of unemployment. Emigration also can lead to the increase of wages of those workers which country is lacking of workers from certain sectors. Because of the emigration the labour supply decrease and this leads to increases of wages. Another positive consequence of the migration – emigrants earned money transfers back home. Because of them domestic demand, consumption and investment are increasing. Returning migrants with new experiences are very important, too.

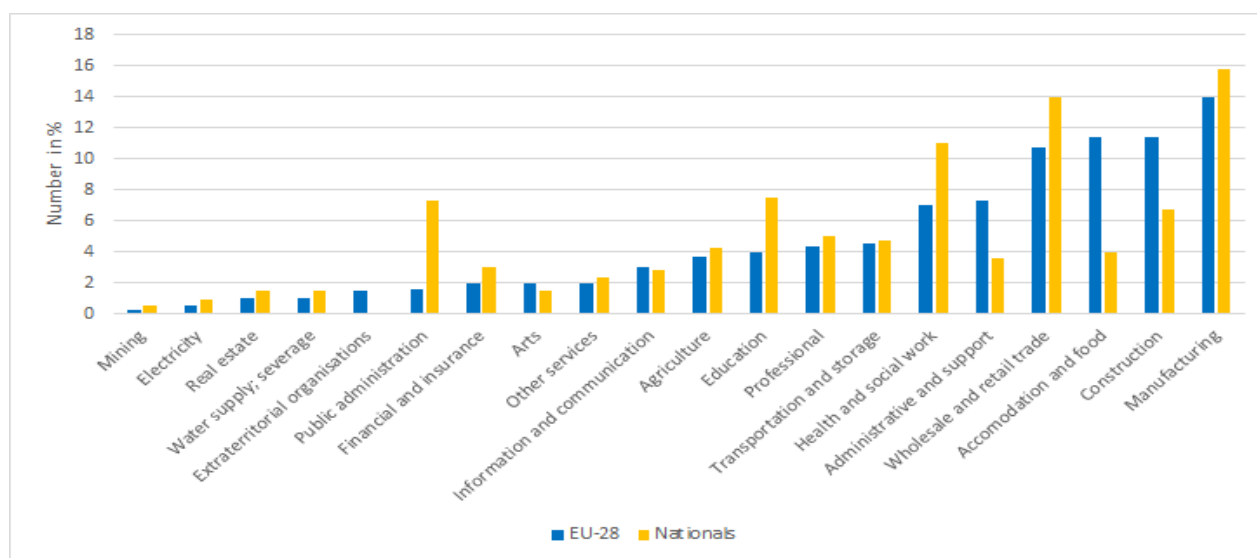


Figure 7. Employment by sectors in the EU by movers and nationals (2013).
 Made by the author, based on Eurostat.

The main pull factor, why people leave their home countries is higher wages abroad for the same job that they do at home countries. As an example, it is worth to mention Lithuania, which has the highest number of highly educated people (by 2015 statistics), but at the same time in Lithuania job wages are among the lowest in whole European Union. The European Union Member States with a strong and stable country economy can offer not only higher wages, but also greater employment opportunities, better work conditions and equipment, even more attractive tax system.

Emigrating people age is ranging from 15-64 years. This shows that even young people are thinking about their future and chooses studies abroad, to be confident that in the future they will get a good job with decent wages, which will help to have better living and social conditions. There are people who are leaving to gain more experience and improve their personal skills. Gaining education and knowledge abroad, returning income, investments, intercultural life and work experience, knowledge of foreign languages, promotes the development of home countries and improve economy and living conditions.

According to the 2013 statistical data (see Figure 7), the biggest percentages of that year movers across the European Union were employed in these sectors: manufacturing 14%, construction 11,4%, accommodation and food services 11,4% and wholesale and retail trade 10,7%. Less popular sectors were agriculture 3,7%, arts 2%, financial and insurance 2% and public administration 1,6%. The least attractive sectors were real estate 1%, electricity 0,5% and mining 0,2%. Looking from the nationals' perspective they prefer manufacturing 15,8% , wholesale and retail trade 14%, health and social work 11% and public administration 7,3%. There are a few sectors in which 2013 year movers are over-represented while comparing to nationals and those sectors are: construction 11,4%/ nationals 6,7%, accommodation and food sector 11,4% / nationals 4% and administrative and support 7,3%/ nationals 3,6%.

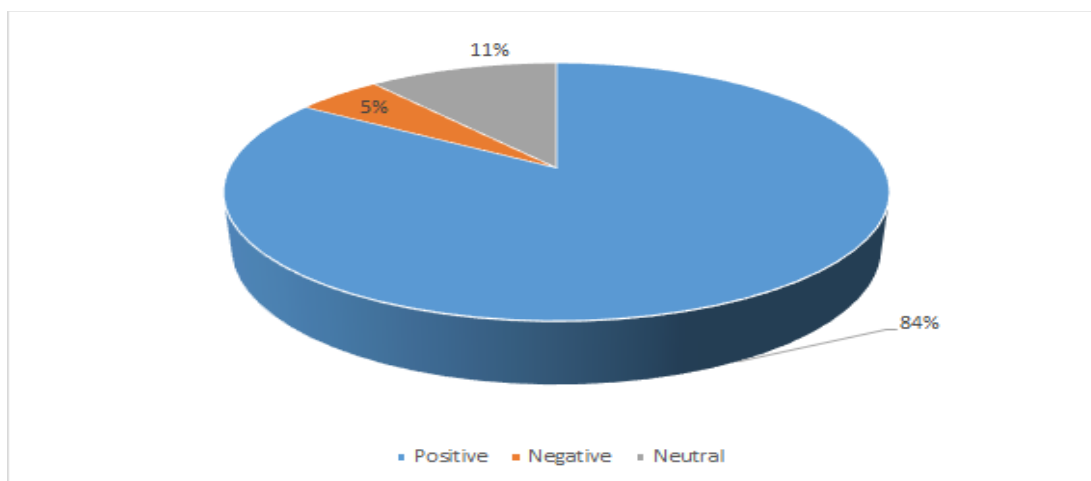


Figure 8. Decisions taken on recognition of professional qualifications for the purpose of permanent establishment within the EU MS and EFTA countries (2013-2014).

Made by the author, based on the EU Single Market database (see APPENDIX 8).

In 2013 more than 7 million of the EU citizens have used the free movement of people (see figure 5). During the period of 2013-2014 only 131 538 of all movers were highly qualified workers in the EU and EFTA countries. All these countries in that period of time received 132 057 of applications from EU and EFTA countries, in order to recognise the professional qualifications of highly qualified

workers (see Figure 9). Decisions were expressed in three options: positive, negative and neutral. Positive answer means that persons' professional qualifications were recognised by the host country and he/she can get a highly qualified work there. Negative answer means that persons' professional qualifications were not recognised and he will not get a highly qualified work of his profession in the host country. Neutral answer means that an appeal was given, recognition is undergoing adaptation period or the person is just being examined and there is no answer yet. From all those 132 057 applications for recognition of professional qualifications, 84% were positive, 11% neutral and 5% negative (see Figure 8).

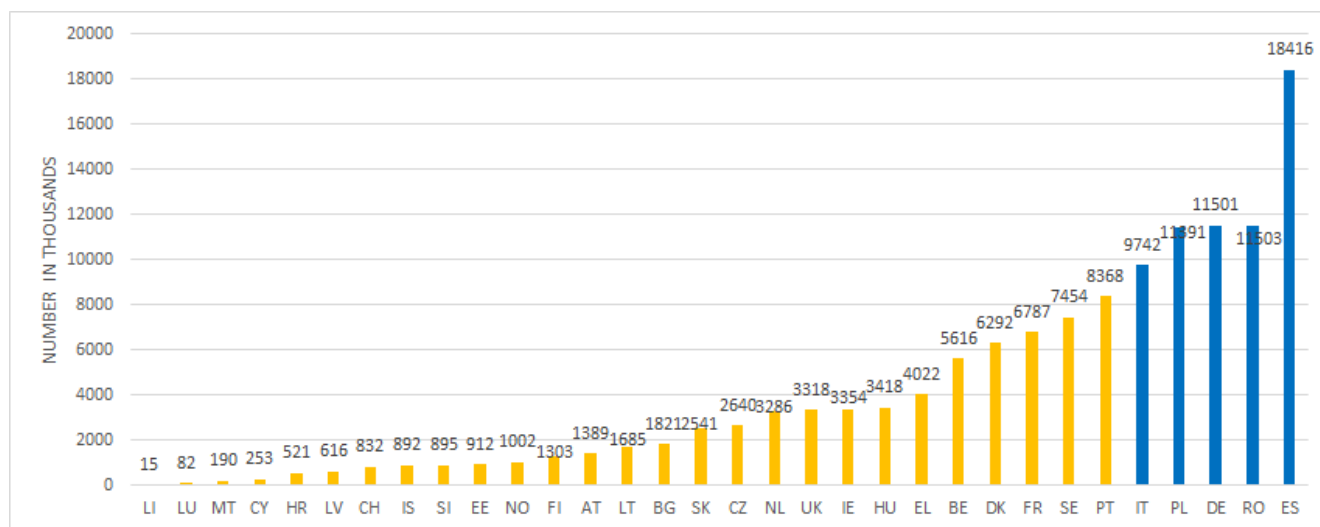


Figure 9. Decisions taken on professionals who obtain professional qualifications in one of the countries (2013-2014).

Made by the author, based on the EU Single Market database (see APPENDIX 9).

Following the results of the period 2013-2014, it is clear that top 5 countries (with highest numbers), where migrating professionals obtained their professional qualifications were: Spain (18 416), Romania (11 503), Germany (11 501), Poland (11 391) and Italy (9 742). Top 5 countries with lowest number of migrating highly qualified workers with obtained professional qualifications in those countries were: Hungary (521), Cyprus (253), Malta (190), Luxembourg (82) and Lichtenstein (15) (see Figure 9). All these numbers were counted by the total numbers of people applications to recognise their professional qualifications by country of qualification.

Looking through the same period of time statistical data, just from other perspective, it can be seen which host countries recognised the biggest number of professional qualifications of highly qualified workers (see Figure 10 below). Top 5 countries, where the biggest number of migrating professionals had their qualifications recognised were: United Kingdom (35 184), Norway (22 693), Switzerland (17 705), France (16 254) and Belgium (11 588). Top 5 countries, where the smallest

number of migrating professionals had their qualifications recognised were: Latvia (51), Estonia (43), Bulgaria (36), Germany (35) and Malta (13).

Comparing results of free movement of people and free movement of highly qualified workers, it could be concluded that among top countries which lost the biggest part of their labour force and in which the biggest number of migrating highly qualified workers obtained their qualifications we can find Romania, Poland and Italy by number in thousands. Among top countries that lost the smallest number of their citizens and the smallest number of migrating highly qualified workers where they obtained their qualifications we can find: Malta, Luxembourg and Cyprus.

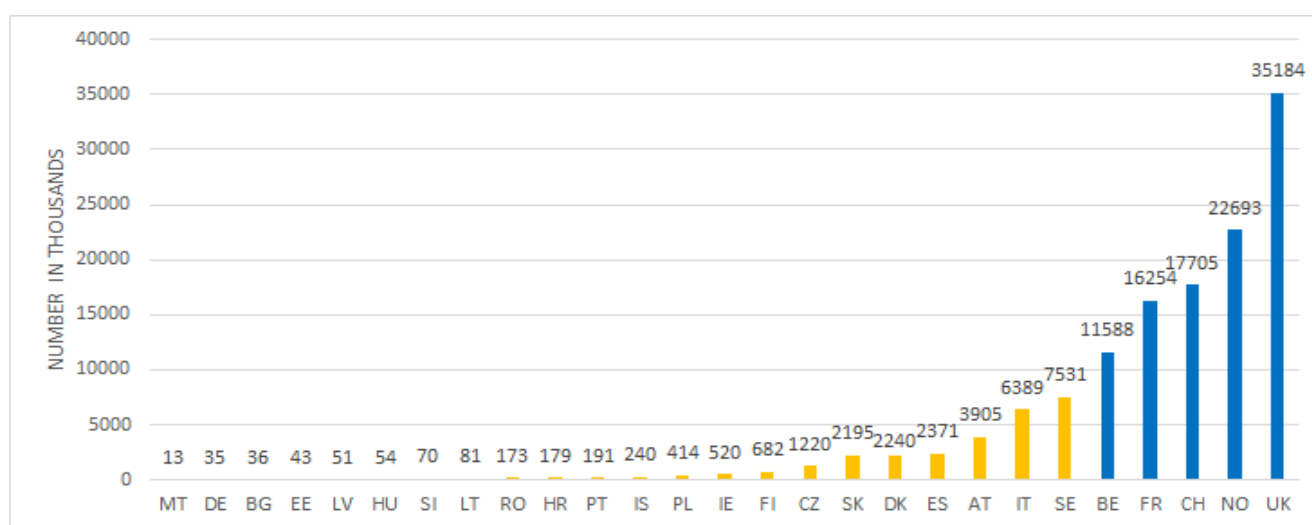


Figure 10. Decisions taken on professionals to apply for recognition in other EU MS and EFTA countries (2013-2014).

Made by the author, based on the EU Single Market database (see APPENDIX 9).

The countries that welcomed the biggest number of workers from other EU Member States and the ones that recognised the biggest number of professional qualifications were: United Kingdom and France. The smallest number was welcomed and the smallest number of professional qualifications was recognised in Latvia and Bulgaria. From this point of view, it is possible to conclude that the most popular destination countries between the mobile EU citizens and the EU highly qualified workers remains to be the same.

According to the 2013-2014 statistical data (see Figure 11, above), across the European Union and EFTA countries the biggest number of highly qualified workers' professions by number of decisions taken on recognition of professional qualifications were: Nurse (29 882), Doctors of medicine (28 401), Secondary school teachers (12 430), Physiotherapists (8 990) and Electricians (6 213).

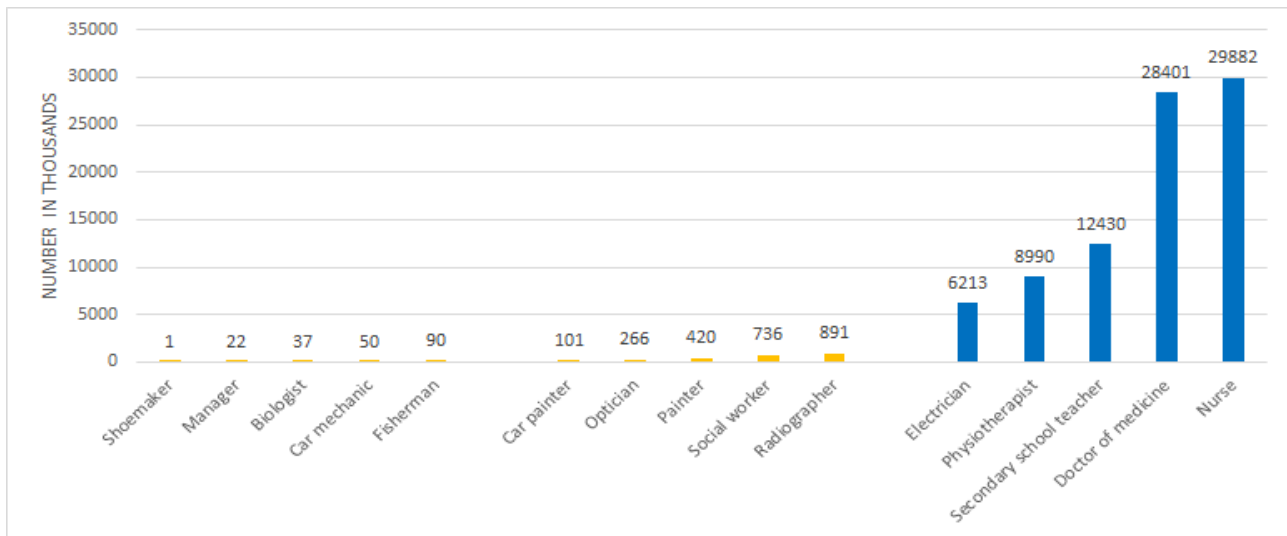


Figure 11. The most mobile professions within the EU MS and EFTA countries by recognition of professional qualifications (2013-2014).

Made by the author, based on the EU Single Market database (see APPENDIX 10).

Mid 5 professions in hundreds of highly qualified workers were: Radiographer (891), Social worker (736), painter (420), Optician (266) and Car painter (101). Bottom 5 professions in tens of highly qualified workers were: Fisherman (90), Car mechanic (50), Biologist (37), Manager (22) and Shoemaker (1). Full list of 266 highly qualified workers professions by number of decisions taken on recognition of professional qualifications can be found in APPENDIX 10.

To summarize, following the results of the year 2013 it can be stated that more than 7 million people used the free movement of people in order to go and work in other EU Member States. Analysing statistical data by the total number of people that had left their home countries in thousands and comparing with the data that shows what part in percentage of total employment in the origin or residence country they form, it was clear that the biggest loss of working age citizens was felt in Romania, Poland, Croatia, Portugal and Lithuania. Top attractive migration destinations, analysed in the same order were Germany, UK, Spain, Luxembourg and Ireland. During the period of 2013-2014 only 131 538 of all movers were highly qualified workers. These results show that EU labour mobility of highly qualified workers is low. All highly qualified workers need to get recognition of professional qualifications in order to get a job in a host country. Countries in which the highest number of migrating highly qualified workers obtained professional qualifications were: Spain, Romania, Germany, Poland and Italy. The host countries that recognised the biggest number of professional qualifications of highly qualified workers were: UK, Norway, Switzerland, France and Belgium. The biggest numbers of highly qualified workers professions by number of decisions taken on recognition of professional qualifications were: nurses, doctors, secondary school teachers, physiotherapists and

electricians. Reasons or so called push and pull factors make people to take serious decisions and use the EU labour mobility. Low wages, high unemployment rates, weak and unstable country economics, tax system, living and social conditions are just a part of things that people are not happy with in their origin countries. That is why greater employment opportunities, better work conditions, higher wages, strong and stable country economy, opportunities for the improvement abroad are so attractive.

3.3. Assessment of highly qualified workers mobility from non-EU countries

The European Union labour market consists of mobile EU citizens, non-EU citizens and nationals. In 2013, according to the statistical data mobile EU citizens (77,7%) were more active than non-EU citizens (67,7%) and even nationals (72%) (see Table 7). The biggest employment rate also was among the EU mobile citizens (68%), followed by nationals (64,5%) and non-EU citizens (52,6%). Looking from one side, it is clear that EU mobile citizens employment rate is higher than nationals' employment rate, but from the other side nationals have the lowest unemployment rate (10,2%), while unemployment rate between the EU mobile nationals is 12,4% and the highest unemployment rate is among non-EU citizens (22,2%).

Table 7. Number of working-age (15-64) people by group of citizenship and labour market outcomes in EU, 2013.

Made by the author, by Eurostat and EU-LFS.

Group of citizenship	Number (in millions)	Activity rate	Employment rate	Unemployment rate
Mobile EU citizens	10,3	77,7	68	12,4
Non-EU citizens	15,5	67,7	52,6	22,2
Nationals	305,5	72	64,5	10,2
All groups	331,3	72,5	61,7	14,9

Highly qualified workers migration is characterized by a number of special features, while other migrant groups do not have such. These features are in all stages of migration, starting with opportunities of highly qualified workers to find a job abroad before migrating, their financial capabilities to migrate, migration law in such migrant cases and ending by social integration of migrants in the destination country and local attitudes towards immigrants, depending on the qualifications of immigrants and their differences. Non-EU citizens, just like mobile EU citizens, follow some priorities, when they are choosing their dream destinations. At this point, it would be worth to mention the same push and pull factors (Table 6), which are suitable for both migrating workers groups. Though for non-EU citizens there are more push factors, such as natural disasters, wars, shortages of food, poverty, lack of safety and fear. These are not similarly applicable to the EU citizens. Non-EU citizens look not only for a wealthier life, but also search for safer atmosphere and political security. However, non-EU citizens are guided not only by push and pull factors, but also by factors that hinder labour market opportunities of immigrant workers. Because of these factors, people

try to avoid certain countries and to choose the most attractive options to ensure better life. Table 8 lists all factors that make migrant workers to avoid some countries.

Table 8. Factors that hinder labour market opportunities of migrant workers.

Made by the author, by National contributions of EWCO.

Country	Reasons
Germany, Denmark, Finland, France, Slovenia	Educational qualifications
Czech Republic, Spain, Sweden	Discrimination by colleagues
Austria, Sweden	Fewer opportunities for training
Austria, Cyprus, Lithuania, Finland, Malta	Language barriers
Belgium, Finland, France, Netherlands, Luxembourg, Malta	Ethnic prejudices
Belgium, Estonia	Limited access to the public sector and to managerial positions
Spain	Bureaucratic barriers to full labour market

In countries like Germany, Denmark, Finland, France and Slovenia migrants have fewer opportunities for further education. The educational programs are usually in the native language. Factors related to discrimination against ethnic minorities and language barriers are also important. Linguistic barriers are also in the list of significant limitations in countries like Cyprus, Lithuania, Austria, Finland and Malta. In Sweden, Czech Republic and Spain migrants suffer from various forms of discrimination. People are frightened and discrimination curtails all possible career opportunities.

Workers perceive that in Austria and Sweden they have fewer opportunities in training. In France, there is huge ethnic prejudice and discrimination. The applicants with French or European names are called to job interview more often than those applicants with an equivalent or even higher qualification, but with Asian or African names. Such discrimination against workers can also manifest in Netherlands, Malta and Spain as well. In the later, there are so many bureaucratic barriers for migrants to full labour market. Belgium and Estonia have a limited access to the public sector and to managerial positions.

Certain factors influence, not only mobile EU citizens movement inside the European Union, but also immigration from non-EU countries. According to the statistical data of 2013 more than 2,3 million people from non-EU countries have immigrated to the European Union Member States (see Figure 12). The biggest part of immigrants was received by the United Kingdom (724,2K). Also, many

people immigrated to Poland (273,8K), Italy (243,9K), France (212 K) and Germany (199,9K). In eight EU Member States (Bulgaria, Croatia, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Slovakia and Slovenia) the number of immigrants had not reached 10 thousands. The smallest number of immigrants from non-EU countries came to Estonia (2,4K). Taking into account the population of each Member State, the highest number of immigrants in 2013 were recorded in Malta (24,1 immigrants per thousand inhabitants), Cyprus (13,3 immigrants per thousand inhabitants), the United Kingdom (11,3 immigrants per thousand inhabitants) and Sweden (10,3 immigrants per thousand inhabitants). Numbers below 1 immigrant per thousand inhabitants were in four Member States: Bulgaria (0,9), Croatia (0,8), Slovakia (0,8) and Romania (0,6). Total in 2013, 4,7 immigrants per thousand inhabitants were registered in the EU-28.

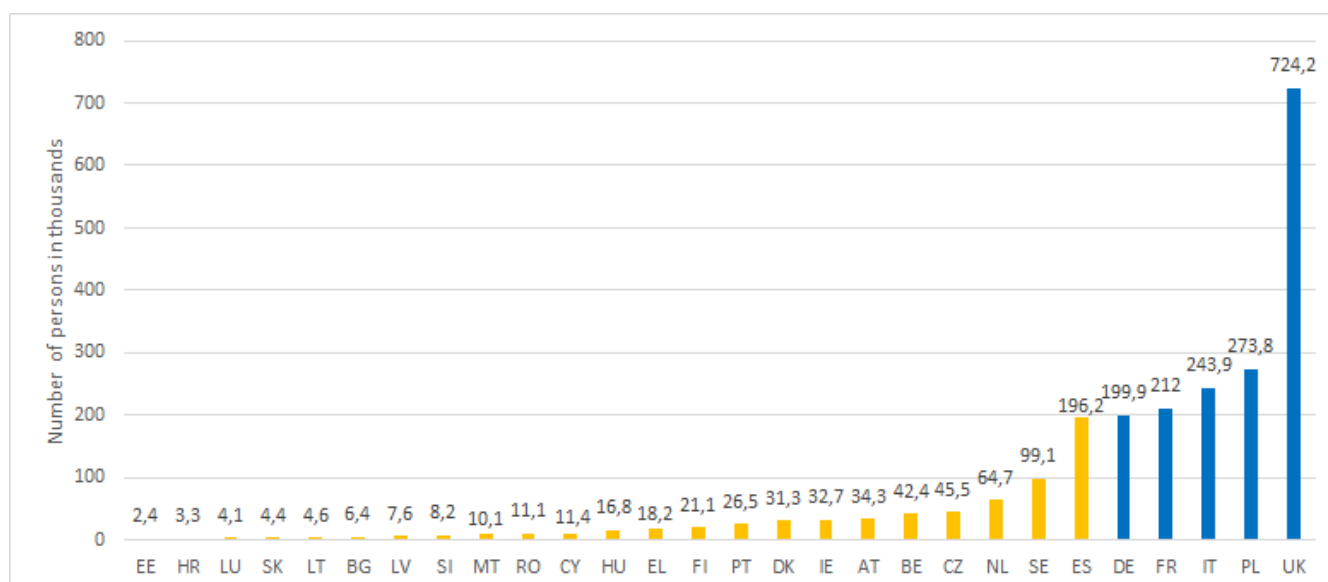


Figure 12. Immigration from non-EU countries to the EU-28 (2013).
 Made by the author, based on Eurostat (see APPENDIX 11).

Following the results of the year 2014 it is clear that more than 2,3 million people from non-EU countries have immigrated to the EU Member States (see Figure 13). Comparing with the total of 2013 a slight difference can be seen - 2014 brought a bit less immigrants than 2013. The biggest part of immigrants was received by the United Kingdom (567,8K). Also, many people immigrated to Poland (355,4K), Germany (237,6K), France (218,2) and Italy (204,3K). In 2014, in nine of the EU Member States (Bulgaria, Croatia, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Slovenia and Slovakia) the number of immigrants had not reached 10 thousands. The smallest number of immigrants from non-EU countries came to Estonia (3,2K) and Croatia (3,3K). Taking into account the population of each Member State, the highest number of immigrants in 2014 were recorded in Malta (23,2 immigrants per thousand inhabitants), Cyprus (16,2 immigrants per thousand inhabitants), Sweden (11,1 immigrants

per thousand inhabitants) and the United Kingdom (8,8 immigrants per thousand inhabitants). Numbers below 1 immigrant per thousand inhabitants were in two Member States: Croatia (0,8) and Romania (0,5). Total in 2014, 4,5 immigrants per thousand inhabitants were registered in the EU-28.

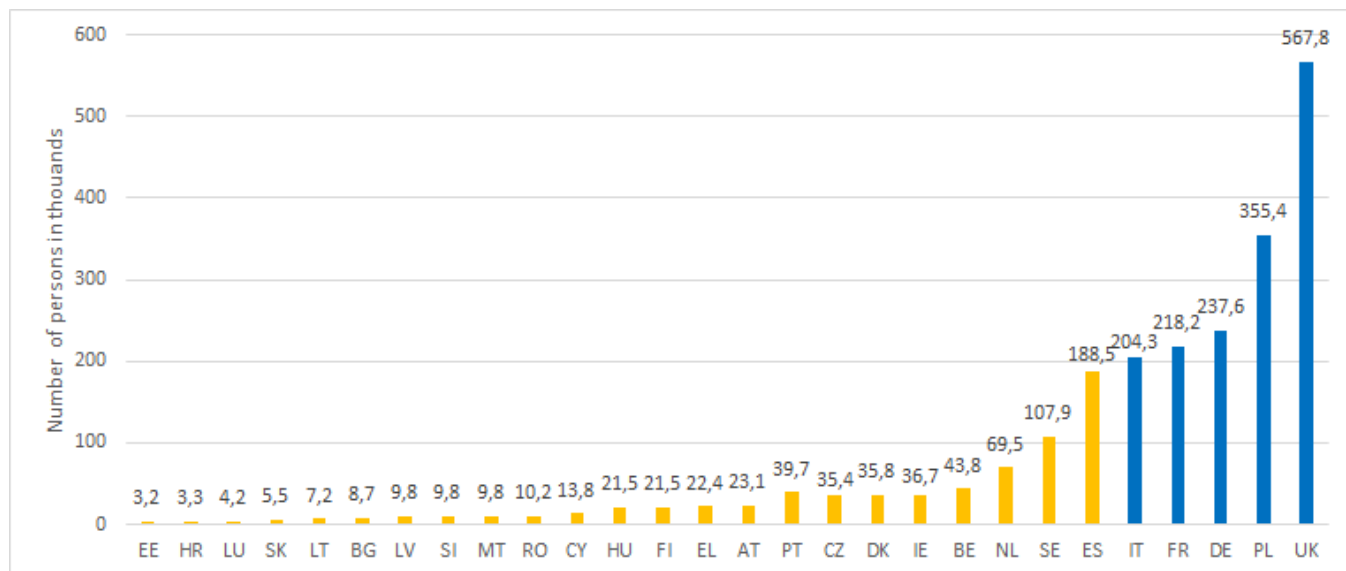


Figure 13. Immigration from non-EU countries to the EU-28 (2014).

Made by the author, based on Eurostat (see APPENDIX 12).

Comparing 2013 and 2014 years statistical data, it becomes clear that in 2013 – 2 357 583 million of non-EU citizens came to the EU Member States, while in 2014 – 2 305 758 million, which is 51 825 thousands less. Countries that received the biggest part of immigrants remained to be the same: the United Kingdom, Poland, Italy, Germany and France, just the numbers were different than the previous year. Both in 2013 and 2014, the smallest number of immigrants from non-EU countries came to Estonia and in recent year to Croatia. By each Member States population, both in 2013 and 2014, the highest number of immigrants was recorded in Malta, Cyprus, the United Kingdom and Sweden. The number below 1 immigrant per thousand inhabitants was in Croatia and Romania.

In order to legally enter and stay in the European Union, non-EU citizens must obtain permits to prove their legal presence in the host country. Permission for a temporary (permanent) residence in one of the EU Member States is a document, which is issued to non-EU citizens and thus they are entitled for a temporary (permanent) residence in the host country. Everyone who wants to obtain such a permit must specify a clear arrival reason. The most common reasons for which permits are issued: family, education and employment. Other reasons, such as asylum, volunteering and etc. are indicated as other reasons. In order to find out the reasons, why most of the non-EU citizens arrived to the EU in 2013 and 2014, an analysis of permits statistical data was carried out.

According to 2013 data, the biggest part of permits was issued for other reasons (685 151 units) (see Figure 14 below). The smallest part of permits was issued for education reasons (464 040 units). For family reasons 672 914 permits were issued and for employment reasons – 535 478 permits. This accounted 28,5% and 22,7% of all permits issued in 2013.

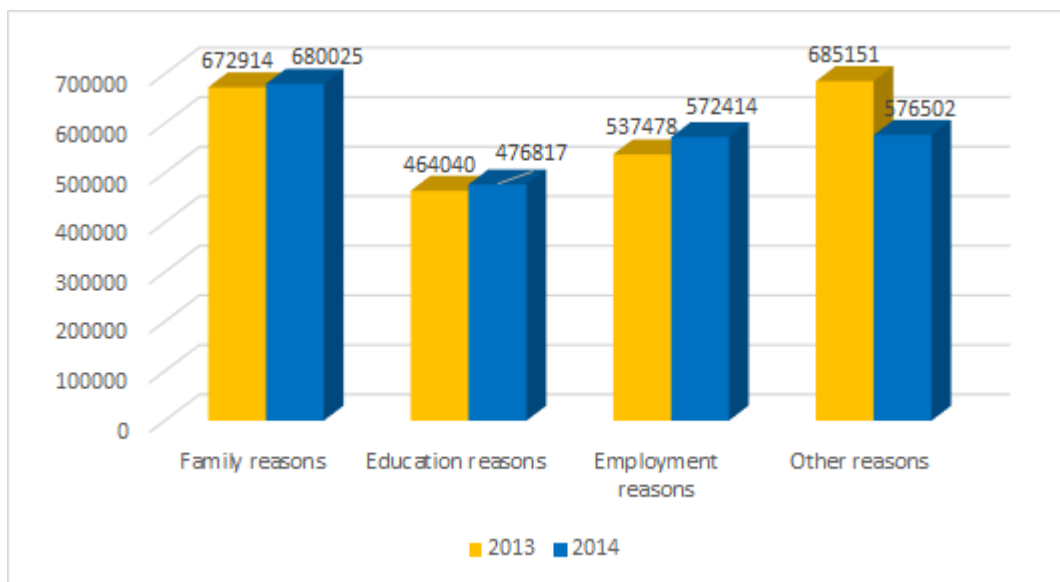


Figure 14. Permits (in units) based on entry to the EU reasons, issued in 2013-2014.
Made by the author, based on Eurostat (see APPENDIX 11 and 12).

According to 2014 data, the biggest number of permits was issued for family reasons (680 025 units) (see Figure 10 above). The smallest number of permits was issued for education reasons (476 817 units). For employment reasons 572 414 permits were issued and for other reasons – 576 502 permits. This accounted 24,8% and 25% of all permits issued in 2014.

From a statistical data it is seen that the largest flows of immigrants from non-EU countries during 2013 and 2014 came to the United Kingdom. The smallest flows of non-EU citizens came to Estonia. Within two years, according to the main reasons, by which non-EU citizens get permits, most people immigrated due to reasons related with family. In 2013-2014 education based permits formed 20,1%, employment related – 23,8% and other reasons 27% of all permits. After comparison of data it can be said that employment is not the main reason for which non-EU citizens come to the EU. In two years, permits to enter the EU mostly were given to these main citizenships (see APPENDIX 13 and 14) – Ukrainians (539 463), Americans (371 044), Indians (335 725), Chinese (335 226), Moroccans (198 243), Belarusians (157 242), Russians (146 928), Turkish (116 125), Brazilians (112 119), Philippines (107 848) and Syrians (81 899). The analysis of these non-EU citizens reasons for which they came to the EU, it is clear that the biggest part of Moroccans, Russians and Turkish came for family reasons; for education reasons – Chinese and Brazilians; for employment reasons – Ukrainians;

and for other reasons – Americans, Philippines, Syrians and Belarusians. In 2013, the biggest part of Indians came for other reasons, while in 2014 – for employment.

For non-EU citizens to enter the European Union it is not enough to indicate the reason and to receive a permit, preference is given to highly qualified workers of which among the arrivals is not so much. In order to identify highly qualified workers immigration flows, the EU takes into account data, provided by Member States about Member States issued National initiatives and the EU Blue Card. Each EU Member State has its own National initiatives and by receiving them non-EU citizens acquire a right to come and work in the country from which the permit was issued. In recent years, following the analysis of the labour market, it could be said that there is a lack of highly qualified workers in the EU Member States, especially in certain sectors.

Of course, prior to the adoption of highly qualified workers from non-EU countries, a labour market analysis is carrier out and first of all EU citizens are informed about the vacancies in order to avoid any misunderstandings. Directive 2009/50/EB from 25 May 2009 (or in other words - Blue Card) must not only attract higher number of highly qualified workers from non EU countries, facilitate the search for job but also facilitate their integration into society. At this point it is worth to mention that not all EU Member States issues the Blue Card. EU Blue Card directive is not applicable in Denmark, Ireland and the United Kingdom. Consequently, the arrival of highly qualified workers from non-EU countries can only be assessed in accordance with National initiatives.

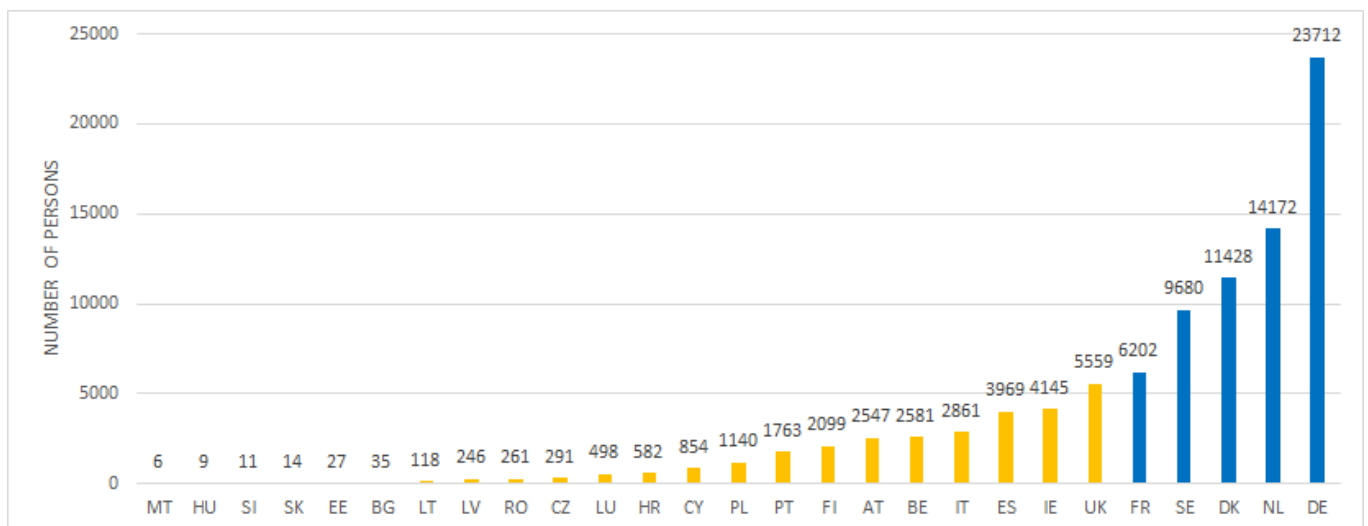


Figure 15. Highly qualified workers immigration in the EU, 2013-2014.
Made by the author, based on Eurostat (see APPENDIX 15 and 16).

Statistical data of 2013-2014 shows that during that period 94 810 highly qualified workers have immigrated into the European Union (see Figure 15 above). The biggest part of these have arrived to Germany (23 712 people). Abundant flow of highly qualified workers over the two years, also has been into Netherlands, Denmark, Sweden and France. It is clear that during this period countries like

Slovakia (14 people), Slovenia (11 people), Hungary (9 people), Malta (6 people) have not reached number of 20 workers. Greece has not submitted any data. The biggest part of highly skilled immigrants evaluating by number of immigrants per 100 000 inhabitants has been accounted for Denmark (101 immigrant), Cyprus (51 immigrant), Sweden (50 immigrants), Ireland (45 immigrants) and Luxembourg (45 immigrants) (see APPENDIX 15 and APPENDIX 16). The smallest part of immigrants evaluating by number of immigrants per 100 000 inhabitants has been accounted for Slovenia (0,3 immigrant), Slovakia (0,13 immigrant) and Hungary (0,05 immigrant).

Comparing statistical data of 2013 and 2014, it could be said that in 2013 - 45 422 highly qualified workers from non-EU countries arrived to the EU member states, while in 2014 – 49 388 immigrants, which is 3 966 workers more than previous year (see APPENDIX 15 and APPENDIX 16). Both 2013 and 2014, no considerable number of highly qualified workers from non-EU countries has arrived to the Greece, because of the financial difficulties that encase the country. In the two-year period, the main destination countries remained to be the same: Germany, Denmark, Netherlands, Sweden and France.

Highly qualified workers in the same way as mobile EU citizens choose the same countries, which has a stable and strong country economy, high wages and low unemployment rates. Germany in the European Union is well known for low unemployment rate ~ 5,3% (in 2013-2014) and minimum wages of ~ 1500 EUR per month. In Denmark, Netherlands and Sweden unemployment rates vary from 7,3% to 7,8% (in 2013-2014) and minimum wages ~ 1300 – 2000 EUR per month. Therefore, it should not be an amazement to the fact that within two years, none of highly qualified workers from non-EU countries had arrived to Greece, where unemployment in 2013-2014 period was 27,5% - 26,5%. Such high rates were influenced by the ongoing financial crisis in the country.

Overall, it can be concluded that highly qualified workers more often choose countries with strong immigrant integration policies. In order to create a better life, people choose countries which ensure equal rights, non-discrimination and there are all conditions for them to reconcile with family members. Assessing countries by Migrant Integration Policy Index for 2014 (where highest evaluation 100) Sweden was 1st with 78 points, Germany was 10th with 61 point, the Netherlands were 11th with 60 points, Denmark was 13th with 59 points and France – 17th with 54 points. Countries are evaluated according to the rights for: access to nationality, anti-discrimination, education, health, family reunion, permanent residence and political participation. There is a clear leadership of Scandinavian and Western European countries. By the data provided in 2014 (highest evaluation 100), Sweden (98), Germany (86), Denmark (89) and Netherlands (83) labour markets are the best for immigrants' integration.

For a long time Scandinavian and Western European countries were known for large numbers of immigrants in their territories. People learned to help newcomers to integrate into their societies easier. Upon arrival to the European Union, the highly qualified workers from non-EU countries can choose between two offered immigration systems. First it is national permits that are issued to highly qualified workers to work in their host country. Non-EU citizens with these permits have a permit to legally reside only in that country. Second option is EU Blue Card. This card also is issued in selected and host country, but is valid throughout European Union.

Further, the data for national permits and the EU Blue Card data by country (separately) will be analysed. Then it will be clarified from what continent and from what job sectors the biggest part of highly qualified workers arrive to work to the EU. All this data will help to determine, which initiative is more effective. After making a review of 2013-2014 years statistics, it became clear that in this period 67 994 National permits were issued to highly qualified workers from non-EU countries (see Figure 16 below). The majority of permits were issued by the Netherlands – 14 169 permits. Also, quite significant amount of National permits were issued in Denmark (11 428 permits), Sweden (9 678 permits), UK (5 559 permits) and France (5 234 permits). Ten countries: Bulgaria, Estonia, Greece, Hungary, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Romania, Slovakia and Slovenia have not issued any national permits. Germany, which is a popular migration destination, in a two-year period issued only 24 permits.

In 2013 the EU Member States issued 32 4658 National permits, while in 2014 the number of permits increased to 35 536, which is 3 048 permits more than previous year (see APPENDIX 15 and 16). Within two years the same countries have issued most of the national permits throughout the European Union. The Netherlands and Sweden in 2014 issued more permits than in 2013. Permits issued by Denmark, France and the UK in 2014 have slightly decreased comparing to 2013. In 2013, Croatia has issued 565 national permits and after joining the EU number of permits decreased to 0. It can be argued that after joining the EU, Croatia has lost its attractiveness in national perspective.

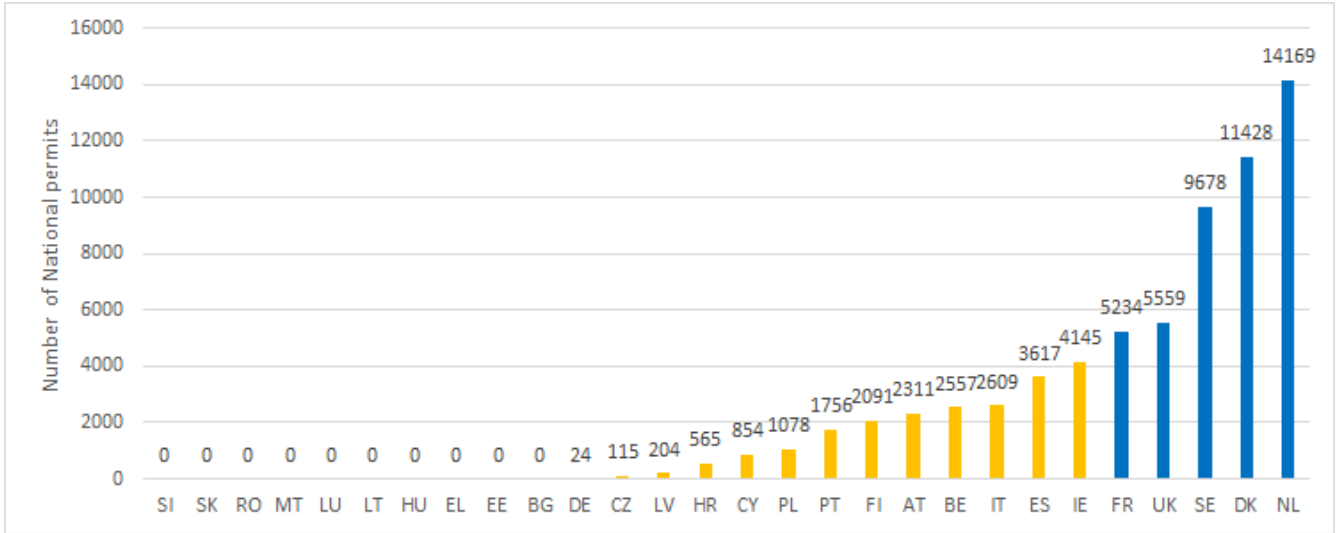


Figure 16. National permits by the EU Member States, 2013-2014.
 Made by the author, based on Eurostat (see APPENDIX 15 and 16).

According to the 2013-2014 statistical data that clearly shows that 26 816 EU Blue Cards were issued to highly qualified workers from non-EU countries (see Figure 17). The biggest number of cards were issued in Germany (23 688 cards). It shows that only 3 128 of the Blue Cards have been issued in other EU Member States. Significantly lower numbers compared to Germany, but at the same time one of the largest numbers in front of the rest of the EU countries were in France (968 cards) and Luxembourg (498 cards). In seven countries the number of issued Blue Card has not exceeded ten: Hungary (9 cards), Finland (8 cards), Portugal (7 cards), Malta (6 cards), Netherlands (3 cards), Sweden (2 cards) and Cyprus (0 cards). Greece has not provided any data on the EU Blue Card issues in their own country, while this directive is not applicable in Denmark, Ireland and the UK.

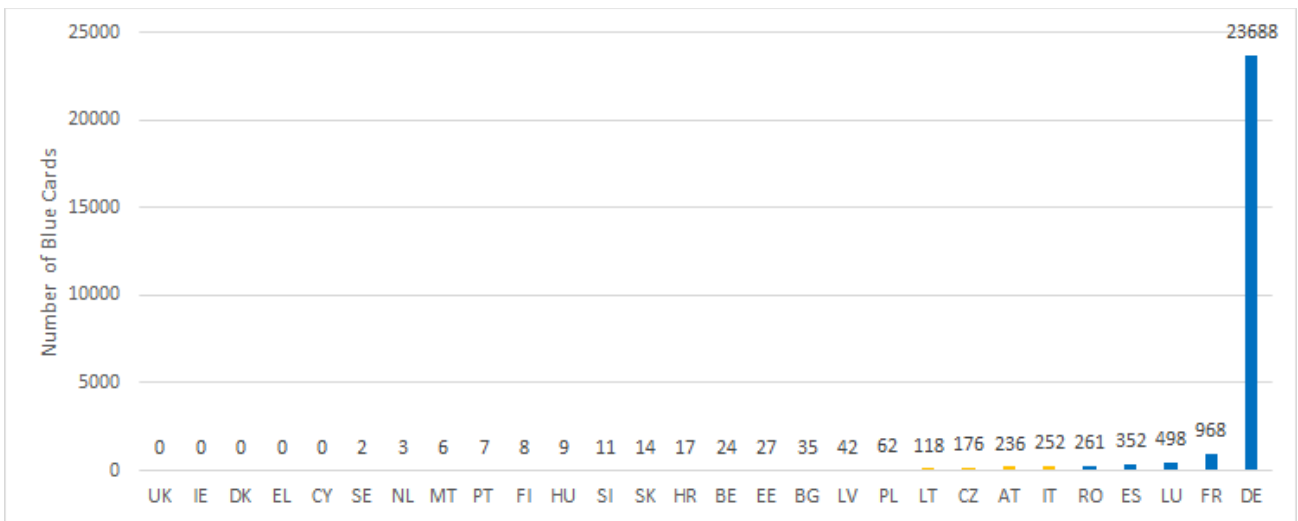


Figure 17. Blue Cards issued by the EU Member States, 2013-2014.
 Made by the author, based on Eurostat (see APPENDIX 15 and 16).

Comparing 2013 and 2014 data, it is visible that in 2013 – 12 964 Blue Cards were issued and in 2014 the number increased by 888, which means that in that year 13 852 the EU Blue Cards for highly qualified workers from non-EU countries were issued. This showed that a bigger number of non-EU citizens learned about the new initiative and decided to use it. Within a year the number of cards issued in Germany increased by 528 cards. In a two-year timeframe France and Luxembourg were leaders in the EU Blue Cards issuing compared with the rest of the EU Member States. Highly qualified workers did not choose to come to Cyprus, probably because of high unemployment rates in that period of time.

Having a research regarding the initiatives and their effectiveness it is important to clarify the extent of highly qualified workers from non-EU countries coming to the EU, which initiatives issue more permits, also from what continents are the newcomers and in what sectors do they work. The analysis showed that highly qualified workers from Asia are most often granted the EU Blue Card (see Figure 18). In 2013-2014, citizens of this continent received 13 916 cards and it accounted for almost a half of the total number of issued cards. During that period, the most of the people that received the EU Blue Card have arrived from South Asia (6 646 cards), the least arrived from Central Asia (189) (see APPENDIX 17 and 18). The most active were highly qualified workers from India and China.

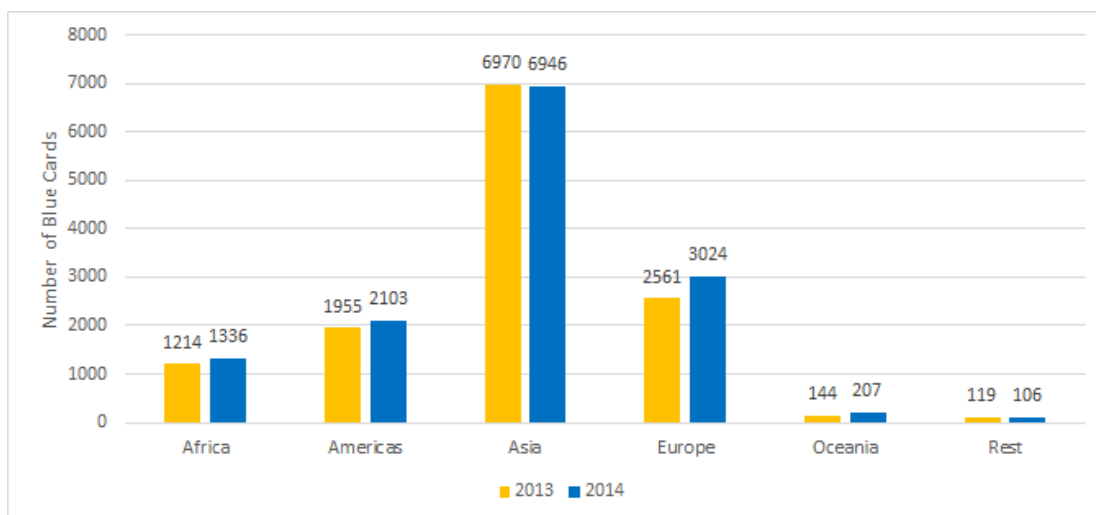


Figure 18. Blue Cards issued by the continent, 2013-2014.
Made by the author, based on Eurostat (see APPENDIX 17 and 18).

The second continent by the number of issued Blue Cards is Europe. In 2013-2014, citizens of this continent received 5 585 cards. The most of the people that received the Blue card have arrived from Eastern Europe (3 806) and the least from Western Europe (4). The biggest part of workers was from Russia and Ukraine. For American continents in 2013-2014 period 4058 Blue Cards were issued.

The most of highly qualified workers that had a wish to work in the EU were from Northern America (2 042) and the least from Caribbean (62). The most active were United States and Brazil citizens.

In a two-year period, African continent was issued 2 550 Blue Cards. The most of the people who received cards came from Northern Africa (1 859), the least part came from eastern Africa (141). The biggest amount of highly qualified workers from Africa came from Egypt and Tunisia. Oceania citizens in 25013-2014 were issued to 351 EU Blue Card. The most of highly qualified workers had an Australian citizenship (see APPENDIX 17 and 18). Highly qualified workers that are not able to have a self-realization in their home countries are choosing the European Union labour market. They are fascinated by the culture of Western countries, education systems, job vacancies and countries cooperation in migration issues. There are clear indications that in 2014 the flows of highly qualified workers increased and there was only a small decrease in Asia by 24 people.

After analysing the EU Blue Card issuance by non-EU countries citizens working sectors, it was clear that the biggest part of workers that immigrated into the European Union were highly qualified workers from science and engineering sectors (see Table 9). In total, in two-year period 943 cards were issued for the professionals of this field. Also, many of the EU Blue Cards were received by manufacturing, public administration, administrative and support, and IT and communications specialists. The least of the cards were received by wholesale and retail, education, and health and social work specialists. In fact, it is impossible to state in what sector the biggest part of highly qualified workers have a job, as there is no information to what sector workers 24 605 cards were given.

Table 9. The EU Blue Cards issued by employment sectors, 2013-2014.

Made by the author, based on Eurostat.

SECTOR	2013	2014
Wholesale and retail	4	7
Education	4	12
Health and social work	18	15
Law, social and cultural science	20	80
IT and communication	66	136
Administrative and support	96	162
Public administration	106	136
Manufacturing	130	232
Science and engineering	367	576
Unknown	12 143	12 462

Comparing the two years data, it is clear that the number of issued cards in 2014 was higher in all sectors, except in health and social work sector, where number of cards has decreased in 2014. According to the available data, a conclusion could be drawn that in 2013-2014 the most of highly qualified workers have been attracted to Germany, most of the EU Blue Cards have been issued to the citizens of Asia and the most of highly qualified workers stayed in science and engineering sector. The lowest number of the EU Blue Cards has been issued in Sweden, the least of highly qualified workers have come from Oceania and the smallest part of the arrivals has been from wholesale and retail sector.

In order to evaluate the effectiveness of the European Union initiatives for attracting highly qualified workers from non-EU countries, it is necessary to compare the number of highly qualified workers attracted by national initiatives and the EU Blue Card (see APPENDIX 15 and 16). The comparative statistical analysis showed that in the period of 2013 and 2014 the number of national initiatives was significantly higher than the number of the EU Blue Cards. In 2013, 32 458 national permits were issued, while only 12 964 Blue Cards were given.

Table 10. The effectiveness of initiatives in the EU Member States.

Made by the author, based on Eurostat.

Country	National directives	EU Blue Card	More effective
Austria	2 311	236	National directives
Belgium	2 557	24	National directives
Croatia	565	17	National directives
Czech Republic	115	176	Both
Finland	2 091	8	National directives
France	5 234	968	National directives
Germany	24	23 688	Blue Card
Italy	2 609	252	National directives
Latvia	204	42	National directives
Netherlands	14 169	3	National directives
Poland	1 078	621	National directives
Portugal	1 065	7	National directives
Spain	3 617	252	National directives
Sweden	9 678	2	National directives

In 2014, the number of national permits was also higher – 35 536, when Blue card was given to 13 852 highly qualified workers from non-EU countries. Although in both years the number of

national permits was significantly higher than the numbers of EU Blue Card, there are clear indications that in 2014 the number of issued Blue Cards were 888 units higher than in 2013. This indicates that more and more people from non-EU countries become aware of the EU Blue Card and the interest is growing.

After a comparison of the number of highly qualified workers attracted by national initiatives and the EU Blue Card (see Table 10 above), it is clear that 12 EU Member States more effectively attract highly qualified workers through national initiatives. Only in one country – Germany the EU Blue card (23 688) is much more effective than Germany's initiatives carried out at national level (24). In Czech Republic in a two-year period 115 national permits were issued and 176 Blue cards. According to this, it could be stated that in this country both recruiting initiatives are effective. Based on the comparison of the statistical data of the EU member States, it could be said that effectiveness of the EU Blue Card is low.

The EU member States, such as Denmark, Ireland and the United Kingdom do not apply the EU Blue Card directive that is why it cannot be said that in those countries national initiatives are more effective. The rest of the EU Member States, such as Bulgaria, Estonia, Greece, Hungary, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Romania, Slovakia and Slovenia lack attractiveness or more effective national policies to recruit the highly qualified workers from non-EU countries. In these countries, in a two-year period no national permits were issued and the number of the EU Blue cards was fluctuating from 6 to 498. Cyprus has issued 854 national permits and no EU Blue Card.

In conclusion, the empirical research revealed that in 2013-2014 nearly 5 million people from non-EU countries have immigrated to the European Union. In order to legally enter and stay in the EU, non-EU citizens must get permits to prove their legal presence in the host country. Highly qualified workers from non-EU countries can choose between two available immigration systems. The first one is through national permits and the second one is the EU Blue Card. In 2013-2014, 67 994 National permits were issued to highly qualified workers from non-EU countries and 26 816 EU Blue Cards. The most popular destinations were Germany, Netherlands, Denmark, Sweden and France. Scandinavian and Western European countries have for a long time been known for large numbers of immigrants. The main reasons why highly qualified workers chose those countries were: stable and strong economy, low unemployment rates, high wages, attractive immigration integration policies and national initiatives.

After the comparison of the European Union initiatives for attracting highly qualified workers from non-EU countries it was clear that in the period of 2013-2014 the number of National initiatives

was significantly higher than the number of the EU Blue Cards. In 12 EU Member States National initiatives were more effective in attracting highly qualified workers from non-EU countries. Only in Germany the EU Blue Card was much more effective, while Czech Republic could be named as the only country where both recruiting initiatives were equally effective. Denmark, Ireland and the United Kingdom do not apply the EU Blue Card directive and the rest of the Member States did not recruit any considerable numbers of highly qualified non-EU workers. The analysis showed that National initiatives were more effective and helped recruiting larger numbers of highly qualified non-EU workers than the European wide Blue Card.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Employment could be listed as one of the main issues in policy making. The financial crisis that the European Union has suffered, brought high levels of unemployment. Recovery stage was accompanied with problems of social exclusions. Recently the EU has carried out reforms in the field of social security and has developed active inclusion policies that influenced growth of economy and more jobs creation. According to the data of the European Commission in 2014, 24% of the whole population in the EU was considered to be in or at risk of social exclusion and poverty. The unemployment rate in the EU was around 10% (August 2016), which is high, compared to other world regions. Employment in the EU is rather low compared to global context, and reaches 66,5% in 2016. To achieve a more sustainable future the EU established a strategy called Europe2020 in which the employment is one of the key priorities. This strategy within 10 years (2010 – 2020) will help the EU to increase the labour market participation of people aged 20-64 to 75% by 2020, reducing unemployment and promoting job quality.

2. The global competition of countries for economic growth, leadership and growing need for highly qualified labour force, makes rich countries use the international recruitment strategies to attract and hire highly qualified workers from abroad. The right of free movement of people is considered to be one of the best accomplishments of the European Union. With this freedom EU citizens can freely study, travel and work in other EU Member States. From economic point of view, labour mobility helps to deal with unemployment disparities between Member States and even allocates efficiently human resources. There is a special directive for the free movement of professionals that governs the system or recognition of qualifications in the EU. National authorities decide whether to recognise the highly qualified workers qualifications obtained in other EU Member States or not. The European professional card that is available from 18th January 2016 makes the free movement of highly qualified workers within the EU much easier and at the moment it is available just for 5 professions: general care nurses, mountain guides, real estate agents, physiotherapists and pharmacists. The EU suffers from risks induced by demographic changes, such as aging populations, money shortages in social security systems, stagnating economic growth that can be solved through highly qualified workers immigration. The initiatives for attracting highly qualified workers in the EU are carried out in two ways: at National level of Member States and at general level of the EU. Each Member State has many different initiatives, used in various forms, such as bilateral agreements, programs and schemes. The main initiative at the EU level, which aims to attract highly qualified workers, is the EU Blue Card.

3. The mobility of highly qualified workers within the EU and from non-EU countries has been analysed:

3.1. According to the statistical data of 2013, it can be stated that more than 7 million people used the free movement of people, in order to work in other EU Member States. During the period of 2013-2014 only 131 538 of all movers were highly qualified workers. These results show that EU labour mobility of highly qualified workers is low. All highly qualified workers need to get recognition of professional qualifications in order to get a job in other EU Member State. Member States in which the highest number of highly qualified workers obtained professional qualifications were: Spain, Romania, Germany, Poland and Italy. The host countries that recognised the biggest amount of professional qualifications of highly qualified workers were: UK, Norway, Switzerland, France and Belgium. The biggest numbers of highly qualified professions by number of decisions taken on recognition of professional qualifications were: nurses, doctors, secondary school teachers, physiotherapists and electricians. So called push and pull factors that made people use EU labour mobility are: high unemployment rates, living and social conditions, low wages, weak and unstable country economies and etc.

3.2. The Empirical research revealed that in 2013-2014 about 5 million people from non-EU countries have immigrated to the European Union. Only 94 810 of all immigrants from non-EU countries were highly qualified workers. In 2013-2014, 67 994 National permits were issued to highly qualified workers from non-EU countries and 26 816 EU Blue Cards. The most popular destinations were: Germany, Netherlands, Denmark, Sweden and France. The main reasons why highly qualified workers chose those countries were: attractive immigration and integration policies, high wages, low unemployment rates, national initiatives, and stable and strong economy. The analysis showed that highly qualified workers from Asia are most often granted the EU Blue Card. In 2013-2014, citizens of this continent received 13 916 cards and it accounted for almost a half of the total number of issued cards. The biggest amount of workers that immigrated into the EU were highly qualified workers from science and engineering sectors (943 cards).

After the comparison of the European Union initiatives for attracting highly qualified workers from non-EU countries, it was clear that in the period of 2013-2014 the number of National initiatives was significantly higher than the number of the EU Blue Cards. In 12 EU Member States National initiatives were more effective in attracting highly qualified workers from non-EU countries. Only in Germany the EU Blue Card was much more effective, while Czech Republic could be named as the only country where both initiatives were equally effective. Denmark, Ireland and the UK do not apply

the EU Blue Card directive and the rest of the Member States did not recruit any considerable numbers of highly qualified non-EU workers. The analysis showed that National initiatives were more effective and helped recruiting larger numbers of highly qualified non-EU workers than the European wide Blue Card.

After completing a research on the current EU labour market situation, and in order to sustain the competitiveness of the EU labour market, to increase its attractiveness and recruit more highly qualified workers the following recommendations to the European Commission can be given:

The EU's internal labour market equalizing measures have to be developed. Within the EU there is a huge disparity among the Member States' economies, resulting that each year some of the countries receive huge numbers of highly qualified workers, while others lose huge numbers of working population. In order to manage migration flows and reach equal and sustainable distribution of highly qualified workers in the Member States, it is recommended to:

- offer more initiatives and support for creation of new jobs for highly qualified workers in EU Member States experiencing brain-drain;
- promote the harmonisation of national initiatives for recruitment of highly qualified workforce in all the Member States, through offering cooperation schemes and financial measures.

The improvement of the free movement of professionals within the EU. All highly qualified workers in the EU can move across member countries borders, practise their occupation or just provide their services abroad. A modern EU system of recognition of professional experience is provided by the directive and promotes automatic recognitions of highly qualified workers professional experience across the EU, but not all highly qualified workers professional qualifications are recognised. In order to improve the free movement of professionals' within EU, it is recommended to:

- expand the list of professions to which the European professional card that makes the free movement of highly qualified workers in the EU much easier, is applied; this should follow a thorough analysis of the supply/demand of various professions (to see if and where there is a shortage) within EU Member States;
- increase the cooperation among the EU Member States, in order to facilitate the recognition of highly qualified workers qualifications.

The improvement of the initiatives at general level of EU (Blue Card). Analysis and empirical research of the initiatives have shown that National initiatives are more effective in attracting highly qualified workers from non-EU countries than the EU Blue card. Many different factors determine the attractiveness of some countries. In order to increase the effectiveness of the initiative at general level of the EU, it is recommended to:

- create more temporary residence schemes for highly qualified workers (e.g. the International Mobility Program/Temporary Foreign Worker Program); following the good examples of New Zealand and Australia, it would be possible to give visas for workers with low qualifications for 1 year and for highly qualified workers for up to 5 years;
- language is one of the most important barriers for highly qualified workers in the EU, thus in order to overcome this barrier, it is recommended to: develop financial instruments to support translation of main labour related information into the foreign languages; provide with incentives to attract highly qualified workers to various EU language learning courses;
- improve conditions of family reunification, by shortening the period of documents approval; better family reunification conditions are very important for attracting highly qualified workers to the EU, as the highest numbers of non-EU citizens immigrate to the EU on the basis of family reasons;
- carry out a more intensive information dissemination campaign, in order to attract more highly qualified workers to the EU through press, publications, presentations at international job fairs, etc.;
- encourage more students from non-EU countries to come to study or have traineeships in the EU with Erasmus+ or other relevant programs;
- support signing more bilateral agreements between EU and non-EU countries, in order to attract more highly qualified workers; the EU – India agreement might be used as an example; after more detailed feasibility studies priority could be put on Turkey and Ukraine because of high numbers of young people already coming to EU from those neighbouring countries.

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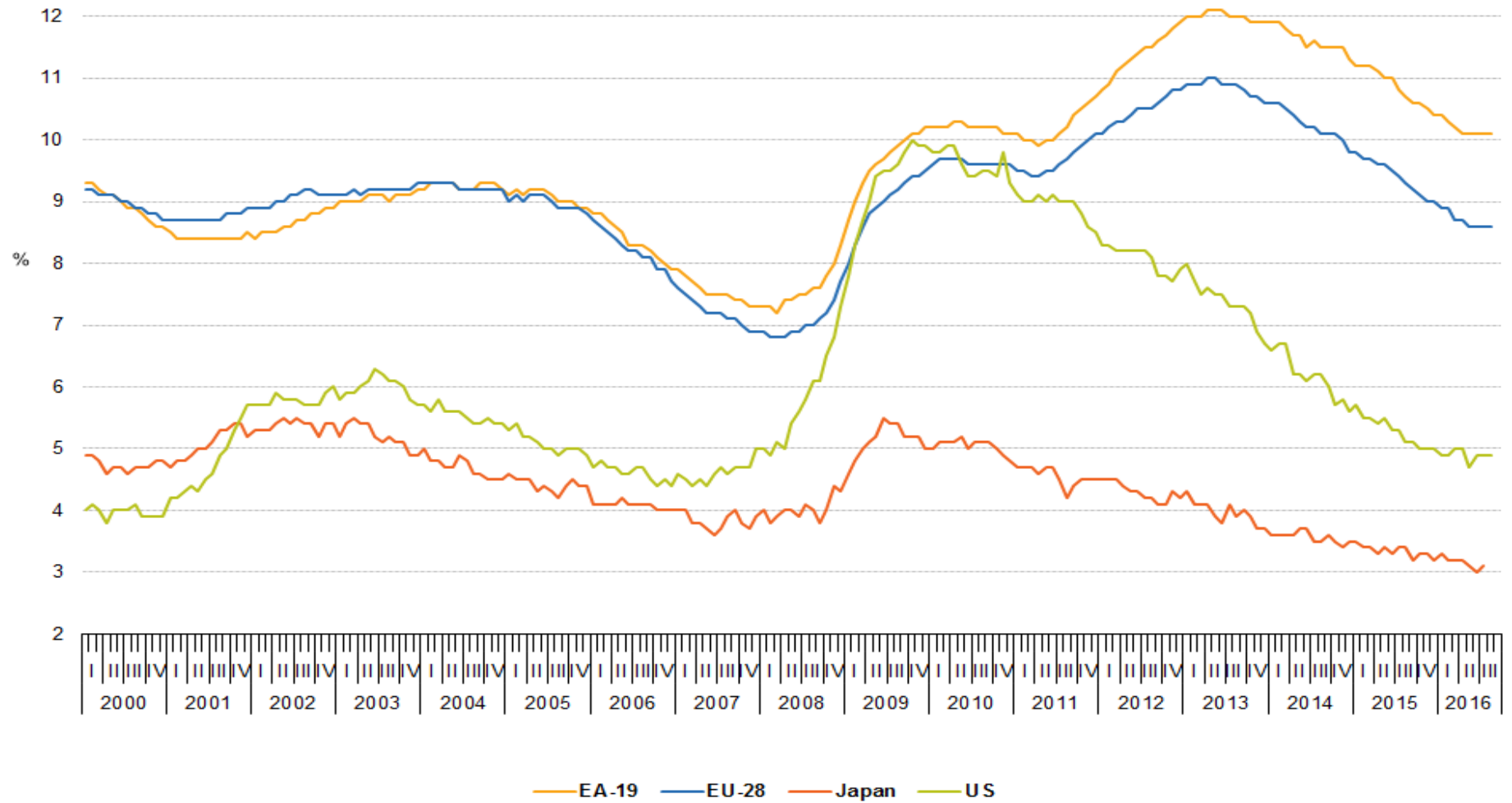
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APPENDIX 1

Activity rate 2010-2014, population aged 15-64, per cent (Eurostat's database, 1 September 2015/Lithuanian Department of Statistics 2014).

	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
EU 28	71,0	71,1	71,7	72,0	72,3
Austria	74,4	74,6	75,1	75,5	75,4
Belgium	67,7	66,7	66,9	67,5	67,7
Bulgaria	66,5	65,9	67,1	68,4	69,0
Croatia	65,1	64,1	63,9	63,7	66,1
Cyprus	73,6	73,5	73,5	73,6	74,3
Czech Republic	70,2	70,5	71,6	72,9	73,5
Denmark	79,4	79,3	78,6	78,1	78,1
Estonia	73,9	74,7	74,8	75,1	75,2
Finland	74,5	74,9	75,2	75,2	75,4
France	70,3	70,1	70,7	71,1	71,1
Germany	76,6	77,3	77,2	77,6	77,7
Greece	67,8	67,3	67,5	67,5	67,4
Hungary	61,9	62,4	63,7	64,7	67,0
Ireland	69,4	69,2	69,2	69,8	69,8
<u>Italy</u>	62,00	62,1	63,5	63,4	63,9
Latvia	73,0	72,8	74,4	74,0	74,6
Lithuania	70,2	71,4	71,8	72,4	73,7
Luxembourg	68,2	67,9	69,4	69,9	70,8
Malta	60,4	61,8	63,1	65,0	66,3
Netherlands	78,2	78,1	79,0	79,4	79,0
Poland	65,3	65,7	66,5	67,0	67,9
Portugal	73,7	73,6	73,4	73,0	73,2
Romania	64,9	64,1	64,8	64,9	65,7
Slovakia	68,7	68,7	69,4	69,9	70,3
Slovenia	71,5	70,3	70,4	70,5	70,9
Spain	73,5	73,9	74,3	74,3	74,2
<u>Sweden</u>	79,1	79,9	80,3	81,1	81,5
United Kingdom	75,4	75,5	76,1	76,4	76,7

APPENDIX 2



Unemployment rates EU-28, EA-19, US and Japan, January 2000 – August 2016 (Eurostat 2016d).

APPENDIX 3

Employment rate, age group 15-64, per cent 2010-2014 (Eurostat 2015a).

	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
EU 28	64,1	64,2	64,1	64,1	64,9
Austria	70,8	71,1	71,4	71,4	71,1
Belgium	62,0	61,9	61,8	61,8	61,9
Bulgaria	59,7	58,4	58,8	59,5	61,0
Croatia	57,4	55,2	53,5	52,5	54,4
Cyprus	68,9	67,6	64,6	61,7	62,1
Czech Republic	65,0	65,7	66,5	67,7	69,0
Denmark	73,3	73,1	72,6	72,5	72,8
Estonia	61,2	65,3	67,1	68,5	69,6
Finland	68,1	69,0	69,4	68,9	68,7
France	63,9	63,9	63,9	64,1	64,3
Germany	71,1	72,7	73,0	73,5	73,8
Greece	59,1	55,1	50,8	48,8	49,4
Hungary	54,9	55,4	56,7	58,1	61,8
Ireland	59,6	58,9	58,	60,5	61,7
Italy	56,8	56,8	56,6	55,5	55,7
Latvia	58,5	60,8	63,0	65,0	66,3
Lithuania	57,6	60,2	62,0	63,7	65,7
Luxembourg	65,2	64,6	65,8	65,7	66,6
Malta	56,2	57,9	59,1	60,8	62,3
Netherlands	74,7	74,2	74,4	73,6	73,1
Poland	58,9	59,3	59,7	60,0	61,7
Portugal	65,3	63,8	61,4	60,6	62,6
Romania	60,2	59,3	60,2	60,1	61,0
Slovakia	58,8	59,3	59,7	59,9	61,0
Slovenia	66,2	64,4	64,1	63,3	63,9
Spain	58,8	58,0	55,8	54,8	56,0
Sweden	72,1	73,6	73,8	74,4	74,9
United Kingdom	69,4	69,3	69,9	70,5	71,9

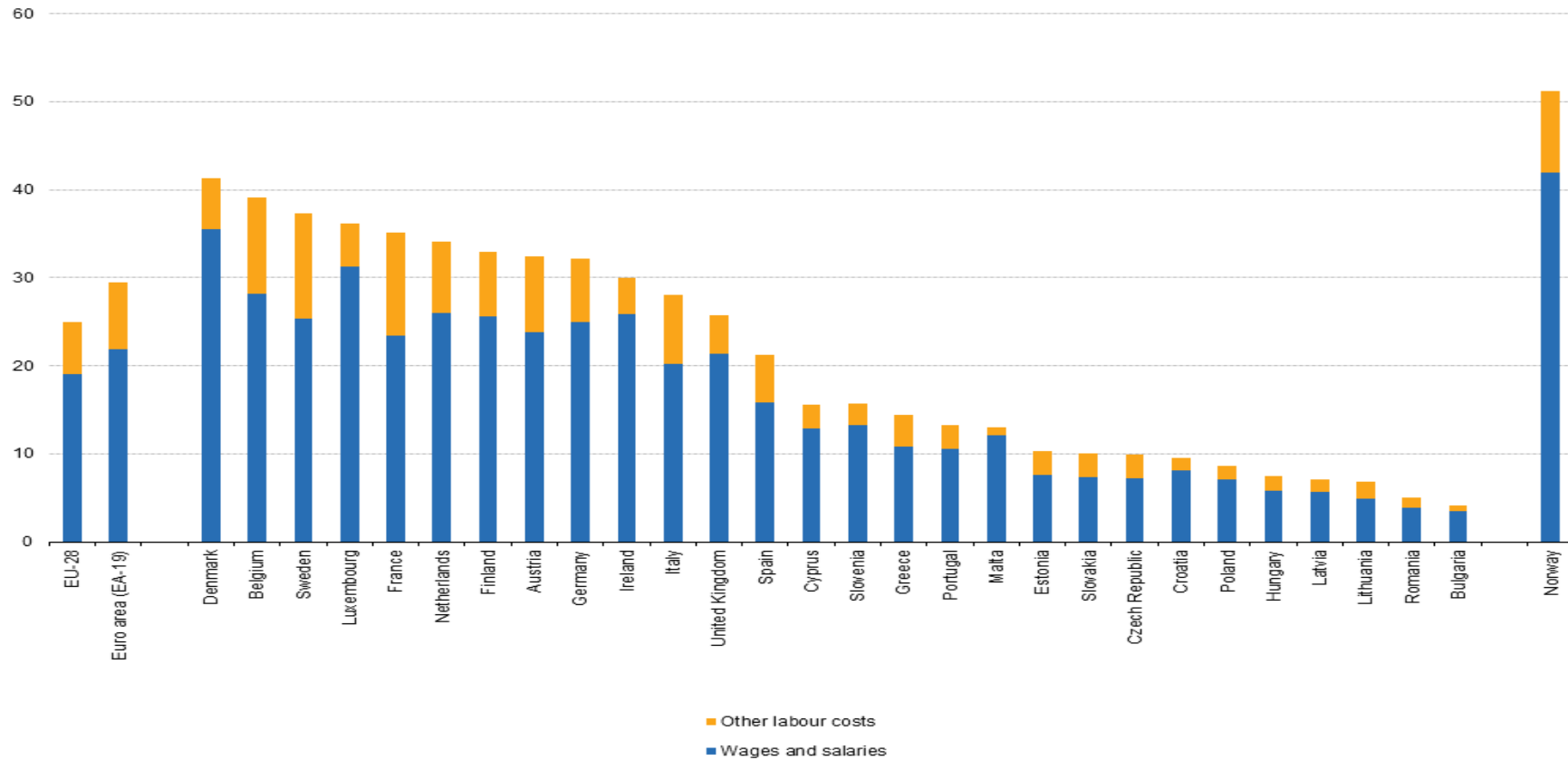
Switzerland	78,6	79,3	79,4	79,6	79,8
Japan	70,1	70,3	70,6	71,7	72,7
United States	66,7	66,6	67,1	67,4	68,1

APPENDIX 4

Employment rate by highest level of education, age group 25-64, per cent 2014 (Eurostat 2015b).

	Pre-primary, primary & lower secondary	Upper secondary & post-secondary non-tertiary	Tertiary
EU 28	52,6	73,4	83,7
Austria	53,0	75,9	85,3
Belgium	47,3	72,8	84,7
Bulgaria	40,0	71,1	82,7
Croatia	38,8	62,6	80,5
Cyprus	54,5	69,6	79,7
Czech Republic	43,0	77,6	84,5
Denmark	61,4	79,1	86,0
Estonia	60,9	74,3	83,9
Finland	53,5	73,2	83,5
France	53,3	72,5	83,8
Germany	58,0	79,7	88,1
Greece	46,9	54,5	68,5
Hungary	45,3	71,8	81,8
Ireland	46,6	67,9	81,1
Italy	49,6	69,8	77,8
Latvia	51,3	70,9	84,2
Lithuania	43,2	69,4	89,4
Luxembourg	60,9	72,1	84,6
Malta	52,5	81,7	88,3
Netherlands	58,8	77,9	87,7
Poland	39,3	66,1	86,3
Portugal	63,0	77,6	82,7
Romania	55,5	70,4	86,0
Slovakia	32,7	71,0	80,0
Slovenia	48,5	69,5	83,2
Spain	49,4	65,9	77,2
Sweden	63,6	84,5	89
United Kingdom	59,6	78,8	85,3

APPENDIX 5



(*) Enterprises with 10 or more employees. NACE Rev. 2 Sections B to S excluding O. Provisional data.
 Source: Eurostat (online data code: Ic_Ici_lev)

Estimated hourly labour costs, 2015 (Eurostat 2016a).

APPENDIX 6

The EU nationals working in an EU Member State other than their own in 2013, by nationality (European Commission by Eurostat, 2014).

Citizens from	Number of workers in thousands	In % of total employment in the origin country
All EU citizens	7071,5	3,3
Austria	140,0	3,4
Belgium	110,7	2,4
Bulgaria	232,4	7,9
Croatia	214,9	15,5
Cyprus	21,4	5,7
Czech Republic	68,0	1,4
Denmark	60,5	2,3
Estonia	27,3	4,4
Finland	45,0	1,8
France	334,7	1,3
Germany	388,3	1,0
Greece	236,0	6,5
Hungary	154,3	3,9
Ireland	188,0	10,0
Italy	677,3	3,0
Latvia	78,0	8,7
Lithuania	158,1	12,2
Luxembourg	15,7	6,6
Malta	:	:
Netherlands	240,3	2,9
Poland	1059,2	6,8
Portugal	571,1	12,7
Romania	1290,7	14,0
Slovakia	121,1	5,2
Slovenia	18,6	2,0
Spain	232,4	1,4
Sweden	60,9	1,3
United Kingdom	318,6	1,1

APPENDIX 7

The EU nationals working in an EU Member State other than their own in 2013, by Member State of residence (European Commission by Eurostat, 2014).

Member State of residence	Number of workers in thousands	In % of total employment in the residence country
All EU citizens	7071,5	3,3
Austria	283,0	6,8
Belgium	315,6	7,0
Bulgaria	:	:
Croatia	:	:
Cyprus	44,8	11,9
Czech Republic	43,4	0,9
Denmark	87,0	3,2
Estonia	2,3	0,4
Finland	33,0	1,3
France	597,7	2,3
Germany	1882,8	4,7
Greece	53,8	1,5
Hungary	18,7	0,5
Ireland	204,4	10,9
Italy	792,8	3,5
Latvia	1,9	0,2
Lithuania	:	:
Luxembourg	109,6	45,9
Malta	2,4	1,4
Netherlands	172,6	2,1
Poland	10,4	0,1
Portugal	25,6	0,6
Romania	:	:
Slovakia	3,9	0,2
Slovenia	3,9	0,4
Spain	764,6	4,6
Sweden	132,1	2,8
United Kingdom	1481,7	5,0

APPENDIX 8

Decisions taken by host countries for highly qualified workers from EU Member States, 2013-2014 (EU Single Market database, 2016d).

Country of origin (qualification obtained in)	Decisions taken by host country	(+) Total positive	(-) Total negative	(0) Total neutral
Austria	1 389	1 230	33	126
Belgium	5 616	4 081	169	1366
Bulgaria	1 821	1 350	200	271
Croatia	521	388	52	81
Cyprus	253	205	28	20
Czech Republic	2 640	2 484	42	114
Denmark	6 292	5 669	219	404
Estonia	912	712	95	105
Finland	1 302	1 089	154	60
France	6 787	5 964	154	669
Germany	11 501	10 226	359	916
Greece	4 022	3 635	128	259
Hungary	3 418	3 046	123	249
Iceland	892	754	41	97
Ireland	3 354	2 709	249	396
Italy	9 742	8 317	344	1 081
Latvia	616	493	63	60
Liechtenstein	15	13	1	1
Lithuania	1 685	1 281	214	190
Luxembourg	82	72	5	5
Malta	190	154	9	27
Netherlands	3 286	2 773	147	366
Norway	1 002	746	201	55
Poland	11 391	8 909	1 086	1 396
Portugal	8 368	7 166	196	1 006
Romania	11 503	9 033	876	1 594
Slovakia	2 541	2 273	44	224
Slovenia	895	775	42	78
Spain	18 416	15 517	570	2 329
Sweden	7 454	6 868	168	418
Switzerland	832	642	65	125
United Kingdom	3 318	2 494	237	587
Total for all countries	132 057	111 068	6 314	14 675
Total EU	129 316	108 913	6 006	14 397
Total EFTA	2741	2 155	308	278

APPENDIX 9

Qualifications obtained in EU Member States and recognition in host countries, 2013-2014 (EU Single Market database, 2016c).

Qualification obtained in	Recognition in host country																											
	AT	BE	BG	HR	CZ	DK	EE	FI	FR	DE	HU	IE	IT	LV	LT	MT	PL	PT	RO	SK	SI	ES	SE	UK	IS	NO	CH	Total
Austria (AT)		28	1	7	23	13		2	17		5	4	313				6	2	2	28	21	8	70	83	2	49	705	1389
Belgium (BE)	4					11	1	3	4868	1		1	39				1	16	1	1		38	54	175	2	18	382	5616
Bulgaria (BG)	40	190		1	12	66		12	192	1		1	127	1			4	2	2	6	2	142	160	593	3	115	149	1821
Croatia (HR)	80	14				15	1	2	7			1	70							3	14	4	37	218		31	24	521
Cyprus (CY)		4			1	1			6				1			2	2		1			1	6	228				253
Czech Republic (CZ)	165	23	10	8		17	2	7	28	2	1	2	47	2			39	1		1585		11	91	250		232	117	2640
Denmark (DK)	2	9			1			9	17				17				3			2		28	1307	152	80	4638	27	6292
Estonia (EE)		5				12		281	173				7	24	11			1				6	80	60	1	244	7	912
Finland (FI)	3	12				10	10		11				11	2						1		11	708	120		369	35	1303
France (FR)	10	1976	1	2	5	14	6	16				9	128		1		15	8	9	12		139	74	544	2	72	3744	6787
Germany (DE)	1395	271	1	44	52	198	3	29	370		1	28	397	3	6	2	135	8	10	20	6	230	569	694	10	581	6438	11501
Greece (EL)	17	184	8		1	46		8	146			1	84	1				1	3	6	3	16	433	2668		114	282	4022
Hungary (HU)	491	65		2	11	37		23	153	5		5	67			2	3	2	15	320		16	519	794	2	664	222	3418
Ireland (IE)	1	33		3	5	3		4	24				15		1		11	1		5		118	28	2785		307	10	3354
Italy (IT)	90	883	4	17	10	34	9	20	1254		1	18			2	2	15	5	15	23	15	292	153	3825	3	188	2864	9742
Latvia (LV)	4	16			1	23	1	11	8	3		2	8		5		5					6	97	141	12	259	14	616
Lithuania (LT)	3	36	2		1	129	3	4	19	1		1	33	11			9					2	161	318	19	901	32	1685
Luxembourg (LU)		51							11			1	7							2				8		2		82
Malta (MT)		3						1	2			2	1									2	7	168		3	1	190
Netherlands (NL)	46	1800		1	2	49		4	129	4		3	35	2		1	23	6	3	22		38	182	505	3	242	186	3286
Poland (PL)	122	1526	2	5	109	499		15	558	8		24	198	1	52			1	2	59		67	713	2713	66	4431	220	11391
Portugal (PT)	3	976			1	65		7	1723			7	43				5		1	2		307	53	4145		184	846	8368
Romania (RO)	208	2281	3	4	2	103		14	2093	2	30	5	2021			1	1	3		11		432	371	2864	5	534	515	11503
Slovakia (SK)	610	29		10	937	17		2	20		14	2	44				23		1		1	6	61	222		383	159	2541
Slovenia (SI)	514	3		46	2	6		1	67				96					2		4		11	13	71		10	49	895
Spain (ES)	29	992	4	21	3	70	3	56	3662	1	1	10	1745				43	111	9	6	7		367	10437	11	322	506	18416
Sweden (SE)	8	14			2	452	2	62	38	1			24			1	10	1	1	5		43		216	10	6534	30	7454
United Kingdom (UK)	31	110		3	36	103	2	85	332	2	1	393	563	4	3	1	52	19	97	67	1	350	289		6	638	130	3318
Iceland (IS)						68			3								1					4	185	17		612	2	892
Liechtenstein (LI)	5	1				1			1				1				1		1	2			1	1				15
Norway (NO)	1	4		1		170		2	15				1			1	1					29	679	86	3		9	1002
Switzerland (CH)	23	49		4	3	8		2	307	4			246				6	1		3		14	63	83		16		832
Total	3905	11588	36	179	1220	2240	43	682	16254	35	54	520	6389	51	81	13	414	191	173	2195	70	2371	7531	35184	240	22693	17705	132057

APPENDIX 10

Professions ranked by number of decisions taken on recognition of professional qualifications for the purpose of permanent establishment within the EU MS, EEA and Switzerland, 2013-2014 (EU Single Market database, 2016e).

1. Nurse (29 882)	35. Plumber (326)	69. Psychotherapist (129)
2. Doctor of medicine (28 401)	36. Engineer (324)	70. Repair motor vehicles (122)
3. Secondary school teacher (12 430)	37. Aesthetician/Beauty care services (323)	71. Psychomotor therapist (113)
4. Physiotherapist (8 990)	38. Nursery nurse (322)	72. Mechanical engineer (112)
5. Electrician/ Senior electrician/ Specialised electrician (6 213)	39. Electricity services supervisor/Electrical manager (315)	73. Patent agent/Trademark agent (106)
6. Dental Practitioner (6 025)	40. Tiler (311)	74. Car painter (101)
7. Second level nurse (4 848)	41. Paramedic (305)	75. Professor (99)
8. Kindergarten teacher/ Nursery school teacher/ Preparatory school teacher (2 707)	42. Building insulator/Building insulation (302)	76. Crane operator (92)
9. Psychologist (2 049)	43. Security guard (290)	77. Fisherman (90)
10. Pharmacist (1 905)	44. Chiropodist (283)	78. Insurance underwriter (85)
11. Primary school teacher (1 724)	45. Optician (266)	79. Diver (85)
12. Veterinary Surgeon (1 637)	46. Child supervisor (257)	80. Scaffolder (70)
13. Midwife (1 512)	47. Ski instructor (254)	81. Tourist guide (67)
14. Lawyer/Barrister/Solicitor (1 164)	48. Masseur/Spa therapist (241)	82. Orthoptist (62)
15. Speech and language therapist (1 055)	49. Pharmaceutical technician (222)	83. Mining supervisor (62)
16. Radiographer/Radiotherapist (891)	50. Arbitrator (203)	84. Prosthetist and orthoptist (59)
17. Occupational therapist (843)	51. Veterinary nurse (200)	85. Deck officer class I fishing (57)
18. Social worker (736)	52. Building contractor (196)	86. Bio-medical analyst (56)
19. Civil servant (710)	53. Optometrist (193)	87. Employment officer (54)
20. Medical/Biomedical laboratory technician (690)	54. Restaurant owner/Manager/ Catering manager (189)	88. Insurance and reinsurance intermediaries (52)
21. Hairdresser/Barber/Wig-maker (620)	55. Translator/Interpreter (187)	89. Medical physicist (50)
22. Architect (609)	56. Chiropractor (181)	90. Car mechanic (50)
23. Sports instructor (584)	57. Dental hygienist (178)	91. Doctor's surgery assistant (49)
24. Civil engineer (542)	58. Auditor/Accountant (178)	92. Driving school manager (49)
25. Fork lift truck operator (527)	59. Dental technician (174)	93. Air conditioning technician (47)
26. Mason/Bricklayer (510)	60. Dental assistant (174)	94. Real Estate agent (46)
27. Electrical equipment/appliances contractor/repairer/installer (422)	61. Specialised teachers (167)	95. Child care worker (45)
28. Painter-decorator (420)	62. Accountant/Tax advisor (157)	96. Deck officer class II fishing vessel (43)
29. Joiner/Carpenter (366)	63. Hearing aid dispenser (146)	97. Energy professions (40)
30. Driving instructor (365)	64. Shotfirer (146)	98. Itinerant trader (40)
31. Plasterer (355)	65. Special needs teacher (144)	99. Road haulier (39)
32. Electricity equipment and installation inspector (350)	66. Economist (133)	100. Health care technician (38)
33. Dietician (343)	67. Ship's cook (132)	101. Biologist (37)
34. Glazier/Glass-blowing and manufacture of glass apparatus (339)	68. Industrial engineer (131)	102. Firefighter (37)

103. Carer for the aged (35)	151. Skipper (12)	198. Energy engineer (3)
104. Wholesale intermediary (35)	152. Pressure vessel installer (12)	199. Landscape architect (3)
105. Bicycle/moped repairer (35)	153. Valuation surveyor (12)	200. Chimney sweep (3)
106. Architectural Technologist (35)	154. Mining manager (12)	201. Gas technician (3)
107. Dental health secretary (33)	155. Electromechanical engineer (11)	202. Bridge/road supervisor (3)
108. Fertiliser sample expert (32)	156. Vocational education teach (11)	203. Nuclear technician (3)
109. Chief engineer class I fishing vessel (31)	157. Ecclesiastical professions (11)	204. Legal advisor (3)
110. Building site coordinator (31)	158. Adult education teacher (10)	205. Blacksmith (3)
111. Building engineer (29)	159. Town planner (10)	206. Photographer (3)
112. Actuary (29)	160. Mining professions (9)	207. Dry-cleaning (3)
113. Laboratory manager (28)	161. Radio protection officer (9)	208. Gunsmith (3)
114. Agronomist (28)	162. Labour law expert (9)	209. Wheelwright (3)
115. Mediator (28)	163. Renovator (8)	210. Tattoos make-up (3)
116. Gas installer/repairer (27)	164. Police officer (8)	211. Chief mechanic (3)
117. Chemist (26)	165. Special needs care worker (8)	212. Veterinary professions 93)
118. Lift maintenance (26)	166. Electrical engineer (8)	213. Textile expert (3)
119. Chartered technician (25)	167. Pedagogue-Counsellor (8)	214. Boat master (2)
120. Baker (24)	168. Cook (8)	215. Armed forces personnel (2)
121. Manager (22)	169. Engine maintenance (7)	216. Natural health practitioner (2)
122. Loader (21)	170. Food technologist (7)	217. Cake/chocolate maker (2)
123. Mining mechanic (19)	171. Notary public (7)	218. Broker (2)
124. Junior architect (19)	172. Coach (7)	219. Mining surveyor (2)
125. Mining engineer (19)	173. Telecommunications engin.(7)	220. Elec.telecomm.engineer (2)
126. Marine engineer (18)	174. Assistant lecturer (7)	221. Agricultural expert (2)
127. Tour manager (18)	175. Forest engineer (7)	222. Gas engineer (2)
128. Master builder (17)	176. Deck officer class III fish (6)	223. Planning development eng.(2)
129. Other health professionals (17)	177. Health and safety officer (6)	224. Mathematical applic.exp.(2)
130. Forwarding agent (17)	178. IT engineer (6)	225. Physicist (2)
131. Geologist (16)	179. Sailor (6)	226. Fire prevention (2)
132. Communications electronics (16)	180. Hotels camp sites (6)	227. Floor layer (2)
134. Civil engineering: building of roads, bridges, railways (15)	181. Machinery operator (6)	228. Landscape gardening (2)
135. Driving test examiner (15)	182. Locksmith (6)	229. Auctioneer (2)
136. Travel agent (15)	183. Naval architect (5)	230. Investment provider (2)
137. Private detective (15)	184. Steel worker (5)	231. Inland navigation (2)
138. Clinical psychologist (15)	185. Technician work.with sty.(5)	232. Security systems (2)
139. Laboratory assistant (14)	186. Butcher (5)	233. Tellcom.-electronics inst.(2)
140. Osteopath (14)	187. Assistant teacher (5)	234. Oenologist (2)
141. Journalist (14)	188. Customs agent (4)	235. Toolmaker (2)
142. Nutritionist (14)	189. Aeronautical engineer (4)	236. Electrical engineering (2)
143. Agriculture and forestry advisor (14)	190. Waste management (4)	237. Health inspector (2)
144. Arts therapist in the health service (13)	191. Gambling (4)	238. Assistant prosecutor (1)
145. Surveyor (13)	192. Financial broker (4)	239. Engineer fishing fleet (1)
146. Surgical assistant (13)	193. Social pedagogue (4)	240. Insolvency practitioner (1)
147. Pest control (13)	194. Percussionist (4)	241. Debt-collector (1)
148. Medical secretary (12)	195. Art teacher (3)	242. Epoxide worker (1)
149. Music teacher (12)	196. Meteorologist (3)	243. Mining safety (1)
150. Environmental health officer	197. Electrical and pc engineer (3)	244. Environmental consultant (1)

(12)		
245. Taxidermist (1)	253. Fireworks technician (1)	261. Petroleum industry (1)
246. Vehicle technical control (1)	254. Druggist (1)	262. Metal caster (1)
247. Fire officer (1)	255. Watchmaker/repairer (1)	263. Electronic technician (1)
248. Land appraiser (1)	256. Funeral undertaker (1)	264. explosives expert (1)
249. Intermediary for purchase (1)	257. Shoemaker (1)	265. Car, taxi and van drivers (1)
250. Metal design (1)	258. Tailor (1)	266. Animal experimentation technician (1)
251. Animal keeper (1)	259. Wooden furniture maker (1)	
252. Water service manager (1)	260. Import of dangerous chemicals (1)	

APPENDIX 11

Immigration from non-EU countries to the EU-28, 2013 (Eurostat, 2014).

	Number of immigrants in thousands	Per thousand inhabitants	Family reasons #	Education reasons #	Employment reasons #	Other reasons #
All EU citizens	2 357 583	4,7	672 914	464 040	535 478	685 151
Austria	34 308	4	12 652	5 538	3 555	12 563
Belgium	42 463	3,8	22 266	5 902	4 347	9 948
Bulgaria	6 436	0,9	2 242	935	334	2 925
Croatia	3 320	0,8	2 154	185	599	382
Cyprus	11 455	13,3	1 230	1 397	6 613	2 215
Czech Republic	45 544	4,3	10 311	6 215	18 263	10 755
Denmark	31 311	5,6	9 068	7 463	10 684	4 096
Estonia	2 496	1,9	1 103	498	579	316
Finland	21 112	3,9	7 909	5 314	4 719	3 170
France	212 098	3,2	91 232	62 747	17 480	40 639
Germany	199 925	2,5	82 492	45 955	27 788	43 690
Greece	18 299	1,7	10 852	1 074	1 266	5 147
Hungary	16 833	1,7	4 058	5 515	3 561	3 699
Ireland	32 780	7,1	2 042	21 394	4 018	5 326
Italy	243 954	4,1	108358	27 083	80 726	27 787
Latvia	7 615	3,8	3 521	808	793	2 493
Lithuania	4 601	1,6	988	603	2 822	188
Luxembourg	4 169	7,7	2 153	404	1 272	340
Malta	10 187	24,1	2 762	2 187	2 612	2 626
Netherlands	64 739	3,9	25 376	12 878	12 673	13 812
Poland	273 886	7,1	2 628	23 007	141 668	106 583
Portugal	26 593	2,5	12 224	4 734	6 394	3 241
Romania	11 160	0,6	4 155	3 692	1 542	1 771
Slovakia	4 416	0,8	1 411	829	1 624	552
Slovenia	8 271	4	3 923	596	3 674	78
Spain	196 242	4,2	107 620	26 416	50 171	12 035
Sweden	99 122	10,3	43 156	7 474	17 189	31 303
United Kingdom	724 248	11,3	95 028	183 197	108 552	337 471

APPENDIX 12

Immigration from non-EU countries to the EU-28, 2014 (Eurostat, 2015d).

	Number of immigrants in thousands	Per thousand inhabitants	Family reasons #	Education reasons #	Employment reasons #	Other reasons #
All EU citizens	2 305 758	4,5	680 025	476 817	572 414	576 502
Austria	23 186	2,7	13 394	6 350	3 442	:
Belgium	43 823	3,9	23 114	6 286	4 768	9 655
Bulgaria	8 795	1,2	2 591	911	304	4 989
Croatia	3 334	0,8	1 928	418	609	379
Cyprus	13 841	16,2	2 111	1 444	7 989	2 297
Czech Republic	35 458	3,4	10 687	6 030	11 083	7 658
Denmark	35 886	6,4	10 339	8 101	10 954	6 492
Estonia	3 222	2,5	1 263	777	882	300
Finland	21 552	3,9	8 043	5528	4 786	3 195
France	218 267	3,3	92 093	65 403	19 118	41 653
Germany	237 627	2,9	91 661	49 406	29 275	67 285
Greece	22 451	2,1	12 647	835	2 190	6 779
Hungary	21 188	2,1	6 736	5 168	3 733	5 551
Ireland	36 728	8	2 526	23 730	5 139	5 333
Italy	204 335	3,4	99 051	24 373	53 329	27 584
Latvia	9 857	4,9	4 903	1 050	971	2 933
Lithuania	7 252	2,5	1 473	666	4 800	313
Luxembourg	4 289	7,7	2 470	456	965	398
Malta	9 895	23,2	2 077	2 924	2 044	2 850
Netherlands	69 569	4,1	22 115	12 746	11 780	22 928
Poland	355 418	94	1 188	29 825	206 176	118 229
Portugal	29 764	2,9	13 846	3 47	6 409	6 102
Romania	10 294	0,5	3 331	3 535	1 803	1 625
Slovakia	5 510	1	1 735	1 082	1 741	952
Slovenia	9 891	4,8	5 099	500	4 183	109
Spain	188 573	4,1	100841	29 438	42 379	15 915
Sweden	107 947	11,1	46 362	9 194	14 857	37 634
United Kingdom	567 806	8,8	96 501	177 234	116 707	177 364

APPENDIX 13

Main citizenships of persons granted first residence permits in the EU-28 by reasons, 2013 (Eurostat, 2014).

	Total #	Family reasons #	Education reasons #	Employment reasons #	Other reasons #
TOTAL	2 357 583	672 914	464 040	535 478	685 151
Ukraine	236 691	20 006	15 739	151 718	49 228
India	200 844	43 295	20 901	53 175	83 473
United States	171 800	21 670	42 476	38 881	69 773
China	165 569	34 401	99 188	23 027	8 953
Philippines	107 848	11 558	890	13 825	81 575
Morocco	101 970	66 774	9 345	19 127	6 724
Belarus	76 800	2 611	3 642	5 638	64 909
Russia	73 107	23 914	15 750	13 686	19 757
Turkey	59 802	29 104	15 680	5 382	9 636
Brazil	55 020	16 470	23 957	8 299	6 294

APPENDIX 14

Main citizenships of persons granted first residence permits in the EU-28 by reasons, 2014 (Eurostat, 2015d).

	Total #	Family reasons #	Education reasons #	Employment reasons #	Other reasons #
TOTAL	2 305 758	680 025	476 817	572 414	576 502
Ukraine	302 772	21 378	22 168	206 422	52 804
United States	199 244	21 277	36 508	40 839	100 620
China	169 657	35 562	100 846	22 271	10 978
India	134 881	45 618	22 032	54 676	12 555
Morocco	96 273	64 320	10 212	15 077	6 664
Syria	81 899	14 926	1 896	1 407	63 670
Belarus	80 442	2 644	3 620	5 608	68 570
Russia	73 821	25 709	15 731	12 867	19 514
Brazil	57 099	16 074	26 514	4 885	6 626
Turkey	56 323	27 353	14 422	5 066	9 482

APPENDIX 15

EU Blue Cards and National schemes for highly qualified employment, 2013 (European Commission based on Eurostat, 2016b).

Country	Blue Cards	National schemes	Total	per 100 000 average population
Austria	108	1 228	1 336	15,6
Belgium	5	73	78	0,69
Bulgaria	14	0	14	0,19
Croatia	10	565	575	13,6
Cyprus	0	385	385	45,5
Czech Republic	72	69	141	1,3
Denmark	not applicable	5 730	5 730	101,2
Estonia	12	0	12	0,91
Finland	5	971	976	17,8
France	371	2 667	3038	4,6
Germany	11 580	11	11 591	14,3
Greece	n/a	0	0	0
Hungary	4	0	4	0,04
Ireland	not applicable	1 707	1 707	36,9
Italy	87	1 543	1 630	2,7
Latvia	10	82	92	4,6
Lithuania	26	0	26	0,9
Luxembourg	236	0	236	41,9
Malta	4	0	4	0,9
Netherlands	3	7 046	7 049	41,7
Poland	16	387	403	1
Portugal	4	767	771	7,4
Romania	71	0	71	0,4
Slovakia	8	0	8	0,15
Slovenia	3	0	3	0,15
Spain	313	1 480	1793	3,9
Sweden	2	4 666	4 668	47,9
United Kingdom	not applicable	3 081	3 081	4,75
EU 28	12 964	32 458	45 422	8,9

APPENDIX 16

EU Blue Cards and National schemes for highly qualified employment, 2014 (European Commission by Eurostat, 2016b).

Country	Blue Cards	National initiative	Total	per 1000 average population
Austria	128	1 083	1 211	14,1
Belgium	19	2 484	2 503	22,2
Bulgaria	21	0	21	0,3
Croatia	7	0	7	0,2
Cyprus	0	469	469	55,4
Czech Republic	104	46	150	1,4
Denmark	not applicable	5 698	5 698	100,7
Estonia	15	0	15	1,4
Finland	3	1 120	1 123	20,5
France	597	2 567	3 164	4,8
Germany	12 108	13	12 121	14,9
Greece	n/a	0	0	0
Hungary	5	0	5	0,05
Ireland	not applicable	2 438	2 438	52,7
Italy	165	1 066	1 231	2,02
Latvia	32	122	154	7,8
Lithuania	92	0	92	3,15
Luxembourg	262	0	262	46,5
Malta	2	0	2	0,5
Netherlands	0	7 123	7 123	42,1
Poland	46	691	737	1,9
Portugal	3	989	992	9,6
Romania	190	0	190	0,96
Slovakia	6	0	6	0,11
Slovenia	8	0	8	0,4
Spain	39	2 137	2 176	4,7
Sweden	0	5 012	5 012	51,4
United Kingdom	not applicable	2 478	2 478	3,8
EU 28	13 852	35536	49 388	9,7

APPENDIX 17

EU Blue Cards by citizenship, 2013 (European Commission by Eurostat, 2016b).

REGION		COUNTRY: number
<u>Africa: 1 214</u>	Northern Africa: 859	Egypt: 450 Libya: 148 Tunisia: 130 Morocco: 88 Algeria: 28 Sudan: 15
	Middle Africa: 150	Cameroon: 136 Gabon: 6 Rwanda: 3 Chad: 2 Congo: 1 Democratic Republic of the Congo: 1 Equatorial Guinea: 1
	Southern Africa: 75	South Africa: 74 Swaziland: 1
	Western Africa: 67	Nigeria: 36 Benin: 6 Cote d'Ivoire: 6 Ghana: 5 Senegal: 4 Mauritania: 3 Sierra Leone: 2 Togo: 2 Guinea: 1 Mali: 1 Burkina Faso: 1
	Eastern Africa: 63	Mauritius: 31 Ethiopia: 15 Kenya: 8 Madagascar: 4 Tanzania: 2 Eritrea: 1 Malawi: 1 Seychelles: 1
<u>Asia: 6 970</u>	Southern Asia: 3 314	India: 2 644 Iran: 394 Pakistan: 189 Bangladesh: 39 Nepal: 30 Sri Lanka: 15 Afghanistan: 3
	Eastern Asia: 1511	China (including Hong Kong): 1 011 Japan: 246

		South Korea: 180 Taiwan: 63 Mongolia: 10 North Korea: 1
	Western Asia: 1 703	Syria: 547 Turkey: 409 Jordan: 290 Israel: 96 Lebanon: 95 Georgia: 71 Azerbaijan: 62 Yemen: 51 Armenia: 47 Iraq: 30 Saudi Arabia: 3 United Arab Emirates: 1 Bahrain: 1
	South Eastern Asia: 350	Indonesia: 120 Malaysia: 68 Vietnam: 67 Singapore: 38 Philippines: 32 Thailand: 25
	Central Asia: 92	Kazakhstan: 39 Uzbekistan: 27 Kyrgyzstan: 18 Tajikistan: 6 Turkmenistan: 2
<u>Americas: 1 955</u>	Northern America: 982	United States: 776 Canada: 206
	South America: 655	Brasil: 265 Colombia: 140 Venezuela: 62 Argentina: 59 Peru: 47 Chile: 36 Ecuador: 22 Bolivia: 14 Paraguay: 5 Uruguay: 4 Suriname: 1
	Central America: 298	Mexico: 249 Costa Rica: 18 Guatemala: 11 Honduras: 9 El Salvador: 5 Nicaragua: 3 Panama: 2 Belize: 1
	Caribbean: 20	Cuba: 7

		Trinidad and Tobago: 7 Dominican Republic: 2 Jamaica: 2 Bahamas: 1 Barbados: 1
<u>Europe: 2 561</u>	Eastern Europe: 1689	Russia: 994 Ukraine: 536 Belarus: 143 Moldova: 16
	Southern Europe: 870	Serbia: 412 Bosnia and Herzegovina: 138 F.Y.R. Macedonia: 116 Albania: 89 Kosovo: 88 Croatia: 14 Montenegro: 13
	Western Europe: 2	Monaco: 1 Andorra: 1
<u>Oceania: 144</u>		Australia: 106 New Zealand: 38
<u>Rest: 119</u>		
Total: 12 963		

APPENDIX 18

EU Blue Cards by citizenship, 2014 (European Commission by Eurostat, 2016b).

REGION		COUNTRY: number
<u>Africa: 1 336</u>	Northern Africa: 1 000	Egypt: 464 Tunisia: 260 Libya: 156 Morocco: 84 Algeria: 23 Sudan: 13
	Middle Africa: 115	Cameroon: 107 Gabon: 4 Angola: 1 Central African Republic: 1 Sao Tome and Principe: 1 Democratic Republic of the Congo: 1
	Southern Africa: 59	South Africa: 54 Botswana: 3 Swaziland: 2
	Western Africa: 84	Nigeria: 38 Ghana: 13 Senegal: 9 Mauritania: 6 Benín: 4 Togo: 3 Burkina Faso: 3 Cote d'Ivoire: 2 Sierra Leone: 2 Cape Verde: 1 Liberia: 1 Níger: 1 Guinea: 1
	Eastern Africa: 78	Mauritius: 20 Ethiopia: 17 Kenya: 15 Zimbabwe: 9 Rwanda: 6 Tanzania: 4 Uganda: 3 Madagascar: 2 Zambia: 1 Somalia: 1
<u>Asia: 6 946</u>	Southern Asia: 3 332	India: 2 585 Iran: 426 Pakistan: 219 Bangladesh: 47 Nepal: 34

		Sri Lanka: 13 Afghanistan: 8
	Eastern Asia: 1420	China (including Hong Kong): 998 Japan: 199 South Korea: 150 Taiwan: 66 Mongolia: 5 North Korea: 2
	Western Asia: 1 739	Syria: 554 Turkey: 442 Jordan: 176 Israel: 121 Azerbaijan: 107 Lebanon: 105 Armenia: 82 Georgia: 63 Yemen: 39 Iraq: 35 Saudi Arabia: 10 Oman: 2 Kuwait: 1 United Arab Emirates: 1 Bahrain: 1
	South Eastern Asia: 358	Indonesia: 118 Vietnam: 79 Malaysia: 59 Philippines: 39 Singapore: 35 Thailand: 28
	Central Asia: 97	Kazakhstan: 41 Uzbekistan: 36 Kyrgyzstan: 9 Turkmenistan: 6 Tajikistan: 5
<u>Americas: 2 103</u>	Northern America: 1 060	United States: 837 Canada: 223
	South America: 705	Brasil: 289 Colombia: 144 Venezuela: 74 Argentina: 65 Chile: 49 Perú: 41 Ecuador: 18 Bolivia: 18 Paraguay: 6 Uruguay: 1
	Central America: 306	México: 269 Costa Rica: 9 Guatemala: 9 El Salvador: 7

		Honduras: 5 Panama: 5 Nicaragua: 2
	Caribbean: 32	Cuba: 14 Dominican Republic: 9 Trinidad and Tobago: 7 Jamaica: 1 Bahamas: 1
<u>Europe: 3 024</u>	Eastern Europe: 2 117	Russia: 1 175 Ukraine: 761 Belarus: 163 Moldova: 18
	Southern Europe: 905	Serbia: 402 F.Y.R. Macedonia: 169 Bosnia and Herzegovina: 149 Albania: 103 Kosovo: 73 Montenegro: 9
	Western Europe: 2	Andorra: 2
<u>Oceania: 207</u>		Australia: 162 New Zealand: 44 Tonga: 1
<u>Rest: 106</u>		
Total: 13 722		