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# ***Social Impact of Emigration and Rural-Urban Migration in Central and Eastern Europe***

## **Final Country Report**

**Lithuania**

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VT/2010/001**

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## **1. Socio-Economic and Political Overview**

Lithuania is a relatively small country on the south-eastern shore of the Baltic Sea with an area of 65,200 sq km and with an estimated population of 3.05 million as of 2011. The biggest part of the population is composed of Lithuanians (83.9%); other important ethnic groups are Poles (6.6%), Russians (5.4%) and Belarusians (1.3%) (Statistics Lithuania, 2011b, p. 31). Lithuania has a three-tier division: the country is divided into 10 counties (*apskritis*, *NUTS-3*), which are territorial and statistical units without administrative function (Fig. 1.1), 60 municipalities of three types: municipalities and district / town municipalities (*savivaldybė*, *rajono / miesto savivaldybė*, *LAU-1*) which consist of over 500 elderships (*seniūnija*, *LAU-2*), the smallest administrative division of Lithuania. An eldership can either be a very small area consisting of few villages, a single town or a part of a big city.

In order to understand national emigration patterns since 1990 it is useful to differentiate between the main political developments and socioeconomic processes.

The main **political** developments which have influenced migration processes in the period of 1990-2010 were as follows:

1. The social and political movement which started in Lithuania after the introduction of glasnost (openness) and perestroika (restructuring) culminated on March 11, 1990 when after the first free and democratic parliamentary elections in February 1990 the Supreme Council of the Republic of Lithuania has declared the Reestablishment of Lithuanian Independence. An important factor was the citizenship: according to the Law on Citizenship enacted on 5 December 1991, all persons who were habitually resident in the territory of the Republic of Lithuania and were not citizens of any other state, could become citizens of Lithuania on the day of coming into force of the Law on Citizenship enacted on 3 November 1989. The part of population which did not recognise the new status of Lithuania and did not want to accept Lithuanian citizenship left the country. This part of the population moved to the CIS countries. Therefore, at the beginning of the 90s, the majority of emigrants included national minorities leaving Lithuania (Russians, Byelorussians, Ukrainians, Jews, etc.) (Stankūnienė, 1995a, p. 135).
2. Another important political event which has influenced migration flows was the integration of Lithuania into the European Union. In May 2003 a referendum on the accession to the EU was held in Lithuania. 91.07% of those who participated in the referendum were in favour of the EU membership. On 1 May 2004 Lithuania became an EU Member State along with nine other states. After Lithuania's successful adjustment of its national information system and completion of the preparatory tasks on 21 December 2007 Lithuania became a member of the Schengen area. As a result, the internal land and sea border control have been abolished. Air border control has been removed in March 2008.

The main **socioeconomic** processes that have influenced emigration processes between in 1990 and 2010 were as follows:

1. The restructuring of the industry in Lithuania took place in the period from 1990 to 1994. Until the 1990s, industrial production was based on large state-owned enterprises which were integral parts of the Soviet economy. The former USSR countries, the majority of which became members of the CIS, were the main economic partners of Lithuania (Table 1.1). Due to structural changes from 1990 to 1994, the industrial production has decreased 5 times and in 1994 it amounted to only 21% of the level of 1990 (Table 1.2). The fall of industrial production was an important macroeconomic factor which has promoted migration from urban to rural areas.
2. The Lithuanian economy, as a former part of the Soviet economy, was integrated into the Soviet economic space. The level of integration and the steps of separation of the Lithuanian economy are reflected in data presented in the Tables 1.3, 1.4, and 1.5. In 1991 56.5% of exports were directed to Russia and 49.6% of imports came from Russia. In 1990 the main export good was food which constituted 37.6% of total exports. The

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food production is tightly linked with commodity agriculture (Statistics Lithuania, 1991, p. 207). Insofar as the Lithuanian economy was strongly linked with the Russian economy, the decline of the Lithuanian economy after the Russian economic crisis in 1998 (decrease of income of households and increase of unemployment) has forced economic emigration. It is important to stress that this flow of emigration resulted into the formation of numerous communities of migrants that later became one of the pull factors of migration. According to experts, these flows have changed the cultural interpretation of migration behaviour and have legitimized it. Furthermore first migration networks based on bonding social capital have been established and played an important role after Lithuania has joined the EU (Maslauskaitė, Stankūnienė, 2007, pp. 187-188). After the Russian crisis of 1998, Lithuania entered a period of economic growth which was interrupted by the crisis of 2008-2009 (Fig. 1.2).

3. The global and national economic crisis of 2008 in Lithuania has resulted into fast increasing unemployment. The key macroeconomic indicators directly linked with welfare of the inhabitants demonstrate the deep recession of the Lithuanian economy: in 2009, the GDP has decreased by 18%, earnings by 7%. According to the estimates of a quarterly Labour Force Survey, the unemployment rate in the country in the 2nd quarter of 2010 reached 18.3%. In the 2nd quarter of 2010, compared to the 2nd quarter of 2009, the unemployment rate grew from 13.6% to 18.3%. The youth (aged 15-24) unemployment rate in the 2<sup>nd</sup> quarter of 2010 increased to 37.1%. In the 2nd quarter of 2010, the long-term unemployed persons comprised 40.4% of all unemployed, 25.3 percentage points more than in the middle of the year. In 2009, the at-risk-of-poverty rate in Lithuania was 20.6%; in comparison to 2008, it increased by 0.6 percentage points. The number of recipients of social assistance benefits increased significantly from 37,300 in 2008 to 141,800 in the first quarter of 2010. The bank of Lithuania has reported an increase of delayed loans close to three times during the period from mid of 2008 to mid of 2009 (Statistics Lithuania Database).

It is possible to distinguish at least two developments which have influenced inner rural-urban migration:

1. After the re-establishment of independence, a reform of agriculture was started and significantly influenced the processes of rural development. Among EU member states, Lithuania belongs to a group of countries (together with Latvia, Romania, Bulgaria and Poland) with a relatively large rural population. In 2011, one third (33.1%) of the Lithuanian population lived in rural areas according to Statistics Lithuania (Statistics Lithuania Database).

The abolition of collective farms and the attempt to substitute them with small-scale private farms led to a large-scale displacement of the rural population from commodity agriculture, excessive land fragmentation, a decline in productivity, and a growth in subsistence farming. Agricultural productivity dropped to the 1952/53 levels. By 1993 only one of three newly created farms had a tractor, and one of five - a horse. Rural unemployment and poverty soared. In some economically depressed rural areas official unemployment was as high as 17-21%, while rural rates of poverty increased to 28.2%, almost triple of the poverty rate in urban areas (Juška, Poviliūnas, 2010, pp. 65-67). But these socioeconomic changes have had more influence on rural poverty and exclusion than inner migration. At the same time the share of rural population indicates the level of the regional depression and thus correlates with the migration flows from the region.

2. In order to ease the transition to the single EU agricultural market during the accession process, the European Commission established rural support programmes for prospective members. Through the SAPARD programme Lithuania received EUR 28.9 million a year in 2000-2006. PHARE provided additional EUR 38.3 million in 2000 and EUR 43.7 million in 2001. Furthermore, the EU agreed in 2004-2006 to disperse EUR 564 million and in 2007-2013 EUR 2,168 million in various forms of rural development aid. The resources and expertise provided by these programmes partially have blunted

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antagonisms in the country. Structural funds allowed recasting country's rural underdevelopment from being a welfare burden paid by urban classes, as an EU-wide problem managed and financed by the European Commission. But the main priority of the rural development plan is the competitiveness of agriculture. Therefore, rural development policy is most favourable to successful farmers. The data demonstrate (Fig. 1.3 in Annex) that the income of the farmers' households in 2006 has exceeded the income of urban households, but at the same time the at-risk-of-poverty level in rural areas did not change significantly and still is almost three times higher than in urban areas. It might be due to the fact that modernisation of agriculture decreased the demand of unskilled labour force.

## 2. Main emigration and internal migration trends and patterns

### 2.1. Main emigration trends

From 1945-1989 the main flows of external migration from Lithuania were linked with other Soviet republics and migration to other countries almost did not take place. The average annual population growth due to migration from the republics of the Soviet Union was 6,000-8,000 (Sipavičienė, 2006a, p. 4). The major countries to which and from which migration was directed were Russia, Belarus and Ukraine (Table 2.3). The distribution of migrants by nationality was analogous (Fig. 2.3). In all these years there was a significant part (up to 25%) of Lithuanian migrants, who emigrated from and returned to Lithuania (Stankūnienė, 1995a, pp. 134-135).

From 1990 to 2010, the population of Lithuania decreased substantially from 3,674,800 to 3,329,000 people, mainly due to migration (Fig. 2.1 and Table 2.1): the total amount of fixed (declared or recalculated after census 2001) net migration 1990-2009 was -289,210, and 76,500 of the natural increase. The amount of undeclared emigration was 132,000 (and of declared -121,500, Fig. 2.2 and Table 2.2) according to the research of Lithuanian Statistics in the period of 2001-2009. Through migration Lithuania has lost about 499,160 persons of the total population (Tables 2.1 and 2.2) during this period, which corresponds to 13.5% of the total population at the beginning of the period and about 15.4% of the actual population number<sup>1</sup> (The preliminary results of the last population census 2011 demonstrated that the number of emigrants is even higher (Statistics Lithuania, 2011d)). In the last decade Lithuania was among the champions of migration within the EU according to the crude rate of net migration: from -0.7% in 2001 to -4.7% in 2009 and at least to -23.7% in 2010 (Statistics Lithuania Database, Statistics Lithuania, 2010a, p. 206; Statistics Lithuania, 2011b, p. 185). The main destination countries in the period were the UK, the USA and Ireland.

It is possible to distinguish three main periods of external migration in Lithuania after 1990:

1. The *first years* after the independency (1990-1994), was the period of repatriation (permanent emigration and immigration) with countries of the former Soviet Union. The political factors directly influenced ethnic emigration (Stankūnienė, 1995a, p. 130). In 1991-1994 emigration to former USSR countries increased significantly and the total net migration to these countries in the period was 68,700 (Fig. 2.4). The main causes for going to former Soviet countries in 1992 were preferences for the new place of residence (61.1%) and family relations (15.8%) (Statistics Lithuania, 2003, p. 115). The main receiving countries have remained the same as for immigration during the Soviet period – Russia, Belarus and Ukraine (Tables 2.3 and 2.4). The composition of the nationality of emigrants reflected the former composition of the immigrant population. Mostly Russians left the country, as well as Ukrainians and Belarusians (Figures 2.3 and 2.5, Table 2.5). Up to 1994, 93% of emigrants from Lithuania (and from the republics of the former Soviet Union) were non-Lithuanians (Stankūnienė, 1995a, p. 133). Emigration flows to the West were essentially smaller in this period, but of ethnic character too: the

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<sup>1</sup> On 1 January 2011 it was 3,244,600.

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Jewish population emigrated to the West, Polish – to Poland (Tables 2.4 and 2.5, Fig. 2.5). Non-Lithuanian emigrants to Western countries amounted to 86% (ibid.).

2. The *second period* (1995-2003) was a period of increasing emigration. Before the admission into the EU, emigration from Lithuania had born an illegal character (Socialinių tyrimų institutas, 2004). It means that the independence of Lithuania also has opened possibilities for illegal migration into the West European countries and the USA. About 60% of all emigrations in the period 1990-2000 were undeclared and in the last years of this period it amounted up to 90% (Sipavičienė, 2006a, p. 160). At the same time, the share of emigrants of Lithuanian nationality in the total flow of emigrants increased (Table 2.5). From 1995 onwards, the outflows to the CIS countries decreased and stabilised, and emigration to other countries, particularly to Western Europe and the United States began to increase (Table 2.4, Fig. 2.6). Undeclared and hidden emigration to the USA, UK, Ireland and Spain increased in that period, so the available data on emigration trends are not accurate, but they show general trends. This is the period of the formation of new migration networks which have facilitated and accelerated further flows of emigration from Lithuania. The essential feature of emigration during this period (high percentage of illegal, not registered emigration) was caused by restricted possibilities of legal employment and living in the destination countries.
3. The *third period* (2004-2010) was a period of increasing emigration flows to the EU countries and decreasing to the USA and of legalization of emigration (Table 2.3, Fig. 2.6). On 1 May 2004 Lithuania became a member of the EU. In this year the declared net migration amounted to -9,610 and had increased as compared to 2003 by about 50% (Table 2.2). As from 2004, employment restrictions have not been applied by the UK, Ireland and Sweden, as well as by the new EU Member States; as from 2006 they were also lifted by Spain, Portugal, Greece, Finland and Italy followed by France in 2008, while other EU countries only dropped remaining restrictions at the end of the transition period in 2011. In December 2007, Lithuania joined the Schengen area and after that emigration to the Schengen countries increased more than emigration to other countries. The lifting of restrictions resulted into increased migration flows to EU countries and the legalization of illegal migrants living in the Member States, first of all in the UK, Ireland and Spain (Fig. 2.6, Table 2.3). Changes in the direction of migration are clearly reflected in surveys of emigrants: most emigrants to the UK and Ireland arrived in 2004 and later, while the proportion of recent emigrants is lower for Germany and the USA (Viešosios politikos..., 2008a, p. 29). The flow of work emigration grew during the years of the last crisis: in 2009 more than 85% of emigrants left Lithuania to work abroad (in 2008 it was only 70%) (Table 2.9). Today, the majority of declared emigrants are Lithuanian citizens whereas before the accession to the EU, the majority of emigrants were citizens of the CIS (Fig. 2.7-8, Table 2.6). 2010 was an exceptional year of emigration. Declared emigration increased from 21,970 to 83,160 persons. This is about 2.5% of the total population of Lithuania. This increase was strongly influenced by the obligation for permanent residents of the country to pay contribution for health care expenses, as stipulated by the changes in the Law on Health Insurance of the Republic of Lithuania coming into force in January 2009. Persons who had lived in other countries already for some time might have declared the change of their residence place only after the adoption of the new law. Therefore, official emigration numbers for 2010 are characterised by a one-time effect of cancellation of permanent addresses of emigrants of previous periods, but first census 2011 results show a further decline of the population so that net emigration also continued (Statistics Lithuania, 2011d).

Because of this situation, it is rather complicated to evaluate the impact of the recent financial and economic crisis on migration flows, but table 2.2 indicates an increase in emigration already for 2009 and a decrease of immigration. This shows that the crisis did not encourage return migration from the main receiving countries with much higher salary levels (Sipavičienė et al., 2009, p. 11).

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The main factors influencing emigration of the last two periods were of economic nature: low earnings and unemployment in Lithuania and the demand for unqualified labour force, regular labour migration opportunities and tolerance of illegal labour in the main destination countries. Changes of the level of unemployment in Lithuania are reflected in migration trends, especially in the last years (Fig. 2.9). One of the reasons of unemployment are shortcomings in the education system (structure of acquired professions of graduates of higher and professional schools does not meet the market demands). Other factors may be qualified as personal strategies of assimilation to the main factors which are: higher possibilities to broaden professional qualification and for careers in other countries, the wish to reduce social threats, migration infrastructure, processes of European integration and public opinion (Laisvosios rinkos institutas, 2006; Sipavičienė, 2006, pp. 16-17).

The most important destination countries of officially declared emigration during the period 1991-2010 were the UK, Russia, Ireland, USA and Germany (Table 2.7). According to the estimates of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Republic of Lithuania (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2010), the most relevant Diaspora of ethnic Lithuanians are situated in the USA, UK, Ireland, Canada and Russia (Table 2.8). The USA and Canada are countries with the biggest Lithuanian Diaspora founded during the period of the Second World War and new flows of emigrants helps to keep this position. According to Eurostat (Eurostat, 2011), the highest numbers of Lithuanian citizens in the EU countries have been registered in Ireland, the UK, Germany and Spain. Countries of destination of declared and undeclared migration differ. The relevance of the UK and Ireland – although already quite high in recent years – is underestimated by official declarations of emigration. While nearly all emigrants to the USA declare their emigration, this is not the case for these countries. For example in 2007, 60.9% of undeclared emigration went to the UK and Ireland, whereas the share of declared emigration to these countries was only 38.1% (Statistics Lithuania, 2008, p. 11).

There is no statistical information about the duration of migration, especially to western countries. Different types of emigration are included in the total flows: temporary labour migrants, seasonal workers and long-term emigrants. Also a significant number of (temporary) emigrants go abroad for commercial, scientific goals or to study. According to the data of household surveys in 1997 and 1998-2000 (Sipavičienė, 2002, p. 86), 90% of the households in Lithuania included persons with 'migration experience', and 32.3% of the adult population had 'migration experience'. It has to be noted that migration experience was defined very broadly, including all journeys over the last five years (without tourist and recreational trips). Therefore, it included a large number (80%) of very short trips (less than one month). Only 5% of the trips were longer than 3 months. 50% took place to former Soviet Union countries, 20.6% to the former socialist countries. 42% of the trips were for economic purposes, 15.5% – for studying, 27% – for family reasons and 12% for other reasons. During the period of investigation, there were very much short-term business trips and only 8.4% of people went for employment purposes.

Returnee surveys indicate that repeated migration increases the length of stay in the receiving countries. Only 56% of those who had repeatedly emigrated spent less than two years abroad, compared to 89% of those who had emigrated only once. The survey included young people who went to work or to study only for a short period of time (Viešosios politikos..., 2008a, p. 25).

Various studies of the migratory potential (Socialinių tyrimų institutas, 2005, pp. 27-28; Vilimorus, 2005) indicate that most Lithuanians would like to leave for a relatively short period of time – from several months up to 3 years. Migration intentions are especially high among people with previous migration experience who have received a much better salary for the same work (61.7%) and among the unemployed (67%) (Viešosios politikos..., 2008a, pp. 39-40). Virtually, all young people consider migrating abroad: about 30% consider leaving the country for a longer period of time, and about 70% would like to live or work abroad either for a longer or short period of time (Aidis, Krupickaitė, 2009, p. 60; Čiužas et al., 2005, p. 75; Merkys, 2004, p. 7).

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Immigration flows into Lithuania have been small throughout the years of independence. In 1991-1993, the large flows of immigrants included repatriates and returnees from former republics of the Soviet Union. In 1992, 50.2% of immigrants came from the former USSR because of the preferences of the new place of residence and 25.9% because of family relations. The same model was typical for immigrants from Western countries, though the amount of immigrants was 14 times lower (Statistics Lithuania, 1993, p. 115). Since the 1990s, every year there are around 150 families of repatriates and returnees returning back to Lithuania (Sipavičienė et al., 2009).

As can be expected, temporary emigration is increasing; return migration is also rising and accounts for 70% of inward migration in the period 1991-2010 (Fig. 2.7-8, Table 2.6). The total amount of emigrants with Lithuanian citizenship in the period 2001-2009 was 92,452 and of immigrants (returnees) – 33,745 (Table 2.6). A representative survey of the Lithuanian population carried out in 2008 indicated that since 1990 6.7% of Lithuanian citizens have worked abroad for more than 6 months and about 7-10% of the total population older than 18 years are returned emigrants (Viešosios politikos..., 2008a, p. 29). A representative survey of the emigrants with Lithuanian citizenship carried out in 2008 indicated that the potential of return is not important – 15.6% of the people choose to come home, 17.4% have not taken a final decision, but intend to return, while 32% is undecided (Ibid., p. 35). More likely to return were people who are living abroad for the first time (Ibid., p. 33).

### **2.2. Main internal migration trends**

On 1 January 2011, 66.9% of the total population of Lithuania lived in urban areas. Urban areas in Lithuania are cities and towns, i.e. densely built-up residential areas with a population of more than 3,000 persons. At least 2/3 of all employees have to work in industry, business, manufacturing, social infrastructure (not agriculture) to classify the residential areas as urban ones. The population may be less than 3,000 in case those residential areas have already had the status of a town before the Law on the Territorial Administrative Units of the Republic of Lithuania and their Boundaries was enacted (on 19 July 1994). Other territories are rural. There are 103 cities and towns in Lithuania with the population ranging from 542,932 in the capital city Vilnius to less than 2,000 in 28 small towns.

During the Soviet time and till the end of 1980, rural-urban migration was dominant and of a large scale. Rapid development of the industry in the Soviet years and other interconnected factors such as post-war conflicts and collectivization of agriculture stimulated the growth of cities. In 1939-1989 the proportion of urban population increased from 23% to 68% (Statistics Lithuania Database; Statistics Lithuania, 2010d, p. 39). In the middle of the 1980s, the indices of the rural-urban migration reached their maximum – the rural regions lost more than 1.5% of their population (Gruževskis, 1995, p. 180).

Internal migration accounts for the majority of the total migration flows in the period 1990-2010, although the total mobility of population is not very high (Table 2.10). Yet some trends can be observed: from 1992 until 2004, the portion of urban population has been decreasing whereas since 2005 it has been slightly increasing<sup>2</sup>.

The highest mobility of population was registered in 1995 – the year of the end of the restructuring of industry and the bank crisis (Fig. 2.10). Thus, changes of social economic conditions in urban and rural areas should be qualified as the main causes for the decrease of the population in urban areas in 1990-1999 and the significantly increased migration from cities to the countryside and to small towns (see Fig. 2.12 and Fig. 2.13). At that time, many people lost their jobs and returned to the rural areas, where their parents lived. Among the main push factors the decline of industrial production, bankruptcies of enterprises, unemployment and low living standards in urban areas should also be mentioned. At the beginning of the period, another important factor of the decreasing urban population was the

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<sup>2</sup> In 1997, the number of urban population increased as a result of administrative reforms rather than migration.



emigration of national minorities from the largest cities to the CIS. The factors pulling to rural areas were the restitution of landed property, land privatisation and new farming conditions (Krupickaitė, 1997; Vaitekūnas, 2006, p. 274).

The next (slight) rise in mobility was after 2002, in the period of the relatively rapid expansion of the public sector and construction. Many people changed their permanent place of residence: in 2003-2004 it amounted 1.7% of the Lithuanian population (Jurkšaitytė, 2008, p. 36), while in 2009, 49,600 persons, or 1.5% of the country's population, changed their place of residence (Statistics Lithuania, 2010a, p. 190). Internal migration was lower than in the previous period. The trend towards rural areas was stopped (ibid.) (Fig. 2.14), but not to suburban areas (Fig. 2.15). The role of suburbanization around the largest cities has increased since 2000. The population from the peripheral territories continue to migrate to metropolis regions due to better employment offers (Pocius, 2007), better possibilities to study and to establish enterprises.

Experts estimate, on the basis of the number of work places and infrastructure utilisation, that the population of Vilnius is highly underestimated in official data by at least 100,000 (Trinkūnaite, 2010). For example, young people such as students keep their registration at their parents' place while de facto living in Vilnius. In addition, Vilnius is characterized by a high number of weekly migrants (mostly workers in construction) who live with their families in other municipalities of Lithuania and commute to Vilnius every Monday and stay there in provisional accommodation until Friday.

Interregional migration – when migration flows are directed to a few regional centres – is also very important on a national scale: in 2009, net internal migration by county was only positive in the Vilnius, Kaunas and Klaipėda counties (Statistics Lithuania, 2010a, p. 197). This stands in direct correlation with the distribution of the GDP and direct investments per capita (in comparison with the country's average) (Fig. 2.16–2.17). By generalising it can be pointed out that the flows of internal migration reflect the trends of regional polarisation and metropolization.

Data are not sufficient to reliably assess the links between internal and external migration. Our expert assessment based on anecdotal evidence and the comparison of regional distribution of population, age structures and migration leads (Fig. 2.18-2.21) to the following tentative conclusion: from sparsely populated, rural areas with a predominant aged population, young people migrate to larger cities, for example to study, while the population of urban areas (with a younger population) tends to move abroad.

### **2.3. Main characteristics of migrants**

**International migration:** The main characteristics of migrants changed during the last two decades due to the alteration of the flows and goals of migration.

Due to emigration, Lithuania first of all loses young people and people of employable age. At the beginning of 1990s emigrants of employable age accounted for 62% of migrants (Statistics Lithuania, 1993, p. 119). Their share increased to more than 80% of officially registered emigrants during the last decade. The share of persons aged 20-35 increased from 28% in 1992 to more than 50% during the last decade (Table 2.11, Fig. 2.22), while their share in the population decreased from 23.8% to 18.0% (Statistics Lithuania, 1993, p. 14; Statistics Lithuania, 2011b, p. 46, 48). The share of children (0-15 years old) has decreased both among emigrants and in the resident population (from 26.9% to 10.2% among emigrants and from 23.8% to 15.0% in the resident Lithuanian population).

According to a survey of 2005 (Statistics Lithuania, 2008, p. 20), 58% of the persons who moved abroad without officially declaring their emigration are childless, 16.6% took their children with them and 17.3% left them at home<sup>3</sup>. Similar data is not available for persons

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<sup>3</sup> 8% of emigrants have not given any information on this issue.

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who have declared their emigration, but it is likely that there is also a considerable share of parents who migrate without their children.

The gender structure of emigrants changed, but fluctuated around 50% according to official emigration data (Fig. 2.22). Receiving country data on the population by citizenship indicate that gender patterns differ greatly depending on the receiving country. In Germany, 70% of all registered Lithuanian citizens are female, while the corresponding percentages in Ireland are 53% and in Spain 48%, to quote only percentages from the most relevant receiving countries for which data by sex is available<sup>4</sup>. As a whole, more women than men migrate to other EU states, although their share in the population of the relevant age groups is about equal. Married women emigrate less than married men, meanwhile, the number of married men among the emigrants remains similar. Men leave their families more often to go abroad than women (Fig 2.24). In 2011 in Lithuania 38,900 more married women than married men were accounted for, while in 2001 this difference was only 8,700 (Statistics Lithuania, 2011b, p. 47).

According to data from surveys of 2001-2002 and 2006-2007, most of the emigrants, who have not declared their departure are low skilled workers (Table 2.12) and have secondary specializations and secondary education (Table 2.13). On the other hand, the percentage of high skilled workers and emigrants with higher education is relatively high, and their share is increasing. In 2008, a survey of emigrants showed that nearly half of them have higher education, while only 44% of their activity corresponded to their qualifications (Viešosios politikos..., 2008a, p. 26).

Most emigrants had not been working for one year and longer before emigration (Table 2.14) and their part has been rapidly increasing in only one year under the influence of the crisis (from 56% in 2008 up to 81.3% in 2009). Employment and economic activity of emigrants who have been previously employed in Lithuania are very diverging, but the share of workers who had been employed in manufacturing, wholesale and retail trade, and construction before emigration were relatively more important than for other economic activities. This, however, has also changed substantially in only one year time (Table 2.14).

There are many students from Lithuania in other countries. Their number increased from 5,162 in 2005 to, 8,802 in 2009 (Statistics Lithuania, 2011c, p. 56). Every year about 4,000 (2% of the total number of) students of Lithuanian schools of higher education have temporarily studied abroad (Statistics Lithuania, 2010b, p. 54) and about the same number of foreign students has studied in Lithuania (Statistics Lithuania, 2010b, p. 54).

**Internal migration:** There is little information about the characteristics of internal migrants. In 2009, almost 31.2% of persons who moved to urban areas were aged 20-29 years, 20.4% were aged 30-39, while only 9.0% were 60 and older; among those who moved to rural areas, these were respectively 22.8%, 19.4% and 10.1% (Statistics Lithuania, 2010a, p. 190). As indicated above, the share of the youngest age group is probably underestimated as young people often do not register at their place of study.

### **3. Nation-wide labour market and social development trends under the influence of emigration**

#### **3.1. Economic and labour market developments**

The authors of a study on return migration (Sipavičienė, et al., 2009) claim that due to migration, Lithuania first loses young people (around half the migrants are young people under 30 and around 80% of migrants are people under 40; see Fig. 2.22), which means that in the future it will affect both – the development of demographic processes (wedlock, fertility,

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<sup>4</sup> Eurostat (2011): Population by sex, age and citizenship (migr\_pop1ctz). in: <http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu>, Statistics Database, Population and social conditions, Population (populat), International migration and Asylum, Population by citizenship and country of birth (accessed 23.11.2011).

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family) and of labour resources, which might force the country to import them from third countries.

The effects of emigration in Lithuania became particularly noticeable both during the period of economic growth (2005-2008) and economic crisis (2009-2010). In the period of economic growth, Lithuania has experienced shortages of labour force due to emigration. This labour emigration, particularly of highly qualified professionals, decreased the possibilities of economic growth.

A research by the Centre for Economic and Legal Consultations accomplished and published before the crisis in 2007 revealed that the shrinking labour supply partially due to emigration is unable to meet the labour market needs. Economic growth which began in 2002 can be identified as the main reason for the rise in labour demand in Lithuania. Meanwhile, emigration and the negative natural growth of the population are the major causes of reduction of the labour force supply in Lithuania. The study showed that as many as 41% of the surveyed companies representatives considered emigration as the main reason impeding staff retention and recruitment (EKTKC, 2007).

The analysis of labour demand in this study also revealed that Lithuanian companies tend to choose solutions for labour shortage problems, which have a short-term impact on the overall economy. Wage increases dominate among these methods. Most companies involved in the study plan to address labour shortage by hiring cheaper labour from non-EU countries in the future. The study emphasizes the fact that in the short-term, immigration helps to solve labour shortages, although it is associated with additional social problems and costs.

Sometimes the phenomenon of emigration is used as a scapegoat or tool for promoting the interests of professional groups due to its popularity. For instance, the association INFOBALT<sup>5</sup> estimates that the lack of ICT specialists will be quite significant as early as in 2014, but this statement is not supported by concrete numbers. According to the results of a survey, the representatives of the Lithuanian ICT industry claim that by 2015 the ICT industry in Lithuania will lack 6,000 specialists (Kijauskiene, 2012). Emigration was mentioned as one of the factors influencing these developments. However, the two main reasons behind the underlying trend are an approaching drop of entrants in higher education due to the decrease of the birth rate during the nineties and the low popularity of technological studies among the Lithuanian youth.

The issues of migration of health professionals have been investigated more intensively. There are attempts to analyse actual emigration as well as emigration intentions. Some statistical data is available only as of 2004, when the Lithuanian authorities started to issue Certificates of Good Standing (CGS) for health professionals wishing to practice abroad (Padaiga et al., 2011, p. 395). As the certificate holders might finally choose not to emigrate or to emigrate only on a short-term basis, this data does not reflect effective migration flows (ibid.). Further, it does not catch the health professionals who do not apply for a CGS although they intend to or effectively migrate<sup>6</sup>. According to this data, 2.7% of all Lithuanian physicians obtained a CGS in 2004 but this proportion decreased in the following years<sup>7</sup>. For nurses, however, data show a rising trend while the numbers for dentists have rather fluctuated (Padaiga et al., pp. 395-396)<sup>8</sup>. Comparing these three groups of health professionals, the proportion with CGS was highest among the dentists in 2009.

Further, for measuring emigration of health professionals and better comparison between intended and effective migration, researchers compared different data sources: foreign

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<sup>5</sup> Founded in 1994, INFOBALT ([www.infobalt.lt](http://www.infobalt.lt)) is a locally and internationally recognized representative association of the Lithuanian ICT industry. The association unites 130 strong members, including national and global businesses, universities, education and research institutions, with a network of 10,000 experienced ICT professionals.

<sup>6</sup> For example, as they choose not to practise their profession in the country of migration.

<sup>7</sup> Down to 0.9% in 2009.

<sup>8</sup> Nurses: from 0.4% of all nurses in 2005 to 1.1% in 2009. Dentists:

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registries of health professionals with CGS and contracts with the State Patient Fund (Padaiga et al., 2011, pp. 399-400)<sup>9</sup>. For *medical doctors*, it appears that 342 of 542 certificate holders (63%) were listed on foreign registries and it was found that 35% in the 2004-2005 period and 33.3% in the 2005-2006 period either had no contracts with the State Patient Fund or their contracts have expired (ibid., p. 399). Research of foreign registries found that 67.5% of Lithuanian CGS holders in 2004-2005 and 54.3% in 2005-2006 were registered abroad. During both periods, the largest proportions of medical doctors from Lithuania were registered in the UK, Denmark, Sweden, France and Norway (ibid.)<sup>10</sup>. 51.2% of the 273 *nurses* with certificates were listed on foreign registries. In the 2004-2005 and 2005-2006 periods, the largest proportions of nurses abroad were registered in the UK, Ireland and the Scandinavian countries (ibid., p. 399)<sup>11</sup>. *Dentists* appeared to have a greater propensity to emigrate – 90 (73%) of the 123 certified dentists were listed in foreign registries. The largest proportion of dentists was registered in the UK, Norway and Denmark<sup>12</sup>. A comparison of domestic and foreign data sources showed that about 60% of medical doctors, 50% of nurses and 70% of dentists with CGSs were listed in foreign registries.

Experts claim that the health professionals applying for the issuing of CGSs have serious migration intentions. A number of surveys aiming at evaluating the intentions of Lithuanian health professionals to emigrate are available. The first survey was accomplished in 2002 (Stankūnas et al., 2004, pp. 68-74)<sup>13</sup> and indicated that 60.7% of medical residents and 26% of physicians intended to leave for the EU Member States or other countries. The survey also showed that the first choice countries were the UK, Germany and the Nordic countries. Almost 15% of medical residents and 5% of physicians planned to leave for the EU Member States on a permanent basis. It was a definitive decision of 2.5% of medical residents and 3.8% of physicians. The major reasons indicated for leaving were higher salaries, better professional possibilities and a better quality of life. For medical residents, a previous visit abroad for professional reasons increased their intention of working abroad significantly. In the case of physicians, the age was the factor that significantly decreased the intention; however having friends abroad increased the intention by more than three times.

The last survey among graduates of studies in the field of dentistry claims (Janulyte et al., 2011, pp. 224-230) that 32.4% of graduates from all specialties mentioned their intentions to emigrate from Lithuania. The highest rate of emigration intentions was found among dental assistants (35.5%) and in general among graduates of dental medicine (26.9%). Factors related to higher reported intentions to emigrate were relatives or friends residing abroad, self-rating of personal unhappiness, or residence in large cities. Every fourth (23.1%) dental hygienist, assistant and technician graduate had already planned, arranged and organised themselves for emigration. Main preferred destination countries are the UK, Ireland, Norway and Sweden. Of all dentistry professionals, the highest rate of reported intentions to emigrate was among dental hygienists, assistants and technicians, therefore many of them are not planning to join the Lithuanian professional community. The results show that Lithuania is a major provider of specialists of dentistry in the context of international migration.

The aforementioned research undertaken for the WHO (Paidaga et al., 2011) summarizes the findings of the different Lithuanian surveys on migration intentions: among the migration factors low salaries, long working hours, perceived low prestige, unsatisfactory working conditions are the instigators of migration which is facilitated by the fact that some of the destination countries (UK, Norway) practice very active recruitment via specialised agencies and provide attractive induction schemes (ibid, pp. 408-409).

<sup>9</sup> Padaiga et al. refer to the results of a study undertaken in the frame of a thesis by Pukas at Kaunas University (2008), using data for the periods 2004-2005 and 2005-2006.

<sup>10</sup> UK: 103 and 65, DK: 38 and 11, SE: 30 and 8, FR: 17 and 1 and NW: 10 and 4.

<sup>11</sup> UK: 25 and 45, IE: 14 and 14 and Scandinavian countries: 17 and 9.

<sup>12</sup> UK: 46 and 27, NW: 5 and DK: 4.

<sup>13</sup> 242 medical residents and 497 physicians were surveyed. "Residency" is a stage of graduate medical training. A medical resident is thus a person who has received a medical degree and who practices medicine under the supervision of fully licensed physicians, usually in a hospital or clinic.

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Experts of the SEB Bank stress that the impact of emigration on the labour market has been increasing. For example some researchers claim, that during the Russian crisis (1998) which had influenced the Lithuanian economy, the unemployment rate of the unskilled labour force (20.7% in 2000) had significantly increased and was twice higher than the unemployment rate of skilled workers (10.7% in 2000). High unemployment rates among the unskilled labour force at that time were a clear incentive for emigration; therefore, it can be argued that emigration among this group has decreased the pressure on the labour market. In particular reduced the volume of the unskilled labour force from 2000 to 2004 (it declined by 82,900 – from 944,600 to 861,000) and increased the share of skilled labour force (from 726,900 to 759,000, or 32,000 people) among the Lithuanian workforce.

According to the estimates of the Labour Force Survey conducted by Statistics Lithuania, the unemployment rate in the country has substantially decreased between 2004 (from 23.2%) and the end of 2007 (down to 4.2%) (see Fig. 3.4), in the context of both economic growth and on-going migration. Under the influence of the financial and economic crisis, unemployment started to rise in 2008 and soared to a peak of 18.3% in the second quarter of 2010, when migration was again on the rise. Afterwards, unemployment showed a downward trend, reaching a level of 15.6% in the second quarter of 2011 and decreasing by almost 3 percentage points within one year. The decrease of long-term unemployment for the first time during a period of three years is an auspicious sign. According to the LFS, in the 2<sup>nd</sup> quarter of 2011 long-term unemployment was 8% (Fig. 3.4). Since long-term unemployment has been decreasing slower than short-term unemployment, the overall share of long-term unemployed among total unemployment is still increasing; in 2011 it has passed over the level of 50% (Fig. 3.5).

Figure 3.6 demonstrates that despite an increase in registered unemployment, the number of recipients of unemployment benefits during the past two years has been decreasing rather substantially; only in the beginning of 2011 it stabilized at the level of 14%. It means that less than 14% of unemployed persons receive unemployment benefits and only 2% of unemployed participate in Active Labour Market Policy measures. According to the Lithuanian legislation, unemployment benefits are paid for 6 months by the State Social Insurance Fund. Since long-term unemployment is increasing, the number of recipients of unemployment benefits is decreasing. The decreasing number of recipients of benefits and the minor role of ALMP policy measures are signs of a predominance of austerity measures in the labour market policy.

A specific feature of the Lithuanian labour market is the high number of minimum monthly wage earners even during periods of economic growth. In periods of economic decline this number of low wage earners tends to increase even more. In October 2010 the share of employees who had earned the minimum monthly wage and less grew by 6.2 percentage points as compared to October 2008 and made up one fifth of all employees (Table 3.1). High unemployment rates create pressure on wages and it is expected that the large share of low wage earners will persist for several years. According to data of Eurostat, the average salary in the main destination countries being 3-6 times higher than in Lithuania (Fig. 3.1), and the combination of all the factors might act as a motivation for further emigration from Lithuania.

The afore mentioned study from the SEB bank furthermore predicts that emigration will also put pressure on potential output, which makes it clear that Lithuania's economy will hardly reach even a level of 5-6% growth in the coming years. As compared with recent years, it would be a much slower rate of growth but in the context of negative demographic trends it would actually require 10-15% growth in labour productivity, which is quite unrealistic in the wake of the investment drought during the crisis. Therefore, if emigration flows do not abate from current level for 3-4 years, one should not reject the possibility of Lithuania's GDP growth falling to as low as 1-2% and expect that immigration will plug the labour market gaps (SEB, 2011, pp. 25-29).

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During the last financial and economic crisis emigration has helped to cope with the consequences of the crisis as high rates of emigration and remittances have compensated the shortages of the weak safety net in Lithuania. According to data of the SEB Bank (Table 3.2), over the past decade, the volume of remittances to Lithuania has significantly increased, from EUR 57.87 million in 2000 to EUR 1.19 billion in 2010. After a short decrease in 2003, remittances nearly grew by ten times until 2007. With the crisis, the volume of remittances started to decrease, sharply declining between 2008 and 2009 but rising again afterwards and even exceeding the level of 2007 in 2010. In proportion to the GDP, remittances made up 4.3% of GDP in 2010 (against 0.4% 10 years before). Increasing remittances of emigrants have partially compensated the decrease of household incomes: in 2010 remittances accounted for 23.9% of the total net salary fund, which is nearly ten times more than at the beginning of the decade and represents an increase of 8.6 percentage points as compared to the previous year (SEB, 2011, p. 28). It is worth mentioning that this amount of financial resources was received via official bank transfers and does not include direct cash transfers and commodities. Experts claim that despite an increasing amount of remittances in the past decade, the Lithuanian economy “does not suffer from dependence” on remittances and in macroeconomic regard the influence of remittances is limited. Unfortunately, no data exists about how remittances are spent.

During the periods of the recent crisis, emigration decreased the pressure on the domestic labour market; the level of unemployment was partially reduced by emigration flows. The importance of remittances sent by emigrants as a part of households' income has increased and they helped to survive under the circumstances of a weak system of social protection. It means that emigration has played the role of a buffer which absorbed the effects of the economic crisis.

### **3.2. Social security**

Lithuania belongs to the group of countries with a comparatively small social protection budget and a weak minimum income scheme or safety net. It means that the Lithuanian social security system is not attractive for potential (im)migrants and might be seen as one of the push factors for emigration.

As mentioned above, the main countries of destination for Lithuanian citizens during the whole period studied were: the Russian Federation, Poland, the United Kingdom, Ireland, the United States, Spain, Israel, Germany, Latvia, and Canada. At the present moment the main destination countries of migration are the EU Member States (UK, Ireland, Spain and Germany). Social protection of migrants from Lithuania to these countries thus falls under the scope of application of the EU coordination legislation. Since 1 May 2004 EU regulations on coordination of social security schemes have been applying to Lithuania as to any other EU Member State; the new Regulation (EC) No. 883/2004 on the coordination of social security systems became effective as of May 2010. As of 1 January 2007 the “old” Regulation No.1408/71 has been applying also to third country nationals, stateless persons and refugees who move within the European Union and have legal employment. Insofar as Lithuanian social security schemes are much weaker in comparison to those of the destination countries, the application of the EU regulations on social security guaranteed an improvement of the quality of social protection for low skilled emigrants in particular.

Nevertheless the flows of migration also include the CIS countries which have concluded bilateral social security agreements with Lithuania. In particular, agreements exist with Belarus, Russia (came into effect on 29 May 2001), Ukraine (the previous agreement based on the territorial principle was replaced by a new one, effective as of 8 February 2002), the USA (came into effect on 17 January 2003) and Canada (effective as of 1 November 2006).

Under the agreements with Belarus and Ukraine, each country pays pensions to its pensioners who have moved abroad for residence according to the proportionality principle. The agreement with Russia is based on a territorial principle which means that Lithuania recognises insurance records accomplished in Russia, grants and pays pensions to those

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persons who have arrived from Russia and claim benefits in Lithuania and vice versa. The territorial principle has no economic substantiation and is applied only in relation to some (former Soviet) countries, as it was the only possible outcome of negotiations with Russia.

A person who is under the age of retirement and who leaves for a country which is not a party of the European Interim Agreement on Social Security and which has not entered a bilateral agreement with Lithuania may find himself/herself in a difficult situation regarding social security coverage. If this person renounces Lithuanian citizenship he/she may not be entitled to a pension from the Republic of Lithuania. Where there is a bilateral agreement, pensions are sent to the relevant authority of the foreign state, which transfers money to such pensioners. Pensions are not sent on an individual basis, as the costs of such sending would be too high. The money can be transferred to accounts opened with Lithuanian banks. Pension is sent to a pensioner permanently residing in a foreign state in the currency of that state at the official exchange rate established by the Bank of Lithuania. Thus, the amount of pension depends on the currency exchange rate fluctuations.

Migrants returning to Lithuania have access to basic emergency medical care under the same conditions and to the same extent as residents of Lithuania. For access to further health care services, the returning migrant must either pay health insurance contributions, belong to the group of persons insured by the State (pensioners, registered unemployed, children social assistance recipients, etc.) or cover the cost of treatment by him/herself. Basically, health care is free of charge but some approved and listed health care services require a patient's contribution which is not reimbursable.

### **3.3. Poverty and Social Exclusion**

In 2010 as compared to 2009 at-risk-of-poverty threshold has decreased by EUR 35 (15%) for a single person and EUR 79 (16%) for a family of two adults with two children younger than 14 years (Table 3.3 in the Annex). The decrease of the at-risk-of-poverty threshold is an indicator that on average households' income during 2009 has declined.

The continuous rise of income quintile share ratio from 5.9 in 2008 to 7.3 in 2010 allows the assumption that the burden of the crisis was borne mainly by the poorer part of population and the profits of the recovery are shared unequally (Fig. 3.2).

The Lithuanian NRP (National Reform Programme) targets for inclusive growth are given in the Table 3.4 of the Annex. The employment rate for the age group of 20-64 in Lithuania in 2010 was 64.4% and 1.09 thousand of Lithuanians were at risk of poverty/ severe material deprivation/ living in households of very low work intensity (Table 3.4)<sup>14</sup>.

Two of three sub-indicators (at-risk-of-poverty/ severe material deprivation/ living in households of very low work intensity) in 2010 as compared with 2009 have worsened, namely the number or share of people living in households with very low work intensity and the number or share of severely materially deprived people (Table 3.5). The proportion of people living in households with very low work intensity increased mostly (by 2.3 percentage points or 33%), the share of severely deprived people increased by 4.4 percentage points or 29%.

The at-risk-of-poverty rate before social transfers has also increased from 27.2% in 2008 to 29.4% in 2009 and to 31.8% in 2010 (Fig. 3.3). However, social safety net or system of social transfers was able to keep the at-risk-of-poverty rate almost at the same level, e.g. close to 20%.

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<sup>14</sup> The employment rate is calculated by dividing the number of persons aged 20 to 64 in employment by the total population of the same age group. The indicator is based on the EU Labour Force Survey. The survey covers the entire population living in private households and excludes those in collective households such as boarding houses, halls of residence and hospitals. The employed population consists of those persons who during the reference week did any work for pay or profit for at least one hour, or were not working but had jobs from which they were temporarily absent.



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The increase of the number of the recipients of social assistance benefits (Fig. 3.7) indicates that more people are becoming clients of the safety net which is the last resort of the social protection system. The social assistance benefits (*socialinė pašalpa*) which are paid from the State budget and constitute the main income support to some extent compensate the loss of unemployment benefits<sup>15</sup>. The data on at-risk-of-poverty rate of persons aged 18 and older by activity status (Table 3.6) and data on in-work at-risk-of-poverty rates by status of employment and by gender (Table 3.7) inform that the burden of the crisis was borne mainly by persons with a lower work intensity (unemployed, inactive, self-employed or employed persons except employees) rather than by employees.

The situation of the different types of households was analysed carefully starting with the meta-indicator of people at risk of poverty or social exclusion by household type (Table 3.8) and then going deeper to two sub-indicators: severe material deprivation rate by household type (Table 3.9) and at-risk-of-poverty rate before and after social transfers by household type (Table 3.10).

The analysis demonstrates that household types that suffered from the crisis during 2010 were households with the highest at-risk-of-poverty rate. All three lists (Table 3.8, 3.9 and 3.10) are led by single persons (younger rather than older, single male rather than single female); single parents with dependent children; two adults with three or more children. Table 3.10 has additional information about the influence of social transfers (including pensions) in decreasing at-risk-of-poverty rate. In general, the role of social transfers is increasing. Particularly social transfers decrease the at-risk-of-poverty rate of older adults (pensions), of single females (pensions play a crucial role), and of families with three and more dependent children (social transfers). Attention attracts the fact that social transfers play a permanently decreasing role in assisting single parents with dependent children. This type of household leads the rating of the households in all three analysed tables. In 2010 the role of social transfers in decreasing at-risk-of-poverty rate of single parents with dependent children (6.2 percentage points) was minimal.

It is possible to suppose that population of working age is more inclined to migration. Statistics demonstrate that one fifth of the working population receives salaries which are equal to the minimum monthly wage (hereinafter – MMW). In 2010 in-work at-risk-of-poverty rate climbed to 12.3% and reached its peak<sup>16</sup>. Unemployment in combination with the fragmented and insufficient framework of unemployment insurance and the low level of social assistance benefits is the main reason for comparatively high rates of poverty among the working age population. Another reason for in-work poverty is the low level of the net minimum monthly wage. In 2008-2011 the net MMW was and still is at EUR 196.5 despite the hot debates, thus amounting to less than the at-risk-of-poverty threshold<sup>17</sup>.

Several groups of working people are more exposed to in-work poverty than others in Lithuania. This concerns low educated people, single parents with dependent children as well as family workers, while the rate of self-employed was half of that, and employees accounted for the lowest rate.

### 4. Labour market and social development trends in net migration loss / gain regions

#### 4.1. Identification of net migration loss / gain regions

The territorial distribution of Lithuania's population is fairly even. Yet certain trends can be observed: the eastern and south-eastern parts of Lithuania, distinguished by a hilly relief, low

<sup>15</sup> Social assistance benefits are paid to the family or single resident if the monthly income is below the level of the state-supported income- SSI (i.e. EUR 101 per family member per month). The amount of the social assistance benefit equals to 90% of the difference between the amount of the SSI per family or single resident and the average monthly income per family or single resident. Thus, in 2011 when the SSI amounted to EUR 101 per month, a single resident possessing no property exceeding the norms set and not receiving any income was entitled to a social assistance benefit equalling to 90% of the amount of the SSI, i.e. EUR 91.

<sup>16</sup> 2005 – 10.0%; 2006 – 9.9; 2007 – 8.0%; 2008 – 9.4%; 2009 – 10.4%.

<sup>17</sup> Which amounted to EUR 208.5 in 2008, EUR 240.7 in 2009 and EUR 203 in 2010.



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productivity soils and high levels of forestation, are relatively sparsely populated, whereas the core part (around and between Vilnius and Kaunas) and the western part are more densely populated (Fig. 2.18).

The processes of population development in Lithuania during the last years have clearly pointed on two types of territorially differentiated areas (Fig. 4.1 and Table 4.1):

- on the one side, **areas of strong depopulation** which are situated on the periphery of the country (first of all in border municipalities of the Utena, Tauragė, Šiauliai, Alytus and other counties), are usually sparsely populated, have an old population structure, a high natural decrease (see Fig. 2.18 and 2.19, Table 4.1) and negative net migration rates;
- on the other side, **areas of population increase** (the municipalities of Vilnius and Kaunas districts and two district municipalities in the western part of Lithuania – Klaipėda and Kretinga) which are suburban areas situated around the biggest cities. Population growth is seen only in municipalities with high positive net internal migration (Krupickaitė, 2007) (see Fig. 2.15 and Table 4.1).

For example, in the Klaipėda district municipality, where the population increase was the highest in Lithuania during the time period 2001-2011 (+7.4%), the average annual natural decrease was only -0.39% and total net migration was positive, with a rate of +11.5% (the most important in Lithuania).

On the opposite, in one of the most depopulated areas of Lithuania (the **Ignalina** district municipality located in the *Utena county*), in the same period the drop in population of -21.4% (even -29.5% in the period 1990-2011), was mainly caused by an average annual natural decrease of -13.43% (the highest in Lithuania) accompanied by a negative net total migration (-5.08%). Other municipalities are characterized by a more or less average (old) age structure of the population, a negative natural change and prevailing tendencies of out-migration (internal and/or external). For example, in the **Akmenė** district municipality (located in the *Šiauliai county*), another area mostly affected by depopulation in Lithuania between 2001 and 2011 (population decrease was -22.0%), depopulation was mostly induced by high negative total net migration (of -10.4%), exacerbated by a negative average natural decrease (-5.9%). In the Lithuanian municipality with the highest population decrease, the **Visaginas** municipality (Utena county), out-migration, particularly external migration, plays an even more important role for depopulation and is negative in all municipalities. In Visaginas, the average net external migration has been the worst (-11.9%) (Table 4.1)<sup>18</sup>.

Depopulation in Lithuania has been a long-term process, which already began in the 1960s due to rural-urban migration: in the period 1959-1976 in rural areas<sup>19</sup> population increased only in Vilnius and Kaunas districts (Rupas, Vaitekūnas, 1980, p. 90). In the rural areas of the aforementioned Eastern part of Lithuania (now Utena county) the process began earlier and was stronger than anywhere else in Lithuania: in the period 1959-1976 the population decline in rural areas was higher than -20% (Rupas, Vaitekūnas, 1980, p. 90). A result of this process is an old population age structure,<sup>20</sup> which has predetermined the natural decrease. Now, the natural decrease is a main factor of depopulation in these areas but out-migration still exacerbates this process. The areas of strong long-term depopulation and population ageing have now lost most of their emigration potential.

A result of the depopulation is the rapidly increasing number of sparsely populated areas – with only 10-15 habitants per 1 sq km – ha in particular in the Alytus and Utena counties (Fig. 4.2). 39% of the country's territory can be regarded as sparsely populated and depopulated (Daugirdas, Baubinas, 2007) and there are no real possibilities of improvement of the demographic situation in these territories. The population density 10/1 sq km can be taken as

<sup>18</sup> Data for calculation is taken from Statistics Lithuania Database and Statistics Lithuania, 2011c.

<sup>19</sup> Areas of districts without urban areas (territories of towns).

<sup>20</sup> On 1 of January 2011 the proportion of urban population in Utena county was 56.4%, while the total urban population in Lithuania was 66.9%; in the Ignalina district municipality the share of urban population is only 35.7% (Statistics Lithuania Database).

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a threshold value for irreversible depopulation processes. In 2006, there were 35 elderships in Lithuania (accounting for more than 10% of the country's total area) situated under this threshold. Most of them (19) are located in municipalities of Utena county (in Anykščiai, Ignalina, Molėtai and Zarasai districts). These elderships are characterised by the worst demographic indices, with a birth rate below 3% in 2005, whereas in the Labanoras eldership not a single child was born in 2005 (Daugirdas, Baubinas, 2008). The death rate amounted to 3-5% per year and it would be true to say that the dying-out of population is the main trend in these areas. The proportion of the population aged 66 and older is higher than 30% in these elderships and the share of children (aged below 15) lower than 15% (Ibid.).

According to an investigation of 70 of the most sparsely populated elderships (Fig. 4.2) undertaken in 2006 (Daugirdas, Baubinas, 2008), the socio-economic situation in these areas is also poor: unfavourable farming conditions, prevailing occupation in farming in very small (smaller than 5 ha) farms (63.0%, while the average in Lithuania is 54.5%), high levels of unemployment (average of 15.4% in 2006, while total unemployment in Lithuania was 5.6%) and passive attitudes, increasing numbers of social risk families, and increasing dependency on social grants and state support. Population ageing, intensive depopulation and reduction of population density are persisting features and are likely to be dominant also in the coming years. Unfavourable natural geographical conditions for farming, social degradation and intensive depopulation are serious obstacles for the economic and social development of these territories (ibid.).

Most areas affected by (long-term) out-migration-and depopulation are municipalities with low rates of urban population (Fig. 2.18). As the research shows (Andriušaitienė, 2007, p. 117), the level of urbanization is one of the key indicators of the quality of the labour force structure, and thus a key indicator of economic development potential. Therefore, when analysing the social impacts of emigration in Lithuania it seems reasonable to link it to an analysis of the situation of peripheral, more rural areas.

Presently, the population and migration loss areas identified above (Ignalina and Visaginas in the Utena county and Akmenė in the Šiauliai county) rank among the 14 selected problem areas, as determined by the Law on Regional Development of the Republic of Lithuania<sup>21</sup> which are dispersed throughout the territory of Lithuania<sup>22</sup>. This is why the situation of these areas in the municipalities will be analysed in more detail. Another reason is that the Utena district municipality is part of another problem region which includes other municipalities of Utena county also hit by high depopulation. Indeed, a special target of the law is the so-called Ignalina Nuclear Power Plant (INPP) region constituted by the Ignalina district municipality, Zarasai district municipality and Visaginas town municipality located in the north-eastern part of the country<sup>23</sup>. Interestingly, the Ignalina district and Visaginas town municipality, which are both affected by high depopulation and out-migration and are part of

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<sup>21</sup> According to the Law on Regional Development (enacted in July 2000 and last amended on 8 April 2010), the Government may form regions out of one county, of several bordering counties or of municipalities too. When necessary for the implementation of the national regional policy, the identification of problem areas, with specific social and/or economic problems is operated in accordance with two criteria: 1) the average annual registered ratio of unemployed and the working-age people is 60% or higher than the national average; 2) the average annual income ratio of welfare recipients and other residents is 60% or higher than the national average. An area identified as problem area could correspond to 1) the territory of one region, 2) the territory of several regions with common administrative boundaries or the territory of the municipalities of those regions with common administrative boundaries and 3) the part of the region.

<sup>22</sup> Among these 14 problem areas, 3 municipalities (out of 7) are located in Šiauliai county, 2 municipalities (out of 5) are in the Taurage county and 3 municipalities (out of 7) are located in the Utena county. See map indicating all problem areas under: <http://www.vrm.lt/nrp/index.php?id=192>.

<sup>23</sup> Taking into respect the complex and regional character of the consequences resulting from the decommissioning of the Nuclear Power Plant, the Lithuanian Government adopted Resolution No. 287 in February 2002 by which Ignalina APP (region was constituted from the municipalities of Ignalina and Zarasai districts and Visaginas town and the principle of the conclusion of the Regional Development Council was established. In November 2002, a public enterprise, the INPP Regional Development Agency was established with the task to organise and carry out the preparation of social and economic projects. In the summer of 2003, the Regional Development Agency initiated the preparation of the INPP Development Plan.

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the same INPP problem area, feature very different characteristics in terms of demographic and socio-economic development.

**Ignalina district municipality:** is located in the eastern part of Utena county, at the border with Belarus. The area is geographically characterised by plains and hills with numerous lakes and waterways; one-third of the territory is covered with forests. 18,892 persons lived in the Ignalina District municipality on 1,447 sq km on 1 January 2011 with a density of population of 13.1 persons per sq km - one of the lowest in Lithuania. In five of twelve elderships (*seniūnija*) of this municipality the population density is lower than 10 persons per sq km (Ignalinos rajono..., 2011, p.p. 14-21). Within this municipality there are two small towns: the centre of the municipality Ignalina (5,948 inhabitants) and Dūkštas (909 inhabitants); Ignalina district municipality has a high share of rural population (64.2% in 2011). Demographic indicators point to an above average ageing population: the ageing index (234 in January 2011) was the worst in Lithuania (Lithuanian average is 144), while the old-age dependency index<sup>24</sup> (54.9!), was also the highest in the country (Lithuanian average is at 34) (Statistics Lithuania Database).

**Visaginas municipality:** Visaginas is a newer town, which was founded in 1977 in the middle of a forest. It was built for the purpose and during the construction and exploitation of the Ignalina Nuclear Power Plant (INPP) in 13 years<sup>25</sup>. The most important part of the population (about 90%) in the town consisted of immigrants of non-Lithuanian ethnicity from other republics of the former Soviet Union. In the period of 1990-2011 the population in Visaginas decreased from 33,701 to 28,048 inhabitants (by 16.8%) and in the period from 2001 and 2011 depopulation caused by out-migration was the highest in the country. Extreme was the year 1992, when net migration amounted to about 8.9% of the population. Most emigrants who left Visaginas were returnees to the former Soviet states. Later, net migration became positive for some years, then turned negative again, but the migration activity of the population in general remained high (Fig. 4.4). A very important feature of the migration flows were the different measures taken in the context of a reduction of the activity of the INPP<sup>26</sup> in the last years. The total number of population remained more stable in the last years because of the high positive natural increase<sup>27</sup> and a young population structure (Krupickaitė, 2005). Indeed, the ageing index of 111 in January 2011 was one of the best in Lithuania and at the same time the old-age dependency index (17) was the lowest in the country and far below the national average of 34 (Statistics Lithuania Database).

**Akmenė district municipality:** is located in the south-western part of Šiauliai county, at the border with Latvia. The district is situated in the lowland of the middle reaches of the largest river in the region – the Venta River. 25,732 persons lived in the Akmenė District municipality on 844 sq km on 1 January 2011 and the density of the population was below national and county average with 30.5 persons per sq km. Within this municipality there are three small towns: the centre of the municipality Naujoji Akmenė (10,721 inhabitants), Venta (2,686 inhabitants) and Akmenė (2,457 inhabitants); the urban population (share of urban 61%) prevails in the district municipality. In (only) one of six elderships (*seniūnija*) of this municipality the population density is lower than 10 persons per sq km (Akmenės rajono..., 2010, p. 11). The population in the municipality in the period 1990-2011 has decreased by -31.5%. As indicated above, depopulation induced by international emigration was high over the last decade and in 2010 only the total net migration in the Akmenė district municipality was -33.3% (Fig. 4.5) (Statistics Lithuania, 2011b, p. 53, 166, 173). Demographic indicators show an ageing process which remains on Lithuanian average with an ageing index of 144 and an old-age dependency ratio of 37 (Statistics Lithuania Database).

<sup>24</sup> Ratio of people older than 60 years per 100 of the 15-59 years old population.

<sup>25</sup> The INPP completely suspended the production of electricity on 31 December 2009.

<sup>26</sup> On 26 February 2002 the Government adopted a resolution on the Ignalina Nuclear Power Plant, which purpose was to mitigate the negative social and economic consequences arising from the decommissioning of the INPP on the inhabitants of this region.

<sup>27</sup> In fact all over the past decade (2001-2011), Visaginas was among the few municipalities with a positive natural population change.

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Beside the migration loss regions it is also possible to identify migration gain areas where the population has been growing quite rapidly. According to preliminary data of the 2011 census, between 2001 and 2011 the population has increased only in three district municipalities: by 6.2% in Vilnius, 7.4% in Klaipėda and 3.2% in Kaunas (Statistics Lithuania, 2011d). This indicates intensive suburbanization, which did not have the conditions to develop in the Soviet years. As was mentioned above, in these areas positive net migration remains the main factor behind population changes (Table 4.1). These areas are characterized by a relatively young population, positive internal net migration from the cities but at the same time a negative external net migration. In the Lithuanian context however, these areas cannot be regarded as disadvantaged problem areas, since migration has constituted a positive factor, which has largely determined the development of these territories. As a result, only the migration loss areas identified above will be dealt with in the two following sections.

### **4.2. Labour market development in net migration loss regions**

Even if there was a high level of emigration to foreign countries in the regions identified under section 4.1, the internal territorial mobility has had more influence on the territorial labour force distribution within the country (Pocius, 2007).

Looking at the labour market developments in rural areas on the one side, and urban areas on the other side, the situation differs widely. According to the Labour Force Survey, unemployment rates in rural areas from 1998 to 2005 remained lower than in urban areas and than the average total unemployment in Lithuania (Fig. 2.9), whereby unemployment indicators all converged to the same level in 2006. From 2006 to 2008 the unemployment rates for both rural and urban areas were at a very low level (around 5%) and equalled the total unemployment in Lithuania. With the beginning of the crisis in 2008 all unemployment rates rapidly increased in Lithuania, but to a higher extent in rural areas, where unemployment reached 22.4% in 2010, widening the gap between rural and urban areas by more than 7 percentage points. One of the important factors for this tendency was a decline in occupied posts by 19.4 percentage points and of job vacancies from 22.118 to 6.666 in 2008-2010 in Lithuania (Statistics Lithuania Database). Many workers originating from rural areas lost their jobs in urban areas and returned to their areas of origin as unemployed. At the same time, long-term unemployment which was lower than in urban areas and the national average until 2006 soared in rural areas (Fig. 4.6). The labour force activity rate in rural areas remained about 10 percentage points lower than in urban areas (Fig. 4.8) since 2001, while the gap between the employment rate in rural and urban areas widened up during the same period with a decreasing trend for rural areas (39.3% in 2010 against 51.8% in urban areas) (Fig. 4.9).

The human resources in rural areas are worse than in urban areas. In 2010, 15.7% of the rural population in Lithuania was 18-24 years old and belonged to the group of early school leavers (Fig. 4.10) who have not accomplished the secondary education which is compulsory in Lithuania. The share of the population aged 20-24 having completed at least upper secondary education is in rural areas significantly lower than in urban areas (Fig. 4.11). In the urban areas the share of early school leavers was more than twice smaller than in rural areas, reaching an amount of 7.9%, and young men have left school more often than young women. In rural areas more young men (22.4% as compared to 12.5% of young women) left school without compulsory secondary education (Statistics Lithuania Database). Life-long learning in rural areas is more than twice less popular than in urban areas (Fig. 4.12) although the Rural Development Plan includes a lot of possibilities for in-service training and retraining (Table 4.2).

A look at the labour market situation on the county level (NUTS3) reveals the following picture:

Labour force shortages in the depopulated areas and out-migration seem to have reduced the pressure on the regional labour market, as the unemployment rate in the **Utena county** during the period 1997-2010 remained at the level of the Lithuanian average (Fig. 4.7).

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Regarding the labour force activity rates and employment rates, the situation is similar with both rates in the Utena county remaining better than on average. However, the recent global crisis seems to have burdened the labour market in Utena county to a much higher extent than in other Lithuanian regions, as can be seen from the fourfold increase of the unemployment rate since 2008 reaching the highest level in the country in 2011 (23.3%) (Statistics Lithuania Database). The same trend is observed in the development of the employment rate which has declined by nearly 10 percentage points in three years.

The labour market situation within the INPP region diverges widely: the Visaginas municipality has a very favourable population age structure with a big proportion of the working-age population (74% as of 1 January 2011). This is the highest rate in Lithuania and it has been increasing over time as opposed to the Ignalina district municipality which has the lowest share of working-age population in Lithuania (57%) (Statistics Lithuania, 2011b), whereby this rate has been decreasing over time. The unemployment rates in Visaginas, notwithstanding the demolition of the INPP, have been on the level of the Lithuanian average throughout 1997-2010, which again could indicate that the massive (return) migration of the immigrant population to their countries of origin might have partly ease the pressure on the labour market induced by the reduction in activity of the nuclear power plant in the early 2000s. But unemployment rates in the Ignalina District municipality have remained at a higher level (Fig. 4.7). According to one author, these higher rates of unemployment demonstrate greater social problems in this part of the INPP region rather than a poorer economic situation. The social problems are related to the specificities of the social class, which has neither cultural links with the region nor alternatives of activity (sometimes, the members of this social class even do not have small subsistence farms) (Burneika et al., 2008: p. 80).

Regarding the situation in the **Šiauliai county**, labour market indicators have constantly been slightly worse than the national average since 1998. The unemployment rate in the Akmenė District municipality in the period 1998-2005, however, remained at a higher level than the Lithuanian average (Fig. 4.7), but has been improving, reaching the same level as in Ignalina district municipality since 2005.

### **4.3. Poverty and social exclusion in net migration loss regions**

“Lithuanian rural areas encounter problems of development, lack of accessibility to basic services, lack of human capital. There are considerable differences in quality of life between rural and urban areas [...]” (Braziene, 2008, p. 246). These conclusions can be supported by the following data.

The rural population is more dependent on social transfers and the proportion of incomes from social transfers in rural areas is bigger than in urban areas. In 2007, the income from social transfers in rural areas was 31% of the disposable income per capita, while in urban areas it was only 18%. Presumably due to the crisis in 2008, the gap between rural and urban areas has decreased (28% in rural areas and 22% in urban areas) (Statistics Lithuania Database).

The results of the surveys on Income and Living Conditions showed that in urban areas, 16.2% of persons received equivalised disposable income in cash which was below the at-risk-of-poverty level in 2010, while in rural areas this share was 28.4% (Table 4.3). The gap between the at-risk-of-poverty levels in rural and urban areas has however been narrowing: the at-risk-of-poverty rate in rural areas has been decreasing over the last years (in 2005 it was 34.6%, in 2009 - 32.7% and in 2010 – 28.4%) but it has increased in urban areas, especially in the largest cities where the at-risk-of-poverty level raised from 10.5% in 2009 to 14.1% in 2010. This trend reflects the situation of unemployment: in towns and rural areas unemployment has bottomed out earlier and the increasing at-risk-of-poverty rate in the largest cities was caused by increasing unemployment in wealthier areas.

Looking at indicators of living conditions and more specifically at material deprivation in the housing dimension, the quality of dwellings in rural areas is worse than in urban areas:

40.8% of dwellings are lacking an indoor flushing toilet, 36.1% are lacking a bath and shower, 30.2% of dwellings have a leaking roof, damp walls/floors or rot in windows frames or floor (Table 4.4).

A closer look at the specific situation in the INPP region reveals that, again, there are huge differences between the municipalities of the region: the economic welfare is noticeably better in Visaginas where wages are twofold and expenditures on housing are lower. In the Ignalina district municipality with a large portion of pensioners, a small but stable income is ensured by social grants (Burneika et al., 2008, p. 78). In Visaginas the quality of dwellings is rather good, because the whole population lives in relatively new blocs of houses equipped with all facilities. In the Ignalina district as well as in the Akmenė District municipalities (Šiauliai county) the situation is similar to the general situation in the Lithuanian rural areas (Akmenės rajono..., 2010, p. 51; Ignalinos rajono..., 2001, p. 37).

## **5. Impact of migration on vulnerable groups**

There are no exceptional problems with the most vulnerable groups in Lithuania. Elderly people are disadvantaged because of general problems of social insecurity. There are no significant groups of post-conflict refugees and IDPs or other ethnic and religious vulnerable communities in the country.

### **5.1. Children**

The most vulnerable group in terms of impact of migration in Lithuania are children. One of the consequences of current migration patterns is family separation. A survey carried out in 2007 by the Office of the Ombudsman on Children's Rights found out that 5% of all Lithuanian children aged under 18 have at least one parent living abroad (OECD, 2010).

Discussing the influence of migration on children, it is important not to forget that from the very beginning of the measurement the index of child wellbeing of Lithuanian children has been among the worst in the EU. In all clusters of child wellbeing measurement<sup>28</sup> Lithuania performs in the bottom third on all domains (Bradshaw et al., 2007, pp. 133-177; Bradshaw, Richardson, 2009, pp. 319-351; Poviliūnas, 2007b). The Innocenti Research Centre has made the same conclusions. The well-being of Lithuanian children, except for health, is far below the average of the reported countries, first of all in the dimensions of 'behaviours and risks' and 'subjective well-being' (UNICEF, 2007).

Children at risk of poverty in Lithuania for the most part tend to come from two types of households: single parent households with dependent children and large families (households with two parents and three or more children (Table 5.1)); whereby it must be noted that the at-risk-of-poverty rates of households with children have diminished to an important extent in these two categories between 2005 and 2009. Material deprivation of households with children has also dropped significantly during this period (Table 5.2).

Some research has been conducted with children who are experiencing the emigration of their parents. This has revealed that the majority of Lithuanian transnational families are nuclear families rearing one child (Maslauskaitė, Stankunienė, 2007). In almost one fifth of these families the migrant member of the household is the mother, while in the majority of the cases it is the father. Transnational families with a migrant mother are more often families with one child of older age compared to the families with a migrant father. The duration of the transnational living most frequently encompasses the time span from one to three years. It is important that along with the expected importance of economic motives, the motives of social injustice play a very significant role in the decisions to migrate. The decision to migrate not always includes considerations and calculations of rewards and losses attached to the migration and in some cases they are taken very spontaneously and on a short notice, having no awareness of possible consequences.

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<sup>28</sup> Child well-being clusters cover seven domains: health, subjective well-being, personal relationships, material resources, education, behaviour and risks, housing and the environment.

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In such transnational families children are most vulnerable and in most cases they do not receive appropriate parental care. Parents frequently diminish, neglect or even ignore the challenges generated by transnational living arrangement for the children and the misconception of this situation has an impact on the fulfilment of their parental roles. Children of transnational families suffer from disruptions in emotional, intellectual and social behaviour, but this state is often neglected or underestimated by their parents (Maslauskaitė, Stankūnienė, 2007, p. 190).

Another research on children who have experienced parental emigration reveals that children usually suffer not only the loss of their loved ones (even though for a short period of time), but also the denial of their own natural negative feelings from outside (Butvilas, Terepaitė, 2008, pp. 70-74). According to the research accomplished by A. Gumuliauskiene, T. Butvilas, and J. Butviliene, the experts stress the following negative consequences of the parents' emigration: children who are being left abandoned do not form tight emotional relations with the rest of the family; they even might act antisocially, aggressively or rebellious; these children also suffer from educational inequality (look: Gumuliauskiene, Butvilas, Butviliene 2008).

Returnee children (or children of immigrants) are confronted with other difficulties in their process of (re)integration into the Lithuanian society. A survey carried out in 2008 by the Office of the Ombudsman on Children's Rights found that during the school year 2007/2008 608 returnee children (and 188 children of foreigners) have been enrolled in Lithuanian schools and that these children need more attention and support than other due to the differences in learning programmes, language skills and social conditions (Office of Ombudsman on Children's Rights, 2009).

### **5.2. Roma**

In Lithuania the 2001 census recorded 2,571 Roma, but some informal sources estimate that the number could be higher (for example the 'Minority Rights Group' estimates 3,000-4,000). According to the data of the census of 2001, 640 Roma lived in Vilnius, 364 in Kaunas (second biggest city of Lithuania), 170 in Šiauliai, 141 in Panevezys, and 58 in Klaipėda<sup>29</sup>. According to data presented in a 2008 report on the Lithuanian population, concentrations of Roma are much less dense in the city of Panevezys and the town of Ukmerge (around 13 households living on a single street). Around one-fifth of Roma in the city of Klaipėda live close to the seaport. During Soviet times, areas with concentrated Roma populations were located in the town of Kedainiai and in the Zokniai district of the city of Šiauliai (CES, 208, pp. 28).

The Roma community in Lithuania is comparatively small and territorially dispersed with one exception. The only compact residency of Roma is in the settlement Kirtimai, nearby Vilnius city, where about 500 Roma live. These numbers are constantly changing, as Roma persons and families constantly move in and out of the settlement. On average, the number of inhabitants in this settlement range from 350 to 500 and the number of houses ranges from 78 to 99. According to the 2001 census, the Roma population of Kirtimai numbered 428 persons living in 72 houses in 2001. According to the information provided by the Department of National Minorities and Lithuanians Living Abroad, the main settlement in Kirtimai comprised 78 houses with 354 inhabitants in 2004. Different sources provide varying estimates of the population and number of houses that make up the Kirtimai settlement. The Roma living in the outskirts of Vilnius could be considered ghettoised and discriminated in regard of housing opportunities.

The Lithuanian Roma community, in comparison to other ethnic groups, is the most visible in Lithuania; therefore it may be regarded as probably the most vulnerable to discrimination. The Human Rights Monitoring Institute has emphasized that certain segments of Roma community suffer exclusion from public life and labour market and experience housing and

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<sup>29</sup> A population census was carried out in Lithuania in 2011 but updated data on Roma from this census is not yet available.

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health problems. 46% of the inhabitants of Roma communities are younger than 15. This can be attributed to their migration patterns and due to their short life expectancy caused by their quality of living. Their societal integration is complicated due to the fact that 40% do not know the official language; only 17% possess higher education and, most importantly, only 8.7% are legally employed. The discrimination of Roma has at least three dimensions: (1) discrimination and stigmatization in mass media, (2) discrimination and stigmatization in public opinion, (3) discrimination and stereotyping opinion by the stakeholders (e.g. employers) which are important for Roma inclusion. All these dimensions are interconnected. (Human Rights Monitoring Institute, 2005; 2011)

In general, the Lithuanian Roma live a sedentary life. According to the data of the survey accomplished in 2008 by the Centre of Ethnic Studies (CES), every second Roma (52%) indicates that he/she has been living in the current city, town or village over 20 years (CES, 2008). Over one-fourth of respondents (27%) indicated that they had been living in the same municipality for 11-20 years, and approximately one-fifth (21%) of the respondents indicated that they had been living in the same municipality for approximately ten years. The duration of residence at a given location is often affected by a person's age, as middle-aged Roma are slightly less sedentary than the Roma population on average. The majority (74%) of Roma respondents aged 26-40 reported to have been living in the same municipality for fewer than five years; this age group accounts for 70% of respondents who said that they had been living in the same place for six to ten years. Roma persons aged 26-35 change their housing more frequently than older Roma.

Regarding housing and living conditions of Roma, according to the data of the population census of 2001, the average amount of useful floor space per person in a Roma dwelling was 10 m<sup>2</sup>. By comparison, the national average was 22.8 m<sup>2</sup> of useful floor space per person in 2001. The report indicated that Roma persons were living with significantly fewer amenities compared to the rest of the population. In 2001 only 65.6% of Roma were living in conventional dwellings equipped with gas or electric cooking facilities, compared to 95.3% of the total population. Only 41.3% of Roma dwellings had piped water (national average: 79.9%), 37.2% were connected to a sewer system (national average: 77.3%), 33.7% had a flushing toilet (national average: 68.6%), and 26.5% had piped hot water (national average: 67.8%).

Educational attainment of Roma differs from the national average. According to the data of the population census of 2001, 25.3% of Roma did not finish the primary school or are illiterate, which is well above the national average (4.6%). Only 15% of Roma reported that they are working under a job contract; 40% reported that they do not have any job and 37% reported that they are working without any kind of agreement. The research data have demonstrated that most of the Roma (83%) have not acquired any profession. 47% of women and 33% of men have reported that they do not have any job experience. The experience of the younger generation of Roma demonstrates that more time spend at school increases the chances of job experience (CES, 2007).

The information and data collected by the CES indicate that parts of the Roma community have moved to foreign countries; however, Roma from neighbouring countries (such as the Kaliningrad area, Russia) also came to Lithuania and migrated within Lithuania. Roma surveyed have experienced both short and long-term emigration, including employment abroad. The average foreign residence was around 6 years. Over half (52%) of the Roma surveyed indicated that both their family members and friends moved abroad and that the majority was employed.

Roma migration, however, does not exclude from the problems of social exclusion and poverty: brought about with emigration. The above mentioned research indicates poverty migration of the Roma within the country, when Roma gradually move to cheaper housing because of too high expenditures. These processes indicate a deepening social marginalisation of the Roma which has started during the economic growth in the country. In



this way, a part of the Roma community is set away from urban centres and opportunities of social development both geographically and socially (CES, 2008: p. 2).

## **6. Policy responses**

Since 2004, the Lithuanian migration policy has become an integral part of the common policies of the EU. The Economic Migration Strategy adopted in Lithuania in 2008 and other strategies and programmes are in accordance with the basic requirements of the EU regulating economic migration and ensuring free mobility of workers.

Until recently, there have been no discussions on migration regulation or the promotion of return migration in Lithuania; it is only in the face of massive labour force shortages and under the pressure from representatives of employers that several measures regulating economic emigration and promoting return migration have been implemented.

### **6.1. Encouragement of circular migration**

No policy measures have been provided for the encouragement of circular migration in Lithuania, yet.

### **6.2. Encouragement of return migration and support of integration of returnees**

According to Sipavičienė (Sipavičienė et al., 2009, p. 60), when it comes to promoting return migration or assisting returnees, a clear distinction is drawn between the so-called “repatriates” and voluntary emigrants. “Repatriates” are individuals deported or those who voluntarily departed from Lithuania during the Soviet period or their descendants and those returning to live in Lithuania. The second group are mostly labour emigrants, who departed from Lithuania already during the independence period and now return. The Government conducts different policy depending on the migrant group concerned. “Repatriates” enjoy very generous and long-term support programmes and since the 1990s, around 150 “repatriate” families have been returning on the annual basis (Sipavičienė et al., 2009, p. 60).

Policy-making in the area of promoting the return of labour migrants and their support makes only initial steps in Lithuania, though activities are quickly developing (Sipavičienė et al., 2009).

The main document on economic migration, is the Economic Migration Strategy (Socialinės apsaugos ir ..., 2007) approved in April 2007 by the Government of the Republic of Lithuania. The strategy has two aims: first, to meet the needs of the Lithuanian labour market and increase the labour force activity rate from 67.4% to 73.0%, and second, to encourage the return of economic migrants and reduce net migration to zero by 2012. In order to achieve the first aim, three objectives have been set: 1) development of long-term economic migration control measures, 2) regulation of economic emigration factors in order to ensure the labour market supply and demand, 3) involvement of workers from third countries, according to the returning local emigrated labour flows, giving priority to the European Union citizens. For the second aim, two objectives have been set: 1) maintaining close contacts with Lithuanian economic emigrants living and working abroad in cooperation with Lithuanian organizations, 2) ensuring effective cooperation between institutions on issues of economic migration.

As a result of this strategy, several other documents or programmes have been developed:

- In December 2008, the Government of the Republic of Lithuania approved “Guidelines of Lithuanian immigration policy” which indicate that “(...) preference should be given [...] to create incentives for decreasing economic emigration, to encourage the return of emigrated citizens of the Republic of Lithuania (...) and to implement selective immigration policy”.
- One group of such programmes is related to the problematic of “brain drain”. In November 2008, the Minister of Education and Science approved the “Programme of return and

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attraction of brains” for the period of 2008-2013”. Its aims are the return and the attraction of PhD students and scientists with doctor degrees and Lithuanian citizenship from abroad and the encouragement of the participation of foreign scientists in scientific researches in Lithuania. A differentiation between specific sectors has not been made under this programme and exact criteria for the implementation of these measures (e.g. numbers of scientists or academics) have not been set.

Another programme is called “Programme of encouragement of internationality of higher education in 2008-2010”. It aims at promoting students and lecturers exchange and at improving the quality of higher education in Lithuania. Better quality of higher education is considered as a factor that could decrease the level of emigration of potential undergraduates’ and attract potential undergraduates from abroad. The main criteria for the implementation of the programme are the development of minimum three international study programmes, the introduction of the European credit transfer system (ECTS) to universities, the use of study international exchange programmes to send more than 800 students from Lithuania to study abroad and 200 lecturers to teach in foreign universities and the attraction of more than 400 students and 50 lecturers from abroad. In 2011 the programme was renewed for the period 2011-2012 with a stronger focus on encouraging the development of international scientific and high education services (international study and exchange programmes, financial support of foreign students in Lithuania, support of information dissemination about Lithuanian sciences and higher education), encouraging Lithuanians living abroad to study in Lithuania and to keep relations with Lithuanian scientists, and developing lithuanistic (baltistic) studies abroad.

Information from a comprehensive study on return migration provides some insights about the opinions of Lithuanians living abroad about return migration policies (Sipavičienė et al., 2009):

According to assessments of representatives of Lithuanian communities abroad, the re-emigration potential, although being small, still exists – among those surveyed more than half of the people expressed the wish to return (54.5%). Although effective realization of this wish often depends on a variety of external factors and frequently emigrants bring forward many reasons that prevent them from returning. Such reasons are vary – starting with the existence of family, children and friends in the destination country (55%), the opinion that they will not find a (well-paid) job in Lithuania (30%), that the social welfare system abroad is better (24%) or – going to more personalized reasons – such as scientific aspirations or negative attitudes towards gays. A considerable part of emigrants indicate that they have nowhere to return to and that their social ties with Lithuania have been severed.

Despite various fears, the majority of the Lithuanian population thinks that return migration needs to be actively promoted – almost three quarters (73.5%) of the Lithuanian population speak “in favour” of such initiative. Even bigger share of Lithuanians support the promotion of return when faced with the alternative of bringing labour force from other countries to Lithuania. Meanwhile, Lithuanians abroad are more restraint on this question – only less than a half (45.5%) think that return should be promoted. Among the measures considered as important by Lithuanians abroad are those aimed at children (especially assistance to returning children in reintegration to 79% and support to Lithuanian schools in emigration countries to 77%) and those aimed at increasing access to information about possibilities of return (89%). However, doubts were expressed about some of the measures being implemented, for example, broadcasting of Lithuanian television programmes to emigration countries. The absolute majority of Lithuanians abroad also think that it is not beneficial to support return financially.

According to the research data, the majority of Lithuanians abroad, short of returning, would like to participate more actively in the political life of Lithuania: they expect to obtain voting rights not only in *Seimas* (parliamentary) elections, but also in municipal elections (84%), to have their own representative in the *Seimas* (64%) and to be eligible to the Parliament; they also wish they could hold double citizenship (71%). Many of Lithuanians residing abroad,

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however, think that old-age pension, free health care in Lithuania and advantageous treatment in higher education enrolment should not be extended to Lithuanians from abroad.

Only some of the measures being implemented by the Government of Lithuania are supported both among the resident Lithuanian population and Lithuanians living abroad. These are: measures aimed at the education of children, retaining language skills, and helping children to adapt. The effectiveness of other measures such as the broadcasting of Lithuanian television is questioned and less than half of Lithuanians abroad are in its favour.. Furthermore, the absolute majority of respondents disapprove the facilitated enrolment procedures in higher education institutions: financial support to those returning, including highly-skilled professionals, is seen as unnecessary both among the resident Lithuanian population, as well as among emigrants. Main problems are seen in fields where efforts of the state should be directed.

The results from a survey conducted among the representatives of Lithuanian communities abroad and from an expert survey (Viešosios politikos..., 2008a), demonstrated that economic migrants, especially those who have been living abroad for an extended period of time and only rarely returned to Lithuania, are in need of specific information about various aspects of living and working in Lithuania and the possibility to receive individual advice on issues related to their return.

Attempts by State authorities to manage and promote return migration in the media have been given ambiguous assessments. In the emigrants' press can be observed the desire to demonstrate that upholding ties with emigrants is the Government's priority. However, simultaneously (and even more frequently) the image of an indecisive government emerges, while criticisms on the newly launched measures undermines people's belief in their effectiveness.

### ***6.4. Development of net migration loss/gain regions (incl. assessment of SF use)***

There have been no specific policies addressed to disadvantaged net migration loss/gain regions in Lithuania yet. Available measures and policies are addressed at reducing regional inequalities in the country but are not directly concerned with regional differences induced by migration.

The main policy instrument expected to reduce regional disproportions is the Master Plan of the Territory of the Republic of Lithuania (Aplinkos ministerija, 2004). It provides a series of measures designed to preserve the territorial integrity and viability of the system of local central places. Master plans for the territories of most of the counties and many municipalities have also been developed. However, due to insufficient budgeting, many provisions of the master plans cannot be efficiently implemented (municipalities are unable to maintain the network of small schools, to offer a sufficient number of services, etc.).

The national, regional and municipal plans of economic and social development provide measures encouraging investments and creation of labour places. They have been elaborated in relation to the Master Plan of the Territory of the Republic of Lithuania and primarily address problematic territories. The main strategies/plans at national level are:

- "Long-Term Development Strategy of the State" (2002), which describes national goals in regional development policy;
- "Lithuanian Regional Policy Strategy until 2013" (2005);
- "National Strategic Reference Framework for Regional Policy (NSRF) 2007-2013", which sets out the policy for structural fund programmes (2006);
- "Program of Reduction of Social and Economic Disparities" (2011)

These strategies provide general actions, which are more elaborated in detailed programmes of rural development and programmes of development of particular region (county).

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The policy responses (often intentions of responses) to social exclusion in rural areas were summarized and described in the National Action Plan against Poverty and Social Exclusion in 2004-2006 (hereinafter NAP/inclusion), the National Report on Strategies for Social Protection and Social Inclusion 2006-2008 (hereinafter NR SPSI) and the National Report of Lithuania on Social Protection and Social Inclusion Strategies 2008-2010 (hereinafter – NR SPSIS). Another document relevant for rural development is the “Green Book. The Future of Lithuanian Countryside” (LAEI, 2010b and c).

The NAP/inclusion identifies several core trends which need to be addressed in public policy fostering regional development. According to NAP/inclusion, in 2004 the most acute problems in Lithuanian rural regions were considered to be the high rates of unemployment and the low income of inhabitants. In the sphere of education, the lack of pre-school establishments, closure of secondary schools, lack of youth schools, absence of adult schools in rural areas have been indicated as aspects to be taken into consideration analysing social exclusion in Lithuania. Any rural resident pursuing further education is forced to move to another education establishment and another place of residence, which often leads to a number of social and economic problems. The NAP/inclusion emphasised the necessity to strengthen regional policies by creating more favourable conditions for the activities of the private sector and encouraging investments, speeding up the creation of new jobs, promoting trends of alternative rural activities, encouraging diversity of new business and the development of their infrastructure at rural locations; strengthening competitiveness and abilities of farmers and rural residents, fighting rural poverty, encouraging creation of social companies, holding regular training courses for farmers and people in the rural areas and provide them with advice on issues of organic farming, computer literacy, accounting, motivation of local communities, etc.

The measures described in NR SPSI for addressing the problem of unemployment in rural areas were as follows: (a) to develop entrepreneurship among the population by improving the environment favourable for establishing small and medium businesses, increase possibilities for women, in particular in rural areas, to start business and develop it; (b) to pursue sustainable development of agriculture and rural areas, expanding alternative activities to agriculture; (c) to improve occupational skills of farmers and of the other rural population involved in activities related to agriculture, forestry or alternative businesses by increasing their capacities to participate in the processes of rural development. Since one of the priorities of NR SPSI was child poverty, NR SPSI includes some measures addressing children poverty in rural areas (see section 6.5 below).

The NR SPSIS included the measures of the Rural Development Programme. It emphasized that in 2008-2010 more attention would be devoted to diminishing differences between regions, rural and urban areas. This problem was also specified in the chapter on Lithuania of the 2007 Joint Report on Social Security and Social Inclusion. NR SPSIS has also repeated the measures of NR SPSI for eradicating child poverty and social exclusion and guaranteeing children's rights. At the same time NR SPSIS broadly discusses the issues of migration, some of them were addressed in the context of rural exclusion and regional deprivation. The authors of the NR SPSIS understand the challenges generated by (e)migration and foresee some measures aimed at increasing internal labour migration: to promote the activity of the labour force, by involving non-active citizens (young people who neither study, nor work; retirees, disabled, convicts, etc.) to the labour market (The Government of the Republic of Lithuania, 2008, p. 2, 4, 19). Unfortunately, the contemporary processes point out that these measures were not sufficiently effective.

All plans and strategies mentioned above are relevant and further detailed for the Utena county, the INPP region and especially the Ignalina district and Visaginas municipalities. For the Utena county, development plans have been elaborated for different periods (the last for 2009-2016) (Utenos apskirites..., 2010). The Master Plan of the county was approved by the Government only on 2 November 2011. For the INPP region, an elaborated INPP region's economic and social restructuring plan exists (Lietuvos regioninių..., 2002). Both municipalities have Strategic Development plans (Ignalinos rajono..., 2011; Visagino

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savivaldybė, 2010). In order to achieve the objectives set out in these documents various programmes and projects have been implemented.

According to the Regional Development Agency of the INPP region, there are some programmes and projects which have been put into place and being co-financed by different EU and other funds and initiatives<sup>30</sup> in order to promote the development of the region<sup>31</sup>. Especially the Youth programme shall be mentioned, whose objective is to prevent the drift of the youth from the region to larger cities or abroad and thus maintaining the vitality of the region. The programme was elaborated in 2002. Since then a number of actions have been implemented supporting youth employment including training, counselling and implementation of youth employment schemes. This programme is being implemented in cooperation with the municipalities and it has an emphasis on the youth of the region, especially in Visaginas, and how they can be better integrated into the regional economy.

Yet, no comprehensive analyses of the impact of all these measures for development of the areas have been undertaken and it is thus difficult to evaluate their success.

### **6.5. Support to vulnerable groups related to migration (incl. assessment of SF use)**

Regarding children or elderly people as groups particularly vulnerable to migration in Lithuania, there are no specific supporting programmes or measures which target children and elderly affected by migration. Policies towards these groups are embedded within general policies and strategies towards poverty reduction and social inclusion.

The abovementioned NR SPSI included following measures addressing *child poverty in rural areas*: (a) to ensure accessibility of complex services (pre-school education, day care, health and social services, family counselling, etc.) to all children in the place of residence of the family, giving particular attention to families in rural areas and pre-school children; (b) to draft the National Programme for Complex Assistance to Parents Before and After Child Birth until the Start of School; (c) to implement the National Programme on Children Day Care Centres (started in 2002) aimed at encouraging the establishment of community based child day care centres where favourable conditions could be created for children from social risk families in order to provide them with additional educational services and the possibility to develop their social skills, as well as creating possibilities for parents to visit such centres for informal education. Special attention is given to the establishment and development of such centres in rural areas. Unfortunately, no information is yet available about the (effective) implementation of these measures and their impact.

Some measures for the support of *children which are returnees* (or immigrants) have been implemented in Lithuania. According to the Office of the Ombudsman on Children's Rights (Lietuvos respublikos vaiko..., 2009) it is necessary to develop methodologies for learning and support of these children, also in the form of distance education and information for parents about such possibilities. One of the measures of this type has been functioning since 2002 in the Ozas school<sup>32</sup> in Vilnius. The school has put into place instruments for free distance learning which are available to every citizen of Lithuania, living in any part of the world or any place of the country. Students have the possibility to terminate the 8th-12th via internet and to obtain an official school learning certificate of secondary education accredited by the State. The project was supported by the Lithuanian Ministry of Education and Science and co-financed by EU (ESF) funds. In 2010, there were about 400 distance students registered at the school, most of them are living abroad, previously in the UK and Ireland (Urbonaitė, 2010). Because of the necessity of such education form for Lithuanian children living abroad, distance learning will be further developed in the period 2012-2015 in three schools of the Klaipėda municipality<sup>33</sup>.

<sup>30</sup> INTERREG III, EEE and Norway grants, Baltic Sea Region Programme 2007-2013, ERDP and others.

<sup>31</sup> SME Development Program for the Target Region, Business Development Fund, Youth Programme and Local Initiatives Program.

<sup>32</sup> Website of Ozas School: <http://ozomokykla.eu/indexen.htm>.

<sup>33</sup> Information of ELTA: <http://www.delfi.lt/news/daily/education/mokyklose-nuotolinis-mokymas.d?id=54056009>.

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Regarding policies towards *Roma*, the latest “Action Plan for Roma Integration into the Lithuanian Society for 2012-2014” elaborated by the Ministry of Culture in 2012 shall be mentioned (Ministry of Culture, 2012). The Action Plan aims at promoting participation of Roma in public life, reducing social exclusion, enhancing consciousness within the Roma community as well as increasing public tolerance. Since the Roma community is among minorities which are most stigmatized in Lithuania, it is important that the Action Plan includes actions that aim to increase public tolerance. The Action Plan includes measures designed: (a) to develop education of Roma children and adults; (b) to develop social skills of Roma children and adults; (c) to promote inclusion of Roma into the labour market; (d) to create conditions for intercultural dialogue. In total, the budget of the Action Plan made available for 2012-2014 amounts to EUR 1,580,750 (whereby nearly 75% of the funding will stem from EU structural funds and the rest from the national budget). Unfortunately, the Action Plan ignores issues relating to healthcare and health insurance of the Roma population which are of utmost importance as well as chronic housing problems (Poviliunas, 2011, p. 28), although housing and healthcare have been distinguished as one out of four priority areas for action by the European Commission in its communication for an EU framework for national Roma integration strategies. Further, it has been criticised by Roma advocacy groups, that the Action Plan does not give enough attention to the key challenges in the areas of education and employment, that municipalities, which are responsible for many decisions relating to the integration of Roma, have not been included into the Action Plan and that issues of financing, monitoring and coordination of foreseen measures are not being adequately addressed. Finally, there is some criticism about the fact that the Action Plan focuses only on the Roma living in the Kirtimai settlement in Vilnius, leaving out Roma communities in other parts of Lithuania.<sup>34</sup>

### **6.6. Best practice examples of policy responses**

One of the best practice examples of policy responses could be considered the project “Sugrižimai” (Returns)<sup>35</sup>. This project was developed and realized by the Lithuanian Research Council and sponsored by the EU Structural Funds<sup>36</sup>. It has started in 2008 and will proceed until the end of 2013. The initial idea of the project was to countervail against brain drain and to encourage young scientist to return to Lithuania. As this initial idea contradicts with the international origin of the academic community and the fact that academic facilities in Lithuania could not compete with work conditions offered to scientists in Western countries, the initial idea has been changed towards the aim of strengthening academic cooperation between Lithuanian scientists working abroad and in the country. The inclusion of academic emigrants into the Lithuanian academic life creates at least a twofold benefit: young Lithuanian scientists living and working abroad do not break their ties with the Lithuanian academic community and the Lithuanian sciences and academic community profits from international cooperation. The project Sugrižimai distributes both grants to leave and to come and assists in finding partners.

## **7. Key challenges and policy suggestions**

### **7.1. Key challenges of the social impact of emigration and internal migration**

As far as Lithuania is among the champions of migration within the EU, the country is confronted with both national and regional challenges related to internal and international emigration:

In general, main challenges generated by migration at the national level are as follows:

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<sup>34</sup> See the opinion of expressed on behalf of several Roma organisations of the country on their common web platform ([www.roma.lt](http://www.roma.lt)). Available at: <http://www.roma.lt/v2/index.php?the-time-has-come-for-roma-integration-in-lithuania> (accessed on 10.05.2012).

<sup>35</sup> Homepage of the project: <http://www.sugrizimai.lt/>.

<sup>36</sup> EU structural assistance to Lithuania: <http://www.esparama.lt/>.

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- ⇒ Worsening demographic indicators and ageing due to increasing migration of young generations over the last two decades;
- ⇒ Tensions in the systems of social protection and health care (especially for the elder population) generated by weak minimum income schemes;
- ⇒ Family separation and care of children left behind by migrating parents;
- ⇒ Shortages of professionals, especially in the health sector, and of young age cohorts within the labour force.

At the regional level, major challenges are as follows:

- ⇒ Depopulation and ageing of peripheral rural territories, especially in peripheral areas in the North-Eastern part of Lithuania;
- ⇒ Disproportions in labour market and shortages in some segments of the labour force, especially of health professionals;
- ⇒ Deteriorating accessibility of social and health care and educational services;
- ⇒ Increasing numbers of social risk families and increasing dependence on social benefits and state support in rural areas, especially in areas of long term depopulation.

The current territorial planning strategies and instruments underestimate these problems and do not provide for measures that could preserve the territorial system under the conditions of depopulation.

The multidimensional study of the attitudes towards migration mentioned above revealed that in general the majority of Lithuanians share the desire to live in a modern knowledge society and to make use of the possibilities provided by the global economy, but at the same time prefer to live in a close “ethnic” state. The Lithuanian population wants to make use of the freedom of mobility, but at the same time to preserve Lithuania’s close state, without labour immigrants. One of the main challenges is the contradiction between important labour emigration flows of Lithuanians and extremely phobic attitudes of Lithuanian population towards labour immigrants especially from non-EU countries. In the near future this contradiction could produce social tensions.

Under these circumstances it is of utmost importance to create a socio-economic environment which will contribute to retain the Lithuanian labour force in the country and decrease the level of emigration as well as promote short-term mobility with the perspective of return.

### ***7.2. Policies to be taken by different actors (national, regional, local governments, Diaspora, EU, host countries’ institutions)***

Both at regional and local level serious steps are required for solving the problem of the depopulation of rural areas and expanding sparsely populated areas. Greater efforts are necessary in order to preserve service centres and as well as a system of educational, health and social services in peripheral territories of Lithuania.

Since in the depressed regions the quality of labour force does not comply with the needs of economy due to low skills and long-term unemployment, it is necessary to put efforts to improve it. A larger variety of available active labour market policy measures enabling integration of unemployed individuals into the labour market needs to be further supported. Implementation of the principle of employment-secured social guarantees would increase the demand for all active labour market policy measures and effectiveness thereof. The development of local employment initiatives and social enterprise programmes is of vital importance for the development of depressed regions of the country hit by above average migration. In the depressed regions active labour market policy measures must be combined with the settlement of social problems.

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It is necessary to separate rural development policy from agricultural policy. It is desirable to include the development and provision of social services into the framework of the LEADER programme. Particular efforts could be made in including local communities into the provision of social services and assisting local communities in the elaboration of social innovations designed to increase bridging social capital.

As reported earlier, the results of a survey among the representatives of Lithuanian communities abroad and of an expert survey demonstrated that the respondents only partially support measures designed and implemented by the Government of Lithuania in order to encourage return migration. The respondents are in favour of measures related to the education of children which enable to retain language skills and help children to adapt upon return. However, other measures like the (worldwide) broadcasting of Lithuanian television programmes; facilitated enrolment into higher education institutions, financial support to returnees, including highly-skilled professionals, did not receive the expected support, neither among the Lithuanian resident population, nor among those who emigrated. This shows that a re-orientation of policies adopted shall be envisaged by the Lithuanian authorities and above all, consultations with the interests groups of migrants should be envisaged in the decision-making process and before implementing policy measures.

The surveys also demonstrated that economic migrants, especially those who live abroad for an extended period of time and only rarely return to Lithuania, are in need of information about various features of the living and working environment in Lithuania – though not information of general nature, but the possibility to receive individual consultations and advice on issues related to their return.

Experts claim that in shaping return migration policies it is necessary to distinguish two main types of returning emigrants:

- Return as migration “failures” (under the conditions of the crisis, the number of such cases can still drastically increase)
- Return with a purpose to utilize accumulated (financial and “human”) capital and resources in Lithuania

In the case of unsuccessful migrants, main attention should be focused on the provision of information, social-psychological assistance and support in job search. In case of “successful” migrants, attracting them requires a wider range of actions, many of them in the economic area, first of all to facilitate a starting of business by an optimisation of the tax system and improving conditions for small business.

Experts also claim that on-going health reforms, launched in 2003, have improved the working conditions of health professionals (among others the salaries) and consequently have contributed to decreasing the emigration (pressure) of health professionals. Efforts need to be pursued in this direction. Only the successful implementation of the on-going health sector reform and careful planning will ensure that human resource policies are effective in maintaining the health workforce supply.

While elaborating migration policy it is necessary to inform and raise awareness of the Lithuanian population with the aim of shifting from attitudes based on prejudice and stereotypes to evidence based solutions. In order to achieve this it is necessary to foresee a close cooperation with the mass media for dissemination of information on migration policies.



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## **Annexes**

### ***Annex 1. Relevant data sources and empirical studies on migration***

**Data sources:** Official data on migration are based on the declaration of the new place of residence to local Lithuanian authorities. In Lithuania, social service authorities are responsible for residence registration. Emigration is defined as the departure from Lithuania with the intention to take up permanent residence in another country, or for a period longer than 12 months (Statistics Lithuania, 2010b, p. 63). Data from residence registration of emigrants can be differentiated by age, sex, marital status, citizenship, previous employment and economic activity, place/country of next residence.

Statistics on international migration in Lithuania are produced based on the EU and national legislation and UN recommendations. In the publications of Statistics Lithuania, statistical data of Statistics Lithuania, Migration Department under the Ministry of the Interior of the Republic of Lithuania, Lithuanian Labour Exchange at the Ministry of Social Security and Labour of the Republic of Lithuania, State Social Insurance Fund Board at the Ministry of Social Security and Labour of the Republic of Lithuania and Bank of Lithuania have been used (Statistics Lithuania, 2010b).

In 2006-2010, statistical surveys were carried out asking a representative sample of households in Lithuania about temporarily and permanently absent household members. Based on this surveys undeclared emigration flows, demographic and social characteristics of emigrants in 2001-2009 were estimated (Statistics Lithuania, 2010b).

Internal migration statistics account all persons who move within the country (from one municipality to another; from a rural settlement to a city/town; from a city/town to another city/town in some municipality) with the intention to stay in the new place for permanent residence longer than 6 months according to the data of the declaration of the place of residence (in the receiving community) (Statistics Lithuania, 2010a). The available data about the in-country migrants deal only with the age and sex. The scale of unknown undeclared in-country migration is really a problem though different evidences imply that it is intensive (see further in the text).

**Studies about international migration:** Only a few years have passed since emigration was realized as a serious problem, therefore comprehensive studies are yet scanty.

Many published monographs and studies analyse migration as one of the aspects of demographic situation in the country. Yet most of them are based only on the data about the declared emigration (Lazutka et al., 2004; Stankūnienė, 1995a, 2004; Sipavičienė, 1995, 1997, 2002, 2006a, 2007). The analysis of unofficial emigration started only in 2006 and allowed a more comprehensive investigation of emigration (Sipavičienė, 2006b; OECD 2010).

A qualitative returnees study has been carried out by order of the International Organization of Migration (IOM). The aim of the pilot research was to view return migration problems from different angles – from external and internal, theoretical and practical perspectives, thus a combination of various research methods was utilized (Sipavičiene et al., 2009, p. 56). The study also includes analysis of temporary emigration which accounts in opinion of experts for a large part in the general emigration flow. Recently, attention has been focused on labour migration (Sipavičienė, Jeršovas, 2010; Viešosios politikos..., 2008b).

A few comprehensive comparative studies have been carried out (Krieger, 2004; Krieger, Fernandez, 2006, in: Martinaitis, Žvalionytė, 2007) for determining the general migration potential from Lithuania and the possible demographic consequences (Atviros Lietuvos fondas, 2001; Sipavičienė, 1995, 2002; Viešosios politikos..., 2008a).

Even a few studies have been devoted to motives of emigration (Socialinės apsaugos..., 2001; Vilmorus, 2005) and the problems of “brain drain” and emigration of young people (Aidis, Krupickaitė, 2009; Jucevičienė et al., 2002, 2004; Kazlauskienė, 2006; Kazlauskienė,

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Rinkevičius, 2006a,b; Krukauskienė, 2005; Merkys, 2004; Rinkevičius, Kazlauskienė, 2006; Sipavičienė, 2006b; Socialinių tyrimų institutas, 2005, pp. 27-28; Stankūnienė, 1996; Labanauskas, 2005, 2006; Starkienė, 2006; Voloschuk et al., 2004). A few studies and strategies deal with the possible solutions of the “brain drain” problem and encouragement of remigration (Laisvosios rinkos institutas, 2006; Socialinės apsaugos..., 2007, 2010; Strateginių studijų centras, 2006; Pilietinės visuomenės institutas, 2005; Viešosios politikos..., 2005).

**Internal migration studies:** The internal migration of the two last decades has been hardly studied in Lithuania. Only a few recent researches can be pointed out which deal with some aspects of internal migration (Jurkštaitytė, 2008; Krupickaitė, 1997; Pocius, 2007).

In matters of labour market the Institute of Labour and Social Research in 2007 has carried out a research “Evaluation of the in-country territorial mobility of labour force and possibilities of its encouragement”. It is aimed at analysis of the trends of territorial labour force mobility and working out recommendations for equilibration of the labour market using measures for encouragement the in-country territorial mobility (Darbo ir socialinių..., 2007).

The regional manifestations of depopulation have been studied in greater detail (Daugirdas, Baubinas, 2007, 2008; Krupickaitė, 2007).

Annex 2. Tables and Figures

Figure 1.1 Territorial division of the Republic of Lithuania – Counties and municipalities (NUTS-3 and LAU-1 levels)



Source: Statistics Lithuania, <http://www.stat.gov.lt/lt/pages/view/?id=2013&PHPSESSID=>.

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**Table 1.1** Main foreign trade partners 1991-1994, in %

	Export				Import			
	1991	1992	1993	1994	1991	1992	1993	1994
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Belarus	8.3	12.1	7.4	6.5	8.4	5.8	3.3	3.8
Denmark	0.3	2.2	1.5	1.7	0.0	0.2	2.4	2.6
Estonia	2.3	1.4	2.5	2.5	1.8	0.6	0.8	1.6
Finland	0.3	1.3	0.9	1.0	0.1	0.9	1.3	2.9
Germany	0.6	4.6	6.8	11.5	1.2	4.7	9.7	13.8
Italy	0.3	0.9	2.2	1.9	0.1	0.2	1.8	2.7
Kazakhstan	2.2	1.5	1.9	2.1	2.7	3.2	2.1	0.6
Latvia	6.7	4.5	7.1	8.4	4.7	2.3	1.4	2.7
Netherlands	0.1	2.2	2.8	5.2	0.0	0.0	2.3	2.7
Poland	0.7	3.9	7.0	5.0	1.4	1.0	2.2	4.0
Russia	56.5	31.8	33.1	28.2	49.6	57.7	53.7	39.3
Sweden	0.3	2.7	1.8	3.1	0.0	1.1	1.1	2.4
UK	0.4	3.2	1.6	2.3	0.1	0.6	0.9	1.4
Ukraine	11.4	14.5	11.2	6.1	10.4	7.7	6.2	5.0
USA	0.0	0.3	0.3	0.6	1.5	2.7	1.2	2.0

Data source: Šimėnas, 1996, p. 204-205.

**Table 1.2** Changes of production in industry and agriculture in 1990-1994 (1990=100)

	1991	1992	1993	1994
Industry	62	37	26	21
Agriculture	95	72	66	54

Data source: Šimėnas, 1996, p. 192, 199.

**Table 1.3** Some macroeconomic indicators, in %

	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
GDP	-6.2	-21.3	-16.0	-9.5	3.5	4.9	7.4	5.2	0.0
Industrial gross output	na	na	-34.4	-26.5	5.3	5.0	3.3	7.0	na
Agriculture gross output	-6.0	-23.0	-6.0	-20.0	6.0	10.0	6.0	na	na
Employment	2.4	-2.2	-4.2	-5.8	-1.9	0.9	0.6	-0.8	na
Unemployment	0.3	1.3	4.4	3.8	6.2	7.0	5.9	6.4	na

Data source: European Bank for Reconstruction and Development, 1999, p. 245.

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**Table 1.4** Main foreign trade partners 1997-2000, in %

	Export				Import			
	1997	1998	1999	2000	1997	1998	1999	2000
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Latvia	8.6	11.1	12.8	15.0	1.7	1.8	2.0	1.6
Germany	11.4	13.1	16.0	14.3	17.5	18.2	16.5	15.1
UK	3.2	3.5	5.1	7.1	3.4	3.7	4.2	4.5
Russia	24.5	16.5	7.0	7.1	25.3	21.2	20.1	27.4
Poland	2.3	3.0	4.5	5.5	4.9	5.5	5.7	4.9
Denmark	3.4	4.1	6.2	4.9	3.8	3.8	3.9	3.1
USA	1.6	2.8	4.4	4.9	2.9	2.9	3.8	2.4
Netherlands	2.8	2.5	3.5	4.8	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.3
Ukraine	8.8	7.8	3.7	4.4	2.1	1.9	1.5	1.5
France	2.2	3.5	4.7	4.4	2.8	3.4	3.6	4.2
Sweden	1.9	2.6	4.2	4.4	3.3	3.7	3.4	3.4
Belarus	10.3	8.8	5.9	2.9	2.3	2.2	2.2	1.8
Italy	3.1	4.1	4.2	2.3	4.1	4.4	4.1	3.6
Estonia	2.5	2.6	2.4	2.3	1.3	1.5	1.5	1.2
Turkey	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.8	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6
Other countries	12.6	13.1	14.4	13.2	21.9	23.1	24.7	22.4

Data source: Statistics Lithuania, 2001b, p. 489.

**Table 1.5** Exports and imports by country, in million EUR

	Export				Import			
	1997	1998	1999	2000	1997	1998	1999	2000
Russia	1093.7	710.0	244.1	313.9	1656.6	1419.4	1122.9	1729.9
Belarus	459.5	380.6	205.7	128.2	147.9	150.4	125.0	114.2
Ukraine	395.6	333.7	128.0	194.3	134.5	129.3	86.8	95.8
Latvia	384.9	475.1	444.6	662.6	113.0	124.0	112.6	104.3
Poland	104.1	129.9	158.0	241.1	319.9	368.4	317.1	311.7
Germany	508.2	563.9	558.3	632.4	1141.0	1219.5	926.1	951.4

Data source: Statistics Lithuania, 2001b, p. 489-490.

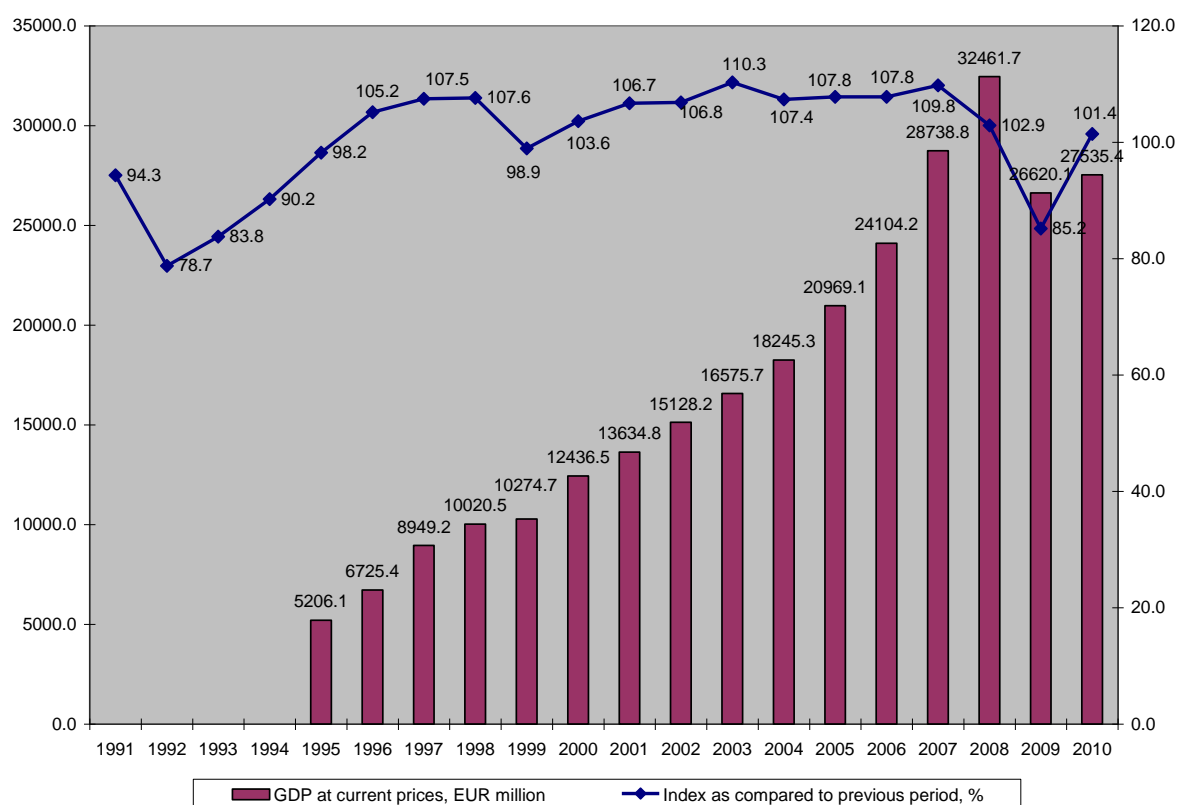
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**Table 1.6** Growth in real GDP in Lithuania, in %

1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	Estimated level of GDP in 1998 1989=100
1.5	-5.0	-6.2	-21.3	-16.0	-9.5	3.5	4.9	7.4	5.2	0.0	65

Data source: European Bank for Reconstruction and Development, 1999, p. 73.

**Figure 1.2** Gross Domestic Product by statistical indicators and year

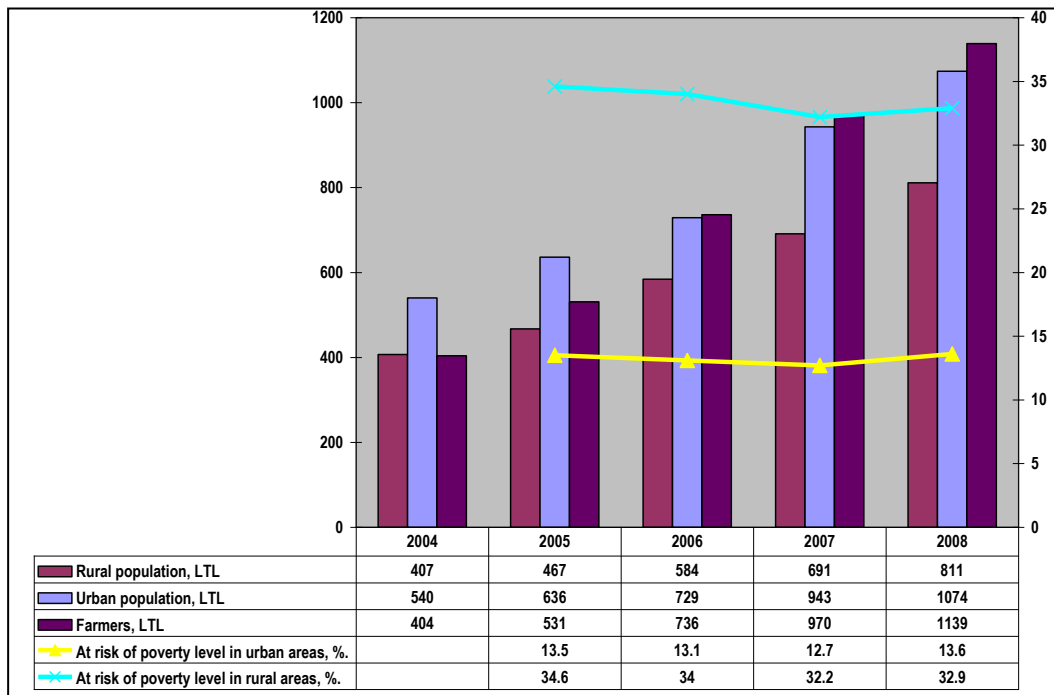


Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database.



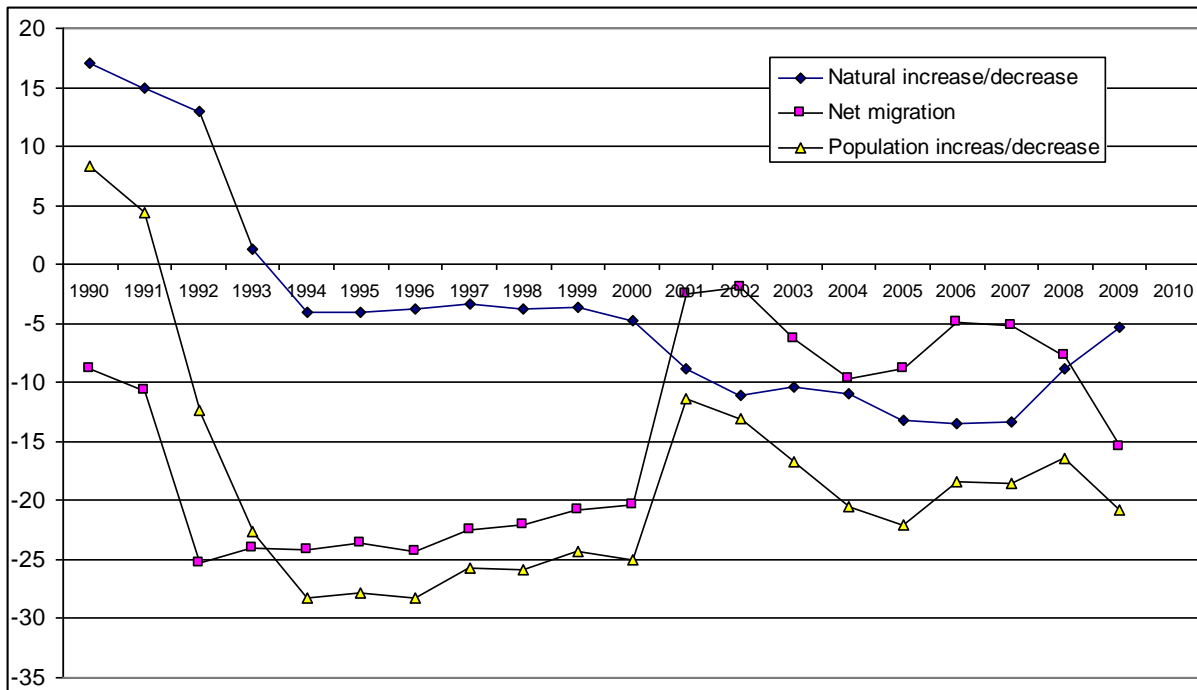
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**Figure 1.3** Average monthly disposable household incomes per capita in 2004-2008, in LTL, and at risk of poverty rate, in %



Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database.

**Figure 2.1** Population increase, natural increase and declared net migration in thousands in Lithuania 1990-2009



Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database.

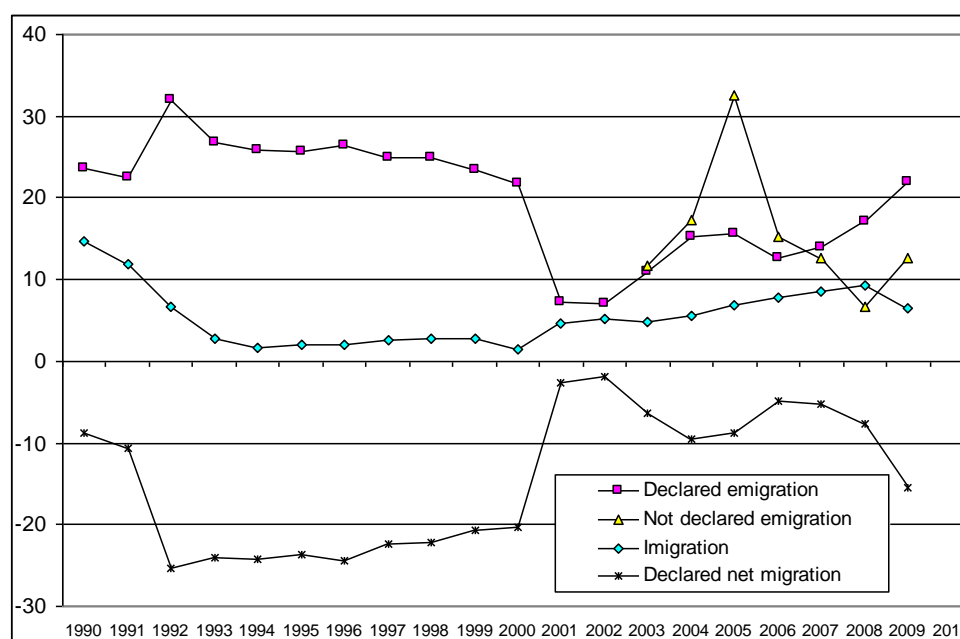
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**Table 2.1** Population number, natural increase and declared net migration in thousands in Lithuania 1990-2010

	Population, as of 1 January	Natural increase/decrease	Declared net migration	Population increase/decrease
1989	3674,8			
1990	3693,7	17,11	-8,85	8,26
1991	3702,0	15,01	-10,68	4,33
1992	3706,3	12,96	-25,33	-12,37
1993	3693,9	1,36	-23,99	-22,63
1994	3671,3	-4,11	-24,20	-28,31
1995	3643,0	-4,11	-23,67	-27,78
1996	3615,2	-3,83	-24,37	-28,20
1997	3588,0	-3,33	-22,42	-25,75
1998	3562,3	-3,74	-22,12	-25,86
1999	3536,4	-3,59	-20,74	-24,33
2000	3512,1	-4,77	-20,31	-25,08
2001	3487,0	-8,85	-2,56	-11,41
2002	3475,6	-11,06	-1,98	-13,03
2003	3462,5	-10,39	-6,30	-16,70
2004	3445,9	-10,92	-9,61	-20,53
2005	3425,5	-13,26	-8,78	-22,04
2006	3403,3	-13,55	-4,86	-18,41
2007	3384,9	-13,28	-5,24	-18,52
2008	3366,4	-8,77	-7,72	-16,49
2009	3349,9	-5,35	-15,48	-20,83
2010	3329,0	-6,49	-77,95	-84,44
<b>Total</b>		<b>82,960</b>	<b>367,160</b>	<b>-450,12</b>

Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database; migration data of 1990-1993 is taken from different publications of Lithuanian Department of Statistics of this period.

**Figure 2.2** Structure of migration in Lithuania 1990-2009 in thousands



Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database; data 1990-1993 is taken from different publications of Lithuanian Department of Statistics of this period.

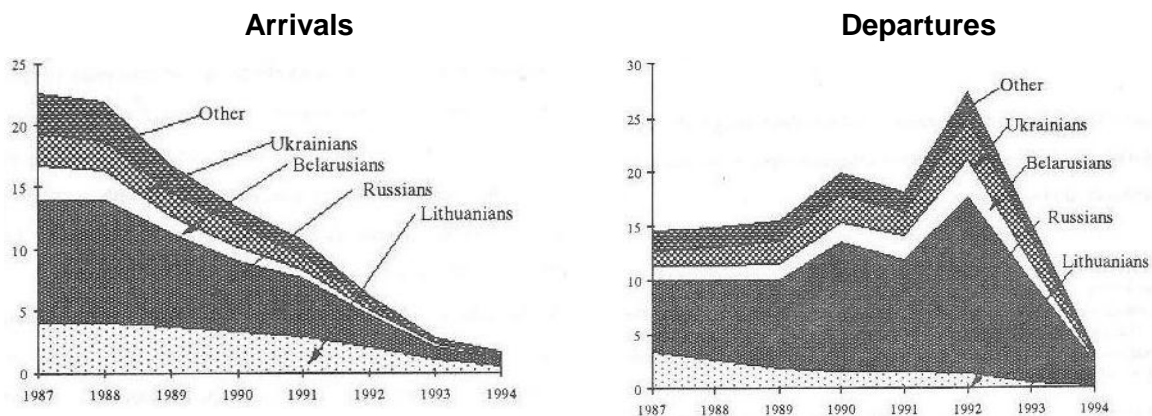
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**Table 2.2** Structure of migration in Lithuania 1990-2010 in thousands

	<b>Declared emigration</b>	<b>Non declared emigration</b>	<b>Immigration</b>	<b>Declared net migration</b>
1989				
1990	23,59		14,74	-8,85
1991	22,50		11,83	-10,68
1992	31,97		6,64	-25,33
1993	26,84		2,85	-23,99
1994	25,86		1,66	-24,20
1995	25,69		2,02	-23,67
1996	26,39		2,02	-24,37
1997	24,96		2,53	-22,42
1998	24,83		2,70	-22,12
1999	23,42		2,68	-20,74
2000	21,82		1,51	-20,31
2001	7,25		4,69	-2,56
2002	7,09		5,11	-1,98
2001-2002		23,2		
2003	11,03	11,7	4,73	-6,30
2004	15,17	17,3	5,55	-9,61
2005	15,57	32,5	6,79	-8,78
2006	12,60	15,2	7,75	-4,86
2007	13,85	12,7	8,61	-5,24
2008	17,01	6,7	9,30	-7,72
2009	21,97	12,7	6,49	-15,48
Total 1989–2009:	399,41	132,00	110,20	-289,21
2010	83,16	no data	5,21	-77,95

Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database; data 1990-1993 is taken from different publications of the Lithuanian Department of Statistics of this period.

**Figure 2.3** Ethnic composition of Lithuania's migration with the former USSR, in thousands



Source: Stankūnienė, 1995a, p. 134.

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**Table 2.3** Countries of arrivals and departure with Lithuania 1980-2000 in thousands

<b><u>Arrivals</u></b>	<b>Former USSR, total</b>	<b>Russia</b>	<b>Belarus</b>	<b>Ukraine</b>	<b>Other countries of former USSR</b>	<b>Other countries</b>
1980	21,1	10,5	4,0	2,5	4,1	1,0
1985	21,5	11,2	3,8	2,7	3,8	1,0
1989	16,8	9,3	2,2	2,0	3,3	2,2
1990	13,2	7,7	1,5	1,7	2,3	1,5
1991	10,7	6,3	1,3	1,2	1,9	1,1
1992	6,2	3,4	0,7	0,6	1,5	0,4
1993	2,7	1,4	0,4	0,3	0,6	0,2
1994	1,6	0,8	0,3	0,2	0,3	0,1
1995	1,9	0,9	0,3	0,2	0,5	0,1
1996	2,4	1,4	0,3	0,4	0,3	0,6
1997	2,0	1,2	0,3	0,3	0,2	0,5
1998	2,5	1,3	0,3	0,3	0,6	0,5
1999	2,1	1,3	0,3	0,3	0,2	0,5
2000	1,1	0,6	0,1	0,2	0,2	0,4
<b><u>Departure</u></b>	<b>Former USSR</b>	<b>Russia</b>	<b>Belarus</b>	<b>Ukraine</b>	<b>Other countries of former USSR</b>	<b>Other countries</b>
1980	15,4	8,3	1,9	2,2	4,1	1,7
1985	14,4	8,1	1,9	1,8	3,8	0,7
1989	15,4	8,0	3,0	2,4	3,3	2,2
1990	19,8	10,8	3,7	3,2	2,3	3,8
1991	18,1	9,7	4,1	2,8	1,9	2,6
1992	27,3	15,8	6,2	4,2	1,5	1,5
1993	15,1	10,6	2,4	1,6	0,6	0,9
1994	3,4	2,5	0,5	0,3	0,3	0,8
1995	2,9	2,2	0,4	0,2	0,5	0,9
1996	2,9	2,3	0,3	0,2	0,3	1,10
1997	1,7	1,2	0,3	0,1	0,2	0,8
1998	1,4	0,9	0,3	0,1	0,6	0,8
1999	0,8	0,4	0,2	0,1	0,2	0,6
2000	1,4	0,9	0,4	0,1	0,2	1,2

Data sources: different publications of Lithuanian Department of Statistics of the period.

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**Table 2.4** Number of emigrants from Lithuania who have declared their departure by country of next residence in 1991-2010

<b>Emigration to the country</b>	<b>1991</b>	<b>1992</b>	<b>1993</b>	<b>1994</b>	<b>1995</b>	<b>1996</b>	<b>1997</b>	<b>1998</b>	<b>1999</b>	<b>2000</b>	<b>2001</b>	<b>2002</b>	<b>2003</b>	<b>2004</b>	<b>2005</b>	<b>2006</b>	<b>2007</b>	<b>2008</b>	<b>2009</b>	<b>2010</b>
Ireland	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	77	66	276	100	207	131	161	198	276	13048
Austria	1	11	0	1	0	3	2	4	3	10	26	15	41	78	62	39	50	49	52	158
Belgium	0	0	1	2	0	2	1	1	0	6	15	18	51	92	115	73	105	114	122	345
Bulgaria	2	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	6	4	7	32	48	54	57	47	8	32
Czech	2	8	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	5	9	28	53	77	57	56	50	69	45	115
Denmark	0	7	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	16	104	128	158	194	153	131	182	296	359	1508
Estonia	70	49	34	6	8	2	3	3	1	4	33	40	34	43	32	29	36	40	33	77
Greece	1	5	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	11	3	6	15	37	30	25	35	37	58	315
Spain	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	48	119	174	465	730	794	766	841	917	135	3535
Italy	1	4	1	2	0	0	7	17	11	14	41	64	184	283	248	212	231	253	269	1091
UK	4	7	4	0	0	0	2	3	6	48	198	216	980	352	422	322	365	447	571	40901
Latvia	614	327	176	56	52	51	23	29	26	42	132	122	192	159	192	161	153	208	156	233
Poland	725	181	50	75	38	46	49	55	24	25	97	128	123	137	144	108	92	128	159	292
Netherlands	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	12	40	69	95	132	137	129	136	171	220	1104
Portugal	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	19	11	55	90	64	61	42	43	42	114
France	2	3	2	2	2	6	7	12	9	15	61	103	143	213	208	196	184	206	214	618
Finland	1	11	0	0	0	17	0	2	2	2	67	97	112	106	73	54	79	64	69	194
Sweden	3	7	6	3	0	0	7	6	2	24	93	119	191	307	299	247	237	262	454	1682
Germany	253	307	191	180	250	212	130	145	127	313	703	817	120	172	147	111	127	134	135	3806
Other EU 27 countries	3	6	1	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	3	4	16	52	85	43	69	52	67	382
Belarus	4072	6230	2439	548	362	259	279	284	210	428	927	816	747	560	702	720	760	100	206	1420
Island	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	11	25	25	26	26	27	19	47	302
Moldova	140	139	77	32	8	17	7	7	2	5	23	14	24	9	13	9	15	96	191	0
Norway	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	12	30	57	180	241	237	216	261	337	536	4901
Russia	9746	15726	1055	2452	224	229	120	930	443	870	194	192	177	122	111	891	907	107	114	1479
Switzerland	0	0	8	0	8	2	4	0	0	0	4	7	0	8	3			4	5	
Ukraine	2754	4248	1623	265	188	252	130	118	85	111	580	547	628	250	274	295	483	731	100	711

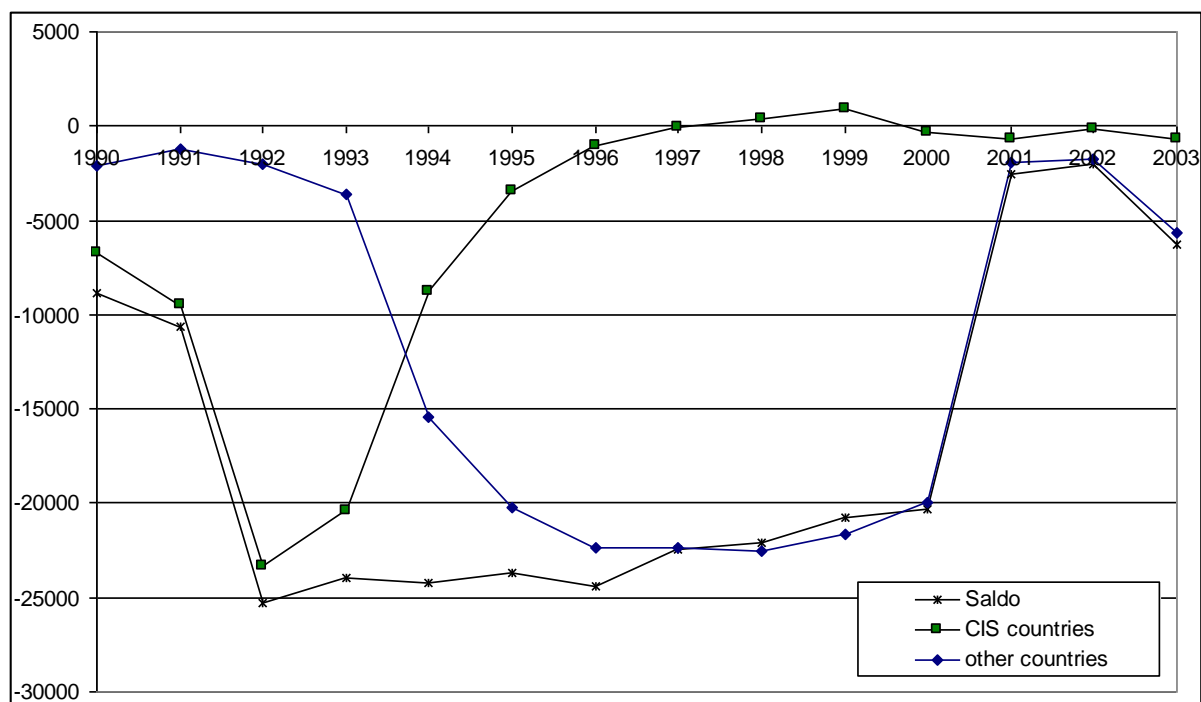
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Other European (not ES 27) countries	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	11	11	40	31	35	45	63	123	415	393
Africa	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	12	25	20	31	30	22	45	38	59	142	
USA	362	428	234	199	182	308	269	303	201	260	808	718	230	298	201	177	154	178	170	2783	
													2	0	0	1	0	2	0		
Canada	30	54	27	22	31	22	33	18	28	26	98	65	120	178	109	98	63	104	110	211	
Other countries in America	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	13	13	12	55	37	30	71	149	107	97	
Asia	1872	1062	538	379	388	429	296	187	177	279	917	610	678	412	379	373	407	701	948	799	
Oceania	28	16	14	18	9	6	3	4	2	4	24	22	35	55	48	36	33	40	55	129	
unknown	16	17	7	3	5	14	5	1	1	6	0	0	0	3	1	0	6	0	3	15	

Data sources: Statistics Lithuania, 1999a, pp. 114-115; Statistics Lithuania, 2001a, pp. 126-127; Statistics Lithuania, 2003, pp. 154-155; Statistics Lithuania, 2004, pp. 159-160; Statistics Lithuania, 2005, pp. 175-176; Statistics Lithuania, 2007, pp. 172-173, 178-179; Statistics Lithuania, 2009, pp. 171-172, 178-179; Statistics Lithuania, 2011, pp. 153-154, 160-161.

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**Figure 2.4** Structure of net declared migration in Lithuania 1990-2003



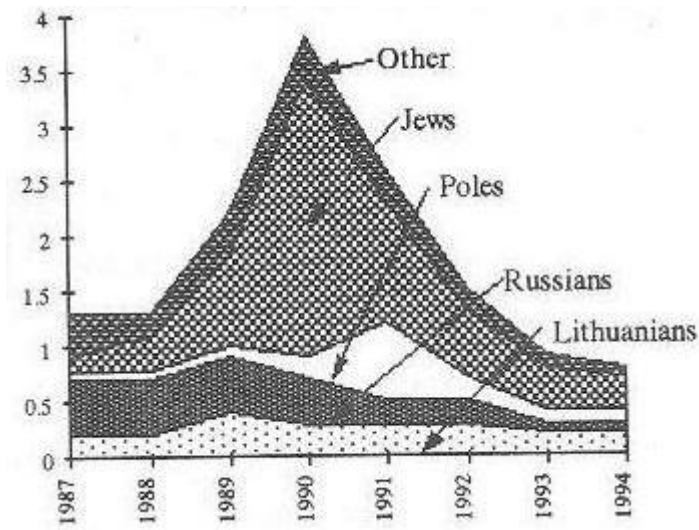
Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database; data 1990-1993 is taken from different publications of the Lithuanian Department of Statistics of this period.

**Table 2.5** Ethnic composition of migrants in Lithuania 1990-2000, in %

<b>Immigrants</b>	<b>Lithuanian</b>	<b>Russian</b>	<b>Ukrainian</b>	<b>Belarusian</b>	<b>Polish</b>	<b>Jewish</b>	<b>Other</b>
1990	23,1	42,7	13,8	7,5	10,2	0,9	1,8
1991	25,3	43,3	10,1	6,4	7,2	0,9	6,8
1992	34,1	40,2	7,9	6,6	5,4	0,6	5,3
1993	41,5	34,8	5,1	5,3	6,5	0,6	6,1
1994	33,1	35,6	6,1	7,7	5,9	1,0	10,6
1995	26,9	41,0	6,3	7,4	4,5	1,6	12,3
1996	33,4	35,7	7,9	5,1	4,8	0,6	12,7
1997	34,9	34,5	6,5	5,6	4,9	1,1	12,4
1998	31,9	33,6	6,9	6,9	4,9	0,8	15,1
1999	30,1	33,1	6,9	5,1	4,2	0,4	20,2
2000	44,0	21,6	4,9	2,0	4,6	0,5	22,4
<b>Emigrants</b>	<b>Lithuanian</b>	<b>Russian</b>	<b>Ukrainian</b>	<b>Belarusian</b>	<b>Polish</b>	<b>Jewish</b>	<b>Other</b>
1990	8,0	52,0	11,6	7,9	4,3	11,4	4,9
1991	8,3	50,3	10,8	11,1	8,0	5,9	5,6
1992	6,0	56,8	13,4	12,2	4,3	2,3	5,0
1993	4,5	58,9	15,0	10,4	3,0	2,6	5,5
1994	7,7	50,5	8,8	8,4	4,3	7,9	12,3
1995	9,3	51,5	7,8	6,5	3,3	7,3	14,4
1996	8,3	45,4	10,5	6,8	2,7	6,9	19,4
1997	12,2	44,7	6,2	7,2	4,5	9,5	15,6
1998	13,8	38,8	5,9	9,2	4,7	5,1	22,4
1999	16,9	34,3	5,2	8,6	3,9	7,7	23,4
2000	30,4	30,1	4,7	7,1	4,3	5,0	18,5

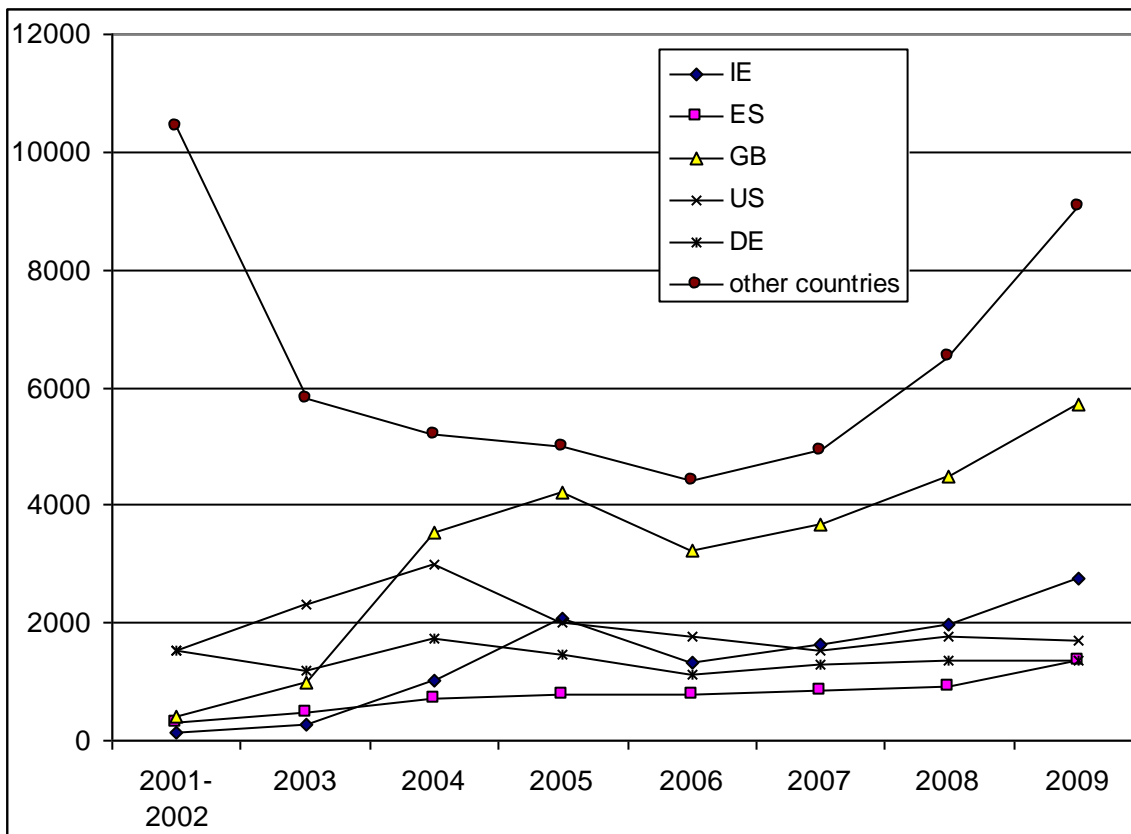
Data sources: Statistics Lithuania, 2001.

Figure 2.5 Ethnic composition of emigrants from Lithuania to Western countries, in thousand



Source: Stankūnienė, 1995a, p. 135.

Figure 2.6 Number of emigrants from Lithuania who have declared their departure by country of next residence in 2001-2009

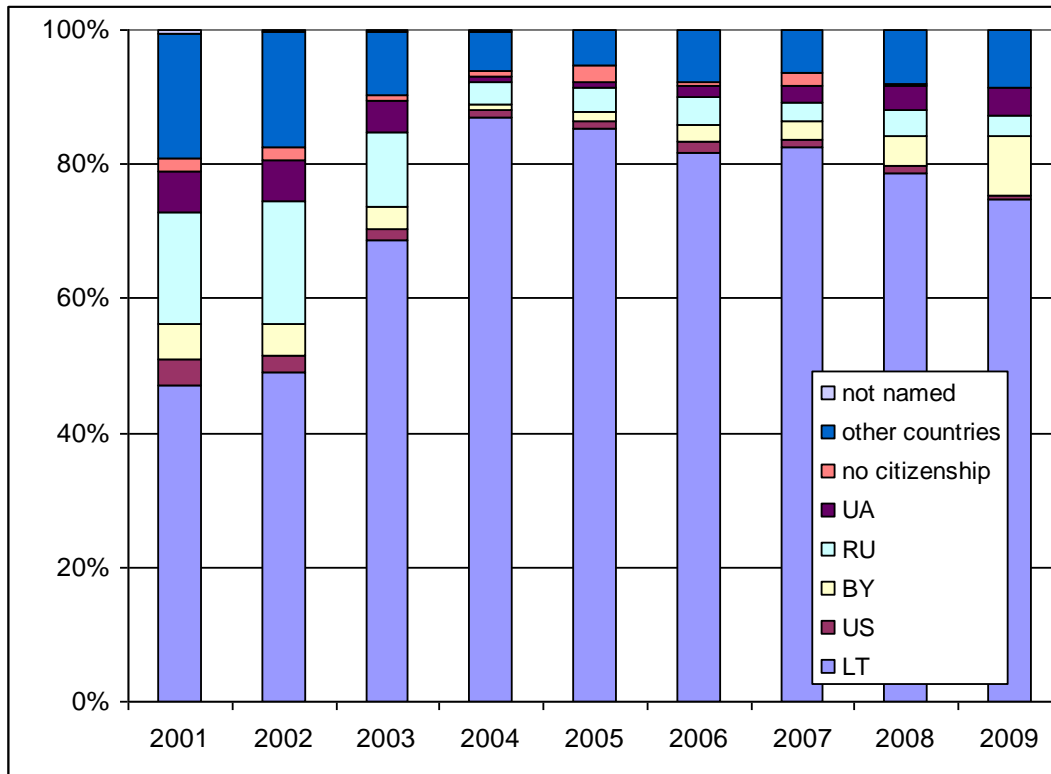


Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database.



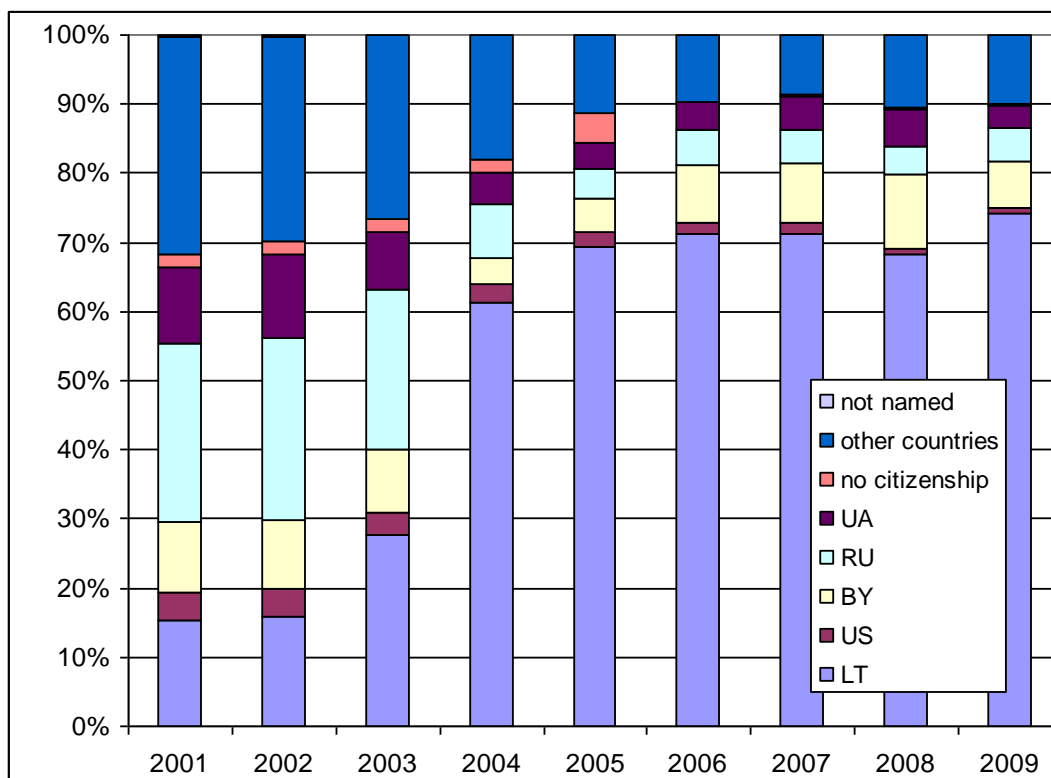
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**Figure 2.7** Structure of citizenship of emigrants from Lithuania 2001-2009



Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database.

**Figure 2.8** Structure of citizenship of immigrants to Lithuania 2001-2009



Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database.

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**Table 2.6** Citizenship of migrants in Lithuania 2001-2009

<b>Declared emigration</b>	<b>2001</b>	<b>2002</b>	<b>2003</b>	<b>2004</b>	<b>2005</b>	<b>2006</b>	<b>2007</b>	<b>2008</b>	<b>2009</b>
Lithuanian	3421	3471	7574	13182	13306	10281	11422	13374	16421
USA	281	176	191	177	163	236	180	178	127
Belorussian	375	331	369	133	203	312	356	782	1939
Russian	1206	1302	1220	484	546	503	412	635	675
Ukrainian	443	441	523	127	155	209	334	640	895
No citizenship	138	134	80	146	365	89	284	49	37
Other countries	1345	1202	1051	892	833	972	865	1357	1876
Not named	44	29	24	24	-	-	-	-	-
<b>Immigration</b>	<b>2001</b>	<b>2002</b>	<b>2003</b>	<b>2004</b>	<b>2005</b>	<b>2006</b>	<b>2007</b>	<b>2008</b>	<b>2009</b>
Lithuanian	714	809	1313	3397	4705	5508	6141	6337	4821
USA	189	201	154	161	148	141	123	94	47
Belorussian	482	508	429	203	329	647	746	987	438
Russian	1219	1356	1089	441	294	396	416	368	312
Ukrainian	516	614	397	246	251	294	422	508	209
No citizenship	91	96	82	103	288	14	24	16	15
Other countries	1468	1518	1258	1002	773	745	737	987	645
Not named	15	8	6	-	1	-	-	-	-

Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database.

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**Table 2.7** Number of emigrants from Lithuania who have declared their departure by country of next residence in 1991-2010

Country	Total emigrants	Per cent of total emigrants	Total immigrants	Net migration
Ireland	24232	8,3	4644	-19588
Austria	605	0,2	174	-431
Belgium	1063	0,4	328	-735
Bulgaria	300	0,1	217	-83
Czech	578	0,2	309	-269
Denmark	3240	1,1	877	-2363
Estonia	577	0,2	738	161
Greece	582	0,2	140	-442
Spain	9744	3,4	2519	-7225
Italy	2933	1,0	788	-2145
UK	67190	23,1	10432	-56758
Latvia	3104	1,1	4726	1622
Poland	2676	0,9	1648	-1028
Netherlands	2249	0,8	431	-1818
Portugal	541	0,2	253	-288
France	2206	0,8	717	-1489
Finland	950	0,3	431	-519
Sweden	3949	1,4	953	-2996
Germany	16928	5,8	5337	-11591
Other EU 27 countries	787	0,3	338	-449
Belarus	24826	8,5	11219	-13607
Island	512	0,2	112	-400
Moldova	828	0,3	783	-45
Norway	7009	2,4	1058	-5951
Russia	59947	20,6	28823	-31124
Switzerland	668	0,2	156	-512
Ukraine	15277	5,3	8340	-6937
Other European (not EU 27) countries	1167	0,4	529	-638
Africa	430	0,1	276	-154
USA	21140	7,3	5215	-15925
Canada	1447	0,5	386	-1061
Other countries in America	584	0,2	250	-334
Asia	11831	4,1	7548	-4283
Oceania	581	0,2	212	-369
Unknown	103	0,0	788	685
	290784	100,0	101695	-189089

Data sources: Statistics Lithuania, 1999a, pp. 114-115; Statistics Lithuania, 2001a, pp. 126-127; Statistics Lithuania, 2003, pp. 154-155; Statistics Lithuania, 2004, pp. 159-160; Statistics Lithuania, 2005, pp. 175-176; Statistics Lithuania, 2007, pp. 172-173, 178-179; Statistics Lithuania, 2009, pp. 171-172, 178-179; Statistics Lithuania, 2011, pp. 153-154, 160-161.

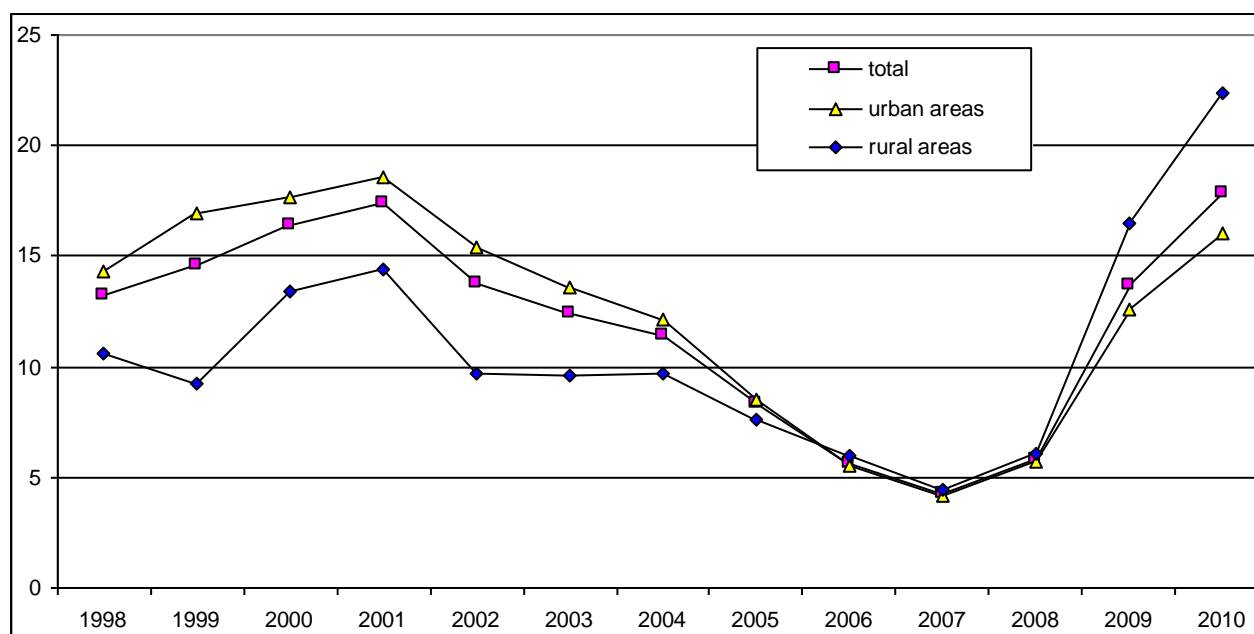
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**Table 2.8** Distribution of ethnic Lithuanian in the countries or regions of the world

Country, region	Number of ethnic Lithuanian, in thousand
USA	700
UK	200
Ireland	90
South America	70
Canada	45
Russia	45
Nordic countries	40
Latvia	30
Other	80
<b>Total:</b>	<b>1300</b>

Source: Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2010.

**Figure 2.9** Unemployment rate by the place of residence in Lithuania, 1998-2010, according to the Statistical Labour Force Survey



Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database.

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**Table 2.9** Emigrants who have not declared their departure by goals of migration in Lithuania in 2004-2008, in thousand

	<b>2004</b>	<b>2005</b>	<b>2006</b>	<b>2007</b>	<b>2008</b>	<b>2009</b>
Work	13,8	26,6	9,6	8,8	4,7	11,0
Studies	0,7	1,4	1,0	1,6	0,7	..
Family occasions	0,8	2,9	2,1	1,0	0,5	..
Other	2,0	1,6	2,5	1,3	0,8	..
<b>Percentage of the total number</b>						
Work	79.8	81.8	63.2	69.3	70.1	86.6
Studies	4.1	4.3	6.6	12.6	10.5	..
Family occasions	4.7	8.9	13.8	7.9	7.5	..
Other	11.4	5.0	16.4	10.2	11.9	..
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Data of surveys on undeclared emigration, source: Statistics Lithuania Database.

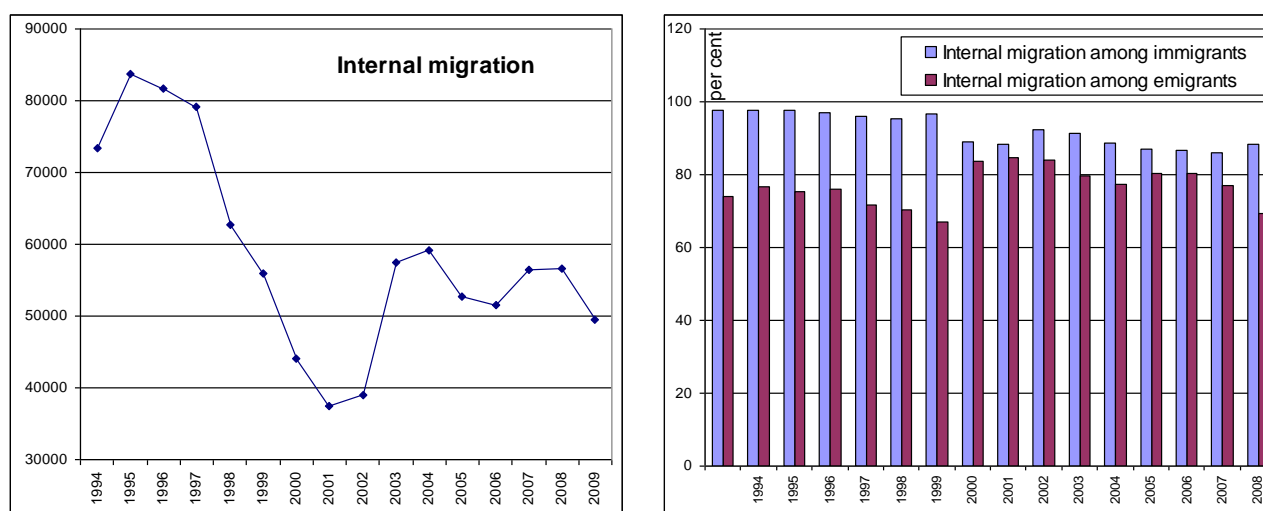
**Table 2.10** General migration tendencies in Lithuania 1994-2010

	<b>Arrived</b>	<b>Left</b>	<b>Balance of migration</b>	<b>Internal migration</b>	<b>Share of internal migration as % of total arrivals</b>	<b>Share of internal migration as % of total departures</b>
<b>1994</b>	75133	99328	-24195	73469	97.8	74.0
<b>1995</b>	85785	109453	-23668	83765	97.6	76.5
<b>1996</b>	83789	107158	-23369	80764	96.4	75.4
<b>1997</b>	81688	104109	-22421	79152	96.9	76.0
<b>1998</b>	65402	87524	-22122	62696	95.9	71.6
<b>1999</b>	58544	79283	-20739	55865	95.4	70.5
<b>2000</b>	45523	65829	-20306	44013	96.7	66.9
<b>2001</b>	42166	44725	-2559	37472	88.9	83.8
<b>2002</b>	44144	46120	-1976	39034	88.4	84.6
<b>2003</b>	62124	68428	-6304	57396	92.4	83.9
<b>2004</b>	64639	74251	-9612	59086	91.4	79.6
<b>2005</b>	59522	68304	-8782	52733	88.6	77.2
<b>2006</b>	59333	64190	-4857	51588	86.9	80.4
<b>2007</b>	65044	70288	-5244	56435	86.8	80.3
<b>2008</b>	65972	73690	-7718	56675	85.9	76.9
<b>2009</b>	56051	71534	-15483	49564	88.4	69.3
<b>2010</b>	55009	132953	-77944 <sup>a)</sup>	49796	90,5	37,5 <sup>a)</sup>

Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database

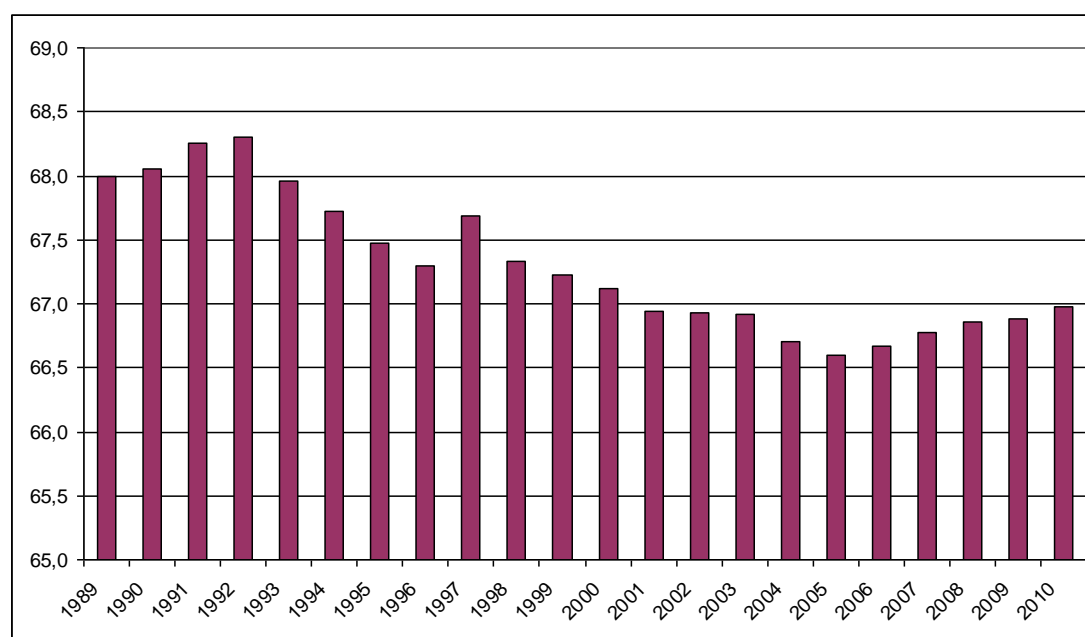
a) The 2010 increase is influenced by increased incentives to deregister the permanent address in Lithuania, as all permanent residents are liable to contributions to the health scheme since 2010.

**Figure 2.10** General internal migration tendencies in Lithuania 1994-2009



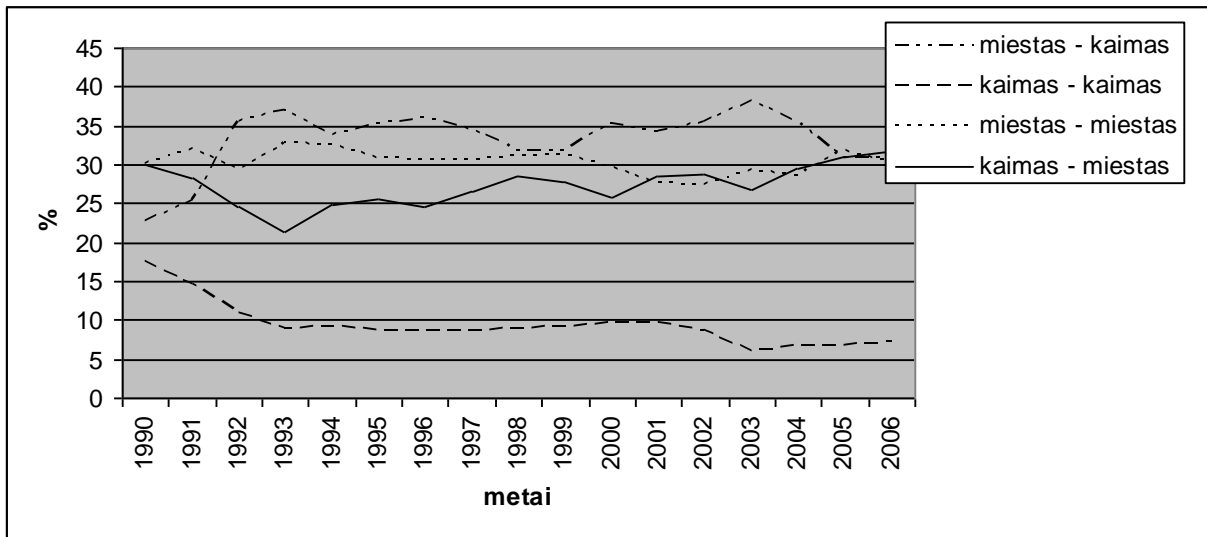
Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database.

**Figure 2.11** Percentage of urban population in Lithuania 1989-2010 as of 1 January



Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database.

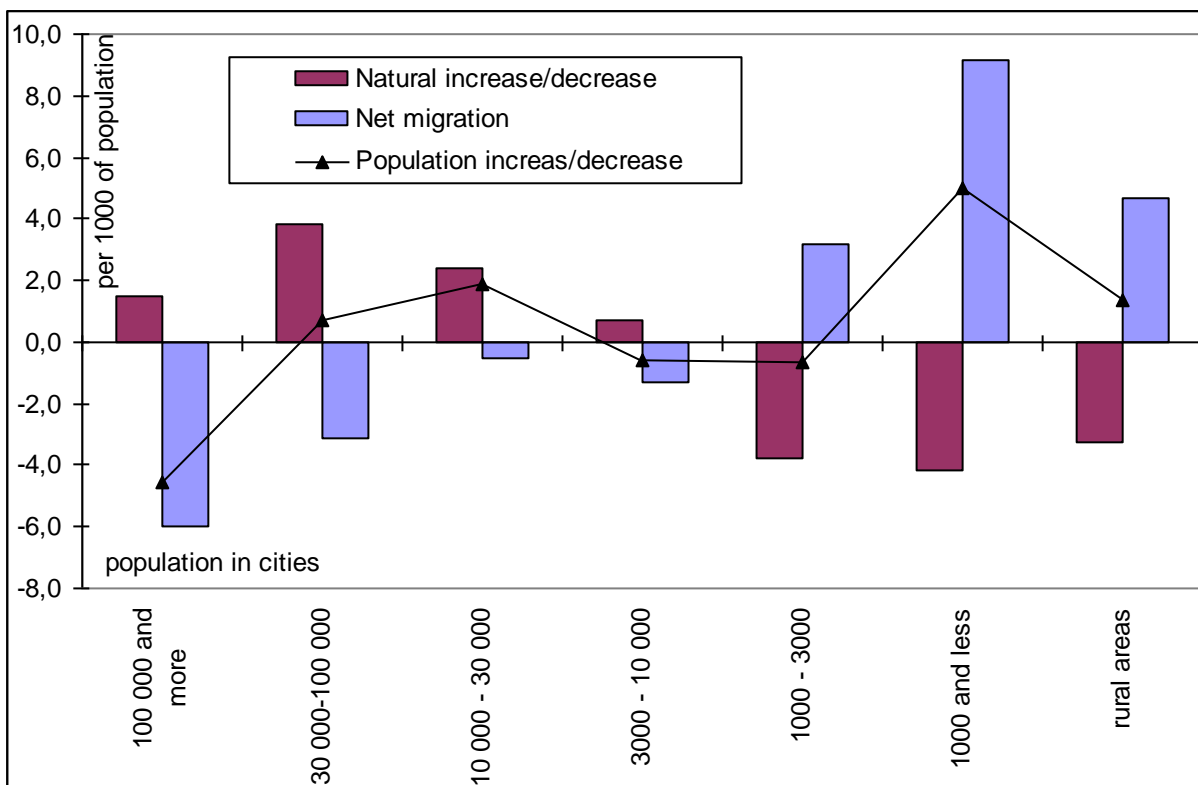
Figure 2.12 Main internal migration flows in Lithuania in 1990-2006



Source: Jurkštaitytė, 2008, p. 14.

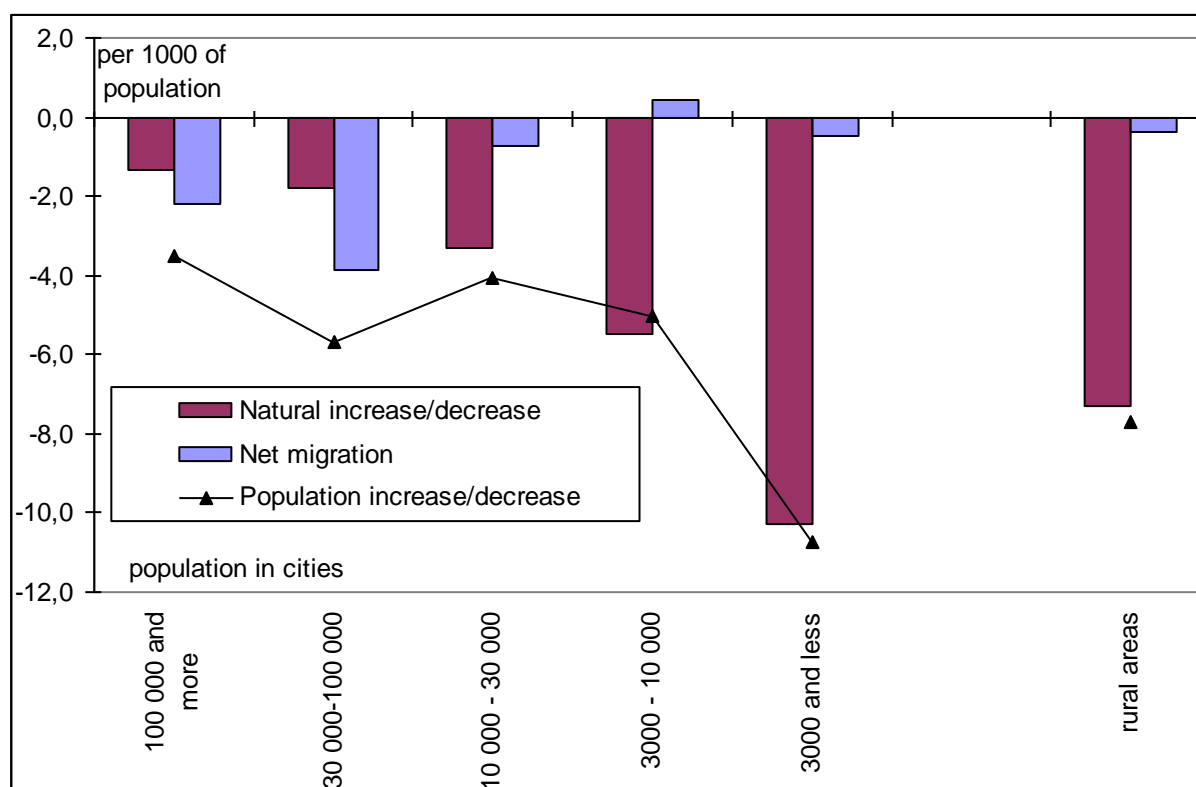
Note: *miestas* – urban, *kaimas* – rural

Figure 2.13 Population changes in Lithuanian cities and rural areas 1991-1999



Source: Krupickaitė, 1997.

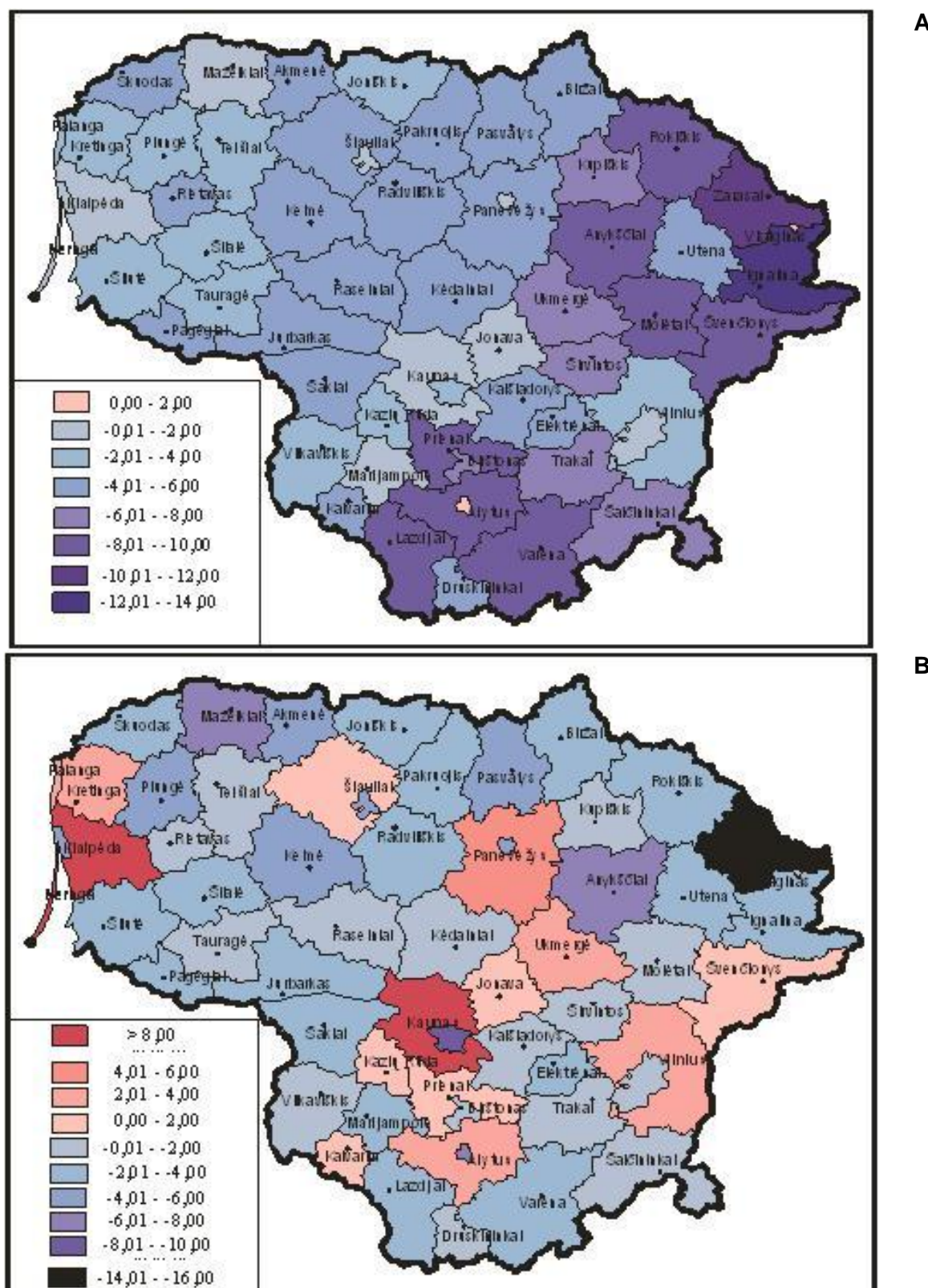
Figure 2.14 Population changes in Lithuanian cities and rural areas in 2007



Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database.

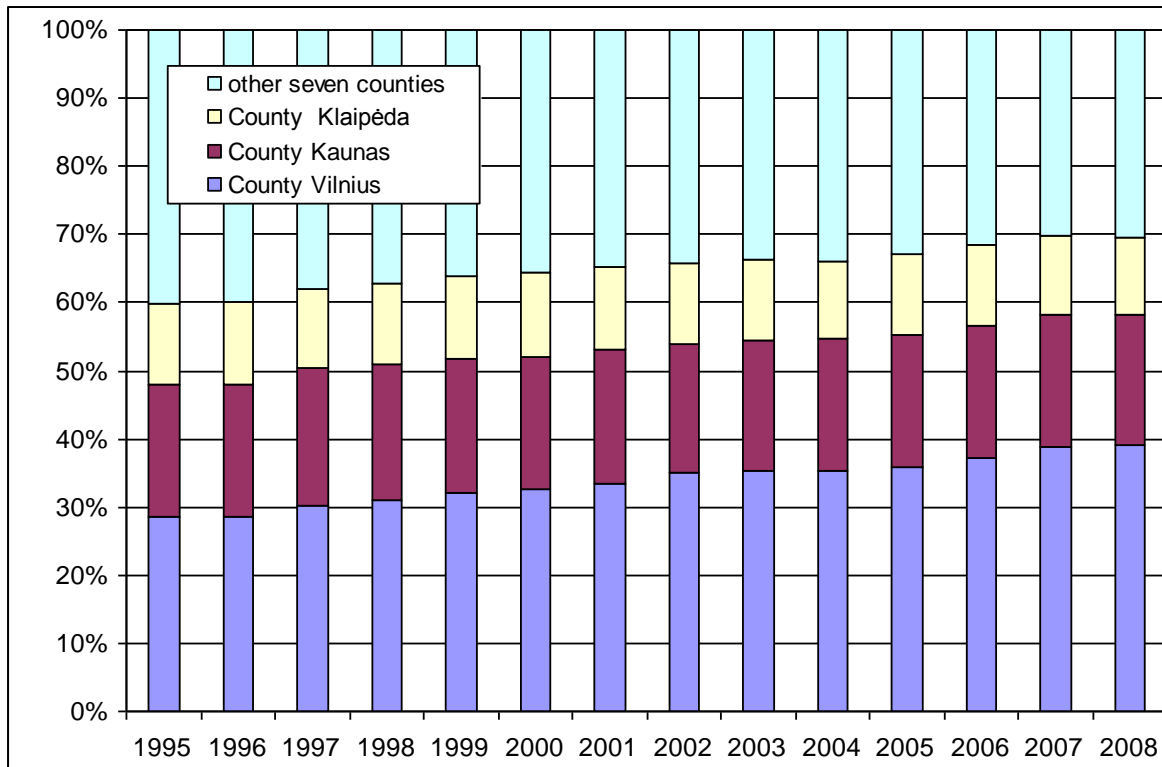


**Figure 2.15** Natural increase (A) and net migration (B) in Lithuanian municipalities in 2001-2006 (average per year, per 1,000 of population)



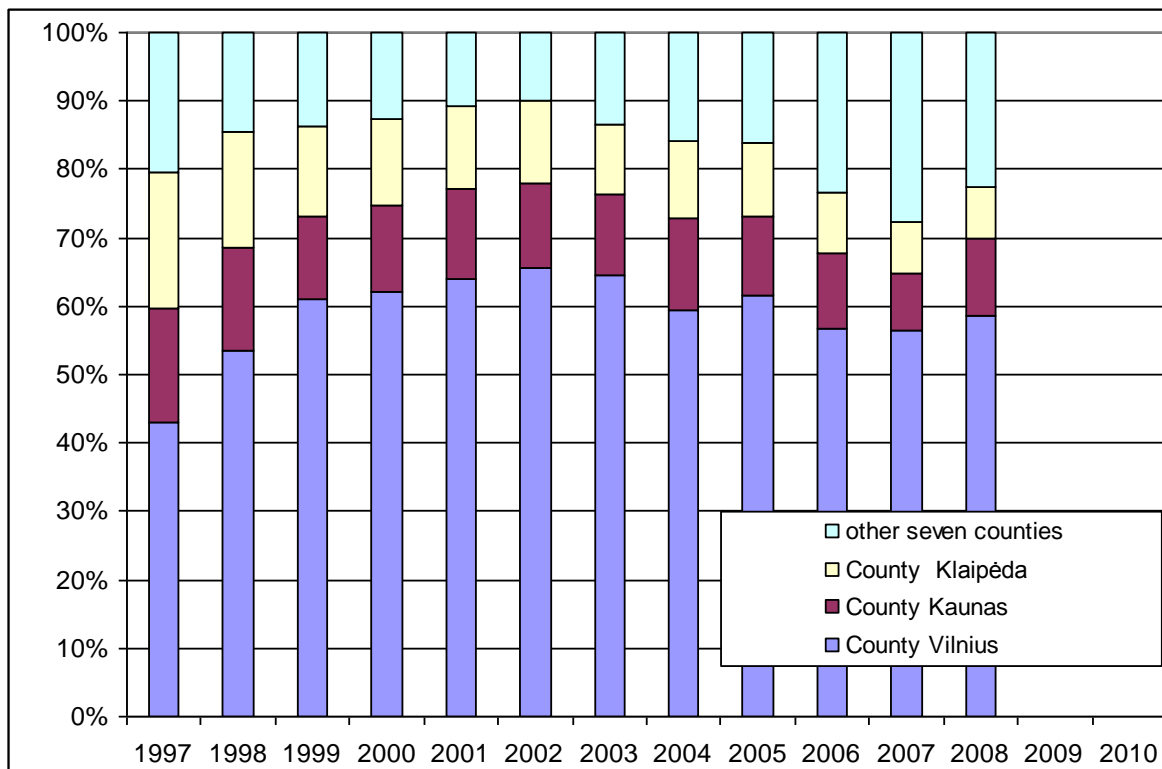
Source: Krupickaitė, 2007.

**Figure 2.16** Development of the structure of the Gross Domestic Product, 1995-2008



Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database.

**Figure 2.17** Development of the structure of Foreign Direct Investment, per capita, LTL



Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database.

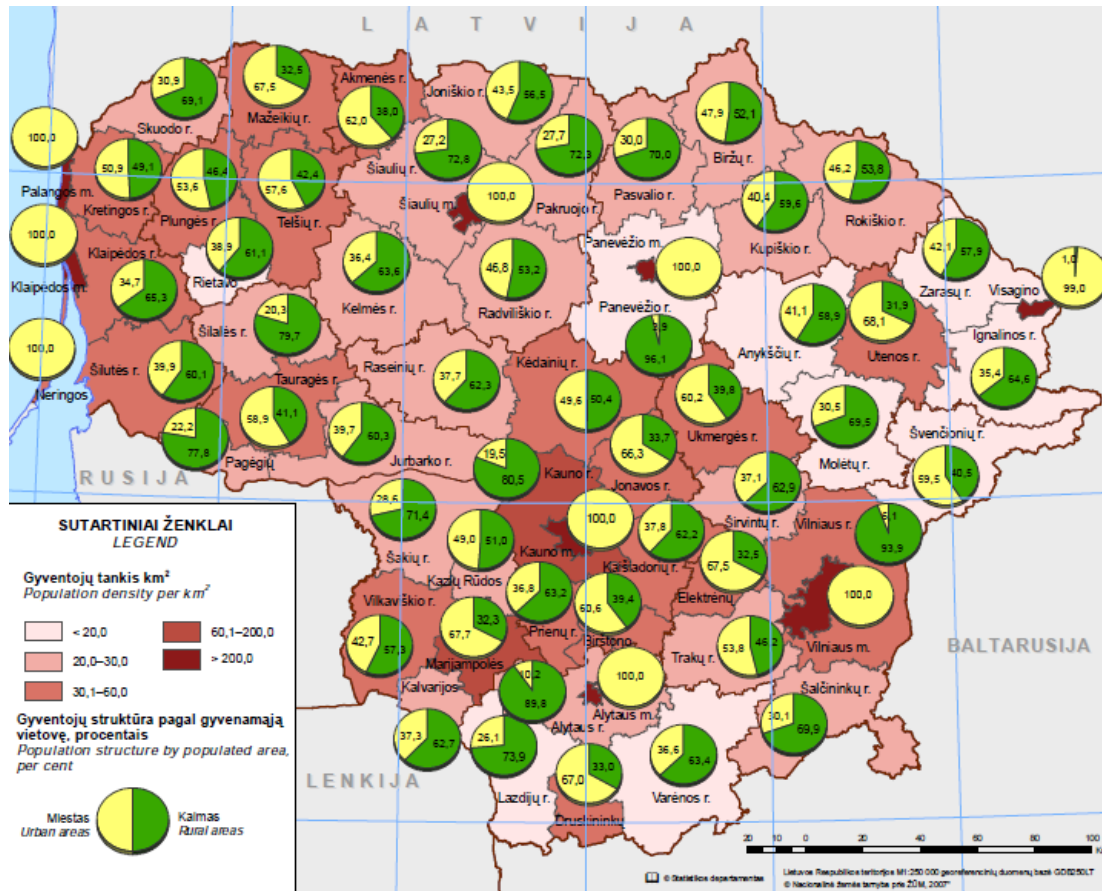
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**Table 2.11** Age structure of emigrants who have declared their departure in Lithuania in selected years

Age	1992	2002	2007	2010
0–14	1353	1042	2176	8483
15–19	614	453	880	4909
20–29	2053	1809	4282	33651
30–39	1100	1508	3272	19817
40–59	974	1664	2738	15528
60+	546	610	505	769
Total	6640	7086	13853	83157

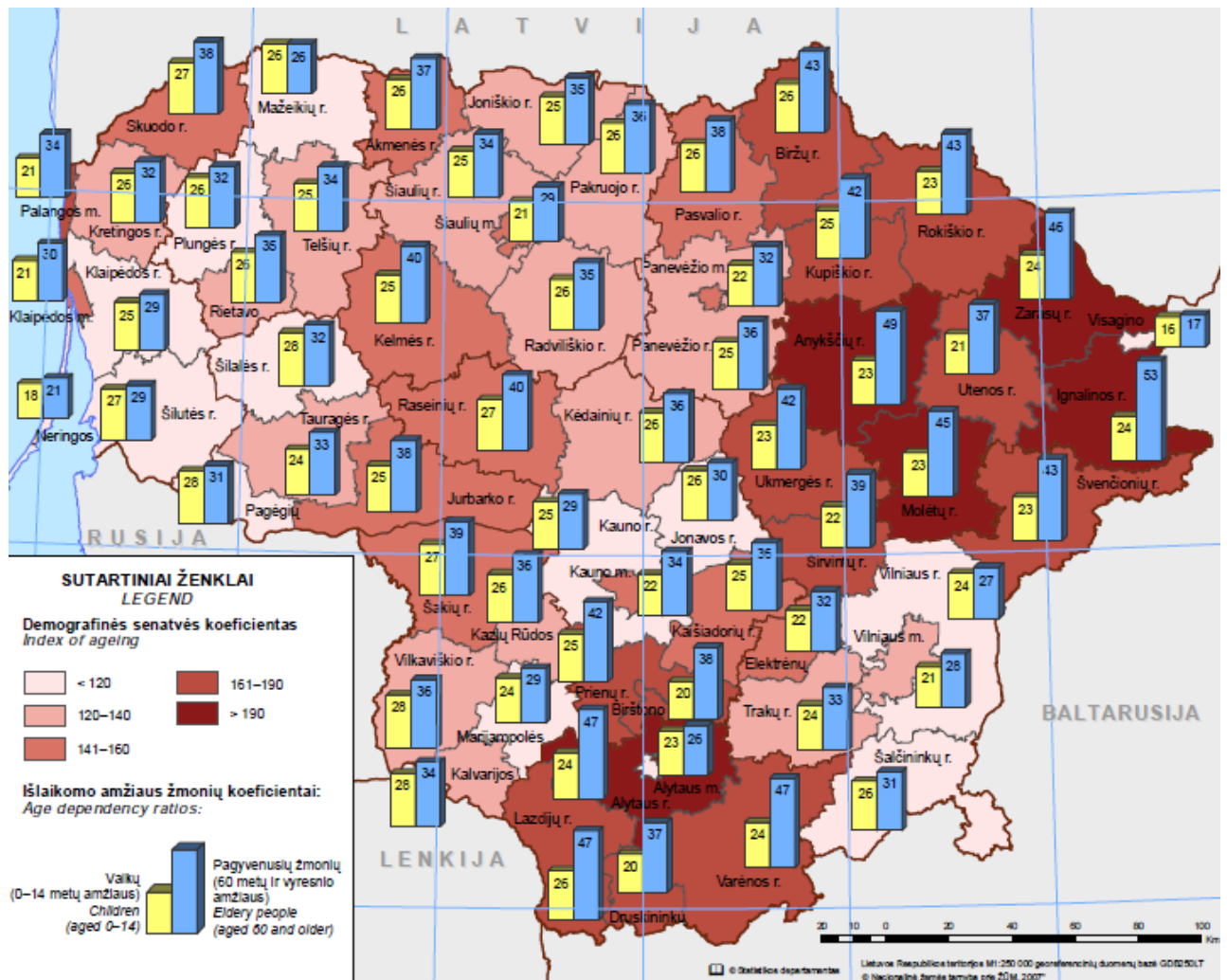
Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database.

**Figure 2.18** Population density and structure (rural/urban) by populated area (municipalities – LAU1), 2010



Source: Statistics Lithuania, 2010c, p. 12.

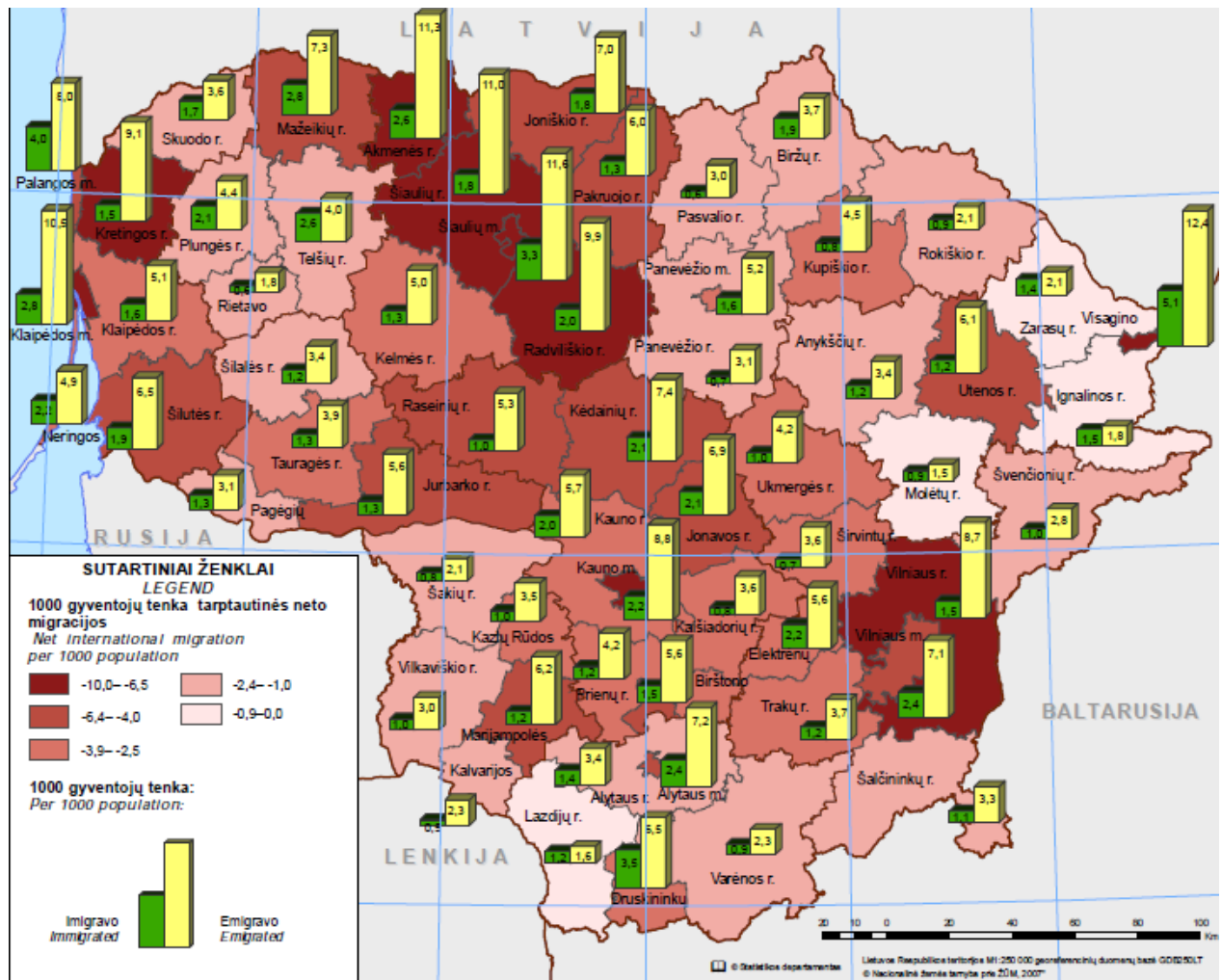
**Figure 2.19** Index of ageing and age dependency rates in Lithuania, by municipalities (LAU1), 2010



Source: Statistics Lithuania, 2010c, p. 14.

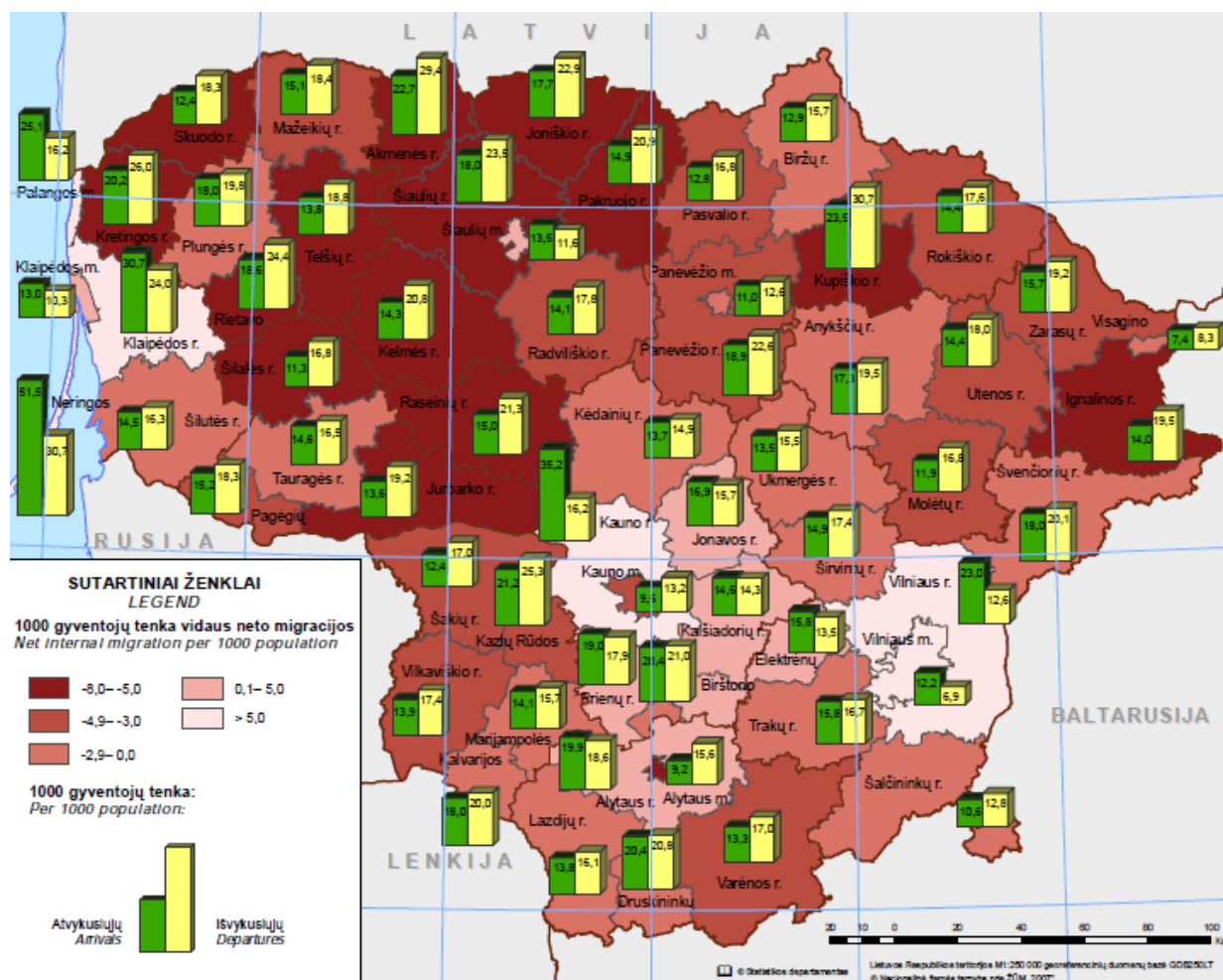


Figure 2.20 Declared international migration in Lithuania, by municipalities (LAU1), 2009



Source: Statistics Lithuania, 2010c, p. 20.

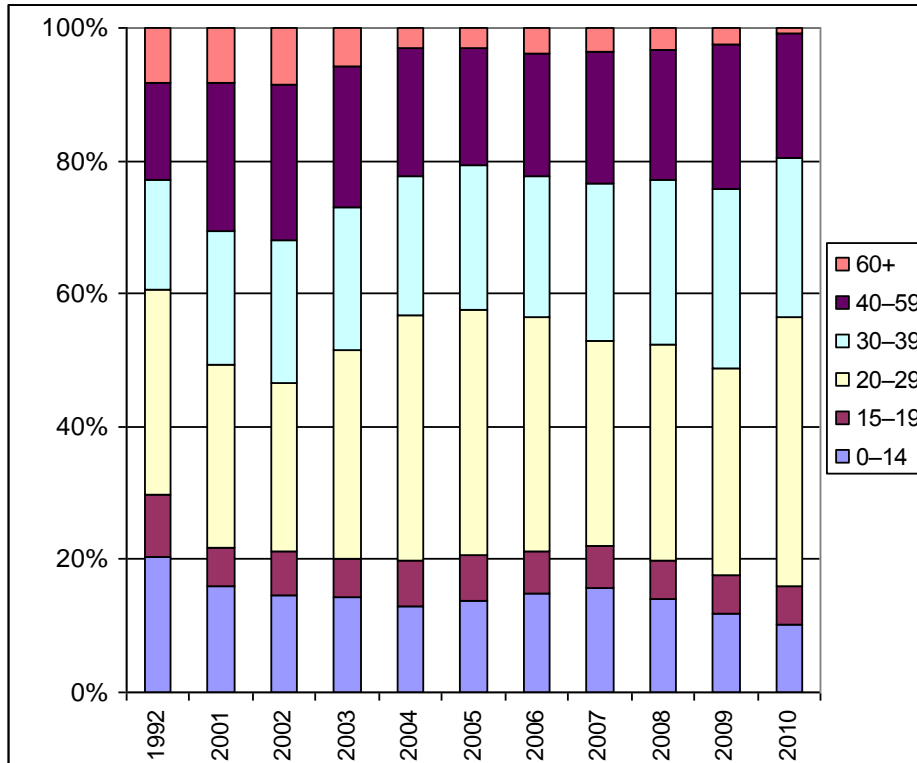
Figure 2.21 Internal migration in Lithuania, by municipalities (LAU1) 2009



Source: Statistics Lithuania, 2010c, p. 21.

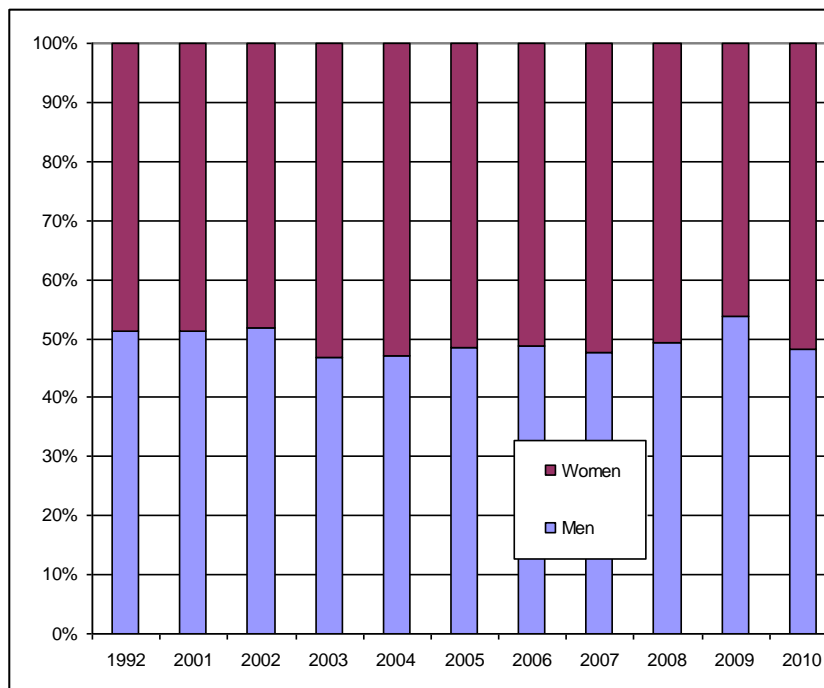
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**Figure 2.22** Age structure of emigrants who have declared their departure in Lithuania 2002, 2001-2010



Data sources: Statistics Lithuania, 1993; Statistics Lithuania Database.

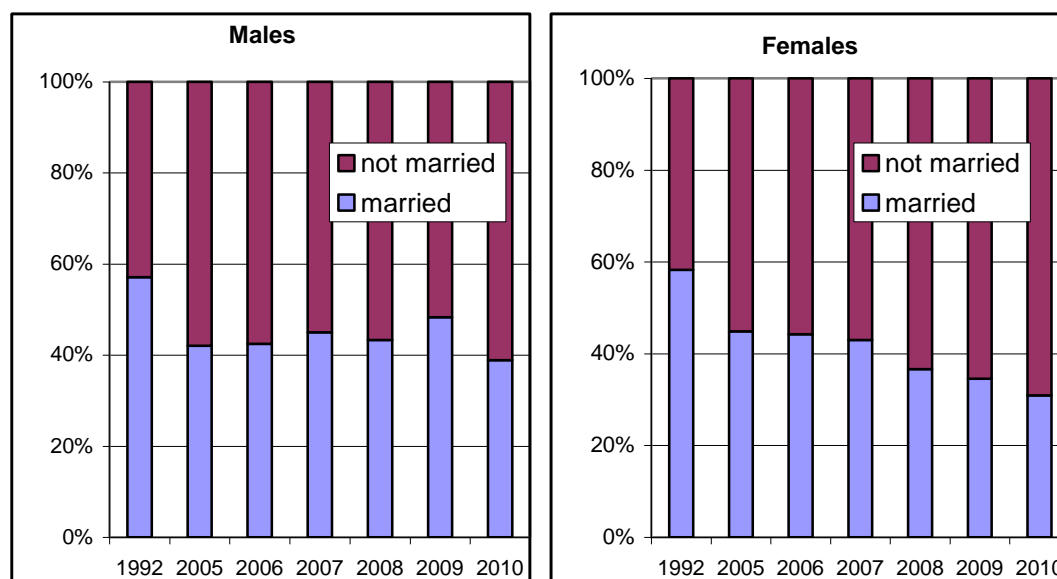
**Figure 2.23** Gender of emigrants who have declared their departure in Lithuania 1992, 2001-2010



Data sources: Statistics Lithuania, 1993, p. 119; Statistics Lithuania Database.



**Figure 2.24** Marital status of emigrants who have declared their departure in Lithuania 1992, 2001-2010 (16 years old and over)



Data sources: Statistics Lithuania, 1993, p. 119; Statistics Lithuania Database.

**Table 2.12** Emigrants who have not declared their departure by former occupation<sup>1</sup>, aged 15 and older, in %

	2001-2002	2006	2007
<i>Total, thousand</i>	19,5	13,0	12,0
Highly skilled non-manual	17,9	14,6	17,5
Low skilled non-manual	5,1	9,2	10,8
Skilled manual	16,8	24,6	18,3
Elementary occupations	5,1	12,3	4,2
Unknown	55,1	39,3	49,2
<b>Total</b>	<b>100,0</b>	<b>100,0</b>	<b>100,0</b>

<sup>1</sup> The breakdown of persons by occupation is based on the Lithuanian Classification by Occupation (groups 1 to 3 – for highly skilled non-manual, 4 to 5 – for low skilled non-manual, 6 to 8 – for skilled manual and 9 – for elementary occupations)

Data of surveys on undeclared emigration, source: Statistics Lithuania, 2008, p. 17.

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**Table 2.13** Emigrants who have not declared their departure by educational attainment, aged 16 and older

	<b>2001–2002</b>	<b>2003</b>	<b>2005</b>	<b>2006</b>	<b>2007</b>
Total, thousand	19,5	10,9	27,7	13,0	12,0
Higher and professional college	3,6	1,6	3,5	2,7	3,1
Secondary specialized and secondary	11,5	7,5	17,4	6,4	6,1
Basic	0,6	0,8	2,0	1,1	2,1
Primary	0,5	0,2	0,2	0,9	-
Unknown	3,3	0,8	4,6	1,9	0,7
<b>Percentage of the total number</b>					
Higher and professional college	18.5	14.7	12.6	20.8	25.8
Secondary specialized and secondary	59.0	68.8	62.8	49.2	50.8
Basic	3.1	7.6	7.2	8.5	17.5
Primary	2.6	1.9	0.7	6.9	-
Unknown	16.8	7.3	16.7	14.6	5.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Data of surveys on undeclared emigration, source: Statistics Lithuania, 2008, p. 16; Statistics Lithuania Database.

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**Table 2.14** Emigrants who have declared their departure by previous employment and economic activity<sup>2</sup>, aged 15 and older, in %

	<b>2008</b>	<b>2009</b>
Agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing	0,6	0,2
Mining and quarrying	0,0	0,0
Manufacturing	9,3	2,4
Electricity, gas and water supply	0,2	0,1
Construction	5,1	2,0
Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles, motorcycles and personal and household goods	9,7	2,4
Hotels and restaurants	3,5	1,1
Transport, storage and communication	4,7	7,3
Financial intermediation	0,5	0,1
Real estate, renting and business activities	4,2	0,2
Public administration and defence; compulsory social security	1,2	0,3
Education	2,1	0,5
Health and social work	1,3	0,2
Other community, social and personal service activities	1,6	1,9
<b>Had not been working for one year and longer</b>	<b>56,0</b>	<b>81,3</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>100,0</b>	<b>100,0</b>

<sup>2</sup> Estimates made 2008-2009 based on the data of the declaration of the place of residence and of the State Social Insurance Fund Board under the Ministry of Social Security and Labour of the Republic of Lithuania and Statistical Register of Economic Entities

Source: Statistics Lithuania, 2009, pp. 16-17; 2010, pp. 16-17.

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**Table 3.1** Number of employees by sector of the national economy by gross earnings class, October 2008, 2009 and 2010; in %

	Year	Employees by gross earnings class in LTL and EUR							
		those earning the Minimum Monthly Wage and under	LTL 801–1000 (EUR 231 – 289)	LTL 1001–1200 (EUR 290 – 347)	LTL 1201–1500 (EUR 348 – 434)	LTL 1501–2000 (EUR 435 – 579)	LTL 2001–3500 EUR 580 – 1012	LTL 3501–5500 (EUR 1013 – 1592)	LTL 5501 (EUR 1593 and more)
<b>Whole economy</b>									
Total	2008	13.2	9.2	9.4	10.4	15.1	29.0	10.0	3.8
	2009	19.6	11.1	9.8	10.9	14.8	24.5	6.7	2.5
	2010	19.4	11.1	9.8	10.6	15.0	24.2	7.1	2.7
Full-time employees	2008	7.2	9.1	9.8	10.9	16.2	27.0	11.0	4.1
	2009	9.7	11.6	10.8	12.0	16.8	31.7	7.9	2.9
	2010	9.3	11.7	10.7	11.7	17.0	28.2	8.3	3.2
<b>Public sector</b>									
Total	2008	10.0	7.9	7.3	9.1	14.6	35.7	12.0	3.3
	2009	12.1	8.6	7.7	10.3	17.0	34.4	8.1	1.9
	2010	12.0	9.0	7.5	9.9	16.9	33.8	8.7	2.1
Full-time employees	2008	4.9	7.5	7.2	9.3	15.5	38.8	13.1	3.6
	2009	6.0	8.0	7.6	10.6	18.4	38.2	9.0	2.1
	2010	5.7	8.6	7.4	10.1	18.4	37.7	9.8	2.3
<b>Private sector</b>									
Total	2008	15.1	9.9	10.7	11.1	15.3	25.1	8.8	4.0
	2009	24.5	12.7	11.3	11.2	13.4	18.1	5.9	2.9
	2010	24.1	12.4	11.3	11.1	13.8	18.1	6.1	3.1
Full-time employees	2008	8.6	10.1	11.3	11.9	16.6	27.4	9.7	4.4
	2009	12.2	14.1	13.0	12.9	15.7	21.5	7.0	3.4
	2010	11.7	13.8	13.0	12.8	16.1	21.6	7.3	3.7

Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database.

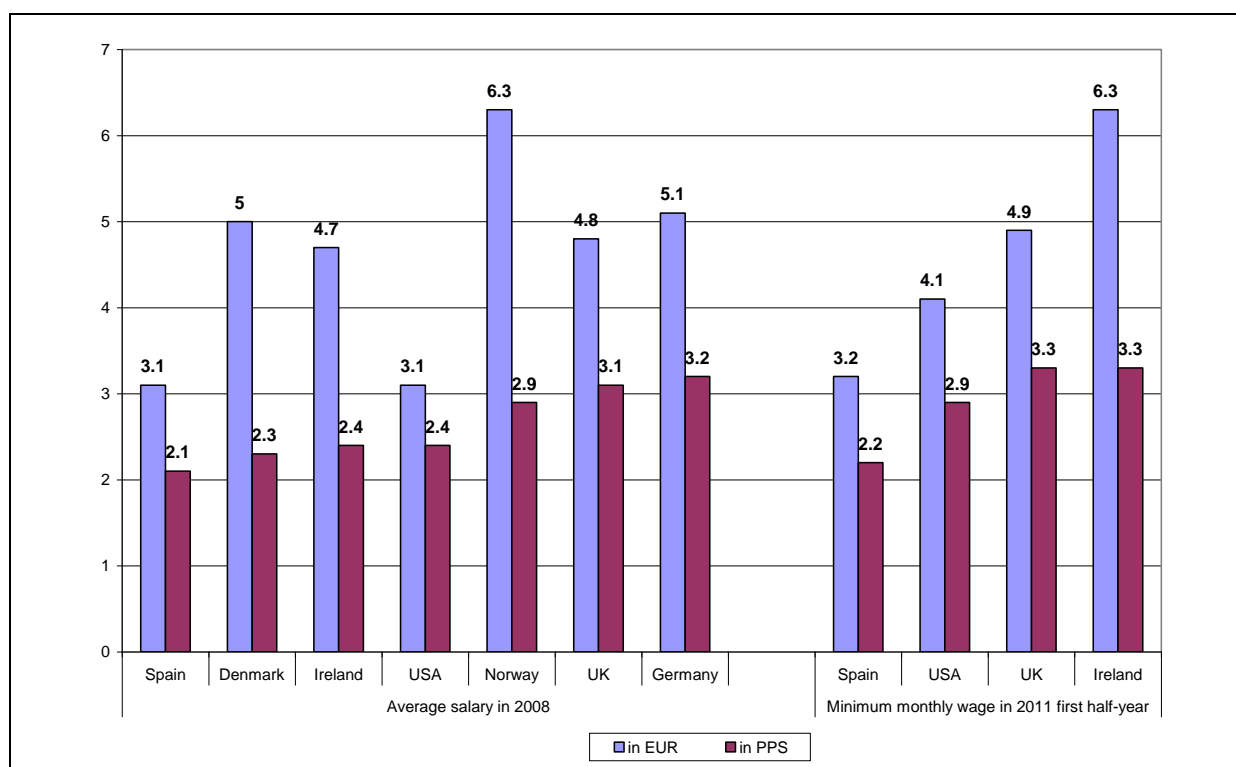
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**Table 3.2** Remittances, the change of remittances and proportion with GDP and total net salary fund

	<b>Total (million EUR)</b>	<b>Annual change</b>	<b>Proportion of remittances with the GDP (%)</b>	<b>Proportion of remittances with total net salary fund</b>
2000	57.87	16.7 times	0.4	2.5
2001	91.66	58.4	0.7	4.0
2001	137.92	50.4	0.9	5.7
2003	101.34	-26.5	0.6	3.8
2004	260.66	2.6 times	1.4	8.9
2005	432.08	65.8	2.1	12.9
2006	787.68	82.3	3.3	19.1
2007	1040.05	32.0	3.6	19.8
2008	1018.83	-2.0	3.2	15.8
2009	833.84	-18.2	3.1	15.3
2010	1191.90	42.9	4.3	23.9

Data source: SEB Bank.

**Figure 3.1** The proportion of salaries in destination countries and Lithuania, in times



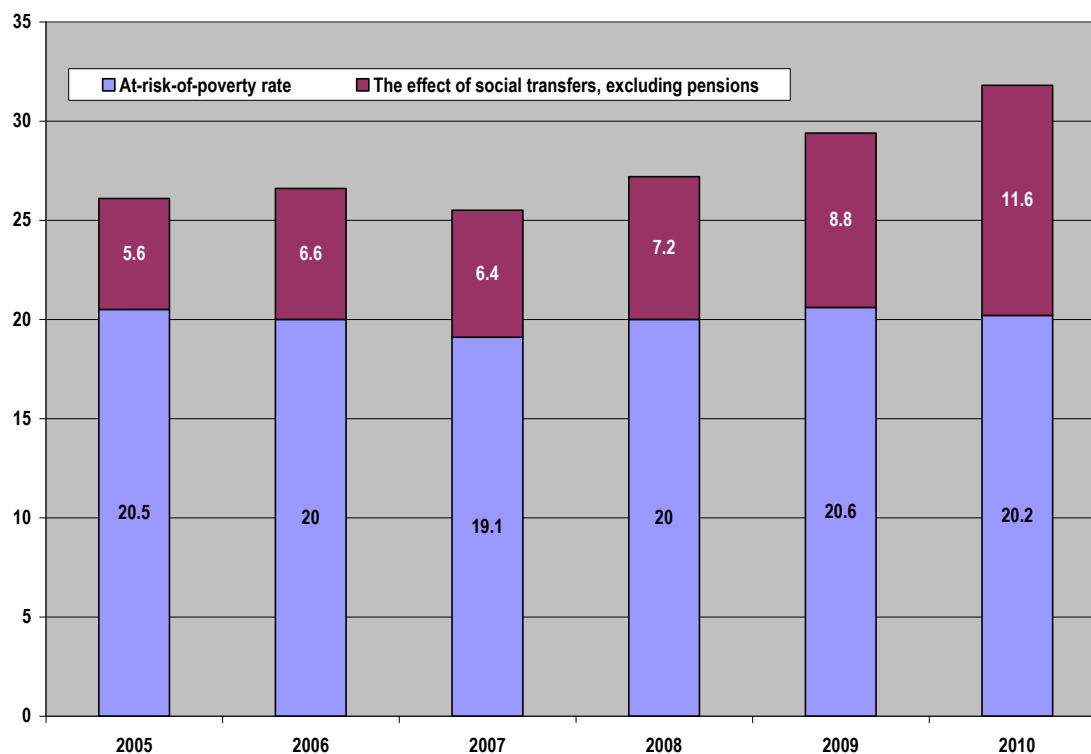
Data source: SEB Bank.

**Table 3.3** At-risk-of-poverty threshold, per month, in EUR

	<b>2005</b>	<b>2006</b>	<b>2007</b>	<b>2008</b>	<b>2009</b>	<b>2010</b>
Single person	102.8	126.6	163.9	208.5	240.7	203.0
2 adults with 2 children younger than 14 years	216.1	265.9	344.1	437.9	505.7	426.3

Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database.

**Figure 3.2** At-risk-of-poverty rate and effectiveness of social transfers, in %



Data source: Eurostat.

**Table 3.4** The development of the national quantitative targets for inclusive growth, % and thousands

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Employment rate by gender, age group 20-64	total	70.6	71.6	72.9	72.0	67.2	64.4
	male	74.9	75.2	76.5	75.5	66.9	63.6
	female	66.6	68.3	69.5	68.8	67.5	65.1
Persons in poverty risk/severe material deprivation/ living in households of very low work intensity	(thousands)	1400	1217	967	928	985	1109

Data source: Eurostat.

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**Table 3.5** Europe 2020 headline target of reduction of poverty by aiming to lift at least 20 million people out of the risk of poverty or exclusion: EU and Lithuanian situation, in %

	2005		2006		2007		2008		2009		2010	
	EU27	LT	EU27	LT	EU27	LT	EU27	LT	EU27	LT	EU27	LT
People at risk of poverty or social exclusion (union of the three sub-indicators below)	25.7	41.0	25.3	35.9	24.4	28.7	23.6	27.6	23.1	29.5	23.4	33.4
People living in households with very low work intensity <sup>37</sup>	10.4	9.5	10.5	8.3	9.7	6.4	9.0	5.1	9.0	6.9	9.9	9.2
The persons with an equivalised disposable income below the risk-of-poverty threshold <sup>38</sup>	16.5	20.5	16.6	20.0	16.7	19.1	16.4	20.0	16.3	20.6	16.4	20.2
Severely materially deprived people <sup>39</sup>	10.7	32.6	9.8	25.3	9.1	16.6	8.4	12.3	8.1	15.1	8.1	19.5

Data source: Eurostat.

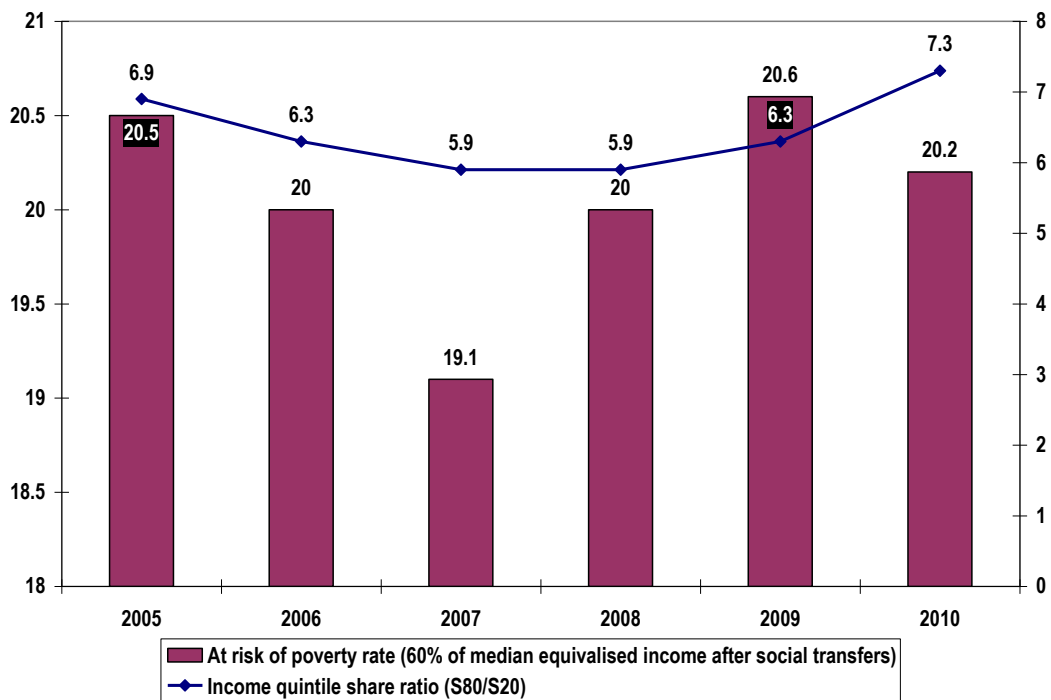
<sup>37</sup> People living in households with very low work intensity are people aged 0-59 living in households where the adults work less than 20% of their total work potential during the past year.

<sup>38</sup> The persons with an equivalised disposable income below the risk-of-poverty threshold, which is set at 60 % of the national median equivalised disposable income (after social transfers).

<sup>39</sup> The collection "material deprivation" covers indicators relating to economic strain, durables, housing and environment of the dwelling. Severely materially deprived persons have living conditions severely constrained by a lack of resources, they experience at least 4 out of 9 following deprivations items: cannot afford i) to pay rent or utility bills, ii) keep home adequately warm, iii) face unexpected expenses, iv) eat meat, fish or a protein equivalent every second day, v) a week holiday away from home, vi) a car, vii) a washing machine, viii) a colour TV, or ix) a telephone.

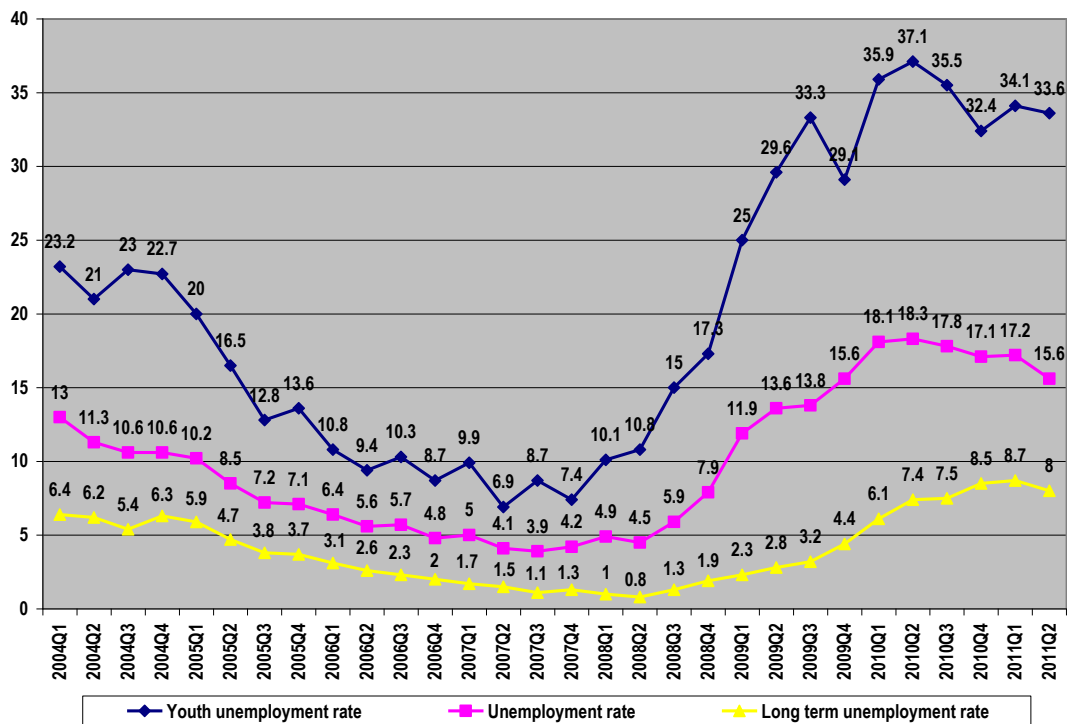
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**Figure 3.3** Changes of at risk of poverty rate (percentage) and income quintile share ratio (S80/S20)



Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database and Eurostat.

**Figure 3.4** Unemployment rate, Q1 2004 to Q2 2011;

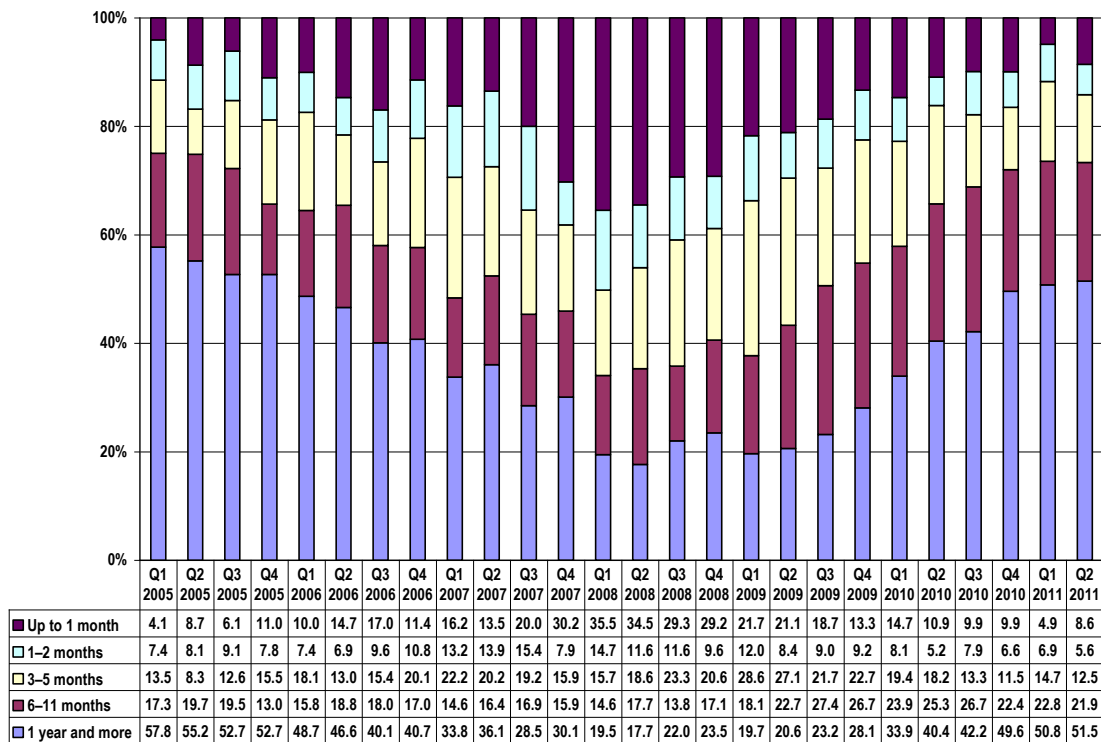


Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database, Labour Force Survey



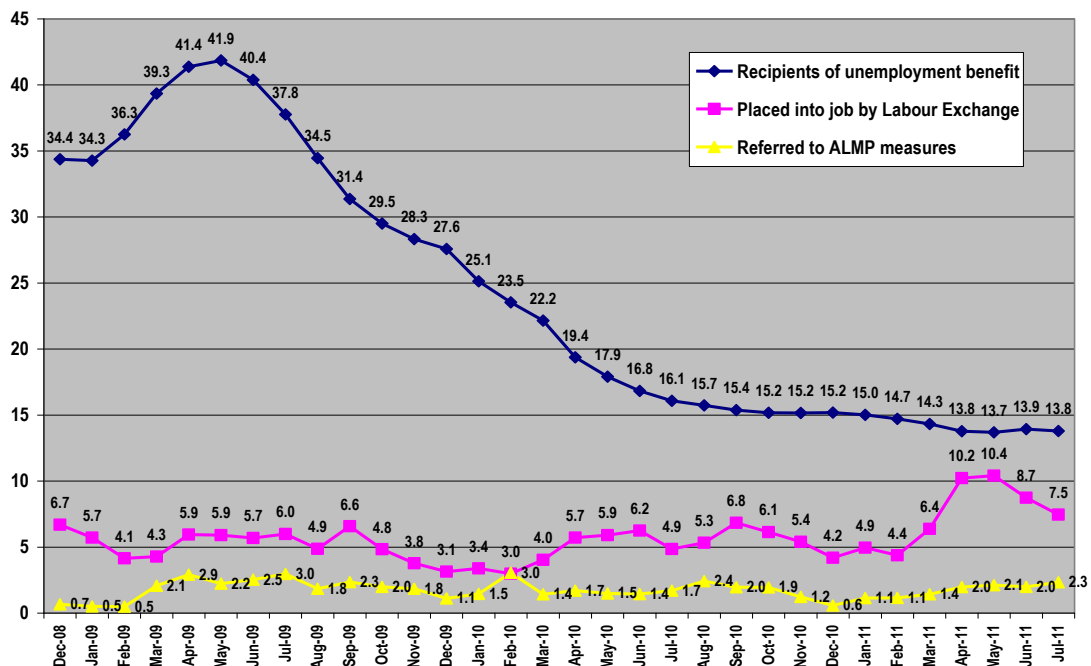
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**Figure 3.5** Percentage of unemployed by duration of unemployment, Q1 2005-Q 2 2011, %



Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database.

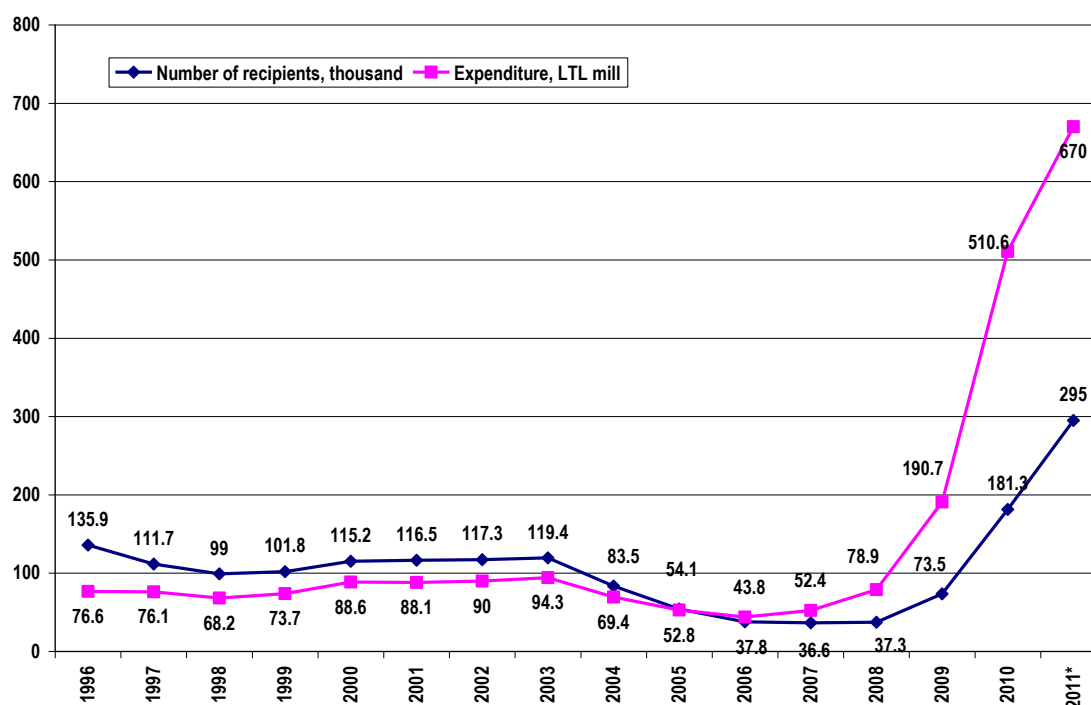
**Figure 3.6** Share of unemployed (%) registered by the Labour Exchange: who receives the unemployment benefits, who are placed to job by the Labour Exchange, and who are referred to ALMP measures (at the end of the month)



Data source: Lithuanian Labour Exchange.

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**Figure 3.7** Social assistance benefit by statistical indicator and year



\* - Calculated on the basis of the data of the first half of the year

Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database.

**Table 3.6** At-risk-of-poverty rate of persons aged 18 and older by activity status

	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Total by professional status	18.8	19	18.3	19.2	19.8	19.5
Employed persons	10	10	8	9.3	10.4	12.3
Unemployed	62.8	61.4	57.5	51	54.3	55.6
Retired persons	17.5	22.7	29.8	30.8	27.6	13.3
Inactive	28.7	26.6	29	31.5	33.5	29.9

Source: Lithuanian Statistics.

**Table 3.7** In-work at-risk-of-poverty rates by status of employment and by gender

		2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Employed persons	Total	10.0	9.9	8.0	9.4	10.4	12.3
	Males	10.4	10.9	7.7	9.2	9.6	10.3
	Females	9.7	9.0	8.4	9.5	11.2	14.0
Employees	Total	:	:	:	:	8.2	10.6
	Males	:	:	:	:	6.5	8.2
	Females	:	:	:	:	9.8	12.5
Employed persons except employees	Total	:	:	:	:	29.9	27.9
	Males	:	:	:	:	31.2	24.0
	Females	:	:	:	:	27.8	34.0

Source: Eurostat.

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**Table 3.8** Population at risk of poverty or social exclusion by household type, in %

	<b>2005</b>	<b>2006</b>	<b>2007</b>	<b>2008</b>	<b>2009</b>	<b>2010</b>
Total	41.1	35.9	28.7	27.7	29.6	33.4
Single person	60.1	58.1	57.8	55.2	57.3	46.8
One adult younger than 65 years	55.9	55.1	48.1	41.9	53.4	53.0
One adult older than 65 years	65.2	61.2	66.1	66.9	60.6	40.7
Single parent with dependent children	68.3	64.8	53.8	54.5	56.9	63.8
Single female	62.4	61.2	61.9	58.5	59.1	43.2
Single male	55.7	51.2	48.1	47.3	53.7	54.7
Two adults	40.2	33.2	24.7	25.7	23.3	31.6
Two adults younger than 65 years	41.2	31.8	20.9	22.1	24.2	35.9
Two adults, at least one aged 65 years and over	39.0	34.6	29.0	29.3	22.3	26.2
Two adults with one dependent child	28.9	29.1	20.6	16.6	18.4	24.8
Two adults with two dependent children	31.3	21.7	17.8	19.0	22.9	26.3
Two adults with three or more dependent children	59.8	52.0	48.7	64.4	36.7	40.9
Two or more adults without dependent children	38.5	32.7	22.7	22.5	23.1	31.2
Two or more adults with dependent children	35.3	30.4	24.0	23.0	24.3	28.7
Three or more adults	35.4	31.8	19.7	18.2	22.8	30.6
Three or more adults with dependent children	35.1	31.2	24.9	20.2	26.0	30.9
Households without dependent children	44.7	40.0	31.9	30.7	32.7	36.1
Households with dependent children	38.7	33.4	26.6	25.7	27.3	31.5

Data source: Eurostat.

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**Table 3.9** Severe material deprivation rate by household type, in %

	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Total	32.5	25.3	16.5	12.4	15.1	19.6
Single person	49.7	42.7	29.1	22.5	27.0	29.1
One adult younger than 65 years	46.5	41.1	30.8	21.1	27.0	27.1
One adult older than 65 years	53.5	44.3	27.7	23.8	26.9	31.2
Single female	51.2	43.7	29.9	22.7	24.2	27.7
Single male	46.8	40.3	27.2	22.1	32.9	32.1
Single parent with dependent children	56.8	48.5	34.0	19.2 <sup>40</sup>	32.4	39.6
Two adults	33.1	25.1	16.9	13.2	14.6	18.8
Two adults younger than 65 years	31.7	22.0	14.5	10.8	14.3	17.4
Two adults, at least one aged 65 years and over	34.6	28.2	19.6	15.5	14.9	20.5
Two adults with one dependent child	22.5	22.2	12.0	7.4	5.7	12.1
Two adults with two dependent children	19.8	10.0	7.9	7.9	7.9	12.6
Two adults with three or more dependent children	44.3	29.6	19.3	28.2	14.5	26.2
Two or more adults without dependent children	32.4	24.4	15.3	12.4	14.7	18.9
Two or more adults with dependent children	26.3	20.0	13.1	9.9	10.9	15.9
Three or more adults	31.1	23.2	13.0	11.3	14.9	19.0
Three or more adults with dependent children	29.6	24.1	17.3	8.5	16.8	19.6
Households without dependent children	37.3	29.6	18.9	14.9	18.2	22.0
Households with dependent children	29.4	22.6	14.9	10.7	12.9	17.8

Data source: Eurostat.

<sup>40</sup> break in series.

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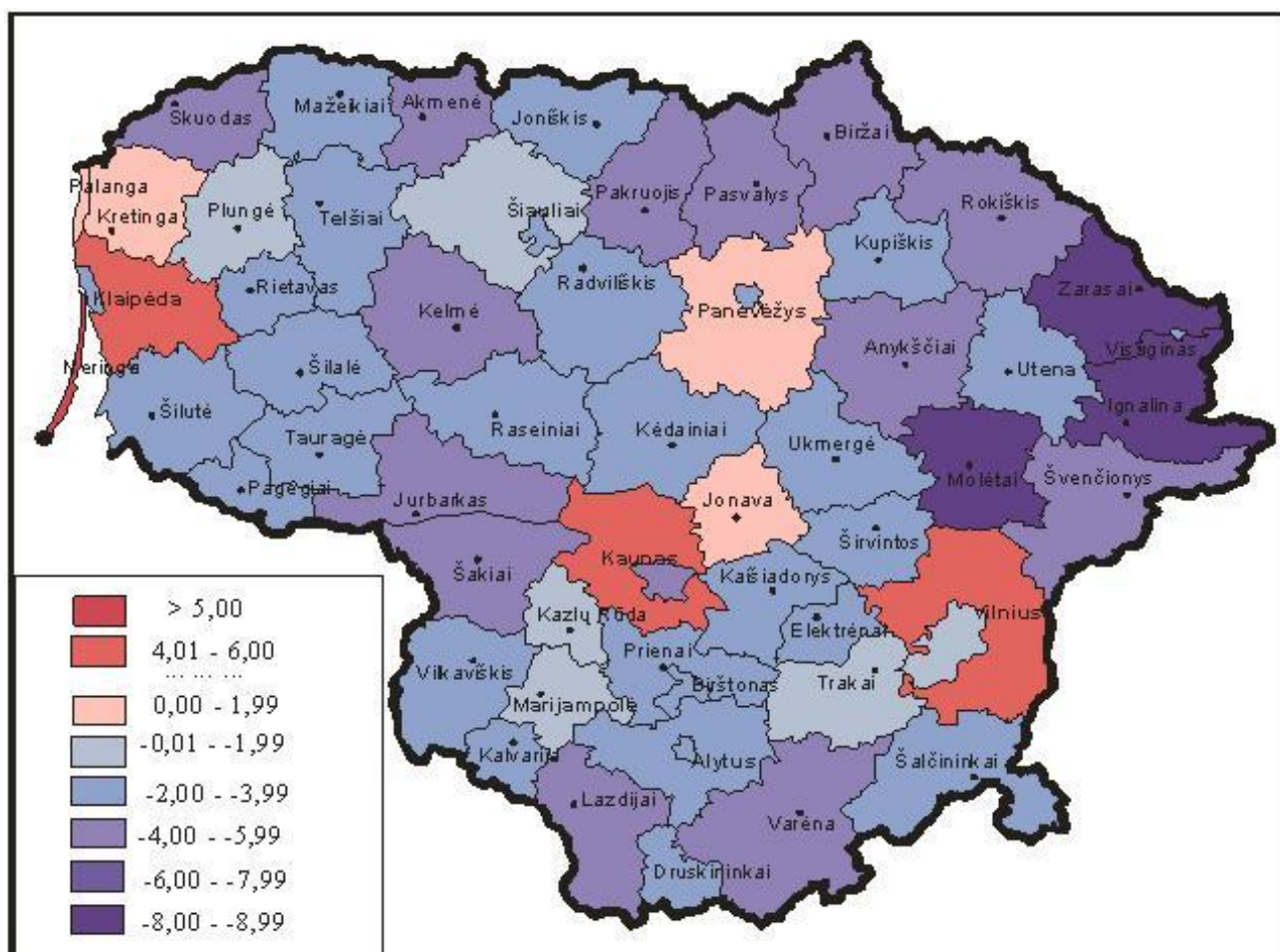
**Table 3.10** At-risk-of-poverty rate before and after social transfers by household type

	2005			2006			2007			2008			2009			2010		
	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
Total	31.3	20.6	10.7	29.8	20.0	9.8	28.1	19.2	8.9	28.9	20.0	8.9	30.9	20.6	10.3	30.9	20.2	10.7
Single person	54.5	31.6	22.9	59.9	38.0	21.9	63.6	49.5	14.1	60.9	47.7	13.2	65.1	46.9	18.2	47.4	27.6	19.8
1 adult younger than 65 years	44.7	30.4	14.3	47.1	34.7	12.4	45.4	36.5	8.9	43.9	34.2	9.7	55.5	43.8	11.7	51.9	39.9	12.0
1 adult older than 65 years	66.4	33.0	33.4	73.1	41.3	31.8	79.1	60.5	18.6	75.9	59.5	16.4	73.0	49.4	23.6	42.9	15.3	27.6
Single parent with dependent children	59.4	48.4	11.0	53.2	44.2	9.0	53.0	41.4	11.6	62.2	48.3	13.9	53.5	44.3	9.2	50.6	44.4	6.2
Single female	57.5	29.8	27.7	64.3	38.8	25.5	68.1	52.9	15.2	64.6	50.9	13.7	67.0	48.4	18.6	47.3	22.1	25.2
Single male	48.7	35.1	13.6	50.1	36.2	13.9	53.1	41.3	11.8	51.9	39.7	12.2	61.0	43.5	17.5	47.7	39.3	8.4
2 adults	22.2	13.5	8.7	23.0	12.8	10.2	25.3	11.9	13.4	28.3	15.6	12.7	26.0	13.5	12.5	21.8	16.0	5.8
2 adults younger than 65 years	23.0	17.1	5.9	20.2	13.7	6.5	18.1	10.6	7.5	23.3	14.8	8.5	24.0	16.4	7.6	28.1	22.6	5.5
2 adults, at least 1 aged 65 years and over	21.2	9.4	11.8	25.8	11.9	13.9	33.6	13.4	20.2	33.2	16.5	16.7	28.6	9.8	18.8	13.8	7.7	6.1
2 adults with 1 dependent child	21.1	15.2	5.9	22.3	16.1	6.2	19.7	14.1	5.6	19.5	12.5	7.0	23.7	14.1	9.6	25.5	19.0	6.5
2 adults with 2 dependent children	28.2	18.0	10.2	23.8	15.4	8.4	17.9	12.7	5.2	20.9	13.2	7.7	26.0	18.0	8.0	31.9	21.1	10.8
2 adults with 3+ dependent children	57.6	44.4	13.2	51.4	41.5	9.9	49.6	38.2	11.4	60.6	46.0	14.6	42.3	31.3	11.0	44.8	23.4	21.4
2+ adults without dependent children	20.5	12.0	8.5	20.6	11.6	9.0	20.1	9.8	10.3	20.8	12.1	8.7	21.4	11.5	9.9	20.7	14.5	6.2
2+ adults with dependent children	28.8	19.6	9.2	26.1	18.2	7.9	23.2	16.3	6.9	24.4	16.7	7.7	26.3	17.6	8.7	30.7	19.4	11.3
3+ adults	17.3	9.1	8.2	16.5	9.5	7.0	12.3	6.6	5.7	10.5	7.2	3.3	14.8	8.8	6.0	18.9	12.1	6.8
3+ adults with dependent children	23.9	14.4	9.5	21.3	13.2	8.1	23.0	14.3	8.7	21.5	15.0	6.5	22.8	14.9	7.9	29.4	16.3	13.1
Households without dependent children	30.2	17.6	12.6	31.8	19.2	12.6	31.5	20.2	11.3	30.8	21.0	9.8	33.6	21.4	12.2	29.0	18.6	10.4
Households with dependent children	32.0	22.6	9.4	28.5	20.5	8.0	25.8	18.4	7.4	27.7	19.4	8.3	28.9	20.1	8.8	32.3	21.4	10.9

Data source: Eurostat.

1 – before social transfers; 2 – after social transfers; 3 – difference

**Figure 4.1** Change of number of population (January 2001-January 2006) in Lithuanian municipalities, in %



Source: Krupickaitė, 2007.

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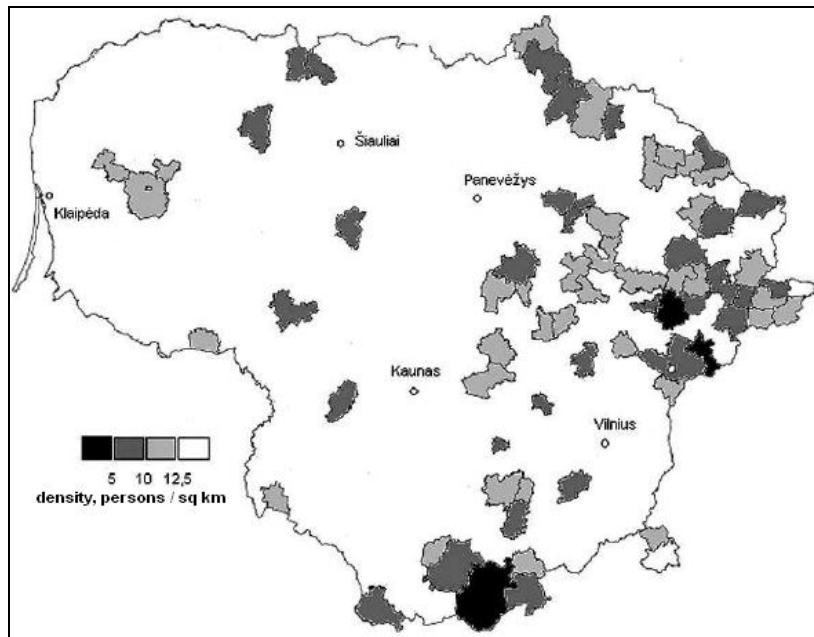
**Table 4.1** Development of population in different administrative units of Lithuania

	Total population change 2001-2011*, in %	Average annual natural change 2001-2010, in %	Average annual net external migration 2001-2010, in %	Average annual net internal migration 2001-2010, in %	Average annual net total migration 2001-2010, in %
Republic of Lithuania	-12,3	-2,99	-4,21	...	-4,21
Alytus county	-15,5	-4,75	-4,31	-2,62	-6,93
Kaunas county	-12,7	-2,68	-5,20	-0,22	-5,42
Klaipėda county	-12,6	-1,42	-5,07	1,40	-3,67
Marijampolė county	-14,7	-3,33	-3,12	-1,87	-4,99
Panevėžys county	-15,3	-4,65	-3,29	-2,40	-5,69
Šiauliai county	-17,4	-3,74	-5,57	-2,54	-8,11
Tauragė county	-18,2	-4,33	-3,30	-3,04	-6,35
Telšiai county	-14,7	-1,84	-4,16	-1,88	-6,04
Utena county	-19,0	-7,57	-3,71	-1,89	-5,60
Vilnius county	-4,6	-1,75	-3,27	3,62	0,35
<i>Municipalities with highest population decrease:</i>					
Visaginas	-25,3	1,63	-11,19	-0,54	-11,72
Pagėgiai	-22,4	-4,92	-2,66	-5,23	-7,90
Jurbarkas district	21,4	-5,93	-3,29	-4,11	-7,40
Ignalina district	-21,4	-13,43	-1,76	-3,32	-5,08
Akmenė district	-22,0	-5,86	-5,13	-5,25	-10,38
Biržai district	-20,4	-6,93	-3,11	-3,34	-6,45
<i>Municipalities with population increase:</i>					
Klaipėda district	7,4	-0,39	-3,01	14,52	11,51
Vilnius district	6,2	-2,51	-2,48	13,07	10,59
Kaunas district	3,2	-0,32	-4,28	13,86	9,58

\*According preliminary Census 2011 data

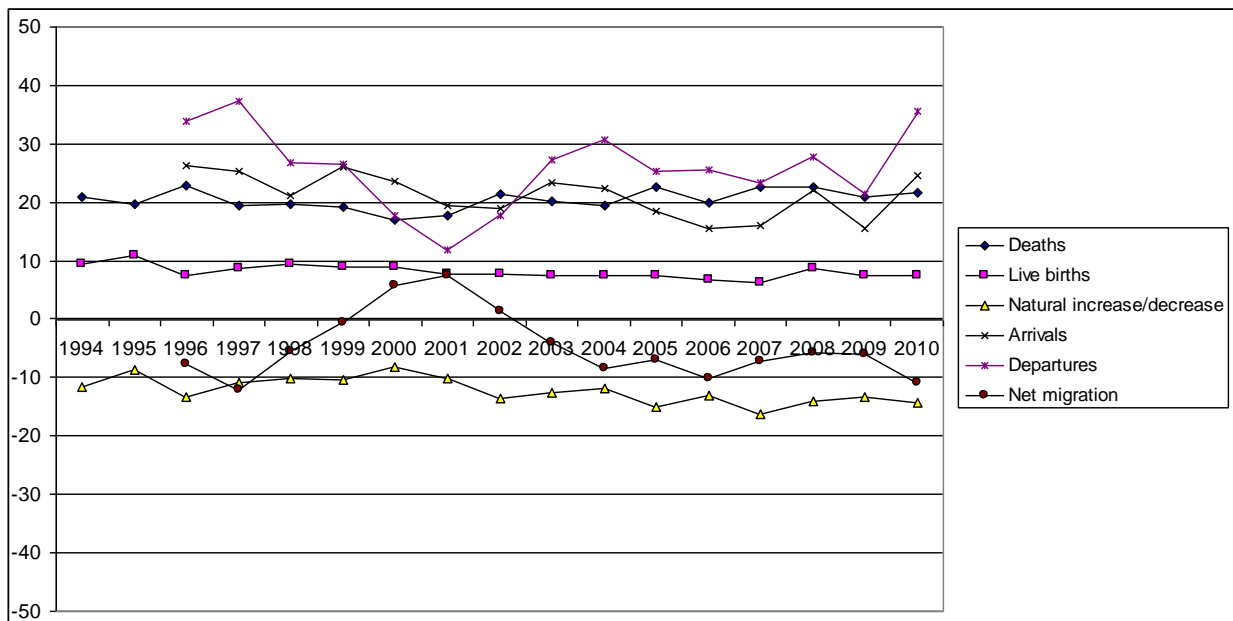
Data sources: Statistics Lithuania, 2011c.

**Figure 4.2** Sparsely populated areas in Lithuania in 2006 (population density less than 12.5 persons per sq km).



Source: Daugirdas, Baubinas, 2007.

**Figure 4.3** Development of the population process in the Ignalina district municipality, in %

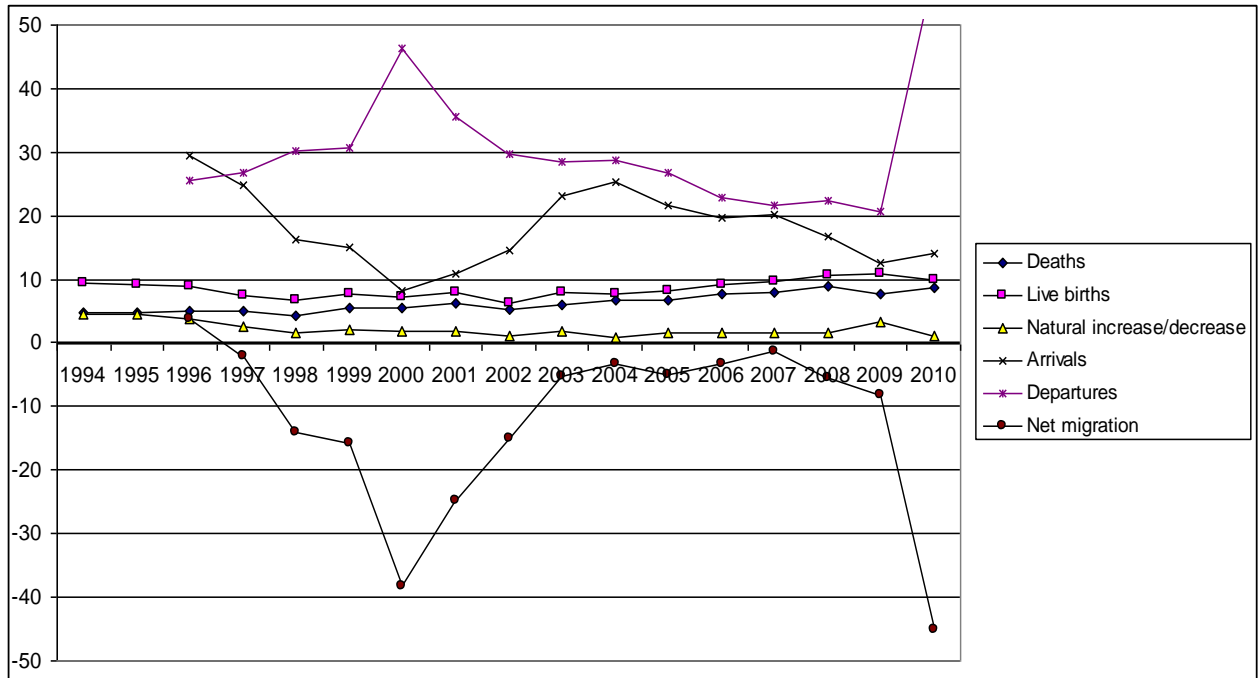


Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database.



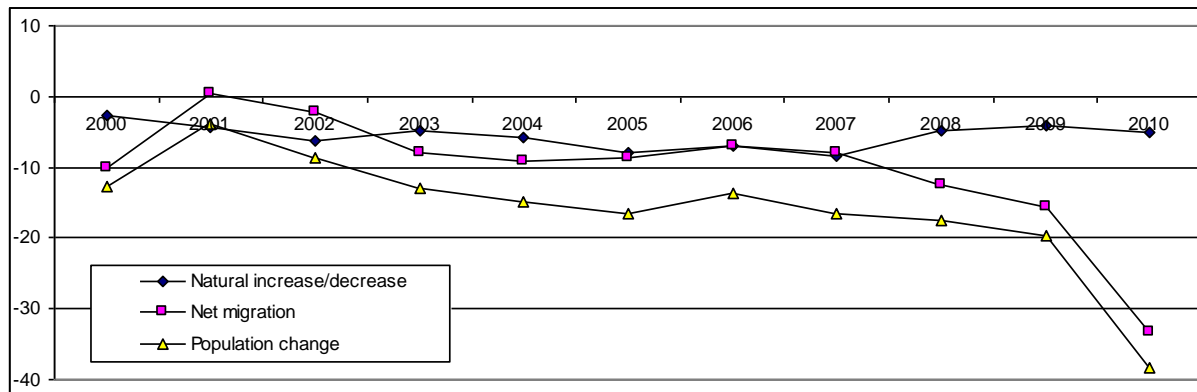
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**Figure 4.4** Development of the population process in the Visaginas municipality, in %



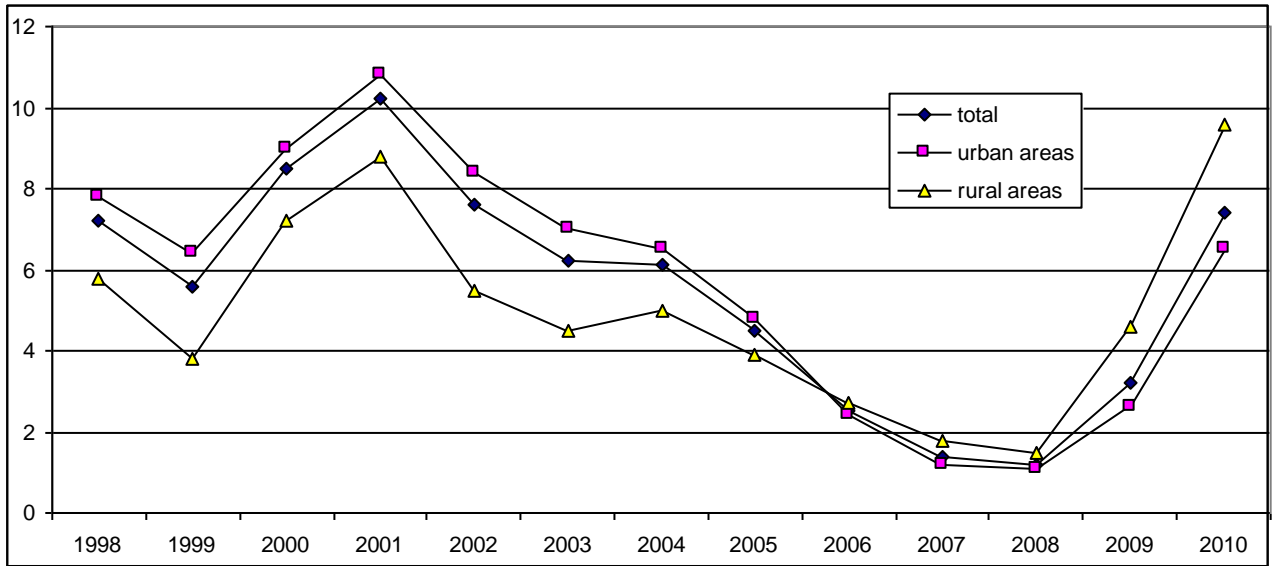
Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database.

**Figure 4.5** Development of the population process in the Akmenė district municipality, in %



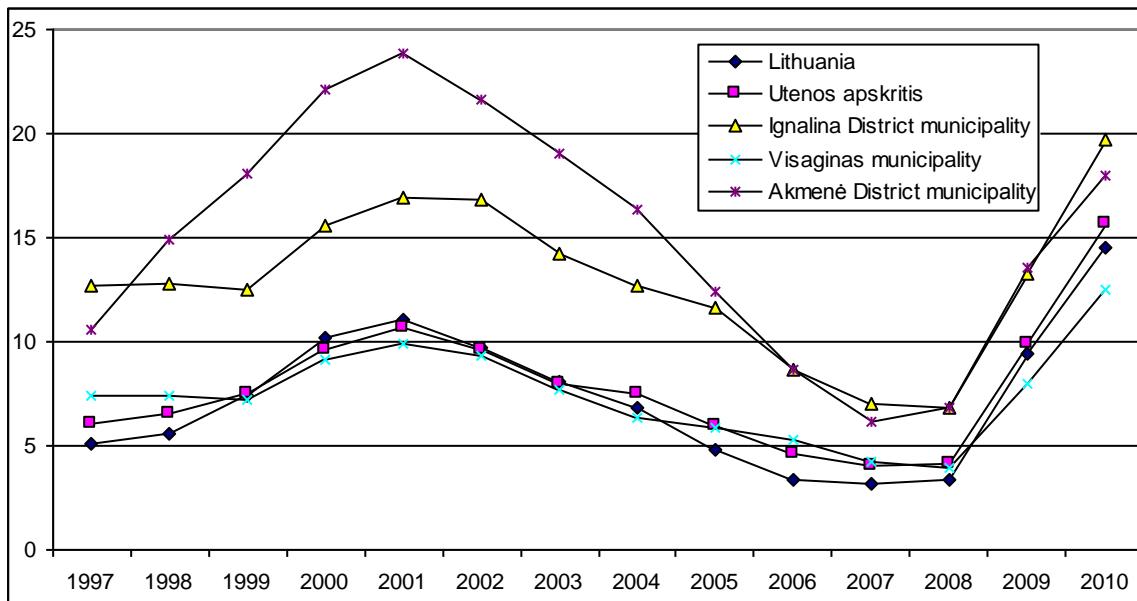
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**Figure 4.6** Long-term unemployment rate by place of residence in Lithuania, 1998-2010, according to the Labour Force Survey



Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database.

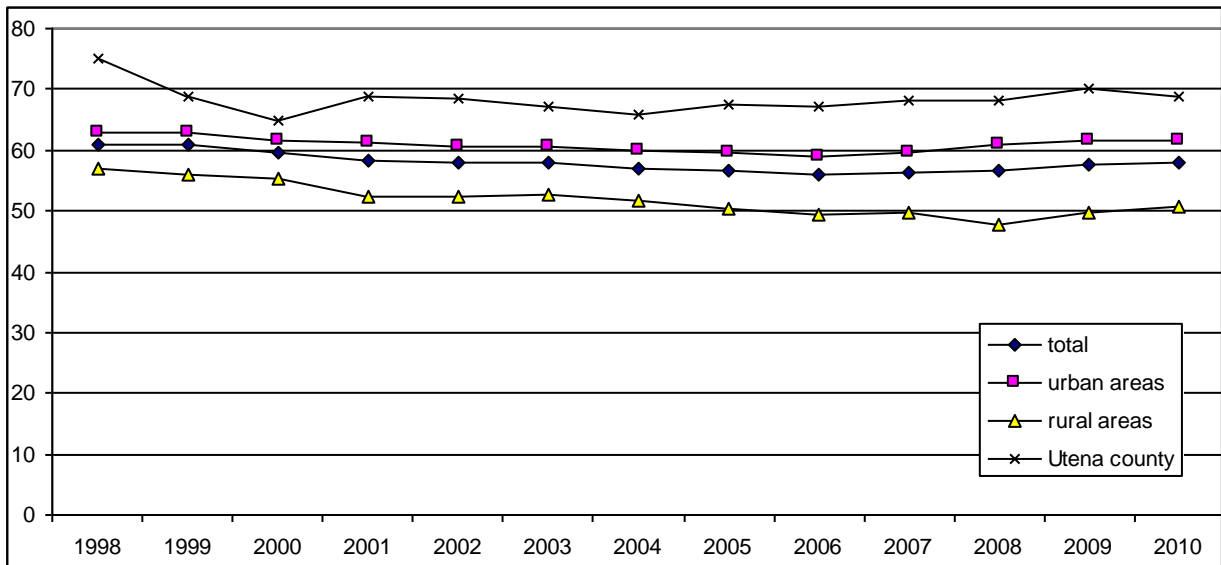
**Figure 4.7** Development of registered unemployment in Lithuania, Utena county, Ignalina District, Akmenė District and Visaginas municipalities from 1997 to 2010, in %



Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database.

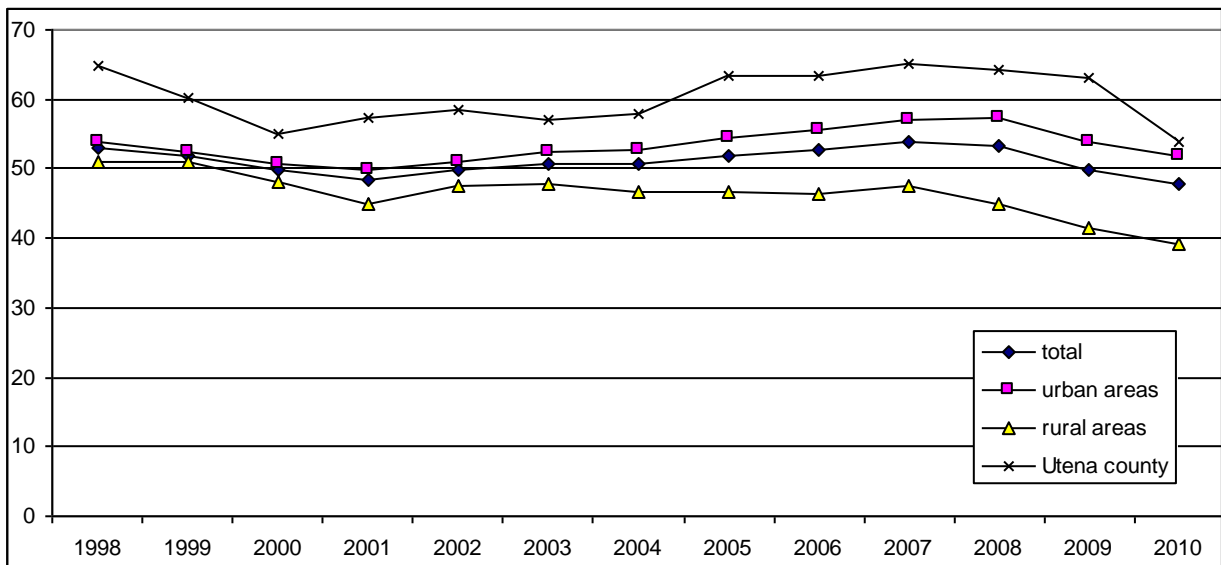
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**Figure 4.8** Labour force activity rate by place of residence in Lithuania, 1998-2010, in %, according to the Labour Force Survey



Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database.

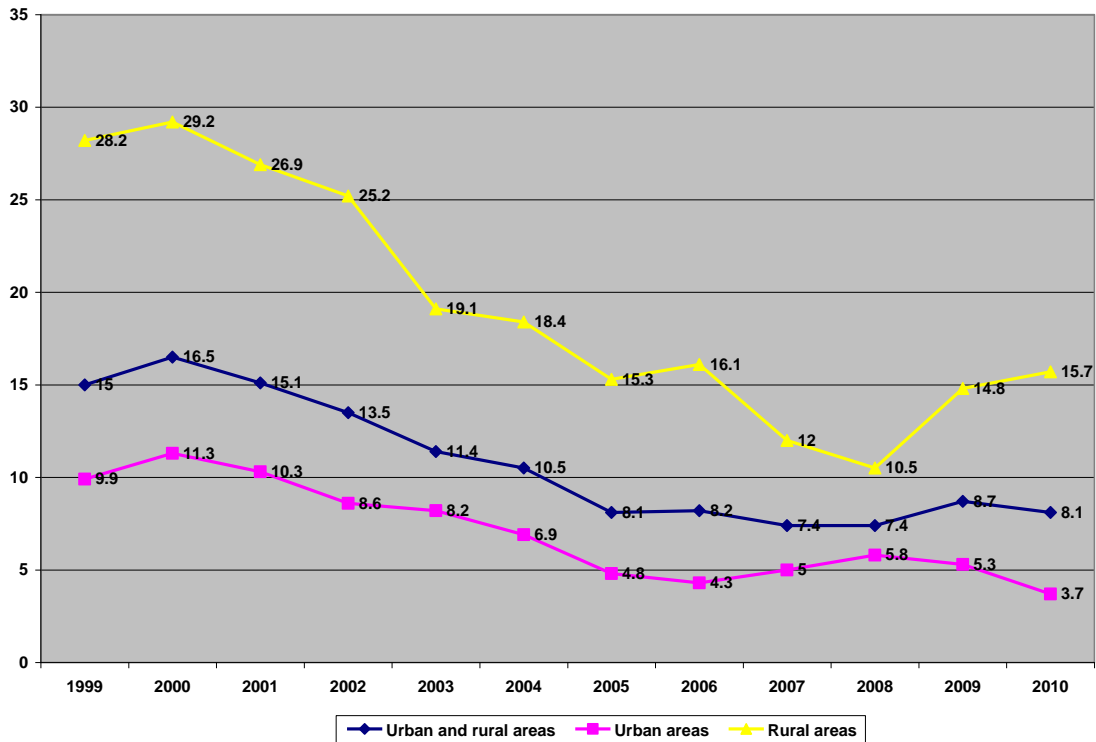
**Figure 4.9** Employment rate by place of residence in Lithuania, 1998-2010, according to the Labour Force Survey



Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database.

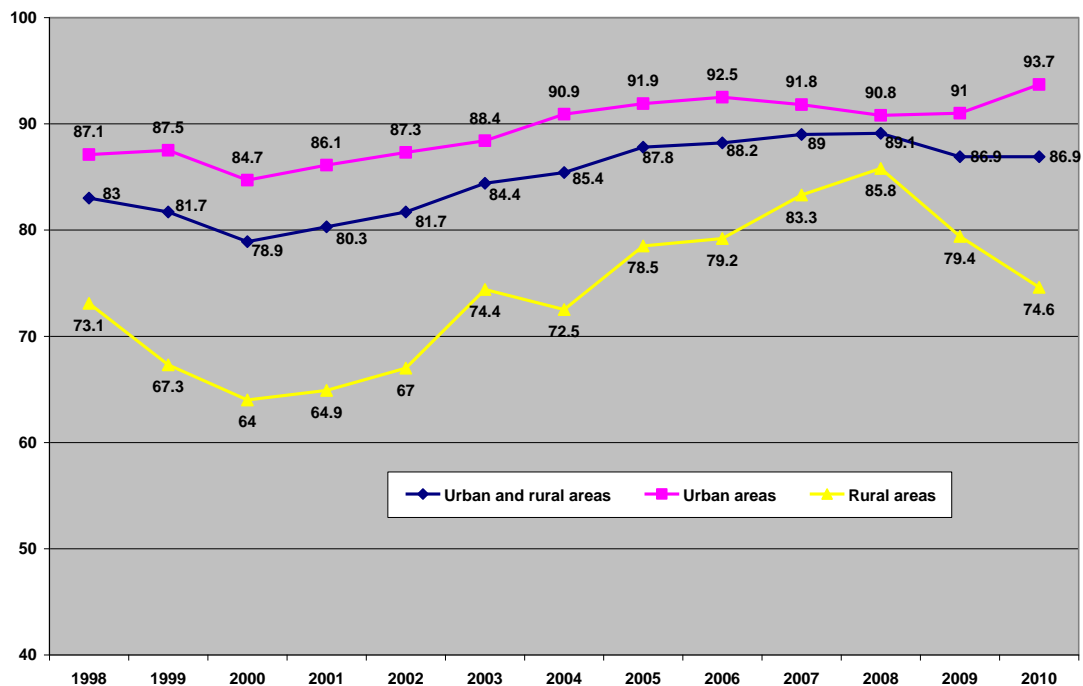
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**Figure 4.10** Early school leavers (18-24 years) by place of residence and year 1999-2010, in %



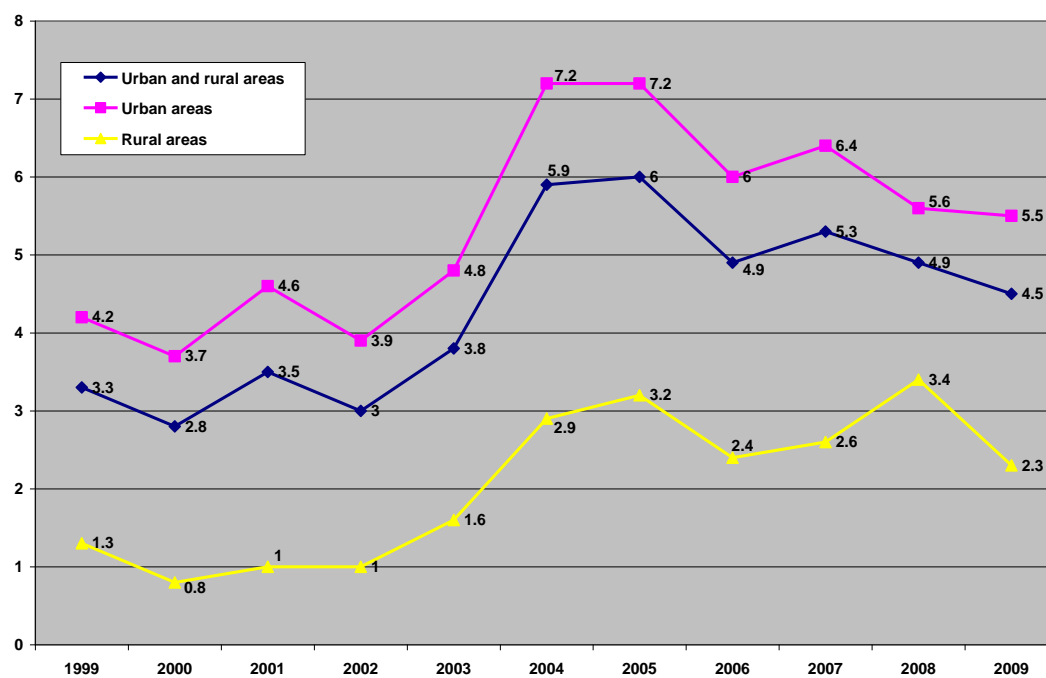
Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database.

**Figure 4.11** Population aged 20-24 having completed at least upper secondary education by place of residence and year (1998-2010), in %



Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database.

**Figure 4.12** Life-long learning of the population aged 25-64 by place of residence and year (1999-2009), in %



Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database.

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**Table 4.2** Funds for the rural development measures for 2007-2013

		Allocated funds, mill. LTL.	Share in total funds, %
1.	Modernization of agricultural holdings	1386	18.52
2.	Agri-environmental payments	1260	16.84
3.	Payments to farmers in areas with handicaps	991	13.24
4.	Early retirement	577	7.71
5.	Processing of agricultural products	475	6.34
6.	Implementation of local development strategies	438	5.86
7.	Support for business creation and development	337	4.51
8.	Encouragement of rural tourism services	284	3.80
9.	Diversification into non-agriculture activities	261	3.49
10.	Setting up of young farmers	215	2.87
11.	First afforestation of agricultural land	204	2.73
12.	Improving and developing infrastructure related to the development and adaptation of agriculture and forestry	203	2.71
13.	First afforestation of non-agricultural land	157	2.10
14.	Consulting services	126	1.68
15.	Semi-subsistence farming	103	1.38
16.	Support for Natura 2000 territories	88	1.18
17.	Improving of economic value of forests	71	0.95
18.	Rural renewal and development	69	0.92
19.	Vocational training and information actions	57	0.76
20.	Restoring forestry potential	52	0.69
21.	Non-productive investments into forests	35	0.46
22.	Forest environment payments	35	0.46
23.	Natura 2000 payments linked to directive 2000/60/EC	26	0.35
24.	Support for running the LAG	20	0.27
25.	Interregional and international cooperation	14	0.19
	<b>IN TOTAL</b>	<b>7484</b>	<b>100.00</b>

Source: Data of the Ministry of Agriculture.

**Table 4.3** At-risk-of-poverty rate by place of residence, in %

	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
Urban and rural areas	20.5	20	19.1	20	20.6	20.2
Urban areas	13.5	13.1	12.7	13.6	14.7	16.2
Largest cities	9.1	8.6	7.9	10.1	10.5	14.1
Other towns	19.8	19.4	19.7	18.7	20.7	19.4
Rural areas	34.6	34	32.2	32.9	32.7	28.4

Source: Lithuanian Statistics.

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**Table 4.4** Persons living in households affected by material deprivation in dwellings by place of residence, in %

	Material dimensions of deprivation in dwelling	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Urban and rural areas	Lack of indoor flushing toilet	25	23.7	20.1	18.9	17.2
	Lack of bath or shower	23.1	22.2	18.2	17.6	15.9
	Leaking roof, damp walls / floors, or rot in window frames or floor	32	28.5	25.2	24.7	21.2
	Dwelling is too dark, not enough light	12.2	11.2	10.7	10.2	8.8
	Noise from neighbours or from the street	19.9	20	18.5	16.6	16.1
	Pollution, grime or other environmental problems	13.9	13.8	15.4	12.7	13.8
	Crime, violence or vandalism in the area	9	7.8	7.2	4.9	6.5
Urban areas	Lack of indoor flushing toilet	10.8	9.2	6.9	7.1	5.6
	Lack of bath or shower	11.2	10	7.7	7	5.9
	Leaking roof, damp walls / floors, or rot in window frames or floor	29.1	26	23	21.6	16.8
	Dwelling is too dark, not enough light	11.9	11	10.7	9.6	7.7
	Noise from neighbours or from the street	25.6	25.3	23.9	20.6	20.5
	Pollution, grime or other environmental problems	18.4	17.5	19.6	15.9	17.9
	Crime, violence or vandalism in the area	11.6	10	9.9	6.8	8.7
Rural areas	Lack of indoor flushing toilet	53.5	52.9	46.7	43	40.8
	Lack of bath or shower	46.8	46.7	39.6	39.1	36.1
	Leaking roof, damp walls / floors, or rot in window frames or floor	37.8	33.3	29.5	31.1	30.2
	Dwelling is too dark, not enough light	12.9	11.7	10.7	11.4	11
	Noise from neighbours or from the street	8.5	9.3	7.6	8.5	7.2
	Pollution, grime or other environmental problems	5	6.5	7.1	6.1	5.5
	Crime, violence or vandalism in the area	3.8	3.2	1.7	1.1	2.2

Data sources: Statistics Lithuania Database.

**Table 5.1** At risk of poverty rate by household with children (at risk of poverty threshold 60% of median equalized income) 2005-2009, in %

	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Total	20.6	20.0	19.2	20.0	20.6
Single parent with dependent children	48.4	44.2	41.4	48.3	44.3
Two adults with one dependent child	15.2	16.1	14.1	12.5	14.1
Two adults with two dependent children	18.0	15.4	12.7	13.2	18.0
Two adults with three or more dependent children	44.4	41.5	38.2	46.0	31.3

Data source: Eurostat Statistical Database.

**Table 5.2** Material deprivation rate by household with children (2005-2009), in %

	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Total	64.7	53.1	40.5	29.2	34.4
Single parent with dependent children	79.1	67.1	55.2	32.9	47.6
Two adults with one dependent child	60.7	59.8	41.4	31.9	12.7
Two adults with two dependent children	38.4	27.2	23.7	16.8	18.3
Two adults with three or more dependent children	68.0	48.6	23.2	24.7	32.2

Data source: Eurostat Statistical Database.