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Residential Mobility and Housing Tenure Changes Among Immigrants and Their Descendants: A Cross-National Analysis of Five European Countries

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Residential Mobility and Housing Tenure Changes Among Immigrants and Their Descendants: A Cross-National Analysis of Five European Countries[*]

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Abstract

Understanding the housing experiences and residential mobility of migrant populations is crucial to facilitate their integration into the host societies. Yet, little is known about their experiences across generations, origin groups, and country contexts. This paper aims to address these gaps by investigating residential mobility and housing changes among immigrants, their descendants, and natives in five countries (the UK, France, Germany, Switzerland, and Sweden) with different housing markets and migrant populations. Using longitudinal data and applying Poisson regression models on aggregated occurrence-exposure data from 2010-2019, we first compare the risk of a residential move across migrant generations, origins groups, and host countries. Second, we estimate competing risks models to study the propensity to move to different housing tenure types (i.e., homeownership, private renting, and social renting). The results show distinct patterns of residential moves among migrant generations and origin groups. First, immigrants' levels of residential mobility vary across origin groups and country contexts: in the UK and Switzerland, migrant groups have higher residential mobility rates than natives, whereas in France, Germany, and Sweden, most immigrant groups have a similar risk of moving as the natives. Second, in all countries, immigrants, especially from non-European countries, are less likely to be homeowners and more likely to be social or private renters. Some of the differences in mobility and homeownership rates decline across migrant generations, however we still find lower levels of homeownership and higher levels of social renting among some descendant groups. This study sheds light on persistent differences in residential mobility and housing patterns among immigrants, their descendants, and natives in Europe and contributes to provide a better understanding of the role of the country context in perpetuating housing inequalities.

Keywords: Residential mobility, Housing tenure, Immigrants, Descendants of immigrants, Event history analysis, Cross-national comparison.

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Introduction

The housing experiences and residential mobility of migrant populations constitute an important part of their integration into the host societies. A large body of literature examines the housing and residential mobility patterns of immigrants (Borjas 2002; Catney and Finney 2016) or ethnic minorities (Alba and Logan 1992; Bonvalet et al. 1995; van Kempen and Özüekren 2002). Overall, previous studies found that mobility rates differ between migrant and native populations. Immigrants tend to be more mobile than natives, especially shortly after arrival (Clark and Drever 2000; Lersch 2012). Furthermore, immigrants often experience less favourable housing conditions than the native-born population in most OECD countries. They are less likely to own their primary residence than natives (Gobillon and Solignac 2020, Acolin 2019; Davidov and Weick 2011; Drever and Clark 2002; Sinning 2010) and they often occupy dwellings of lesser quality (Gobillon and Solignac 2020; Clark and Drever 2001). These distinct housing and residential mobility patterns can be explained by both cultural differences and socio-economic variation among different origin groups. Immigrants' opportunities and constraints in search of adequate housing can also be affected by immigration policies or structural policies related to the housing markets.

Yet, existing knowledge on the residential mobility patterns and housing experiences of migrant populations is still limited in several aspects. First, most studies focus on the first generation, and little is known about the experiences of the descendants of immigrants. However, it is important to investigate whether and how immigrants' experiences change across migrant generations. According to the spatial assimilation theory, as time in the host country increases, immigrants should display residential mobility patterns that are similar to those of natives (Massey and Denton 1985). Their housing situation should also improve over time and across generations (Alba and Logan 1992; Myers and Lee 1998). While existing studies have provided support for the spatial assimilation theory, they also highlighted differential residential paths depending on race, ethnicity, and migrant origin (Alba and Logan 1992, 1993; South et al. 2005; Andersen 2015). To explain the persistence of ethnic disparities in mobility and residential outcomes, the stratification or segmented assimilation perspective was formulated. This study contributes to the existing literature by investigating differences in housing and residential mobility patterns across migrant generations in five European countries between 2010 and 2019.

Second, although there is evidence in Europe that migrants and their descendants differ across origin groups in their patterns of transition to adulthood (Ferrari and Pailhé 2017; McAvay and Pailhé 2021; De Valk and Billari 2007), employment (Meurs, Pailhé and Simon 2006; Algan et al. 2010), partnership, and family formation (Pailhé 2015, 2017; Delaporte and Kulu 2022; Mikolai and Kulu 2022; Liu and Kulu 2021; Lacroix et al. 2023; Andersson et al. 2015, 2017), less is known about differences in residential mobility and housing across origin groups in specific country contexts. A few studies explore differences across ethnic groups (Catney and Finney 2016). Other studies focusing on differences across migrant groups

have shown that European migrants have residential mobility rates that differ from the ones of non-European migrants (Lerch 2012). Non-European migrants are also particularly at a disadvantage in terms of housing conditions (Safi, 2009; Pan Ké Shon and Verdugo 2015; Verdugo 2011). However, research is needed to better understand how the residential mobility and housing experiences differ among migrants and their descendants from different origin groups.

Finally, most previous studies on residential mobility and housing of immigrants and/or their descendants focused on individual countries. As a result, there is limited evidence on the importance of the national context. We adopt a cross-national comparative approach to analyse the housing and residential mobility patterns of immigrants, immigrants' descendants, and natives in the UK, France, Germany, Switzerland, and Sweden. These five countries have similarities in the dynamics of international migration as they all receive flows which are diverse in terms of origin countries. Yet, they differ in their housing market policies and housing tenure structure (Kemeny 2015) and have different values and attitudes towards homeownership and renting (Mulder and Billari 2010). Cross-country comparison can provide valuable insights into how the host country context influences the housing and residential mobility patterns of immigrants and their descendants. By comparing the experiences of individuals from the same or similar origin countries in different destination countries, we can draw conclusions about the role of the host country context. This approach enhances our understanding of the role of housing markets and policies in shaping the housing and residential mobility behaviours of migrant populations.

Theoretical framework

Two theories have been central to understanding the housing and residential mobility patterns of immigrants compared to the native population: spatial assimilation and place stratification. According to the *spatial assimilation* theory, the housing situation of immigrants should improve the longer they stay in the host country (Alba and Logan 1992; Myers and Lee 1998). Indeed, older cohorts of immigrants are more likely to live in more-advantaged neighbourhoods (Adelman et al. 2001, Alba et al. 1999, 2000) and to reside in better quality dwellings (Clark 2003; Myers and Lee 1998; Rosenbaum and Friedman 2007) than more recent migrants. This theory is derived from the broader assimilation framework which considers that immigrants are expected to progressively display patterns that are similar to those of natives as time spent in the host country increases (Alba and Nee 2009). Therefore, although new immigrants may display different mobility patterns than those of the natives, older cohorts (or earlier arrivals) of immigrants are expected to exhibit similar residential mobility levels as natives. This perspective also postulates that the mobility patterns and housing situation of the second generation are expected to be largely indistinguishable from that of the native population once socio-economic differences are accounted for.

However, while the spatial assimilation theory has received support from empirical studies, an alternative theory known as the *stratification or segmented assimilation* theory has been proposed to explain the persistence of disparities in residential mobility patterns and residential outcomes between older cohorts of immigrants and natives. Many studies highlighted differential residential paths depending on race and ethnicity (Alba and Logan 1993; South et al. 2005). It has also been recognised that for some migrant groups, spatial assimilation may decline rather than increase across successive migrant generation (Portes and Zhou, 1993; Zhou 1997). In other words, differences in mobility and housing patterns between migrant and native populations may persist for several generations.

There are several potential explanations behind these persistent differences. First, limited access to resources can reduce the ability of immigrants to relocate and/or to become homeowners (Bertocchi et al. 2023; Halliday 2018). Second, policies may restrict immigrants' access to a mortgage – which is often needed to buy a home – or their access to social housing. Additionally, individual and institutional discrimination can significantly limit the housing choices of immigrant populations or ethnic minorities (Mazziota et al. 2015). It can also lead to different residential mobility rates if discrimination in housing markets makes it harder to access certain neighbourhoods or housing tenures. Finally, minorities' preferences for living in proximity to ethnic networks (Boschman and Van Ham 2015) or attitudes towards homeownership (Huber and Schmidt 2016) can also affect their choices and, as a result, differences can persist and be carried over time and across generations (Portes and Zhou, 1993; Zhou 1997).

Residential mobility and housing among immigrants

Previous studies have shown that residential mobility rates differ between immigrants and natives in several countries. Most studies find that immigrants tend to be more mobile than native-born individuals. In Germany, for instance, the foreign-born population is slightly more mobile than the native German population (Clark and Drever 2000). Similarly, in Switzerland, the foreign-born population was proven more geographically mobile than the native population, especially in the first years after arrival (Lerch 2012) and particularly if born in a European member state. In the UK, differences were found in the levels of internal migration between ethnic groups (Finney 2011). White British young adults are the most mobile, whereas Black and Bangladeshi young adults have the lowest probability of residential mobility. Indian, Pakistani, and Chinese young adults stand in the middle. In Sweden, immigrant internal migration patterns also differ from those of native Swedes (Andersson 1996; Rephann and Vencatasawmy 2000).

These differences in mobility rates between migrants and native-born individuals can be explained by several factors (Clark and Withers 2009; Lacroix and Zufferey 2019; Clark and Huang 2004). First, new immigrants often face different economic opportunities and challenges compared to natives. They may arrive with limited financial resources and face barriers such as language proficiency, educational

qualifications recognition, discrimination in the job market and housing market, or policy restrictions. These factors can impact their ability to move (South et al. 2005) and may result in lower residential mobility rates. However, these factors may also lead to unstable housing trajectories implying repeated moves and hence may result in elevated residential mobility rates, especially shortly after arrival (Clark and Drever 2000; Fischer and Malmberg 1997; Andersson 1996). Individuals' characteristics such as the destination at arrival, reason for immigration, and country of origin all contribute to explain patterns of internal migration in the first years after arrival (Nogle 1994). Furthermore, according to the adjustment hypothesis, long-distance moves are often followed by short-distance moves. This is mainly due to the fact that immigrants often lack information (e.g., on neighbourhood quality) and opportunities/resources (e.g., lack of country-specific documents) to rent a place (Clark and Withers 2009). Another explanation is that international migrants form a selected population of movers and may be more inclined to undertake repeated moves compared to the natives. Last, immigrants may also choose to live in areas with established immigrant communities or where they have access to cultural amenities and familiar social networks. These preferences may influence immigrants' propensities to move (Kritz and Nogle 1994).

In addition, when immigrants move, they often experience less favourable housing conditions than natives (Gobillon and Solignac 2020). This is reflected in several residential outcomes. For instance, immigrants and ethnic minorities have lower homeownership rates than natives. This has been found in the United States (Borjas 2002; Alba and Logan 1992; Myers and Lee 1998, Krivo 1995, Coulson 1999; Painter et al. 2001, 2003; Gabriel and Rosenthal 2005; McConnell and Marcelli 2007; Flippen 2001; Krivo and Kaufman 2004; Friedman and Rosenbaum 2004), Canada (Haan 2007), Australia (Bourassa 1994) as well as in many European countries including the Netherlands (Zorlu and Mulder 2008; Bolt and van Kempen 2002), Germany (Clark and Drever 2000; Davidov and Weick 2011; Drever and Clark 2002; Sinning 2010; Constant et al. 2009), Spain (Vono-de-Vilhena and Bayona-Carrasco 2010; Amuedo-Dorantes and Mundra 2013), France (Gobillon and Solignac 2020, Acolin 2019, McAvay 2018; Verdugo 2015; Fougere et al. 2013; Levy-Vroelant 2004, 2014), Sweden (Christophers and O'Sullivan 2019; Bråmå and Andersson 2010), and the UK (Hamnett and Butler 2010; Finney and Harries 2015; Shankley and Finney 2000; Darlington-Pollock and Norman 2017; Reino and Vargas-Silva 2022). Furthermore, the homeownership gap between migrants and natives has widened significantly over the last decades (Borjas 2002 for the US; Gobillon and Solignac 2020 for France).

In the US, race/ethnicity seems to be a stronger indicator than immigrant status in predicting housing outcomes (Friedman and Rosenbaum 2004) as important differences in homeownership rates have been found across ethnic groups (Myers and Lee 1998, Krivo 1995, Coulson 1999; Painter et al. 2001, 2003; Gabriel and Rosenthal 2005; McConnell and Marcelli 2007; Flippen 2001; Krivo and Kaufman 2004; Friedman and Rosenbaum 2004; McConnell 2015; Rugh 2020; Sagado and Ortiz 2020). For instance, over

the period 1980-1990, Asian immigrants achieved extraordinarily high levels of homeownership soon after arrival, whereas Hispanic immigrants demonstrated sustained advancement into homeownership from initially very low levels (Myers and Lee 1998). Krivo (1995) finds however that Hispanics living in the US exhibit relatively low homeownership and high household crowding.

Across European countries, significant differences were found between migrant origin groups. For example, in France, immigrants from sub-Saharan Africa display the lowest homeownership rates (McAvay 2018). Immigrants from North Africa also have low rates of homeownership relative to other groups. In contrast, half of immigrants from Asia and Europe are homeowners. Immigrants from Turkey hold an intermediate position. In Sweden, North African, Western Asian, and sub-Saharan African immigrants have low homeownership rates, whereas Western European immigrants display levels similar to the native Swedes (Bråmå and Andersson 2010). In addition, Turkish immigrant households are less likely to move out of the municipal rented sector compared to the natives (Magnusson and Özüekren 2002). In Switzerland, homeownership rates vary considerably according to the nationality of household members: Swiss households are the most likely to live in an owner-occupied home, followed by mixed-national households and foreign households (SFSO 2023).

In Spain, there are important differences in homeownership rates by migrants' country of birth (Vono-de-Vilhena and Bayona-Carrasco 2010). In the Netherlands, Turks and Moroccans are less likely to move from rented dwellings to owner occupancy compared to the natives (Bolt and van Kempen 2002). Differences were also found among EU migrants from different countries of origin (Manting, Kleinepier and Lennartz 2022). In the UK, studies analyse differences across ethnic groups and find that there are wide disparities between the White British and minority groups (Ratcliffe 2002). For instance, South Asians, especially Indians, display high levels of homeownership, whereas households of African (or Black) Caribbean origin are more likely to be found in social housing. Private renting is most common among the Other White and Arab groups (Finney and Harries 2015). Yet, no studies have examined potential differences across migrant origin groups in the UK context so far. In contrast, no significant differences were found across origin groups in Germany. Turks, ex-Yugoslavians, Southern Europeans, and Eastern Europeans do not display any differences in transition rates into homeownership over the period 1984-2009 in West Germany (Davidov and Weick 2011).

Differences between migrants and natives are also found in other residential outcomes. For instance, immigrants are also more likely to experience overcrowding (Verdugo 2015 for France; Friedman and Rosenbaum 2004 for the US), and less favourable housing and neighbourhood characteristics. They are more likely to live in social housing than natives (Levy-Vroelant 2014; Verdugo 2011, 2015 for France). They are also more likely to experience residential segregation (Preteceille, 2009; Verdugo 2011; Rathelot and Safi, 2014; Safi, 2009 for France; Bolt and Van Kempen 2010 for the Netherlands; Bråmå and

Andersson 2010; Bråmå et al. 2010; Andersson 1998 for Sweden) and exclusion in particular neighbourhoods or cities (Levy-Vroelant 2004). Additionally, in France, immigrants who become homeowners live in dwellings that are less likely to be detached houses and that have a lower number of rooms per person than those of natives (Gobillon and Solignac 2020). In the UK, migrants are more likely to experience housing deprivation and housing disadvantage (defined as overcrowding, lack of central heating, and access only to shared bathroom or kitchen) than White British individuals (Lukes et al. 2019).

Again, there are significant differences across migrant groups. For instance, in France, non-European immigrants have substantially higher levels of segregation compared to French natives than European immigrants (Safi, 2009; Pan Ké Shon and Verdugo 2015; Verdugo 2011). In Sweden, Turkish immigrant households have a higher probability of remaining in certain immigrant-dense areas than Swedish households (Magnusson and Özüekren 2002). In the UK, overcrowding is most common among immigrant households from non-EU countries, and this is especially the case in London (Reino and Vargas-Silva 2022). Similarly in Germany, despite signs of improvement, immigrants continue to live in poorer housing, and in areas that are geographically isolated (Drever and Clark 2002). In Switzerland, national communities associated with low-skilled workforce show higher levels of segregation at the neighbourhood level, although segregation patterns are relatively low in the country (Zufferey 2019).

Similar factors that led to elevated mobility rates for immigrants compared to natives can explain their limited access to homeownership. Immigrants may lack the resources (e.g., credit history) to access a mortgage, which is often needed to purchase a home. In this regard, both the duration of stay and nativity are currency in the ownership market. They may also be prone to discrimination in the housing market. Additionally, the legal pathway through which migrants have arrived plays a role (Zorlu and Mulder 2008). For instance, in Spain, permanent residents from the EU15 exhibit the highest homeownership rates, while permanent residents from countries outside the EU15, temporary residents, and undocumented migrants are much less likely to own a home (Amuedo-Dorantes and Mundra 2013). This suggests that specific barriers are at play and migrants arriving under specific schemes, e.g., migrants seeking asylum have more limited access to homeownership than other types of migrants. It could also be due to preferences, e.g., intentions to return to the origin country in the case of temporary residents. Lastly, immigrants may hold different attitudes towards homeownership than the natives (Huber and Schmidt 2016).

Residential mobility and housing among the descendants of immigrants

While many studies have examined differences in residential mobility patterns between migrants and natives or across ethnic groups, less research has been carried out specifically on the descendants of immigrants and whether their residential mobility patterns differ from those of the natives or from their parents' generation's experiences. On the one hand, we may expect fewer differences in residential mobility

rates between immigrants' descendants and natives than between those of their parents and the natives given that the children of immigrants have been exposed all their lives to the cultural norms of the host country. They do not face some of the barriers that their parents have faced such as the lack of fluency in the language of the host country, or limited access to information.

On the other hand, the descendants of immigrants may experience limited access to high quality education and services (Crul and Vermeulen 2003). This may influence their mobility patterns in a different way than the ones of natives. They also often exhibit lower employment levels than the native population (Meurs, Pailhé and Simon 2006) and this likely influences their mobility behaviour. They are prone to experience discrimination in the housing market which may limit their ability to relocate (Auer et al. 2019) or to move to better quality housing. Lastly, they may also have different preferences to natives such as living close to co-ethnics. Indeed, rather than adopting exclusively the majority identity, descendants of immigrants may develop bicultural or hybrid identities (Crul and Vermeulen 2003; Delaporte 2019). Some descendant groups are socialised into the norms of their parents' origin country. These factors may lead to persistent differences in mobility between the descendants of immigrants and natives.

Similarly, few studies examine the residential outcomes of the descendants of immigrants such as their housing type in comparison to natives. In France, the gap in homeownership between the second generation and the native population is smaller and not statistically significant compared to the gap between natives and the first generation (Acolin 2019), providing support to the assimilation hypothesis. Similarly, second-generation immigrants in France, especially those with one native French parent (2.5G), show a greater propensity towards homeownership than the first generation of immigrants (McAvay 2018). Differences in the share of individuals in social housing, the level of residential crowding, and housing and neighbourhood characteristics also decline across generations in France (Acolin 2019).

However, other studies provide evidence for the stratification or segmented assimilation perspective: children of immigrants from some non-European origins experience higher levels of stratification than other groups, with continued significant differences in housing tenure. For instance, the descendants of immigrants from Africa and Turkey are still over-represented in underprivileged neighbourhoods in France (Pan Ké Shon 2011). In the UK, overall, UK-born individuals are less likely to experience housing disadvantage than immigrants (Lukes et al. 2019). Additionally, a large share of UK-born Bangladeshi and Black African individuals experience housing deprivation (Lukes et al. 2019). In Germany, Turkish, and to a lesser extent, former Yugoslavian second-generation individuals continue to be stratified into working-class residential areas (Sürig and Wilmes 2015). Still, there is a lack of research on the experiences of the second generation in various national contexts.

Some children of immigrants may face additional obstacles towards homeownership compared to natives for several reasons. First, immigrants' descendants may experience discrimination in the housing

market. In Switzerland, Swiss residents with foreign-sounding names seeking a new apartment on the rental market are less likely to be invited for a viewing than those with Swiss names (Auer et al. 2019). Other studies document significant racial gaps in loan denial in the mortgage market (Quillian et al. 2020). In addition, immigrants' descendants often suffer socioeconomic disadvantages which in turn also limit their access to mortgages and apartment leases compared to natives.

Cross-national differences and contextual background

Differences in levels of residential mobility and homeownership

In addition to potential differences across migrant generations and origin groups, there are important differences in residential mobility across European countries suggesting that the national context plays an important role. While residential mobility tends to be relatively high in Australia, the United States, and the Nordic countries, it is much lower in Eastern and Southern European countries (Causa and Pichelmann 2020; Haran, Garnier and Baccaïni 2019).

Regarding the five countries in this study, Sweden has the highest (annual) residential mobility rate (above 35%) but Switzerland also displays high rates of residential mobility. The UK and France stand in the middle with a mobility rate between 25% and 35%. Last, Germany has slightly lower mobility rates (around 22%) (Causa and Pichelmann 2020). There are also large and persistent cross-country differences in homeownership rates. Homeownership propensities are high in the UK (Hilber 2007). The rates have generally increased over time in all countries (Andrews and Sanchez 2011). However, they remain low in Germany and especially in Switzerland compared to other European countries. It is important to note that residential mobility and homeownership are inversely related in most countries. This is not surprising given that homeowners are the least mobile of all tenure groups (Bonvalet and Brun 2002).

Although there are important cross-national differences, only a few studies have conducted cross-national comparisons to examine cross-national variation in residential mobility and homeownership rates (Kulu et al. 2021; Mikolai et al. 2019; Thomas et al. 2016; Lersch and Vidal 2014; Haan 2007; Clark, Deurloo and Dieleman 1997) and none have focused on migrant populations. However, it is recognised that these contrasting types of mobility rates across countries are partly due to the histories and institutional arrangements in each country (Skifter Andersen et al. 2016; Borg 2015; Kemeny 2015; Mulder and Billari 2010). Indeed, residential mobility rates as well as homeownership rates vary with the changing composition of the population, the tenure structure of the housing market, and economic conditions in the country (Clark and Drever 2000). Housing conditions and structural policies strongly influence people's decisions and possibilities to move (Pala et al. 2005).

Differences in housing tenure structures and homeownership regimes

There are substantial differences in the housing tenure structure across countries (Mikolai et al. 2019). In comparative housing policy, three tenure types have generally been distinguished: the owner-occupied sector, the private rental sector, and the social rental sector. While private rental sector tends to command market-rate rent, social rental sector is subject to government regulations and is often intended for lower-income or vulnerable individuals. Owner-occupied housing markets differ among European countries. One reason for this is that owner-occupation has expanded in different time periods in most countries (Martens 1985). In the UK, this started prior to World War II with the collapse of private renting. In France, owner-occupied housebuilding expanded from the late 1950s and early 1960s while in West Germany, expansion occurred as late as in the 1970s (Martens 1985).

There are important differences in homeownership regimes across the five countries (Mulder and Billari 2010; Kulu et al. 2021). Four homeownership regimes can be distinguished based on the share of owner-occupied housing and access to mortgages (Mulder and Billari 2010). Most of the countries in this study belong to the so called 'career homeownership' regime where the share of homeowners varies between 30 to 70%. In other words, owning is not considered the norm and renting is considered an acceptable alternative. At the same time, mortgages are widespread. Countries which belong to this category of homeownership regime are the UK, Germany, Switzerland, and Sweden.

Although the share of homeowners in France is close to that in the UK, the main difference between the two housing markets is that in France mortgages are not widely available. This means that homeownership has to be financed from savings, family help, or inheritance. As a result, France belongs to the so-called 'elite homeownership' regime where access to mortgages is limited (Mulder and Billari 2010; Mikolai et al. 2019). There are two other homeownership regimes such as the 'easy homeownership' regime which combines a high level of homeownership and a wide availability of mortgages and the 'difficult homeownership' regime which is characterised by a high share of owner-occupation with low access to mortgages. In these two regimes, ownership is considered the norm. Countries such as Ireland, Iceland and Norway belong to the easy homeownership regime, while countries such as Italy, Spain and Greece belong to the difficult homeownership regime.

At the same time, all countries have rental sectors which can either be integrated or dual, based on the role of the non-profit rental sector (Kemeny 2015). In a dualist rental system, the rental sector consists of an unregulated, generally small private rental sector and a tightly controlled state-regulated rental sector often referred to as social housing. While the private rental market faces competition, social housing does not as it aims to provide accommodation to the most vulnerable population groups. Social housing is often supported by governments via subsidies. The UK and France have dualist rental systems (Kemeny 2015). The UK has a relatively large public rental sector and a somewhat smaller private rental market. According

to the 2021 Census, homeowners in England and Wales represented 62.5% of the population, while private and social renters comprised 20% and 17% respectively (ONS 2021).

In France, housing policies to support homeownership as the preferred form of tenure have been implemented going back at least to the 1970s, with subsidised savings accounts to facilitate access to mortgage credit and zero interest rate loans for first-time buyers implemented after 1995 (Bonvalet and Bringe 2013). Despite a robust private and social renting sector, most households are homeowners in France (58% in 2021) and homeownership is considered a marker of a successful housing trajectory. Nevertheless, social housing is considered as a crucial element of housing supply (Lévy-Vroelant 2014) and represented 18% of French households in 2021 (Ministere de la Transition Ecologique et de la cohesion des territoires 2022). The remaining households (25%) are private renters.

By contrast, in an integrated rental system, the non-profit rental sector competes on the same terms as the for-profit rental sector and non-profit renting is accessible to the public. This is to reduce differences in prices and quality between dwelling in both sectors. Furthermore, the governments provide similar levels of support to both sectors. Germany, Switzerland, and Sweden have integrated rental systems (Kemeny 2015). In Germany, the government played a very active role in the housing market before 1982. Much of the German housing market was either social housing or was supported indirectly through rent subsidies. However, since 1982, the government has reduced its involvement and cut back housing subsidies to allow market mechanisms to operate to a greater extent (Heisler, 1994; Tomann, 1990; Ulbrich and Wullkopf, 1993). In 2021, about 49.5% of the population lived in an owner-occupied dwelling, whereas 50.5% lived in rented accommodation (Statistisches Bundesamt 2021).

Similar to Germany, Switzerland is characterised by an integrated rental system. There are a variety of different non-profit providers which only represent a small proportion of the stock (20%) and thus do not strongly influence the rental market (Kemeny 2015). In addition, given that the share of homeowners is especially low, the Swiss population strongly relies on the rental segment of the housing market. Yet, there are strong differences in access to decent housing across socioeconomic groups, with lower-income households often struggling to access better quality housing (Wanner 2017).

Last, Sweden generally has a more uniform non-profit sector where non-profit and for-profit-providers are about equally balanced and therefore, the non-profit providers have a leading role on the rental market in terms of rent-setting for instance (Kemeny 2015). Moreover, income differences between renters and owners are small, and large cooperative sectors form a bridge between renting and owning (Skifter Andersen et al. 2016). In 2016, owner-occupied dwellings represented 39% in Sweden (Christophers and O'Sullivan 2019). In addition, 23% were tenant-owned apartments. The remaining 38% of the dwellings were rental properties, of which a little over half were held by private corporations and the remainder by municipal housing companies.

These differences in rental systems and homeownership regimes are likely to influence individuals' housing and residential mobility. Previous studies argue that integrated rental systems promote lower homeownership rates (Borg 2015; Voigtländer 2009). In addition to differences in the tenure structure of the housing systems, access to homeownership is likely to be especially limited in countries in which homeownership is either not the norm or access to mortgages is limited. Furthermore, it is likely to be especially limited for migrants compared to the native population. Indeed, the social housing allocation system is often regulated by a set of criteria that put foreigners at a disadvantage when competing with locals for housing (Leitner, 1987). In addition, the application procedure can often be complex and a lack of fluency in the host country's language can make it more difficult for migrants. Furthermore, a large and growing literature shows that discrimination on the housing markets also creates significant barriers to immigrant mobility (Acolin, Bostic and Painter 2016; Andersson, Jakobsson and Kotsadam 2012). This is likely to affect the descendants of immigrants as well.

These differences across countries highlight the need to conduct a cross-national comparison. Indeed, given that no study has examined cross-national variations in residential mobility and homeownership rates among immigrants and their descendants, little is known about the role of the tenure structure of the housing market in shaping individuals' decisions to move and their housing tenure changes. By comparing similar migrant and descendant groups across countries, we can better understand how the national context shapes their experiences.

Differences in the composition of the immigrant population

The changing composition of the population in Europe is also an important factor that can explain cross-country differences in housing and residential mobility. Evidence has shown that immigrants from higher income countries are more likely to have better access to housing, compared to those from lower income countries (Borjas 2002). Moreover, studies have also shown that individuals who migrated to flee from political persecution or war are especially disadvantaged in multiple aspects of social integration, including the housing market (Zorlu and Mulder 2008; Amuedo-Dorantes and Mundra 2013). Taken together, we discuss the composition of immigrant populations across the five countries.

Throughout West Europe, the primary reason for migration in the 1950s and 1960s used to be labour migration. In the UK, a large share of migrants came from former colonies such as the Caribbean, India, Pakistan, and Bangladesh (Dale and Ahmed 2011; Dubuc 2012). Similarly, in France, many migrants arrived from the former French colonies after 1945 (Algan et al. 2010). In Germany and Switzerland, guest-worker programs were also first instituted after World War II to deal with labour shortages in the countries. In Germany, guest-workers were recruited from Italy, Spain, Greece, Yugoslavia, and Turkey (Munz and Ulrich 1998), and in Switzerland initially from Italy and Spain and then from Portugal and Yugoslavia.

Yet, in the 1970s, as economic growth slowed dramatically, a ban was placed on the further importation of guest workers. The UK continued to receive migrants, especially from sub-Saharan African countries (Coleman and Dubuc 2010; Dubuc 2012). However, gradually over time, labour migration was replaced by family reunification and asylum seeking as the main reasons for migrating to the UK (Sainsbury 2012). In France, family reunification also progressively became more important (Migration Policy Institute 2004). In Germany, many of the migrants that had already settled in the country decided to stay and to bring their families. Later on, the break up of the former Soviet Union, the unification of Germany, and the fighting in the former Yugoslavia resulted in a diverse flow of ethnic Germans, former East Germans, and asylum seekers. As in Germany, many seasonal workers in Switzerland have gradually been granted long-term permits and the right to family reunification in the 1980s. Asylum migration has also intensified in the 1990s, mainly with the arrival of the war-displaced Yugoslavians (Piguet 2005).

Sweden's migration history is perhaps more unique compared to the other European countries due to its long-term refugee-type migration. Yet, some similarities can be noted with Germany or Switzerland with labour migration from Yugoslavia, Greece, Turkey being prominent during the post-war period. However, this came to a halt in the early 1970s. In the 1970s and 1980s, a large proportion of immigrants from outside Europe arrived as asylum seekers. They came from Ethiopia, Lebanon and (especially) Chile and Iran in the latter decade (Christophers and O'Sullivan 2019). In the 1990s, this pattern continued with immigrants coming from Iraq; but it was then superseded by asylum seekers from South-Eastern Europe, especially the former Yugoslavia (Westin 2006). In the past two decades, a significant proportion of migrants came from within Europe, especially from the rest of Scandinavia, Germany and from Poland since its accession to the European Union in 2004. Meanwhile, a large proportion of migrants continued to arrive from Iraq. Over the last 5 years, Somalia and Syria have also become important countries of origin.

Today, the migrant population represents a significant proportion of the entire population in most European countries. In France, the immigrant population represents around 10% of the total French population (INSEE 2018). The largest proportion of immigrants comes from North Africa (Algeria, Morocco, Tunisia), Southern Europe (Portugal, Italy, Spain) and Turkey. In Germany, most immigrants are from Turkey and Southern Europe (Algan et al. 2010). In Switzerland, the current migration flows are composed of individuals coming from EU and EFTA countries with neighbouring countries (Germany, Italy, and France) being the main contributors, and individuals coming from third countries, e.g., Kosovo and Russia (NCCR – on the move, Migration-Mobility Indicators 2019). In Sweden, around 19% of the Swedish population is foreign-born. The main countries of origin are Syria, Finland, the former Yugoslavia, and Iraq. Finally, in the UK, most non-UK born individuals are from India, Poland, Pakistan, Romania, and the Republic of Ireland (Office for National Statistics 2020).

Hypotheses

Based on the above arguments, we form the following hypotheses. First, we expect immigrants to display higher mobility rates than the natives (H1a). In terms of types of moves, we expect immigrants to be less likely to move to homeownership and more likely to move to social or private renting compared to natives (H1b). Nevertheless, we expect to find some differences across origin groups. For instance, we expect some migrant groups – especially non-European immigrants – to display higher residential mobility rates, lower rates of moving to homeownership, and higher rates of moving to social and private renting compared to other groups (H1c).

Regarding the second generation, according to the assimilation hypothesis, we expect the descendants of immigrants to have similar residential mobility (H2a) and homeownership rates (H2b) to those of the natives. However, we also expect to find some persistent differences between some descendant groups – especially the children of non-European immigrants – and the natives. More specifically, we expect these groups to display higher residential mobility rates and lower rates of moving to homeownership (higher rates of moving to social and private renting) compared to other descendant groups (H2c). Their patterns would be more similar to the patterns of their parents' generation than to those of natives.

Last, we expect cross-country differences in residential mobility and housing transitions given that each country has its own history, tenure structure, and policies. We first hypothesize that countries with integrated rental systems, e.g., Germany, Switzerland, and Sweden will display lower rates of moving to homeownership compared to countries with a dual rental system, e.g., the UK and France (H3). This would be observed for the entire population (immigrants, immigrants' descendants, and natives) but also when comparing the rates of the native-born individuals across the five countries. Furthermore, we expect especially lower rates of homeownership among some migrant and descendant groups such as non-European immigrants and their descendants in countries where access to mortgages is limited or homeownership is not the norm, e.g., France (H4).

Data

We use harmonised data from five nationally representative longitudinal datasets: the UK Household Longitudinal Study (UKHLS); the French Permanent Demographic Sample (PDS); the German Socio-Economic Panel (GSOEP); the Swiss population register combined with the Structural Survey; and a 5% random sample of the Swedish population register.[1] These datasets follow individuals over time and collect comparable and detailed information on residential mobility and housing tenure. We observe individuals between age 16 and 59. We use data from 2010-2019 for the UK, and Germany. For France, we observe

[1] See Appendix A for a detailed description of the data sources.

individuals' residential mobility from 2011 to 2019. For Sweden, we observe individuals from 2010 to 2016 because data on housing tenure is not available for later years, while for Switzerland, we study individuals from 2010 to 2014 as data on residential mobility is not available later. Some additional restrictions were applied when necessary. For instance, for France, we focus on the tax declarant and his or her partner and drop other individuals (both children and adults) who were on someone else's tax declaration.

In each country, we identify immigrants, immigrants' descendants, and natives based on a set of criteria. First, immigrants are defined as persons born outside of the country (and without the citizenship of the country at birth in France). The children of immigrants are defined as those who were born in the host country to at least one immigrant parent or those who were born in a foreign country but migrated to the host country as children, i.e., before the age of 16.[2] Finally, the natives are individuals who were born in the country (or with the citizenship of the country in France) whose parents were also born in the country (or with the citizenship of the country in France).

We further distinguish immigrants and their descendants by origin. In the UK, the main origin groups are: i) Europe and West, ii) India, iii) Pakistan, iv) Bangladesh, v) Caribbean countries, and vi) Africa. In France, we focus on the following origin groups: i) North Africa, ii) sub-Saharan Africa, iii) South East Asia, iv) Turkey, v) Southern Europe, vi) East Europe, and vii) West Europe. For Germany, we analyse: i) Poland, ii) Russia/Kazakhstan, iii) Southern Europe, and iv) Turkey. In Switzerland, individuals' origins are: i) Ex-Yugoslavia, ii) Turkey, iii) Southern Europe, iv) East Europe, and v) West Europe. Last, the origin groups in Sweden are: i) India, ii) North Africa, iii) Middle East, iv) Turkey, v) Poland, vi) Ex-Yugoslavia, and vii) Southern Europe.[3]

All datasets contain information on residential mobility. For the UK and Germany, this information is available from the (annual) panel waves for all individuals. Individuals are asked whether they have lived at their current address their entire life. If not, they are asked to report the year and month of moving to their current address. After this, respondents are asked each year whether they have moved since the last interview and if so to report the year and month of their move. Information on housing tenure is also available annually at the household level. For France, individuals' residential mobility can be inferred if there is a change in the dwelling of residence from one year to another. In other words, residential mobility is based on the information provided by all individuals on a yearly basis in their fiscal records. Yearly information on housing tenure is also available. The Swiss register data also has information on individuals'

[2] In the Swiss data, the children of immigrants are identified based on their parents' migration status (born in Switzerland or abroad) and their own nationalities. However, if the children of immigrants did not hold a foreign nationality, the information regarding the parents' origin was lacking. Therefore, these individuals have been excluded from the analysis.

[3] A detailed list of the countries of birth by origin group is provided in Appendix A.

residential mobility; however, information on housing tenure is not collected. Finally, for Sweden, we have yearly information on individuals' residential mobility and housing tenure changes up to 2016.

As only the UK and German datasets contain information on the month of residential changes, we analyse annual data. We define a residential change as a change in residence (identified by a change in the dwelling code, neighbourhood, municipality, region of residence, or a residential move between two years).[4] The unit of analysis is the individual. The type of housing tenure individuals move to is categorised as homeownership, social renting, or private renting (except for Sweden which only has two categories of housing tenure: homeownership and private renting).

Methods

To compare the patterns of residential mobility and housing tenure changes across countries and population subgroups in a situation in which sharing individual-level data across research groups is not possible due to data confidentiality requirements, we use the so-called count data approach following Kulu et al. (2021). For each country, we prepare an occurrence-exposure (or event-time) table, defined by cross-classifying over a set of time intervals and variable categories (Hoem 1987; Preston 2005). The cells of the resulting table include the number of events (e.g., residential changes) denoted as E_{jk} and risk time (i.e., person-years) denoted as R_{jk} for each possible combination of covariate categories for each age group j and variable category k. For each cell, the hazard or rate denoted as μ_{jk} is obtained as the ratio of the number of events to the risk time:

$$\mu_{jk} = E_{jk}/R_{jk} \quad (1)$$

Following Kulu et al. (2021), we treat E_{jk} as the realisation of a Poisson random variable. The expected number of residential changes is the product of the hazard of residential change and exposure time. We estimate a series of Poisson regression models on the pooled occurrence-exposure dataset for five countries. More specifically, the models are specified as follows:

$$\ln \mu_{jk} = \alpha_j + X_k'\beta \quad (2)$$

Where $\alpha_j = \ln \mu_{jk}$ measures the hazard of residential changes by age (the 'baseline'), X_k' is a vector of the covariates (e.g., origin group, and others), and β represents a vector of the parameters to measure their effects. Previous research has shown that this approach is equivalent to estimating piecewise constant event

[4] We consider an alternative definition of a residential change where it is defined as either a change in residence (i.e., move) or a change in tenure type (if there was no residential move). Indeed, previous studies (e.g., Mikolai and Kulu 2018) show that some tenure changes take place without a residential move. For example, individuals could become homeowners by buying the rental property they live in or the social housing unit they live in without undertaking a move. To understand whether this matters for our results, we conducted additional analysis. The results using this alternative definition remain the same and are reported in Appendix C.

history models with categorical variables (Holford 1980; Laird and Olivier 1981). It is also equivalent to estimating discrete-time logit models when one has discrete-time data.

We estimate two models. First, we estimate the risk of a residential change by origin group among immigrants, immigrants' descendants, and native-born individuals in all countries (Model 1a). Second, we estimate the risk of a move to different housing tenure types: i) homeownership, ii) social renting, or iii) private renting and focus on examining differences across origin groups, migrant generations, and countries (Model 1b). In this second specification, we exclude Switzerland from the analysis given that no information is available on housing tenure changes. For the sake of simplicity, we report the results for men. However, we also conducted the analysis for women (results reported in Appendix B). The results are very similar for both men and women.

Variables

We include a number of variables in the models. First, our main independent variable of interest is the origin group of immigrants and immigrants' descendants which includes all the main groups in all five countries. In all cases, UK natives are the reference category. We also construct a variable for parity by using the retrospective information provided on the year of all childbirths. The categories are "childless", "1 child", and "2+ children". The variable "partnership status" has the following categories: "single", "partnered", and "separated/widowed". The category "partnered" includes individuals that are married, cohabiting, or are in a civil partnership and includes both first and higher order unions. Employment status is measured using a variable with the following categories: "employed", "unemployed", "inactive", or "unknown". This variable is either self-reported (in the UK and Germany) or based on the information provided on earnings (in France, Switzerland, and Sweden). Our baseline variable is age categorised as: 15-19 (reference), 20-24, 25-29, 30-34, 35-39, 40-49, and 50-59. Lastly, we control for the level of education (low, medium, or high). However, given the high proportion of missing values for education in France (See Appendix B Tables B.1 and B.2), we alternatively control for the household's standard of living, i.e., income by unit of consumption in France. This variable comprises the categories: low, medium, or high.

As a sensitivity analysis, we fit stepwise models where we progressively include one control after another, and the results remain largely stable. In addition, we run all models with additional controls such as time period: "2010-2014", and "2015-2019", the initial housing tenure status: "homeowner" (reference), "social renter", "private renter", and "unknown", and order of move: "no move", and "1+ move". To do so, however, we need to exclude from the analysis Switzerland which either does not have the information available or there is no variation (e.g., for time period). The results (not reported but available upon request) remain the same for the remaining countries and origin groups.

Results

The number of residential moves and person-years are reported in all countries in Appendix B Tables B.1 to B.2. In addition, Tables B.3 and B.4 report the number of residential moves to different housing tenure types by origin group. We have a sufficient number of observations for all types of moves to proceed with the analysis.

Residential mobility patterns

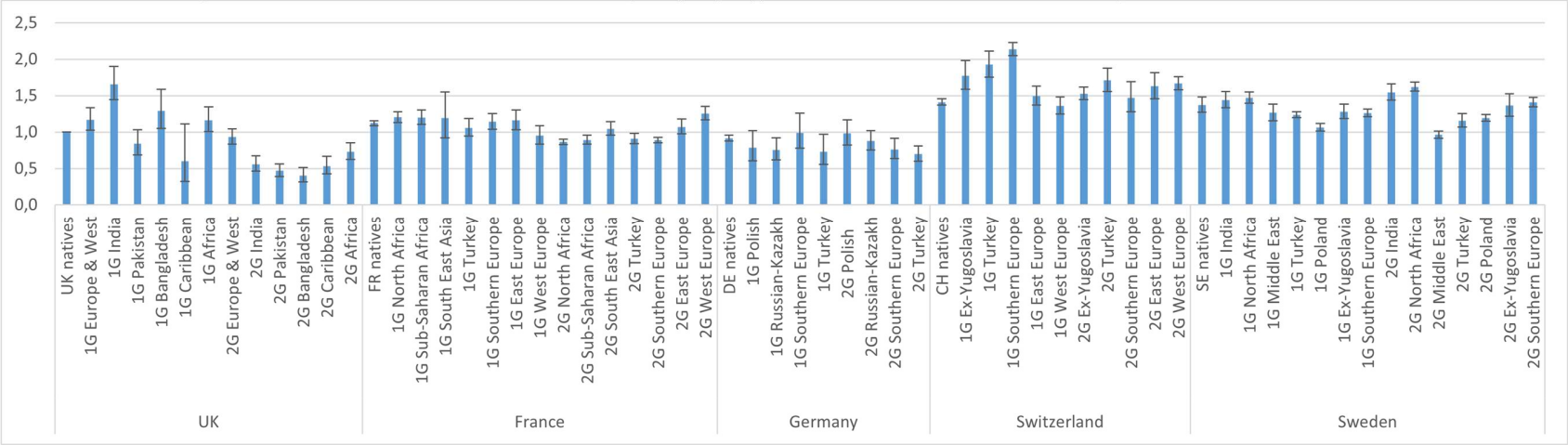
Figure 1 shows the relative risks of a residential change among men. The reference category is the risk of moving among native men in the UK. First, when comparing the risks of a move among native-born individuals across the five European countries, the results show that native men in the UK, France, and Germany have similar risks of experiencing a residential move while native men in Switzerland and Sweden have higher risks of moving. This is in line with what we know from the literature about cross-national differences in residential mobility rates among majority populations (Causa and Pichelmann 2020; Haran, Garnier and Baccaïni 2019).

In the UK, the risk of moving differs across migrant groups. Immigrant men from Europe and Western countries, India, and African countries have a significantly higher risk of moving than natives. Among the second generation, all descendant groups have a much lower risk of moving than natives except for the children of European immigrants who have comparable risks to native men. In France, most immigrant groups have a similar risk of experiencing a move to the French natives. Among the second generation, the male descendants of North African, sub-Saharan African, Turkish and Southern European immigrants have a lower risk of moving than the natives. By contrast, the male descendants of West European immigrants have a slightly higher risk of moving.

In Germany, we do not find significant differences in the risk of moving between immigrants, their descendants, and the natives, except for the descendants of Turkish immigrants who are less likely to move than their native counterparts. In Switzerland, immigrants from the former Yugoslavia, Turkey and Southern Europe have much higher risks of moving than natives whereas all other migrant groups and descendant groups have a much more similar likelihood of moving to natives. Lastly, in Sweden, immigrant men from Turkey and Poland have a lower risk of moving than the natives. Among the second generation, the male descendants of immigrants from the Middle East, Turkey and Poland have a lower risk of moving than native Swedes.

Through another lens, we interpret destination-level differences for the same origin groups. For instance, both the UK and Sweden have migrants of Indian origin. Immigrant men from India display similar mobility rates in both countries and higher rates than UK native men. Among the second generation, the male descendants of Indian immigrants residing in Sweden seem to be more mobile compared to those

Figure 1. Hazard ratios of a residential move by origin group for men in the UK, France, Germany, Switzerland, and Sweden



Source: Authors' own calculations using data from the UK Household Longitudinal Study (UKHLS) for the UK, the French Permanent Demographic Sample (PDS) for France, the German Socio-Economic Panel (GSOEP) for Germany, the Swiss population register for Switzerland and a 5% random sample of the Swedish population register. The data analysed is for the period 2010-2019 for the UK and Germany; 2011-2019 for France; 2010-2014 for Switzerland, and 2010-2016 for Sweden. Notes: The model is adjusted for age, education, partnership status, parity, and employment status. Whiskers indicate 95% confidence intervals compared to the reference category (native men in the UK). Full regression results are reported in Appendix B Table B.5.

in the UK. Second, both France and Sweden have a significant share of immigrants from North Africa. Immigrants from North Africa are more mobile in Sweden than in France. A similar pattern is found for the descendants of North African immigrants. Third, Turkish communities have established themselves in France, Germany, Switzerland, and Sweden. Yet, individuals of Turkish origin display different mobility patterns across countries: Turkish immigrants and their descendants are the most residentially mobile in Switzerland, they have high mobility rates in Sweden, lower mobility rates in France, and they are the least residentially mobile in Germany.

Fourth, Southern European immigrants are present in France, Germany, Switzerland, and Sweden. Immigrants from Southern Europe and their descendants are the most spatially mobile in Switzerland and the least in Germany. Eastern European immigrants and their descendants are more residentially mobile in Switzerland compared to their counterparts living in France. A similar conclusion can be drawn for West European immigrants and their descendants that reside in France and Switzerland. Immigrants of Polish origin and their descendants display similar patterns of residential mobility in both Germany and Sweden. Last, immigrants from former Yugoslavia and their children who have established themselves in Switzerland and Sweden are overall more likely to move in the former country.

Housing tenure changes

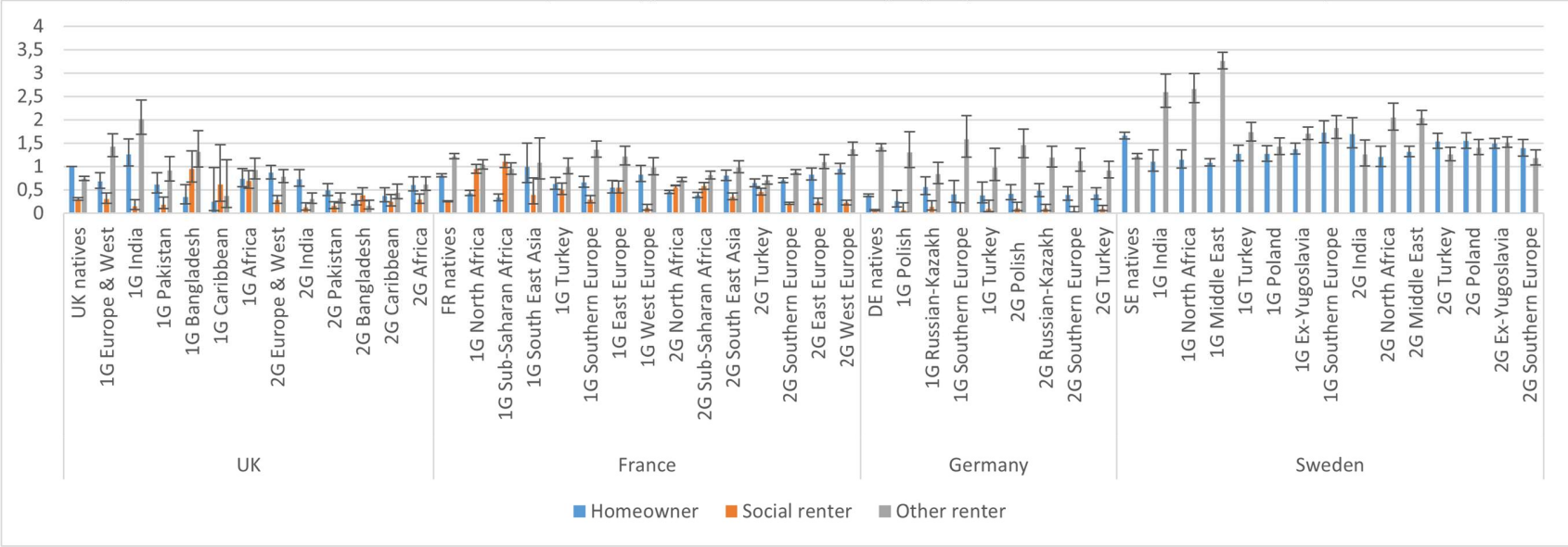
Next, we seek to uncover potential differences in the type of housing tenure moves across migrant generation and origin groups. We now examine the risk of a residential change by tenure type at destination and by origin group. Figure 2 shows the relative risks of a residential change among men. The reference category is the risk of moving to homeownership among native men in the UK. As mentioned previously, due to missing housing tenure information, Switzerland is excluded in this step of the analysis.

First, when comparing the risks of a move among natives across the four European countries, the results show that native men in the UK and France have similar risks of experiencing a move to homeownership. Native men in Germany have a lower risk while native Swedes have the highest risk of moving to homeownership.[5] Again, this is in line with previous studies showing different levels of homeownership across these countries (Hilber 2007; Andrews and Sanchez 2011).

There are differences in the risks of moving to different tenure types across origin groups. In the UK, Indian immigrants have a higher risk of moving to homeownership or to private renting compared to the natives. The advantage of Indian immigrants persists across generations; the descendants of Indian immigrants have a lower risk of moving, but still mostly move to homeownership. By contrast, immigrants

[5] The especially high homeownership rate is Sweden is due to what we consider 'homeownership'. In this study, we include both 'single-family homeownership' and 'cooperative-tenant homeownership' under the category 'homeownership'. The results using more detailed housing tenure types for Sweden are available in Appendix B Figure B.1.

Figure 2. Hazard ratios of a residential move by tenure type at destination and origin group for men in the UK, France, Germany, and Sweden



Source: Authors' own calculations using data from the UK Household Longitudinal Study (UKHLS) for the UK, the French Permanent Demographic Sample (PDS) for France, the German Socio-Economic Panel (GSOEP) for Germany, the Swiss population register for Switzerland and a 5% random sample of the Swedish population register. The data analysed is for the period 2010-2019 for the UK and Germany; 2011-2019 for France; 2010-2014 for Switzerland; and 2010-2016 for Sweden. Notes: The model is adjusted for age, education, partnership status, parity, and employment status. Whiskers indicate 95% confidence intervals compared to the reference category (native men in the UK). Full regression results are reported in Appendix B Table B.6

from Pakistan, Bangladesh, and Africa have a lower risk of becoming homeowners compared to natives. Immigrants from Bangladesh and Africa also have a much higher likelihood of moving to social renting than natives. Among the second generation, the risk of becoming a homeowner is lower than among natives. Immigrants from Europe and their descendants seem closer to natives in their homeownership rates than those from other countries.

In France, almost all migrant groups have a lower likelihood of moving to homeownership than the natives except South East Asian immigrants. The migrant groups that have the lowest likelihood of moving to homeownership are the North African and sub-Saharan African immigrants. They also exhibit the highest risk of moving to social renting. Differences between natives and immigrants' descendants are less striking but the disadvantaged groups remain the same. In comparison, the descendants of European immigrants have a higher risk of moving to homeownership and a lower risk of moving to social renting.

In Germany, social renting is comparatively low across all population groups. Homeownership is also less common than in the UK or France. We do not find large differences in the risk of moving to homeownership across population groups, except for immigrants of Russian-Kazakh origin and their descendants who seem to be slightly more likely to move to homeownership than their native counterparts. Regarding private renting, Turkish immigrants and their descendants are less likely to become private renters than natives.

Lastly, in Sweden, all migrant groups except Southern European immigrants have a lower likelihood of moving to homeownership than the native Swedes. Among the descendants of immigrants, the children of immigrants from India, the Middle East, and Turkey have a higher risk of moving to homeownership than their parents. Immigrants from India, North Africa and the Middle East are also much more likely to move to private renting compared to the native Swedes.

If we compare the experiences across countries of similar origin groups, immigrant men from India in the UK have a higher likelihood of moving to homeownership than Indian immigrant men in Sweden. However, among their children, those living in Sweden have a higher risk of moving to homeownership than those in the UK. North African immigrants in France have a relatively high probability of moving to social renting, they are less likely to move to homeownership compared to their counterparts living in Sweden. This is true for both the first and the second generation.

Turkish immigrants and their descendants have a similar likelihood of moving to homeownership or to renting (social or private) in France. In Germany, Turkish immigrants and their descendants are more likely to move to private renting. Lastly, in Sweden, individuals of Turkish origin have a much higher risk of moving to homeownership, especially the descendants of immigrants. Immigrants from Southern Europe and their descendants have a higher risk of moving to homeownership in Sweden and France than those

living in Germany. Lastly, immigrants from Poland have similar risks of moving to private renting in Germany and Sweden, yet they have higher risks of moving to homeownership in Sweden.

Conclusion and discussion

This paper analysed the residential mobility and housing experiences of immigrants and their descendants compared to the native population in the UK, France, Germany, Switzerland, and Sweden. We explored potential differences across migrant generations, origin groups, and host country contexts. Based on the existing literature and available theories, we had several expectations. First, we expected immigrants to display higher mobility rates than the natives (H1a). We found partial support for this hypothesis. Indeed, in the UK and Switzerland, some groups of non-European immigrants (India, and African countries in the UK and former Yugoslavia and Turkey in Switzerland) have much higher risks of moving than native men. This also holds for immigrant men from Europe and Western countries in the UK and immigrants from Southern Europe in Switzerland. However, we found the opposite in Sweden, where immigrant men from Turkey and Poland have a lower risk of moving than native men. Finally, in France and Germany, most immigrant groups have a similar risk of experiencing a move compared to their native counterparts.

We also expected immigrants to be less likely to move to homeownership and more likely to move to social or private renting compared to the natives (H1b). Our expectations were largely met. In France and Sweden, almost all migrant groups have a lower likelihood of moving to homeownership than the natives. The groups least likely to become homeowners were North African and sub-Saharan African immigrants in France and those from India, the Middle East, and North Africa in Sweden. At the same time, these groups are the most likely to move to social (in France) or private renting (in Sweden). In the UK, only certain groups of immigrants had lower risks of moving to homeownership than native men. Immigrants from Pakistan, Bangladesh, and African countries have a lower risk of becoming homeowners compared to natives and at the same time, they have a much higher likelihood of moving to social renting than the natives. Private renting is especially common among immigrants from European and Western countries and from India. Finally, in Germany, we do not detect large differences in the propensities of native men and immigrant men to move to different housing tenure types.

We also find that some groups fare better than others or even than the natives. For example, in the UK, Indian immigrants have a higher risk of moving to homeownership or to private renting compared to the natives. Similarly, in France, South East Asian immigrants are more likely to become homeowners compared to other migrant groups. These results corroborate with findings on Asian immigrants in the US (Chatterjee and Zahirovic-Herber 2011). In Germany, immigrants of Russian-Kazakh origin are slightly more likely to move to homeownership than their native counterparts. Lastly, in Sweden, Southern European immigrants have a similar likelihood of moving to homeownership than the native Swedes.

Regarding the second generation, according to the assimilation hypothesis, we expected the descendants of immigrants to have similar mobility (H2a) and homeownership rates (H2b) to those of the natives rather than to those of immigrants. However, we also expected to find some persistent differences between some descendant groups – especially the children of non-European immigrants – and the natives (H2c). More specifically, we expected these groups to display higher residential mobility rates, lower homeownership rates (higher rates in social housing) compared to other descendant groups.

Our results show some signs of assimilation across migrant generations. For instance, in France, the descendants of immigrants from North Africa and sub-Saharan Africa have a lower risk of moving to social renting than their parents' generation. Similarly in Sweden, the descendants of immigrants from India, the Middle East, and Turkey have a higher risk of moving to homeownership than immigrants. However, we also find some evidence for the stratification or segmented assimilation perspective. Indeed, although some of the differences in mobility and homeownership rates decline across migrant generations, we still find low levels of homeownership and high levels of social renting among most descendant groups. In the UK for instance, although Indian immigrants have a higher risk of moving to homeownership compared to the natives, this is no longer the case for the male descendants of Indian immigrants. Similarly, the descendants of immigrants from Bangladesh and African countries still have a lower risk of becoming a homeowner compared to UK natives. By contrast, European immigrants and their descendants have similar homeownership rates to those of natives.

Last, we expected cross-country differences in residential mobility and housing transitions given that each country has its own history and housing market. More specifically, we hypothesized (H3) that countries with integrated rental systems (e.g., Germany, Switzerland, and Sweden) will display lower homeownership rates compared to countries with a dual rental system (e.g., the UK and France). Indeed, the results show significant cross-country differences in both residential mobility and homeownership rates. Native individuals in the UK, France, and Germany have similar risks of experiencing a residential move while the natives in Switzerland and Sweden have higher risks of moving. Similarly, the native-born individuals in the UK and France have similar risks of experiencing a residential move to homeownership. Natives in Germany have a lower risk while native Swedes have the highest risk of moving to homeownership (due to considering a broader definition of 'homeownership'). The results also confirm our last hypothesis (H4): some migrant and descendant groups among non-European immigrants and their descendants display especially low rates of homeownership in countries where access to mortgages is limited or homeownership is not the norm.

Several reasons can explain these distinct patterns of residential mobility and housing tenure changes across origin groups. First, immigrants and their descendants might be limited in their residential mobility and housing options due to structural constraints. Access to information for instance is crucial for

anyone who wants to enter the homeownership segment, but it can also be important for social housing and private renting to some extent. Immigrants generally lack access to information compared to natives, especially during the first years of settlement in a new country. They may also have limited access to mortgages and may face barriers such as no previous banking history or no employment history in the country. Another possible explanation to differences in housing careers across origin groups are cultural differences in the way people view homeownership (Robinson 1981; Haan 2005) and housing quality in general (Lindberg & Linden1991). Return intentions and commitments to family in the country of origin can affect homeownership rates negatively (Owusu 1998). Another reason could be that some origin groups may prefer specific housing arrangements (e.g., multigenerational households or shared housing) rather than to attain specific housing tenures. Finally, preferences could also be related to neighbourhoods rather than housing. More research is needed to better understand why immigrants and their descendants exhibit distinct mobility patterns.

Some of the limitations of this study point towards interesting avenues for future research. For instance, in most of our data sources (except the UK), homeownership is defined at the household level, making it impossible to identify precisely who in the household is the owner. Combining administrative data with other data sources such as survey or qualitative data may help in overcoming this limitation in future studies. Second, in most data sources (expect the UK), we do not have information on how individuals have acquired the property (e.g., through inheritance, buying outright, or buying with a mortgage). Future studies should investigate different pathways into homeownership to gain a more comprehensive overview of how individuals of different migration background accumulate wealth. Nevertheless, this study sheds light on persistent differences in residential mobility and housing patterns among immigrants, their descendants, and natives in Europe. This highlights the potential to study residential mobility and homeownership across multiple institutional settings to illuminate a wider picture of immigrant integration into host societies, beyond income, education, and family formation. This study also contributes to provide a better understanding of the role of the host country context in perpetuating housing inequalities.

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Appendix A. Data Sources

For the UK, we use data from Waves 1 to 9 (2009–2019) of the UK Household Longitudinal Study (UKHLS); a nationally representative household panel survey that interviews approximately 30,000 households (~51,000 individuals) annually. The UKHLS also includes two immigrant and ethnic minority boost samples (in waves 1 and 6) enabling us to study a large sample of individuals from various origins.

For France, we rely on the Permanent Demographic Sample (PDS) – or Echantillon Démographique Permanent – which was developed by France's Institut National de la Statistique et des Etudes Economiques (INSEE). It comprises information taken from the official publications of the registry office for births, marriages, and deaths since 1968, along with exhaustive census information from 1968, 1975, 1982, 1990 and 1999. In addition, it contains information from annual fiscal reports from 2011 to 2019 as well as more specific employment information for a subset of employees.

Using the French PDS, the immigrant status of individuals can be determined using information on the country of birth and citizenship at birth. Therefore, we define immigrants as persons born outside of France without French citizenship at birth. Regarding immigrants' descendants, it is not possible to directly identify their origin in the EDP data. However, because of the availability of parental variables among EDP individuals who were observed as children, a national origin can be assigned to children of immigrants by taking parental country of birth as a proxy for the origin of EDP children. Immigrants' descendants may have been born in France or migrated as children. Finally, French natives are individuals born with French citizenship whose parents were also born with French citizenship.

For Germany, we use data from the German Socio-Economic Panel (SOEP, version 37); a household panel study of over 19,000 households that started in 1984 and is still ongoing. We use data from all waves (1984–2020) for individuals who reside in West Germany. The data also includes a foreign subsample which enables us to study the patterns of first- and second-generation immigrants from various origin countries.

For Switzerland, we use the population register combined with the Structural Survey – a nationally representative survey conducted every year on at least 200,000 inhabitants. Individuals of foreign origin can be identified with their country of birth and year of arrival. Information on the parents' origin only indicates whether they were born in Switzerland or abroad without specifying the country of birth. However, the descendants of immigrants can be identified with the country of birth (Switzerland), current nationalities and the date of acquisition of the Swiss nationality. If the individual has two foreign-national parents, he/she will not have the Swiss nationality at birth.

Lastly, for Sweden, we use a 5% random sample of the Swedish population register (Statistics-Sweden, 2023). This dataset includes information on all individuals with legal residence in Sweden starting

from 1968, when digitization of register records took place. The Swedish register microdata is updated continuously, and it includes information on individuals' main socio-demographic characteristics (e.g., sex and country of birth), and records of events such as births, civil status, deaths, international migrations (i.e., immigration, and emigration), and internal migrations (i.e., residential mobility). It also includes information on a yearly basis on education, employment, income, and benefits received for all individuals aged 16 and older and information on residential property identification numbers. Additionally, the Swedish microdata includes a "Longitudinal Database for Integration Studies (STATIV)", which provides valuable information including year of arrival in Sweden (for immigrants), municipality of residence, housing tenure, and housing type.

Table B.1. List of Countries of Birth by Origin Group and Country

Country	Origin group	Countries of birth
UK	Europe & West	France, Germany, Italy, Ireland, Spain, Poland, Cyprus, Turkey, Portugal, Albania, Armenia, Austria, Belarus, Belgium, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Channel Islands, Australia, Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, Georgia, Gibraltar, Greece, Hungary, Jersey, Kosovo, Latvia, Lithuania, Malta, Moldova, Norway, Portugal, Romania, Russia, Serbia, Slovakia, Slovenia, Sweden, Switzerland, the Netherlands, Ukraine, Yugoslavia, New Zealand, Canada, US
	India	India
	Pakistan	Pakistan
	Bangladesh	Bangladesh
	Caribbean	Jamaica, Anguilla, Antigua, Bahamas, Barbados, Cuba, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Guadeloupe, Grenada, Guyana, Haiti, Montserrat, Nevis, St Lucia, St Vincent and the Grenadines, Trinidad and Tobago
	Africa	Kenya, Ghana, Nigeria, Uganda, Algeria, Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Cape Verde, Zaire, Democratic Republic of Congo, Djibouti, Egypt, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Gabon, Gambia, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Ivory Coast, Liberia, Libya, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Morocco, Mozambique, Namibia, Rwanda, Senegal, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Somalia, Sudan, Swaziland, Tanzania, Togo, Tunisia, Zambia, Zimbabwe
France	North Africa	Algeria, Morocco, Tunisia
	Sub-Saharan Africa	Angola, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroun, Central African Republic, Tchad, Comoros, Congo, Republic Democratic of Congo, Ivory Coast, Djibouti, Gabon, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea Bissau, Kenya, Liberia, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Mozambique, Namibia, Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Somalia, South Africa, Soudan, Eswatini, Tanzania, Togo, Uganda, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Benin, Mauritius,
	South East Asia	Vietnam, Cambodia, Laos
	Turkey	Turkey
	Southern Europe	Greece, Portugal, Spain, Italy, Cyprus
	East Europe	Ukraine, Slovakia, Slovenia, Serbia, Russia, Romania, Poland, Moldavia, Macedonia, Lithuania, Latvia, Hungary, Georgia, Estonia,

		Czech Republic, Croatia, Albania, Armenia, Bosnia, Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Belarus
	West Europe	The UK, Switzerland, Sweden, Norway, the Netherlands, Monaco, Malta, Liechtenstein, Irland, Island, Germany, Finland, Denmark, Austria, Belgium, Montenegro
Germany	Polish	Poland
	Russian-Kazakh	Russia, Kazakhstan
	Southern Europe	Portugal, Italy, Spain, Greece
	Turkey	Turkey
Switzerland	Ex-Yugoslavia	Kosovo, Serbia, Serbia and Montenegro, Croatia, Slovenia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Montenegro, Macedonia
	Turkey	Turkey
	Southern Europe	Greece, Portugal, Spain, Italy, Portugal, Cyprus
	East Europe	Albania, Bulgaria, Poland, Romania, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Moldovia, Russia, Ukraine, Belarus, Hungary, Slovakia, Czech Republic
	West Europe	Germany, France, Austria, Belgium, the Netherlands, the UK, Ireland, Iceland, Denmark, Finland, Norway, Sweden, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Malta, Andorra, Monaco
Sweden	India	India
	North Africa	Egypt, Algeria, Morocco, Libya, Tunisia
	Middle East	Palestine, Yemen, Lebanon, Syria, Iraq, UAE, Bahrain, Yemen, Jordan, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Gaza, West Bank
	Turkey	Turkey
	Poland	Poland
	Ex-Yugoslavia	Yugoslavia, Croatia, Macedonia, Montenegro, Serbia, Slovenia, Bosnia, and Herzegovina
	Southern Europe	Andorra, Gibraltar, Portugal, Spain, Greece, Cyprus, Italy, Malta, San Marino, Vatican

Source: The UK Household Longitudinal Study (UKHLS), the French Permanent Demographic Sample (PDS), the German Socio-Economic Panel (GSOEP), the Swiss population register and a 5% random sample of the Swedish register data. Notes: Table A.1 presents the list of countries of birth by origin group for each country.

Appendix B. Additional Tables and Figures

Table B.1. Number of residential moves and person-years by categories of variables for men in the UK, France, Germany, Switzerland, and Sweden

	UK		France		Germany		Switzerland		Sweden	
	Moves	Person-Years	Moves	Person-Years	Moves	Person-Years	Moves	Person-Years	Moves	Person-Years
Age										
15–19	537	6,870	93	12,185	398	9,012	3,171	51,438	7,736	79,528
20–24	1,171	7,660	43,795	376,200	833	7,492	11,304	60,221	23,657	91,217
25–29	952	6,842	127,976	730,897	988	6,524	14,284	63,102	19,239	82,209
30–34	902	8,079	114,970	812,623	950	7,498	12,271	75,055	12,652	76,198
35–39	783	9,501	81,550	830,284	711	8,852	9,356	81,984	8,505	79,166
40–49	1,119	21,967	116,362	1,778,077	981	21,460	13,467	194,600	12,848	166,759
50-59	574	20,414	66,608	1,682,322	206	6,649	7,553	169,617	8,196	134,689
Time period										
2010–2014	4,070	51,460	205,344	2,772,589	2,544	34,863	71,406	696,017	60,429	506,676
2015–2019	1,968	29,873	346,010	3,449,999	2,523	32,624	.	.	32,404	203,090
Partnership Status										
Single	3,458	33,487	299,940	2,767,686	2,135	26,083	41,320	290,467	68,524	440,221
Partnered	2,054	41,313	214,645	3,043,814	2,591	38,485	25,385	358,326	17,783	221,811
Separated/Widowed	526	6,533	36,769	411,088	341	2,919	4,701	47,224	6,526	47,734
Parity										
Childless	3,259	33,418	328,665	3,855,291	2,690	30,514	54,835	438,640	55,602	327,250
1 child	1,007	12,000	118,456	1,143,999	899	10,359	7,315	85,607	13,789	94,100
2+ children	1,772	35,915	104,233	1,223,298	1,478	26,614	9,256	171,770	23,442	288,416
Employment Status										
Employed	4,339	61,945	385,452	3,914,252	3,611	47,687	68,305	649,411	74,733	570,464
Unemployed	551	6,432	32,134	365,873	151	1,475	3,101	46,606	2,675	14,809
Inactive	1,147	12,903	6,602	142,938	631	8,928	.	.	15,425	122,033
Unknown	1	53	127,166	1,799,525	674	9,397	.	.	0	2,460
Initial Housing Tenure										
Homeowner	2,546	54,960	165,806	2,802,788	1,065	32,734	.	.	50,000	497,865
Social renter	865	13,616	68,684	646,635	186	2,271	.	.	.	.
Other renter	2,551	12,481	300,095	1,410,788	3,717	32,313	.	.	41,480	204,933
Unknown	76	276	16,769	1,362,377	99	169	.	.	1,353	6,968
Order of Move										
No move	4,142	66,731	409,256	4,840,362	3,548	55,745	59,756	630,702	55,435	548,556
1+ move	1,896	14,602	142,098	1,382,226	1,519	11,742	11,650	65,315	37,398	161,210

Origin Group								
UK natives	4,329	55,671						
1G Europe & West	242	2,411						
1G India	210	1,738						
1G Pakistan	93	1,473						
1G Bangladesh	93	1,104						
1G Caribbean	10	260						
1G Africa	185	2,381						
2G Europe & West	326	4,677						
2G India	111	2,399						
2G Pakistan	121	2,780						
2G Bangladesh	67	1,809						
2G Caribbean	78	1,955						
2G Africa	173	2,675						
FR natives			535,729	6,037,867				
1G North Africa			1,270	14,156				
1G Sub-Saharan Africa			671	7,217				
1G South East Asia			57	905				
1G Turkey			319	4,132				
1G Southern Europe			481	6,295				
1G East Europe			314	3,414				
1G West Europe			230	4,410				
2G North Africa			4,598	56,306				
2G Sub-Saharan Africa			1,011	9,859				
2G South East Asia			583	5,646				
2G Turkey			781	8,707				
2G Southern Europe			3,955	51,213				
2G East Europe			460	4,827				
2G West Europe			895	7,664				
DE natives					4,197	55,526		
1G Polish					57	823		
1G Russian-Kazakh					100	1,770		
1G Southern Europe					66	853		
1G Turkey					50	873		
2G Polish					130	1,483		
2G Russian-Kazakh					178	1,821		
2G Southern Europe					120	1,724		
2G Turkey					169	2,614		
CH natives							42,012	421,952

1G Ex-Yugoslavia							2,647	33,447		
1G Turkey							786	8,099		
1G Southern Europe							4,612	50,505		
1G East Europe							910	7,230		
1G West Europe							7,344	60,958		
2G Ex-Yugoslavia							2,272	19,618		
2G Turkey							726	5,524		
2G Southern Europe							6,247	57,528		
2G East Europe							320	2,337		
2G West Europe							3,530	28,819		
SE natives									77,531	616,547
1G India									327	1,641
1G North Africa									500	2,802
1G Middle East									4,531	23,731
1G Turkey									590	4,116
1G Poland									586	4,212
1G Ex-Yugoslavia									1,622	12,852
1G Southern Europe									479	2,914
2G India									204	1,254
2G North Africa									351	1,970
2G Middle East									1,899	10,449
2G Turkey									790	5,233
2G Poland									736	4,662
2G Ex-Yugoslavia									2,165	13,391
2G Southern Europe									522	3,992
Education										
Low	1,710	28,841	38,834	644,461	940	12,082	11,825	142,250	14,097	134,867
Medium	1,762	20,831	223,064	2,666,340	2,511	34,752	34,038	314,145	61,707	456,423
High	2,566	31,661	96,443	959,605	1,616	20,653	25,543	239,622	17,029	118,476
Unknown			193,013	1,952,182						
Household's standard of living										
Low			143,389	1,507,777						
Medium			255,196	2,585,161						
High			152,769	2,129,650						
Total	6,038	81,333	551,354	6,222,588	5,067	67,487	71,406	696,017	92,833	709,766

Source: The UK Household Longitudinal Study (UKHLS), the French Permanent Demographic Sample (PDS), the German Socio-Economic Panel (GSOEP), the Swiss population register and a 5% random sample of the Swedish population register, authors' own calculations. The data analysed is for the period 2010-2019. Notes: This table presents the number of residential moves and person-years by categories of variables for men separately for each country, e.g., the UK, France, Germany, Switzerland, and Sweden.

Table B.2. Number of residential moves and person-years by categories of variables for women in the UK, France, Germany, Switzerland, and Sweden

	UK		France		Germany		Switzerland		Sweden	
	Moves	Person-Years	Moves	Person-Years	Moves	Person-Years	Moves	Person-Years	Moves	Person-Years
Age										
15–19	740	7,725	159	13,255	493	9,228	4,214	48,916	9,390	74,849
20–24	1,579	9,407	56,829	374,115	1,288	8,039	15,396	63,367	26,227	84,798
25–29	1,348	9,409	143,269	739,273	1,365	7,850	15,952	69,247	17,915	75,160
30–34	1,175	11,826	113,405	818,169	1,232	10,683	12,421	80,253	10,796	70,241
35–39	881	13,086	76,128	826,082	897	12,330	8,264	85,334	7,369	74,897
40–49	1,257	28,764	106,653	1,749,917	1,204	25,615	11,444	199,015	12,255	159,445
50-59	783	25,500	67,663	1,693,866	260	7,466	7,284	172,603	8,191	130,693
Time period										
2010–2014	5,185	67,173	207,929	2,758,942	3,490	42,327	74,975	718,735	60,598	479,301
2015–2019	2,578	38,544	356,177	3,455,735	3,249	38,884	.	.	31,545	190,782
Partnership Status										
Single	4,301	39,818	292,046	2,362,364	2,727	27,113	43,488	262,238	65,077	367,312
Partnered	2,466	51,104	222,265	3,289,569	3,132	45,478	24,534	380,856	18,419	242,627
Separated/Widowed	996	14,795	49,795	562,744	880	8,620	6,953	75,641	8,647	60,144
Parity										
Childless	3,600	32,449	314,368	3,596,614	3,014	27,794	54,925	429,507	50,030	242,897
1 child	1,392	16,215	130,653	1,237,447	1,431	16,165	9,432	96,300	14,025	93,636
2+ children	2,771	57,053	119,085	1,380,616	2,294	37,252	10,618	192,928	28,088	333,550
Employment Status										
Employed	4,614	68,540	385,310	3,884,975	4,310	53,129	68,670	619,055	73,942	543,004
Unemployed	605	6,187	35,160	358,076	207	1,758	6,305	99,680	2,167	12,343
Inactive	2,542	30,932	12,254	324,963	1,366	16,273	.	.	16,034	112,950
Unknown	2	58	131,382	1,646,663	856	10,051	.	.	0	1,786
Initial Housing Tenure										
Homeowner	3,220	67,553	156,727	2,782,592	1,271	35,888	.	.	49,963	469,108
Social renter	1,360	22,151	76,786	764,421	271	3,568	.	.	.	.
Private renter	3,076	15,596	314,664	1,417,819	5,088	41,556	.	.	41,516	196,879
Unknown	107	417	15,929	1,249,845	109	199	.	.	664	4,096
Order of Move										
No move	5,289	86,017	414,994	4,803,613	4,499	65,350	62,096	649,691	53,222	511,849
1+ move	2,474	19,700	149,112	1,411,064	2,240	15,861	12,879	69,044	38,921	158,234
Origin Group										
UK natives	5,505	71,151								
1G Europe & West	394	4,016								

1G India	179	2,023						
1G Pakistan	84	1,934						
1G Bangladesh	69	1,329						
1G Caribbean	33	560						
1G Africa	262	3,685						
2G Europe & West	409	5,894						
2G India	125	2,605						
2G Pakistan	156	3,416						
2G Bangladesh	100	2,077						
2G Caribbean	159	3,515						
2G Africa	288	3,512						
FR natives			548,575	6,043,250				
1G North Africa			1,008	11,913				
1G Sub-Saharan Africa			788	8,746				
1G South East Asia			84	1,305				
1G Turkey			198	2,932				
1G Southern Europe			411	4,623				
1G East Europe			431	5,040				
1G West Europe			340	5,449				
2G North Africa			4,712	53,801				
2G Sub-Saharan Africa			1,128	10,084				
2G South East Asia			645	5,523				
2G Turkey			654	6,745				
2G Southern Europe			3,806	43,530				
2G East Europe			486	4,426				
2G West Europe			840	7,310				
DE natives					5,523	66,517		
1G Polish					120	1,627		
1G Russian-Kazakh					167	2,561		
1G Southern Europe					43	731		
1G Turkey					34	876		
2G Polish					210	1,869		
2G Russian-Kazakh					270	2,329		
2G Southern Europe					159	1,991		
2G Turkey					213	2,710		
CH natives							46,606	442,441
1G Ex-Yugoslavia							2,289	33,381
1G Turkey							520	7,416
1G Southern Europe							3,217	42,693

1G East Europe							1,997	17,488		
1G West Europe							6,859	63,587		
2G Ex-Yugoslavia							2,857	19,751		
2G Turkey							692	5,460		
2G Southern Europe							5,821	54,366		
2G East Europe							403	2,440		
2G West Europe							3,714	29,712		
SE natives									79,617	583,340
1G India									160	1,024
1G North Africa									269	2,159
1G Middle East									2,838	19,323
1G Turkey									328	3,273
1G Poland									794	6,988
1G Ex-Yugoslavia									1,348	12,737
1G Southern Europe									327	2,007
2G India									315	2,056
2G North Africa									259	1,588
2G Middle East									1,685	9,429
2G Turkey									677	4,780
2G Poland									831	4,765
2G Ex-Yugoslavia									2,100	12,691
2G Southern Europe									595	3,923
Education										
Low	2,187	38,711	36,653	650,261	1,277	13,659	13,619	161,834	10,858	101,757
Medium	2,074	23,362	213,814	2,471,918	3,506	46,257	38,998	373,562	57,511	398,658
High	3,502	43,644	120,576	1,197,595	1,956	21,295	22,358	183,339	23,774	169,668
Unknown			193,063	1,894,903						
Household's standard of living										
Low			173,040	1,684,404						
Medium			250,713	2,547,579						
High			140,353	1,982,694						
Total	7,763	105,717	564,106	6,214,677	6,739	81,211	74,975	718,735	92,143	670,083

Source: The UK Household Longitudinal Study (UKHLS), the French Permanent Demographic Sample (PDS), the German Socio-Economic Panel (GSOEP), the Swiss population register and a 5% random sample of the Swedish population register, authors' own calculations. The data analysed is for the period 2010-2019. Notes: This table presents the number residential moves and person-years by categories of variables for women separately for each country, e.g., the UK, France, Germany, Switzerland, and Sweden.

Table B.3. Number of residential moves to different housing tenure types by origin group for men in the UK, France, Germany, and Sweden

	UK			France		
	Home-owner	Social renter	Other renter	Home-owner	Social renter	Other renter
Origin Group						
UK natives	2,090	641	1,554			
1G Europe & West	68	30	142			
1G India	77	9	123			
1G Pakistan	33	10	49			
1G Bangladesh	12	33	46			
1G Caribbean	2	5	3			
1G Africa	56	53	71			
2G Europe & West	146	47	131			
2G India	70	12	29			
2G Pakistan	61	20	39			
2G Bangladesh	22	31	13			
2G Caribbean	26	18	3			
2G Africa	69	33	70			
FR natives				185,325	58,944	279,263
1G North Africa				220	486	532
1G Sub-Saharan Africa				90	299	256
1G South East Asia				23	<11	25
1G Turkey				92	75	146
1G Southern Europe				135	59	276
1G East Europe				72	71	159
1G West Europe				96	13	114
2G North Africa				1,179	1,408	1,843
2G Sub-Saharan Africa				207	314	442
2G South East Asia				214	93	262
2G Turkey				268	190	294
2G Southern Europe				1,509	447	1,885
2G East Europe				171	51	225
2G West Europe				324	76	467

	Germany			Sweden		
	Home-owner	Social renter	Other renter	Home-owner	Social renter	Other renter
Origin Group						
DE natives	842	139	3,129			
1G Polish	9	2	46			
1G Russian-Kazakh	36	9	54			
1G Southern Europe	13	1	51			
1G Turkey	13	3	33			
2G Polish	27	7	94			
2G Russian-Kazakh	47	10	117			
2G Southern Europe	30	4	85			
2G Turkey	48	11	108			
SE natives				44,088	.	32,392
1G India				96	.	226
1G North Africa				144	.	333
1G Middle East				1,110	.	3,338
1G Turkey				245	.	333
1G Poland				263	.	295
1G Ex-Yugoslavia				714	.	886

1G Southern Europe	229	.	242
2G India	113	.	84
2G North Africa	125	.	213
2G Middle East	728	.	1,129
2G Turkey	428	.	351
2G Poland	380	.	346
2G Ex-Yugoslavia	1,061	.	1,078
2G Southern Europe	276	.	234

Source: The UK Household Longitudinal Study (UKHLS), the French Permanent Demographic Sample (PDS), the German Socio-Economic Panel (GSOEP), and a 5% random sample of the Swedish population register, authors' own calculations. The data analysed is for the period 2010-2019. Notes: This table presents the number of residential moves to different housing tenure types by origin group for men separately for each country, e.g., the UK, France, Germany, and Sweden. Switzerland does not appear given that no information on housing tenure was available. Besides, Sweden does not have a 'social renter' category.

Table B.4. Number of residential moves to different housing tenure types by origin group for women in the UK, France, Germany, and Sweden

	UK			France		
	Home-owner	Social renter	Other renter	Home-owner	Social renter	Other renter
Origin Group						
UK natives	2,486	914	2,029			
1G Europe & West	120	53	218			
1G India	75	12	90			
1G Pakistan	37	19	28			
1G Bangladesh	14	30	24			
1G Caribbean	6	8	18			
1G Africa	46	109	103			
2G Europe & West	196	63	145			
2G India	76	11	34			
2G Pakistan	77	31	43			
2G Bangladesh	30	45	22			
2G Caribbean	47	53	58			
2G Africa	107	72	104			
FR natives				182,391	69,705	286,876
1G North Africa				210	408	366
1G Sub-Saharan Africa				142	330	299
1G South East Asia				36	13	33
1G Turkey				69	64	65
1G Southern Europe				122	56	225
1G East Europe				125	88	209
1G West Europe				148	19	163
2G North Africa				1,163	1,561	1,859
2G Sub-Saharan Africa				223	410	454
2G South East Asia				261	92	276
2G Turkey				205	182	250
2G Southern Europe				1,376	535	1,811
2G East Europe				179	65	230
2G West Europe				301	74	440
	Germany			Sweden		

	Home-owner	Social renter	Other renter	Home-owner	Social renter	Other renter
Origin Group						
DE natives	982	197	4,252			
1G Polish	30	8	82			
1G Russian-Kazakh	59	16	92			
1G Southern Europe	12	1	30			
1G Turkey	13	2	19			
2G Polish	35	8	161			
2G Russian-Kazakh	65	17	179			
2G Southern Europe	26	8	124			
2G Turkey	49	14	149			
SE natives				44,745	.	34,332
1G India				73	.	85
1G North Africa				87	.	179
1G Middle East				753	.	2,042
1G Turkey				137	.	188
1G Poland				365	.	427
1G Ex-Yugoslavia				593	.	741
1G Southern Europe				179	.	147
2G India				175	.	134
2G North Africa				111	.	148
2G Middle East				647	.	1,022
2G Turkey				385	.	288
2G Poland				402	.	416
2G Ex-Yugoslavia				983	.	1,104
2G Southern Europe				328	.	263

Source: The UK Household Longitudinal Study (UKHLS), the French Permanent Demographic Sample (PDS), the German Socio-Economic Panel (GSOEP), and a 5% random sample of the Swedish population register, authors' own calculations. The data analysed is for the period 2010-2019. Notes: This table presents the number of residential moves to different housing tenure types by origin group for women separately for each country, e.g., the UK, France, Germany, and Sweden. Switzerland does not appear given that no information on housing tenure was available. Besides, Sweden does not have a 'social renter' category.

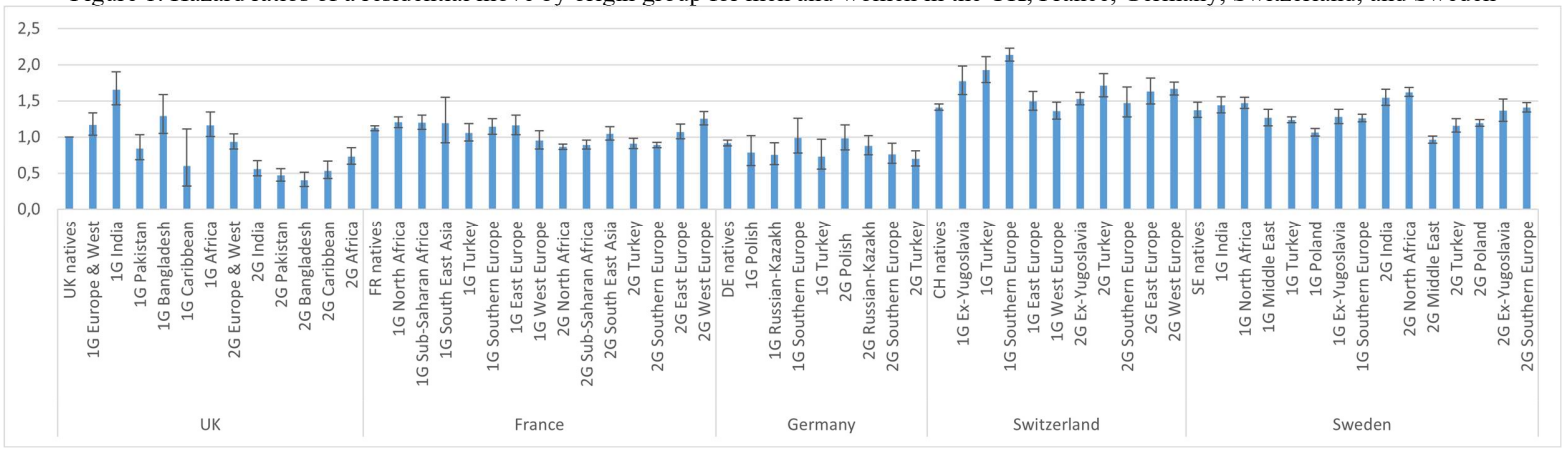
Table B.5. Hazard ratios (HR) of a residential move, men and women

	Men		Women	
	HR	Sig	HR	Sig
Constant	0.064	***	0.072	***
Age				
15–19 (ref.)	1		1	
20–24	2.219	***	2.265	***
25–29	2.808	***	2.602	***
30–34	2.224	***	1.912	***
35–39	1.536	***	1.267	***
40–49	0.987		0.811	***
50–59	0.619	***	0.539	***
Partnership Status				
Single (ref.)	1		1	
Partnered	0.946	***	1.013	***
Separated	1.622	***	0.830	***
Parity				
Childless (ref.)	1			
1 child	1.110	***		
2+ children	0.949	***		
Employment Status				
Employed (ref.)	1			
Unemployed	0.835	***		
Inactive	0.912	***		
Unknown	0.773	***		
Origin Group				
UK natives (ref.)	1		1	
1G Europe & West	1.170	**	1.258	***
1G India	1.656	***	1.302	***
1G Pakistan	0.841	*	0.596	***
1G Bangladesh	1.292	**	0.678	***
1G Caribbean	0.599		0.913	
1G Africa	1.163	**	0.995	
2G Europe & West	0.933		0.928	
2G India	0.557	***	0.608	***
2G Pakistan	0.468	***	0.455	***
2G Bangladesh	0.401	***	0.454	***
2G Caribbean	0.531	***	0.626	***
2G Africa	0.730	***	0.864	**
FR natives	1.123	***	1.151	***
1G North Africa	1.202	***	1.064	*
1G Sub-Saharan Africa	1.200	***	1.058	
1G South East Asia	1.194		1.042	
1G Turkey	1.060		0.940	
1G Southern Europe	1.141	***	1.278	***
1G East Europe	1.160	**	1.072	
1G West Europe	0.953		1.046	
2G North Africa	0.863	***	0.898	***
2G Sub-Saharan Africa	0.893	***	0.875	***
2G South East Asia	1.047		1.140	***
2G Turkey	0.909	**	0.961	
2G Southern Europe	0.888	***	0.969	
2G East Europe	1.071		1.164	***
2G West Europe	1.257	***	1.184	***
DE natives	0.917	***	0.987	
1G Polish	0.787	*	0.918	

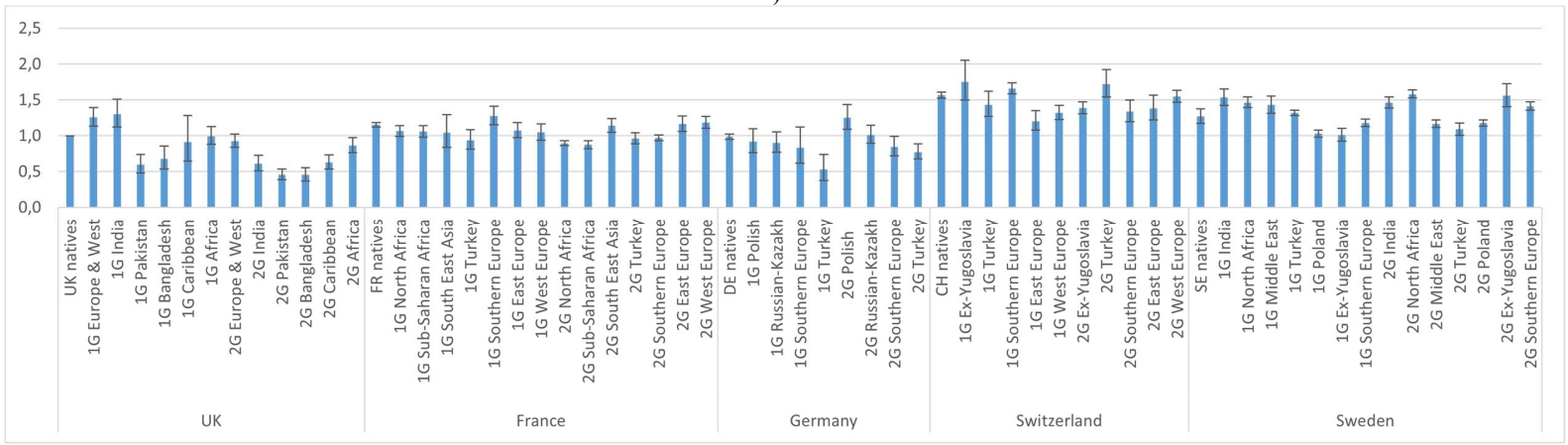
1G Russian-Kazakh	0.755	***	0.902	
1G Southern Europe	0.989		0.831	
1G Turkey	0.733	**	0.529	***
2G Polish	0.980		1.253	***
2G Russian-Kazakh	0.878	*	1.013	
2G Southern Europe	0.761	***	0.848	**
2G Turkey	0.696	***	0.774	***
CH natives	1.237	***	1.319	***
1G Ex-Yugoslavia	1.063	**	1.030	
1G Turkey	1.281	***	1.011	
1G Southern Europe	1.259	***	1.180	***
1G East Europe	1.545	***	1.463	***
1G West Europe	1.621	***	1.582	***
2G Ex-Yugoslavia	0.962		1.167	***
2G Turkey	1.157	***	1.089	**
2G Southern Europe	1.193	***	1.180	***
2G East Europe	1.364	***	1.559	***
2G West Europe	1.410	***	1.415	***
SE natives	1.411	***	1.566	***
1G India	1.773	***	1.756	***
1G North Africa	1.926	***	1.434	***
1G Middle East	2.136	***	1.662	***
1G Turkey	1.495	***	1.206	***
1G Poland	1.360	***	1.321	***
1G Ex-Yugoslavia	1.527	***	1.388	***
1G Southern Europe	1.710	***	1.724	***
2G India	1.470	***	1.337	***
2G North Africa	1.628	***	1.385	***
2G Middle East	1.668	***	1.549	***
2G Turkey	1.374	***	1.271	***
2G Poland	1.440	***	1.536	***
2G Ex-Yugoslavia	1.470	***	1.465	***
2G Southern Europe	1.265	***	1.430	***
Education				
Low (ref.)	1		1	
Medium	0.989	***	1.013	***
High	0.823	***	0.830	***
Log-likelihood	-1562993.1			
N	5,511,996			

Source: The UK Household Longitudinal Study (UKHLS), the French Permanent Demographic Sample (PDS), the German Socio-Economic Panel (GSOEP), the Swiss population register and a 5% random sample of the Swedish population register, authors' own calculations. The data analysed is for the period 2010-2019. Notes: Model 1a – poisson regression for the risk of a residential move. *$p < .1$; **$p < .05$; ***$p < .01$

Figure 1. Hazard ratios of a residential move by origin group for men and women in the UK, France, Germany, Switzerland, and Sweden



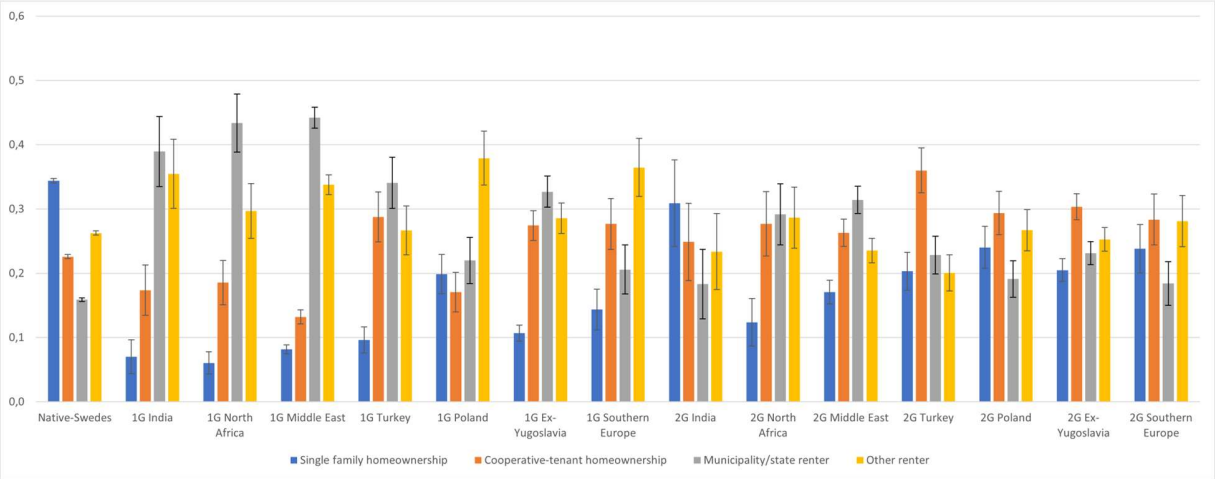
a) Men



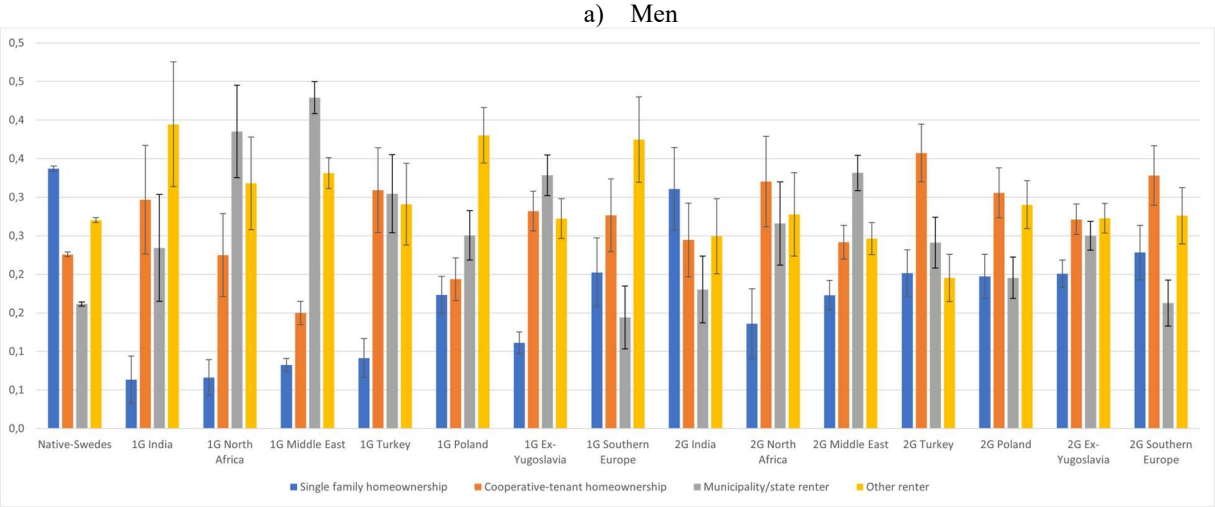
b) Women

Source: Authors' own calculations using data from the UK Household Longitudinal Study (UKHLS) for the UK, the French Permanent Demographic Sample (PDS) for France, the German Socio-Economic Panel (GSOEP) for Germany, the Swiss population register for Switzerland and a 5% random sample of the Swedish population register. The data analysed is for the period 2010-2019. Notes: The models are all adjusted for age, education, partnership status, parity, and employment status. Whiskers indicate 95% confidence intervals compared to the reference category (native men in the UK for panel a)) and native women in the UK for panel b)). Full regression results are reported in Appendix B Table B.5.

Figure B.1. Hazard ratios of a residential move by tenure type at destination (detailed) and origin group for men and women in Sweden



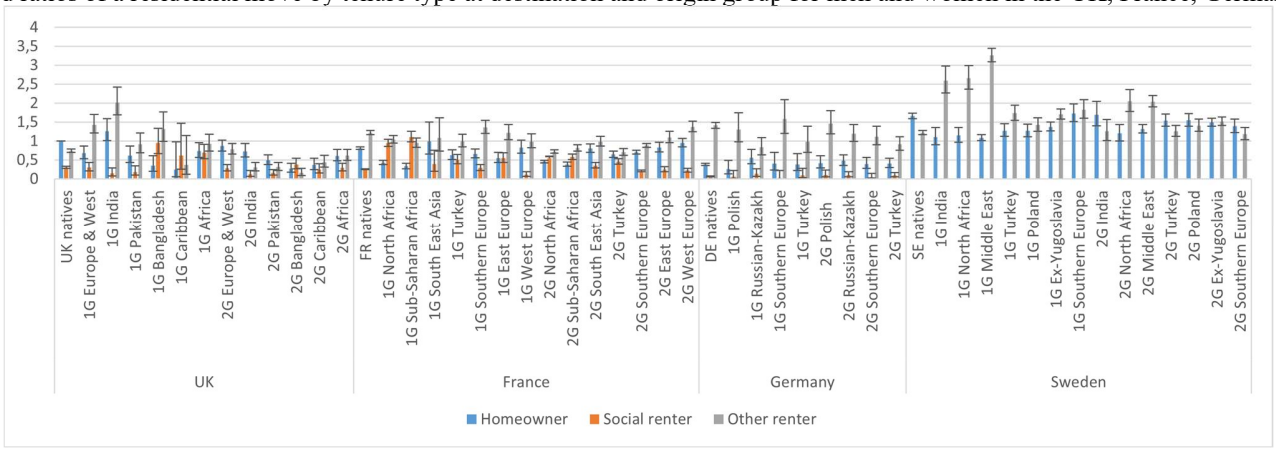
a) Men



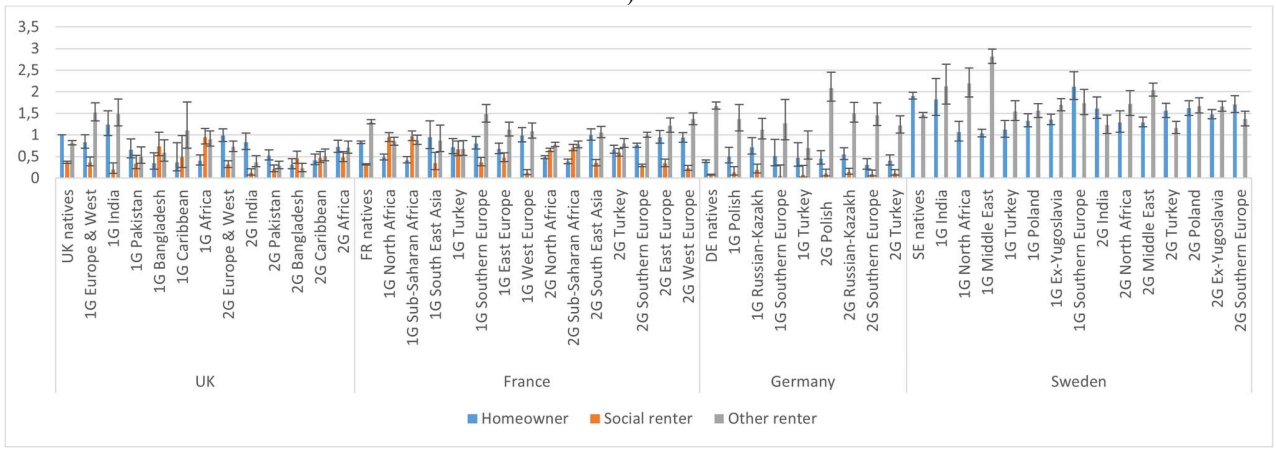
b) Women

Source: Authors' own calculations using data from a 5% random sample of the Swedish population register. The data analysed is for the period 2010-2019. Notes: This figure displays predicted probabilities after estimating a multinomial logistic regression for the odds of a residential move by origin group and tenure type of destination. The probabilities are all calculated at the mean values of other covariates such as age, education, partnership status, parity, and employment status. Whiskers indicate 95% confidence intervals compared to the reference category.

Figure 2. Hazard ratios of a residential move by tenure type at destination and origin group for men and women in the UK, France, Germany, and Sweden



a) Men



b) Women

Source: Authors' own calculations using data from the UK Household Longitudinal Study (UKHLS) for the UK, the French Permanent Demographic Sample (PDS) for France, the German Socio-Economic Panel (GSOEP) for Germany, the Swiss population register for Switzerland and a 5% random sample of the Swedish population register. The data analysed is for the period 2010-2019. Notes: The models are all adjusted for age, education, partnership status, parity, and employment status. Whiskers indicate 95% confidence intervals compared to the reference category (native men in the UK for panel a)) and native women in the UK for panel b)). Full regression results are reported in Appendix B Table B.6

Appendix C. Using an Alternative Definition of a Residential Change (a Residential Change is defined as either a Residential Move or a Change in the Housing Tenure Status if there was no Residential Move)

Table C.1. Number of residential moves and person-years by categories of variables for men in the UK, France, Germany, and Sweden

	UK		France		Germany		Sweden	
	Moves	Person-Years	Moves	Person-Years	Moves	Person-Years	Moves	Person-Years
Age								
15–19	711	6,870	98	12,186	665	9,012	7,950	79,528
20–24	1,357	7,660	45,243	375,211	1,099	7,492	24,131	91,217
25–29	1,094	6,842	134,944	729,621	1,173	6,524	19,761	82,209
30–34	1,062	8,079	124,042	811,451	1,164	7,498	13,014	76,198
35–39	972	9,501	89,872	829,093	982	8,852	8,823	79,166
40–49	1,436	21,967	130,802	1,775,672	1,511	21,460	13,522	166,759
50-59	755	20,414	78,119	1,679,961	268	6,649	8,770	134,689
Time period								
2010–2014	5,004	51,460	220,304	2,763,768	3,496	34,863	62,459	506,676
2015–2019	2,383	29,873	382,816	3,449,427	3,366	32,624	33,512	203,090
Partnership Status								
Single	4,178	33,487	325,197	2,763,195	2,909	26,083	70,847	440,221
Partnered	2,578	41,313	237,550	3,039,873	3,530	38,485	18,323	221,811
Separated/Widowed	631	6,533	40,373	410,127	423	2,919	6,801	47,734
Parity								
Childless	3,882	33,418	359,461	3,850,009	3,560	30,514	57,471	327,250
1 child	1,209	12,000	129,192	1,142,039	1,164	10,359	14,222	94,100
2+ children	2,296	35,915	114,467	1,221,147	2,138	26,614	24,278	288,416
Employment Status								
Employed	5,228	61,945	418,329	3,908,896	4,716	47,687	77,212	570,464
Unemployed	721	6,432	34,278	363,666	238	1,475	2,761	14,809
Inactive	1,436	12,903	7,369	142,437	908	8,928	15,998	122,033
Unknown	2	53	143,144	1,798,196	1,000	9,397	0	2,460
Initial Housing Tenure								
Homeowner	2,850	54,960	176,589	2,800,556	1,598	32,734	50,876	497,865
Social renter	1,363	13,616	75,969	644,500	574	2,271	.	.
Other renter	3,080	12,481	334,134	1,406,103	4,565	32,313	43,683	204,933
Unknown	94	276	16,428	1,362,036	125	169	1,412	6,968
Order of Move								

No move	4,688	66,731	319,414	4,660,661	4,973	55,745	56,497	548,556
1+ move	2,699	14,602	283,706	1,552,534	1,889	11,742	39,474	161,210
Origin Group								
UK natives	4,999	55,671						
1G Europe & West	296	2,411						
1G India	257	1,738						
1G Pakistan	128	1,473						
1G Bangladesh	149	1,104						
1G Caribbean	18	260						
1G Africa	270	2,381						
2G Europe & West	410	4,677						
2G India	153	2,399						
2G Pakistan	189	2,780						
2G Bangladesh	127	1,809						
2G Caribbean	146	1,955						
2G Africa	245	2,675						
FR natives			585,668	6,028,885				
1G North Africa			1,433	14,121				
1G Sub-Saharan Africa			795	7,238				
1G South East Asia			65	906				
1G Turkey			353	4,132				
1G Southern Europe			532	6,258				
1G East Europe			341	3,419				
1G West Europe			258	4,413				
2G North Africa			5,226	56,114				
2G Sub-Saharan Africa			1,133	9,846				
2G South East Asia			651	5,651				
2G Turkey			882	8,708				
2G Southern Europe			4,320	51,011				
2G East Europe			534	4,828				
2G West Europe			959	7,665				
DE natives					5,469	55,526		
1G Polish					74	823		
1G Russian-Kazakh					194	1,770		
1G Southern Europe					86	853		
1G Turkey					103	873		
2G Polish					163	1,483		
2G Russian-Kazakh					276	1,821		
2G Southern Europe					184	1,724		

2G Turkey					313	2,614		
SE natives							80,233	616,547
1G India							339	1,641
1G North Africa							514	2,802
1G Middle East							4,644	23,731
1G Turkey							613	4,116
1G Poland							607	4,212
1G Ex-Yugoslavia							1,672	12,852
1G Southern Europe							493	2,914
2G India							210	1,254
2G North Africa							363	1,970
2G Middle East							1,941	10,449
2G Turkey							806	5,233
2G Poland							773	4,662
2G Ex-Yugoslavia							2,223	13,391
2G Southern Europe							540	3,992
Education								
Low	2,288	28,841	43,818	642,178	1,493	12,082	14,690	134,867
Medium	2,116	20,831	245,347	2,663,029	3,412	34,752	63,732	456,423
High	2,983	31,661	103,644	958,229	1,957	20,653	17,549	118,476
Unknown			210,311	1,949,759				
Household's standard of living								
Low			158,058	1,503,214				
Medium			279,284	2,582,381				
High			165,778	2,127,600				
Total	7,387	81,333	603,120	6,213,195	6,862	67,487	95,971	709,766

Source: The UK Household Longitudinal Study (UKHLS), the French Permanent Demographic Sample (PDS), the German Socio-Economic Panel (GSOEP), and a 5% random sample of the Swedish population register, authors' own calculations. The data analysed is for the period 2010-2019. Notes: This table presents the number of residential moves and person-years by categories of variables for men separately for each country, e.g., the UK, France, Germany, and Sweden. Switzerland is excluded from this analysis given that its data does not include information on housing tenure changes.

Table C.2. Number of residential moves and person-years by categories of variables for women in the UK, France, Germany, and Sweden

	UK		France		Germany		Sweden	
	Events	Person-Years	Events	Person-Years	Events	Person-Years	Events	Person-Years
Age								
15–19	956	7,725	164	13,257	800	9,228	9,579	74,849
20–24	1,869	9,407	57,518	372,445	1,529	8,039	26,660	84,798
25–29	1,592	9,409	150,557	738,031	1,601	7,850	18,342	75,160
30–34	1,447	11,826	122,725	816,863	1,566	10,683	11,126	70,241
35–39	1,135	13,086	84,648	824,613	1,332	12,330	7,613	74,897
40–49	1,651	28,764	121,499	1,746,874	1,908	25,615	12,891	159,445
50-59	1,025	25,500	79,729	1,691,255	337	7,466	8,784	130,693
Time period								
2010–2014	6,455	67,173	222,861	2,748,911	4,730	42,327	62,418	479,301
2015–2019	3,220	38,544	393,979	3,454,427	4,343	38,884	32,577	190,782
Partnership Status								
Single	5,281	39,818	313,477	2,357,333	3,578	27,113	66,892	367,312
Partnered	3,128	51,104	246,406	3,284,597	4,293	45,478	19,002	242,627
Separated/Widowed	1,266	14,795	56,957	561,408	1,202	8,620	9,101	60,144
Parity								
Childless	4,300	32,449	341,836	3,590,597	3,776	27,794	51,264	242,897
1 child	1,702	16,215	142,688	1,234,371	1,898	16,165	14,496	93,636
2+ children	3,673	57,053	132,316	1,378,370	3,399	37,252	29,235	333,550
Employment Status								
Employed	5,601	68,540	416,365	3,816,574	5,612	53,129	76,209	543,004
Unemployed	760	6,187	36,600	346,909	327	1,758	2,262	12,343
Inactive	3,310	30,932	12,266	273,588	1,916	16,273	16,524	112,950
Unknown	4	58	151,609	1,766,267	1,218	10,051	0	1,786
Initial Housing Tenure								
Homeowner	3,613	67,553	166,739	2,780,428	1,895	35,888	50,829	469,108
Social renter	2,104	22,151	85,457	761,859	849	3,568	.	.
Private renter	3,834	15,596	348,901	1,411,392	6,195	41,556	43,476	196,879
Unknown	124	417	15,743	1,249,659	134	199	690	4,096
Order of Move								
No move	6,047	86,017	319,084	4,613,131	6,238	65,350	54,172	511,849
1+ move	3,628	19,700	297,756	1,590,207	2,835	15,861	40,823	158,234
Origin Group								
UK natives	6,404	71,151						
1G Europe & West	474	4,016						

1G India	249	2,023						
1G Pakistan	144	1,934						
1G Bangladesh	126	1,329						
1G Caribbean	63	560						
1G Africa	466	3,685						
2G Europe & West	509	5,894						
2G India	191	2,605						
2G Pakistan	218	3,416						
2G Bangladesh	190	2,077						
2G Caribbean	252	3,515						
2G Africa	389	3,512						
FR natives			599,580	6,032,302				
1G North Africa			1,163	11,920				
1G Sub-Saharan Africa			904	8,747				
1G South East Asia			101	1,305				
1G Turkey			232	2,935				
1G Southern Europe			449	4,669				
1G East Europe			471	5,049				
1G West Europe			378	5,449				
2G North Africa			5,280	53,575				
2G Sub-Saharan Africa			1,262	10,067				
2G South East Asia			713	5,520				
2G Turkey			731	6,744				
2G Southern Europe			4,119	43,326				
2G East Europe			536	4,420				
2G West Europe			921	7,310				
DE natives					7,176	66,517		
1G Polish					185	1,627		
1G Russian-Kazakh					306	2,561		
1G Southern Europe					67	731		
1G Turkey					96	876		
2G Polish					262	1,869		
2G Russian-Kazakh					368	2,329		
2G Southern Europe					232	1,991		
2G Turkey					381	2,710		
SE natives							82,070	583,340
1G India							165	1,024
1G North Africa							283	2,159
1G Middle East							2,926	19,323

1G Turkey							345	3,273
1G Poland							838	6,988
1G Ex-Yugoslavia							1,400	12,737
1G Southern Europe							338	2,007
2G India							323	2,056
2G North Africa							271	1,588
2G Middle East							1,729	9,429
2G Turkey							699	4,780
2G Poland							846	4,765
2G Ex-Yugoslavia							2,147	12,691
2G Southern Europe							615	3,923
Education								
Low	2,995	38,711	41,614	647,787	1,896	13,659	11,290	101,757
Medium	2,550	23,362	234,627	2,467,777	4,826	46,257	59,205	398,658
High	4,130	43,644	130,477	1,195,730	2,351	21,295	24,500	169,668
Unknown			210,122	1,892,044				
Household's standard of living								
Low			190,236	1,679,195				
Medium			274,067	2,543,759				
High			152,537	1,980,384				
Total	9,675	105,717	616,840	6,203,338	9,073	81,211	94,995	670,083

Source: The UK Household Longitudinal Study (UKHLS), the French Permanent Demographic Sample (PDS), the German Socio-Economic Panel (GSOEP), and a 5% random sample of the Swedish population register, authors' own calculations. The data analysed is for the period 2010-2019. Notes: This table presents the number residential moves and person-years by categories of variables for women separately for each country, e.g., the UK, France, Germany, and Sweden. Switzerland is excluded from this analysis given that its data does not include information on housing tenure changes.

Table C.3. Number of residential moves to different housing tenure types by origin group for men in the UK, France, Germany, and Sweden

	UK			France		
	Home-owner	Social renter	Other renter	Home-owner	Social renter	Other renter
Origin Group						
UK natives	2,237	818	1,867			
1G Europe & West	76	53	164			
1G India	93	21	139			
1G Pakistan	42	22	62			
1G Bangladesh	19	56	71			
1G Caribbean	3	9	6			
1G Africa	67	80	114			
2G Europe & West	161	77	166			
2G India	88	21	44			
2G Pakistan	80	37	64			
2G Bangladesh	30	54	39			
2G Caribbean	30	49	62			
2G Africa	79	59	103			
FR natives				209,953	67,587	296,155
1G North Africa				247	541	613
1G Sub-Saharan Africa				100	342	297
1G South East Asia				27	<11	28
1G Turkey				105	87	155
1G Southern Europe				158	66	297
1G East Europe				82	77	170
1G West Europe				114	14	123
2G North Africa				1,310	1,643	2,101
2G Sub-Saharan Africa				243	351	489
2G South East Asia				245	110	282
2G Turkey				308	201	344
2G Southern Europe				1,691	521	1,994
2G East Europe				196	69	255
2G West Europe				349	84	497

	Germany			Sweden		
	Home-owner	Social renter	Other renter	Home-owner	Social renter	Other renter
Origin Group						
DE natives	1,275	370	3,715			
1G Polish	13	8	53			
1G Russian-Kazakh	41	50	102			
1G Southern Europe	20	3	62			
1G Turkey	23	21	58			
2G Polish	33	18	110			
2G Russian-Kazakh	68	34	169			
2G Southern Europe	49	15	118			
2G Turkey	76	55	178			
SE natives				44,858	.	34,273
1G India				97	.	235
1G North Africa				147	.	344
1G Middle East				1,129	.	3,430
1G Turkey				253	.	348
1G Poland				268	.	309
1G Ex-Yugoslavia				723	.	927

1G Southern Europe	234	.	251
2G India	116	.	87
2G North Africa	130	.	220
2G Middle East	741	.	1,157
2G Turkey	432	.	363
2G Poland	391	.	371
2G Ex-Yugoslavia	1,073	.	1,124
2G Southern Europe	284	.	244

Source: The UK Household Longitudinal Study (UKHLS), the French Permanent Demographic Sample (PDS), the German Socio-Economic Panel (GSOEP), and a 5% random sample of the Swedish population register, authors' own calculations. The data analysed is for the period 2010-2019. Notes: This table presents the number of residential moves to different housing tenure types by origin group for men separately for each country, e.g., the UK, France, Germany, and Sweden. Switzerland does not appear given that no information on housing tenure was available. Besides, Sweden does not have a 'social renter' category.

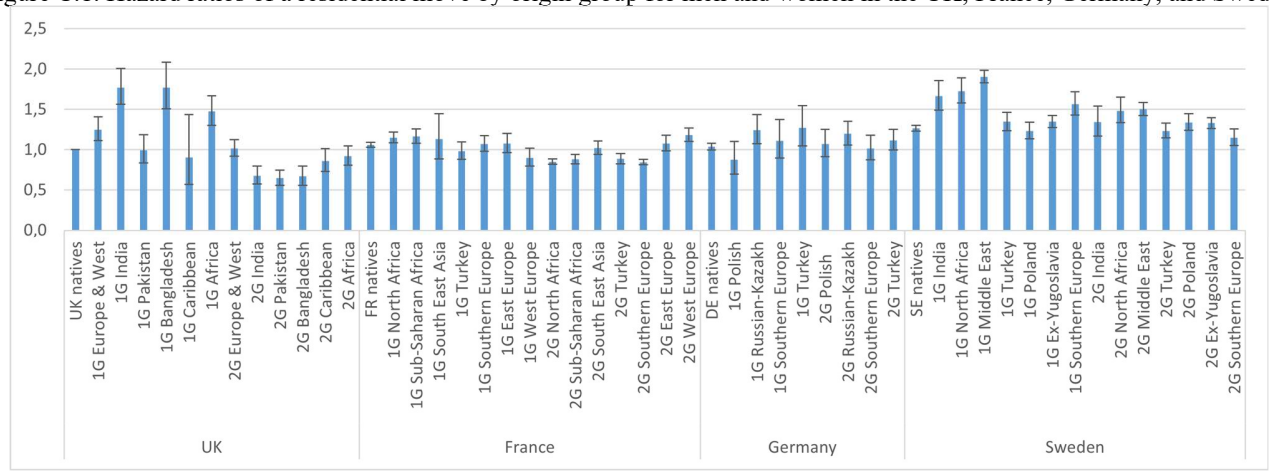
Table C.4. Number of residential moves to different housing tenure types by origin group for women in the UK, France, Germany, and Sweden

	UK			France		
	Home-owner	Social renter	Other renter	Home-owner	Social renter	Other renter
Origin Group						
UK natives	2,667	1,173	2,453			
1G Europe & West	134	86	247			
1G India	98	27	118			
1G Pakistan	50	46	46			
1G Bangladesh	18	51	55			
1G Caribbean	8	22	32			
1G Africa	58	191	209			
2G Europe & West	215	94	189			
2G India	93	37	55			
2G Pakistan	95	46	68			
2G Bangladesh	42	76	62			
2G Caribbean	61	92	93			
2G Africa	119	112	147			
FR natives				206,153	80,270	303,501
1G North Africa				227	475	437
1G Sub-Saharan Africa				162	379	347
1G South East Asia				43	16	40
1G Turkey				84	71	77
1G Southern Europe				138	63	240
1G East Europe				146	95	220
1G West Europe				167	21	180
2G North Africa				1,294	1,769	2,089
2G Sub-Saharan Africa				242	460	519
2G South East Asia				284	99	314
2G Turkey				237	199	278
2G Southern Europe				1,500	600	1,935
2G East Europe				197	76	251
2G West Europe				345	85	466
	Germany			Sweden		

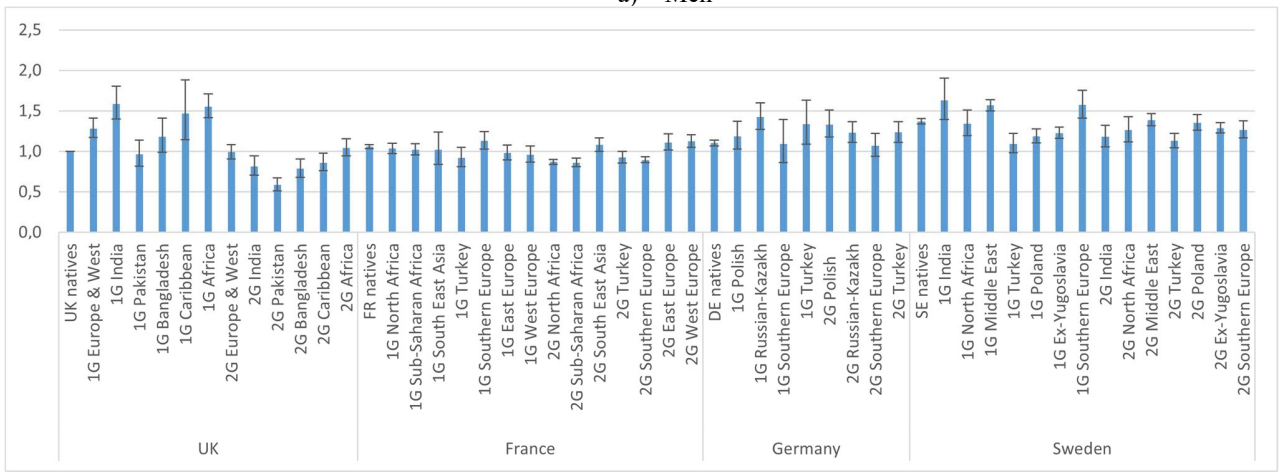
	Home-owner	Social renter	Other renter	Home-owner	Social renter	Other renter
Origin Group						
DE natives	1,495	539	5,031			
1G Polish	40	30	115			
1G Russian-Kazakh	71	71	164			
1G Southern Europe	18	6	43			
1G Turkey	22	22	52			
2G Polish	52	23	180			
2G Russian-Kazakh	77	51	230			
2G Southern Europe	45	29	155			
2G Turkey	75	78	225			
SE natives				45,501	.	36,008
1G India				75	.	88
1G North Africa				92	.	188
1G Middle East				774	.	2,109
1G Turkey				143	.	199
1G Poland				382	.	454
1G Ex-Yugoslavia				600	.	783
1G Southern Europe				184	.	153
2G India				178	.	139
2G North Africa				114	.	156
2G Middle East				654	.	1,058
2G Turkey				394	.	301
2G Poland				408	.	425
2G Ex-Yugoslavia				996	.	1,138
2G Southern Europe				334	.	277

Source: The UK Household Longitudinal Study (UKHLS), the French Permanent Demographic Sample (PDS), the German Socio-Economic Panel (GSOEP), and a 5% random sample of the Swedish population register, authors' own calculations. The data analysed is for the period 2010-2019. Notes: This table presents the number of residential moves to different housing tenure types by origin group for women separately for each country, e.g., the UK, France, Germany, and Sweden. Switzerland does not appear given that no information on housing tenure was available. Besides, Sweden does not have a 'social renter' category.

Figure C.1. Hazard ratios of a residential move by origin group for men and women in the UK, France, Germany, and Sweden



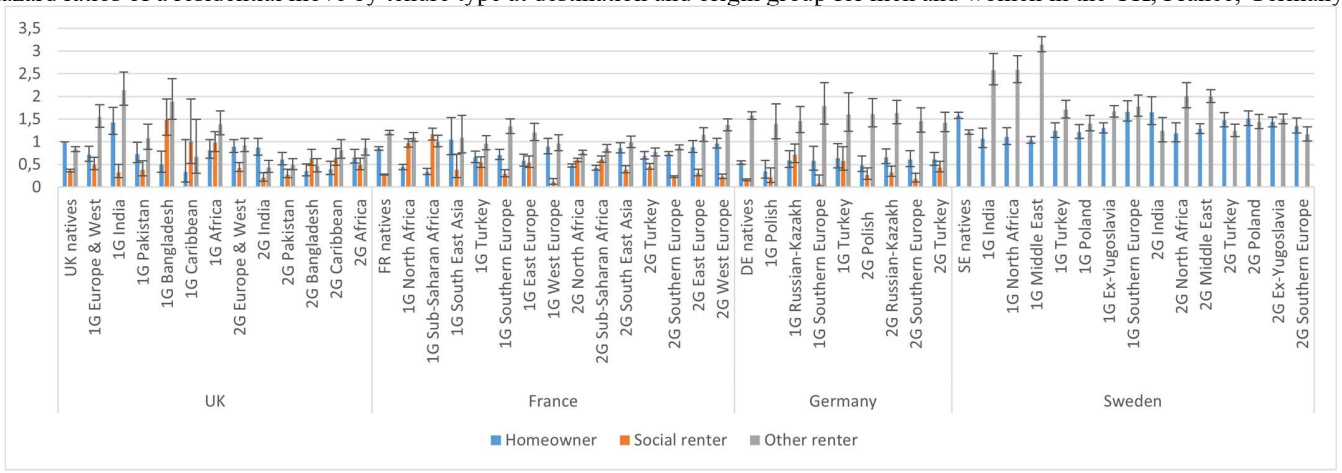
a) Men



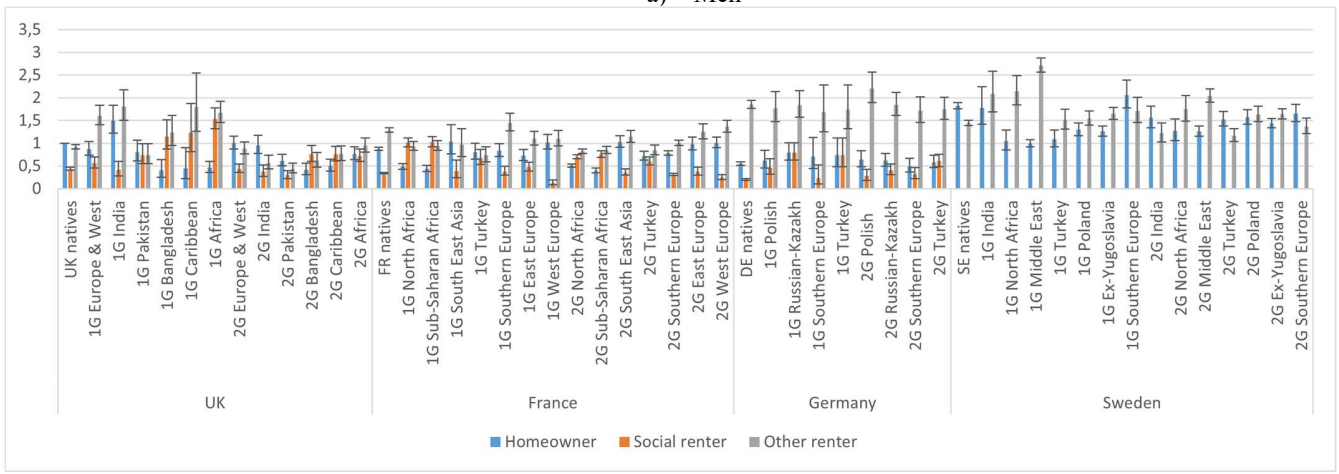
b) Women

Source: Authors' own calculations using data from the UK Household Longitudinal Study (UKHLS) for the UK, the French Permanent Demographic Sample (PDS) for France, the German Socio-Economic Panel (GSOEP) for Germany, and a 5% random sample of the Swedish population register. The data analysed is for the period 2010-2019. Notes: The models are all adjusted for age, education, partnership status, parity, and employment status. Whiskers indicate 95% confidence intervals compared to the reference category (native men in the UK for panel a)) and native women in the UK for panel b)).

Figure C.2. Hazard ratios of a residential move by tenure type at destination and origin group for men and women in the UK, France, Germany, and Sweden



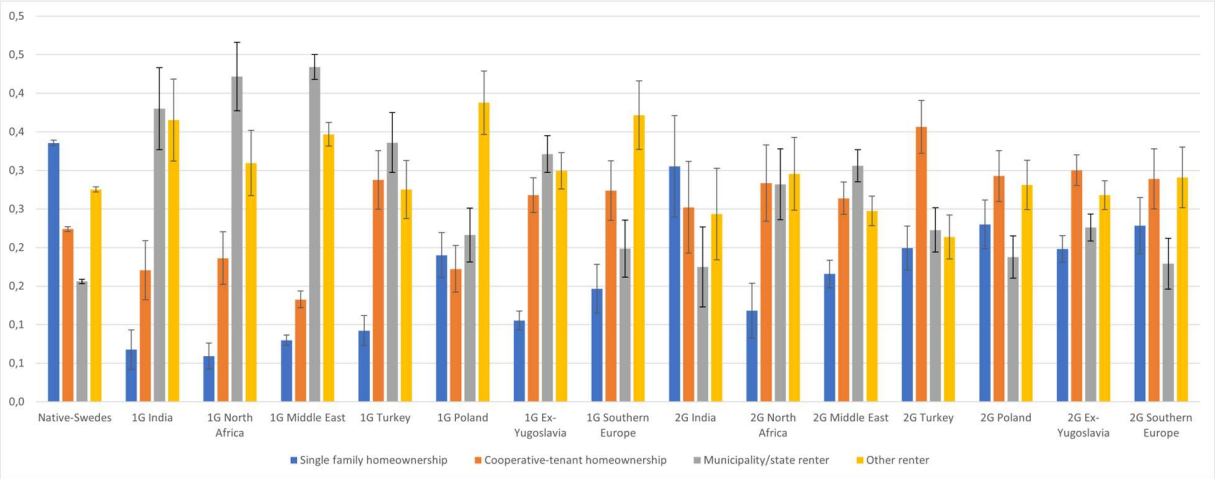
a) Men



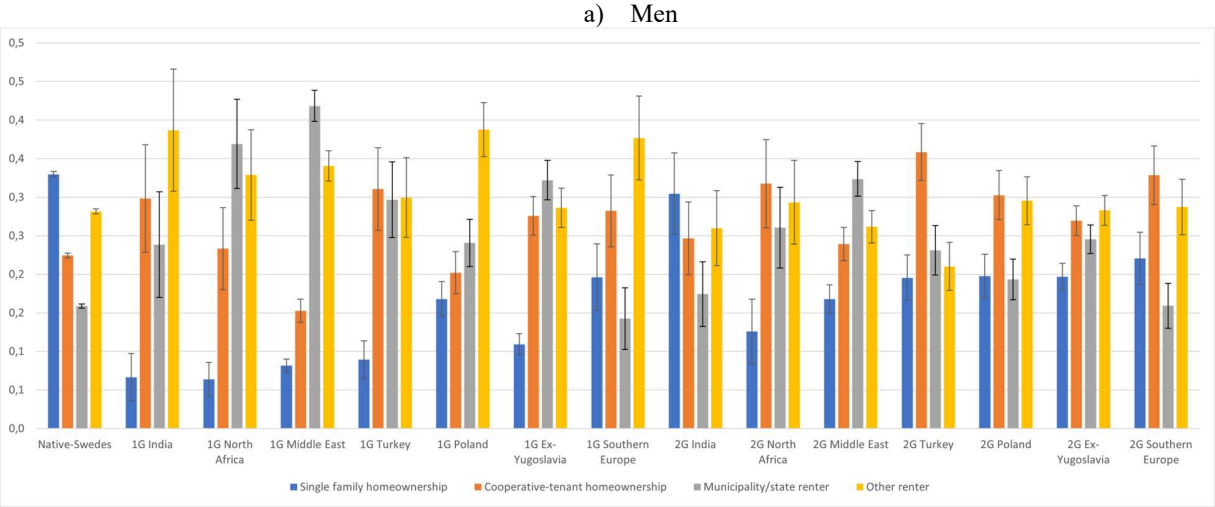
b) Women

Source: Authors' own calculations using data from the UK Household Longitudinal Study (UKHLS) for the UK, the French Permanent Demographic Sample (PDS) for France, the German Socio-Economic Panel (GSOEP) for Germany, and a 5% random sample of the Swedish population register. The data analysed is for the period 2010-2019. Notes: The models are all adjusted for age, education, partnership status, parity, and employment status. Whiskers indicate 95% confidence intervals compared to the reference category (native men in the UK for panel a)) and native women in the UK for panel b)).

Figure C.3. Hazard ratios of a residential move by tenure type at destination (detailed) and origin group for men and women in Sweden



a) Men



b) Women

Source: Authors' own calculations using data from a 5% random sample of the Swedish population register. The data analysed is for the period 2010-2019. Notes: This figure displays predicted probabilities after estimating a multinomial logistic regression for the odds of a residential move by origin group and tenure type of destination. The probabilities are all calculated at the mean values of other covariates such as age, education, partnership status, parity, and employment status. Whiskers indicate 95% confidence intervals compared to the reference category.