

Current Trends in International Migration in Europe

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1. INTRODUCTION

This is the 14th annual report for the Council of Europe describing the main current trends in international migration in Europe. By virtue of their regularity and continuity over the last decade the reports provide an account of how European international migration has evolved since the great political changes of 1989-91.

At their Luxembourg meeting in 1991 the Council of Europe ministers responsible for migration issues were confronted with a new and largely uncharted situation. Suddenly, it seemed, there was likely to be mass migration from the East, towards the lotus lands of Western Europe. Growing flows from the countries of the South were creating a new 'migration frontier' along the northern shores of the Mediterranean. Italy, Greece, Spain and Portugal, traditionally countries of emigration, faced the fact that they were now ones of net immigration. A new asylum regime came into being as the problems stemming from the break-up of Yugoslavia led to widespread use of temporary protection. In Central and Eastern Europe, ethnically-based migrations were common, frequently continuations of those that had begun in the aftermath of the Second World War but had ceased with the descent of the Iron Curtain. Other ethnic moves were of co-nationals 'returning' to a motherland; some were of populations displaced in communist times. New economic flows developed, between East and West and within Central and Eastern Europe. Some were permanent, many were short-term and a new lexicon grew up to describe them – labour tourism, pendular migration, petty trading and transit migration.

The increasing incorporation of Central and Eastern Europe into the European migration system as a whole characterised the middle and late-1990s. In political terms attention turned more and more to the management of migration. By the middle 1990s it was possible to say that Europe had largely adapted to a changed migration regime although there was great uncertainty how to handle the fall-out from the Yugoslavian crisis. Elements of the picture were still blurred, especially in Eastern Europe and the former USSR where data systems remained inadequate. Furthermore, the growing significance of illegal migration human smuggling and migrant trafficking were already causing concern. As the formerly separate Western and Eastern European migration systems fused into one, some eastern countries had also become ones of immigration.

Today, the burning issues are no longer those of ten years earlier. Recorded migration is now relatively stable, with the exception of the incorporation of large numbers of amnestied former illegal migrants in some countries. Western European countries are growing more concerned with the challenges of their ageing demographics and the role that international migration might be called upon to play. There is also a realisation that the demography of immigrants is an important element in future population developments in Europe (Haug, Compton and Courbage, 2002). The response to some skill shortages at home is increasing openness to those from abroad and there is some evidence of global competition for highly qualified people. Unrecorded and irregular migrations continue to pose challenges, but there is no hard evidence that their scale is increasing. Indeed, some data suggest the numbers might be declining, although this may reflect the diversion of irregular flows into new and less policed routes.

What does seem to be emerging is a more integrated European economic and space, characterised by both new and older forms of mobility. There is now widespread circulation of people in informal and short-term movements, but there are also some remarkable parallels with the guestworker phase in the decades after World War II.

In the medium term the biggest issue will be the effects of the new round of EU enlargement, bringing ten countries and 75 million people into the Union. Past experience and several studies of the prospective enlargement have failed to indicate that further large scale movements from the new to the existing member states will occur, although there is bound to be some redistribution of population as the economies of the Union become more integrated. What may confidently be anticipated is that the attraction of the European theatre as a whole will increase.

2. MIGRATION AND POPULATION CHANGE IN EUROPE

The world's population looks set to continue its rapid growth, rising to around 8,919 billion by 2050 (Table 1). Europe's share will be increasingly modest, almost halving between 2000 and 2050, while North America's will also fall. Only a small proportion of the world's population migrates in any one year, mostly within their own countries. There are no reliable statistics on the total numbers of people who move to another country during any given period, but UN estimates of numbers of people living outside their own country are around 170 million, although there is no concrete basis for this figure. What is striking about these numbers is not how many people choose (or are able to choose) to live in another country, but how few.

Past Council of Europe reports have indicated that in recent years the importance of migration as an arbiter of population change has fluctuated. Table 2 (also see Figure 1) presents the components of population change averaged for the period 2002-03, indicating that migration was the most important component in 26 (58 per cent) of the 45 countries for which data are available. The migration component is calculated as the difference between the percentage growth rate and the percentage natural increase.

We can classify countries according to the relative importance of migration and natural change in their overall growth rate for the period:

1. *Population loss owing to both natural decrease and net emigration:* Estonia, Georgia, Latvia, Lithuania, Moldova, Poland, Romania, Ukraine.
2. *Population loss owing to natural decrease more than offsetting migration gain:* Belarus, Bulgaria, Croatia, Hungary, Serbia and Montenegro.
3. *Population loss owing to net emigration offsetting natural increase:* Armenia, Armenia, FYROM.
4. *Population gain owing to both natural increase and net immigration:* Andorra, Austria, Belgium, Cyprus, Denmark, Finland, France, Greece, Ireland, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Malta, Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, San Marino, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey and the UK.
5. *Population gain owing to natural increase more than offsetting migration loss:* Albania, Azerbaijan, Iceland.
6. *Population gain owing to net immigration more than offsetting natural decrease:* Czech Republic, Germany, Italy, Russia, Slovakia, Slovenia.

Several observations stem from this classification. All of the countries with population loss are in Central and Eastern Europe or the former USSR. In all but two (Georgia and Poland), natural decrease was the more important component, even when there was net emigration as well. The largest group of countries gained population through a combination of natural increase and net immigration. This was a geographically varied group, encompassing countries of different sizes, all from western and Mediterranean Europe. In 16 of the 21 countries in this group, migration was the main component of change. Only three countries gained population through natural increase while experiencing net emigration and, with the exception of Iceland, they were located in the Balkans and Caucasus. Growing entirely because of migration were six countries, two in Western Europe and three in the East plus Russia.

The data on components of change illustrate very clearly the demographic diversity of Europe. A salient feature is the geographical division, with countries in the east generally losing population while those to the west are still gaining. However, gains are increasingly being sustained by net immigration. The role of migration in European population change has come under increasing scrutiny in recent years as a result of growing concerns about a cocktail of prospective changes to labour supply and demand. Issues raised include demographic ageing, shortages of working age populations, dependency ratios and payment of pensions, and possible shortages of both skilled and less-skilled labour (see, for example, Punch and Pearce, 2000). The United Nations Population Division has suggested that Europe might need replacement migration to cope with these potential problems ranging from around a million to 13 million new migrants per year between 2000 and 2050 (UN, 2000). Others have contested such a scale of migration as being unnecessary or impractical (Feld, 2000; Coleman, 2000; Coleman and Rowthorne, 2004).

3. MIGRATION STATISTICS

3.1 Statistical data problems

Although statistical data provision has immeasurably improved in recent years, the situation remains far from ideal. In Western Europe, the existing data still pose a wide range of problems for the user, arising largely from incompatibility of sources, conceptual and definitional problems. In Central and Eastern Europe and the CIS data availability has improved but methods of collection are still inadequate and there is a lack of well-developed statistical systems. Although considerable strides have been made in some countries in the region, the general picture with regard to data availability is extremely patchy.

A growing problem is the complexity of migration. For the most part the concepts of migration used as the basis for collecting statistics do not reflect many of the realities of today's movements, characterised as they are by new forms and dynamics. Particularly difficult to capture are short-term movements and status changes as well as, most obviously, illegal migrations.

There are two main types of recorded international migration data: stocks of foreigners, defined by nationality or country of birth (either resident or resident and working) and migration flows to and from a country. Stocks are recorded through a system of residence permits, a population register, a census or a survey such as a labour force survey. These figures represent the point in time that they were measured. Stocks of foreign workers are measured using work permits and labour force surveys. Work and residence permits and population registers rely on people to a large extent volunteering to be counted. In some countries registering is linked to the provision of healthcare and social welfare and this may increase the coverage and efficacy of such recording systems. Censuses too, rely on people returning a completed questionnaire and on the whole are only carried out once every five to ten years. Labour force and other surveys tend only to take a comparatively small sample of the population and so the sampling errors are large which inhibits breakdowns according to migrant characteristics.

Flow data are perhaps more difficult to measure accurately as, conceptually, they attempt to measure a movement across a border which only takes a short amount of time and yet to provide a flow figure for a specific year, measurements must be made continuously for that year. Aside from the International Passenger Survey in the United Kingdom that takes a sample of people passing through ports, flow data in the EU member states come from numbers of those joining or leaving a population register or the issue and expiration of residence permits. Again, this demands the compliance of the migrant and so those not wishing to make themselves known are sometimes able to avoid being counted. Emigration figures are notoriously problematic as in most cases they rely on people "unregistering" from a population register before they leave the country, something which many people do not do, especially as there are not the same incentives and potential benefits as registering and very often there is no effective legal or administrative mechanism to enforce deregistration.

3.2 Joint Data Collection

Since 1995, EUROSTAT and the UNECE have used a joint questionnaire to collect statistics from across Europe and from 1999 this collaboration was extended to include the Council of Europe and some of the CIS countries. Thus, the process of harmonisation of statistics that had been going on in Western Europe for some time is slowly being extended to the CEE region. What now happens is a single, annual, multi-national but still incomplete data harvest.

Despite these developments, considerable gaps exist in data availability. Particular difficulties occur in the Central and Eastern European countries. The principal reasons are administrative and legal. In some of the countries no collection system exists for some or all of the statistics required. Partly this reflects the inadequacies of the old systems of data collection in the new political environment; but it is also due to conceptual and administrative difficulties in deciding on and implementing new statistical requirements. Only slowly, and haltingly, are the associated metadata and documentation being collected and placed alongside the statistics they describe.

The overall lack of harmonisation in definition and data collection across Europe as a whole means there are occasions where countries are unable or unwilling to provide statistics. These are reflected in gaps or omissions in the tables of this report.

3.3 Data for the CIS States

The statistical data available for the CIS countries are of very uneven quantity and quality. A review has recently been produced by the IOM (2002). The progress made towards the establishment of new systems of registering the population and its movement among them varies widely. In some countries – especially those that have suffered civil war or major social and ethnic conflict in the recent period – population registration systems have essentially collapsed. In other countries, much attention has been given to institution-building to ensure effective population registration. Therefore, there remain widely differing practices in migration data collection in CIS countries.

Discrepancies between data may also exist within states, as statistics are gathered by a number of different agencies which have often had to set up new procedures for gathering migration data (for example, employing sampling rather than census approaches for the first time) whilst invariably having very poor technical and resource bases. Specific problems are generated by the absence of well-controlled frontiers which makes it difficult to estimate entry and exit figures, especially in those countries that have suffered armed conflict and where terrain makes it difficult to monitor border crossings. In some Transcaucasian countries, the registration of migration has virtually ceased to exist. A further problem, especially in the Russian Federation, is the differing registration policy and practice of regional administrations. In some regions, discrepancies between the reported number of registered migrants and their actual numbers are particularly high. It is estimated that the actual number of refugees and forced migrants in the Russian Federation may be one and a half to three times higher than reflected in official statistical data (*ibid*). As a general rule, however, immigration figures are more complete than emigration figures since state benefits are, by and large, directly linked to registration of place of residence. The procedures for registering the

entry and registration of foreign citizens, asylum seekers and labour migrants are also extremely disorganised.

3.4 Data on Irregular Migration

The biggest potential source of inaccuracy in the data relates to those living and working illegally. Sometimes they are included in official figures, sometimes not. Numbers of illegal migrants published or circulated are often police estimates which may be based on numbers of deportations or of regularisations. They may seriously underestimate total numbers in an illegal situation. For example, numbers of women in irregular, domestic and service-sector jobs are likely to be under-estimated because they are 'hidden' in private accommodation, and employers do not reveal their presence. Where estimates of the illegal population are made, it is not always possible to discover how they are reached and these figures should be treated with caution (Pinkerton, McLaughlan and Salt, 2004; Jandl, 2004). Even data from regularisation programmes (amnesties) underestimate the total illegal stock because they include only those irregular migrants coming forward.

Irregular migration flows data that are collected by national governments and international organisations include refusals of entry, illegal border crossings, apprehensions, deportations/expulsions and trafficking data. They are flows data that are recorded throughout the year both at the border and in-country. Refusals of entry data reflect numbers of migrants turned away the border owing to the lack of (genuine) documentation, for failing to meet requirements for entry or for reasons such as a ban on entry. Illegal border crossings indicate numbers of people detected crossing or attempting to cross the border illegally, either entering or leaving the country. Apprehensions data record the number of migrants arrested at the border for illegally entering the country or being illegally present in the country. Deportations and expulsions data show the numbers of migrants who have been apprehended and who have had a sufficient case brought against them and are removed from the country. Trafficking and smuggling data can cover any of the above categories but relate specifically to migrants who have been assisted in their crossing the border illegally and such data may give other details pertaining specifically to trafficking or human smuggling such as numbers concealed in vehicles and details of those assisting them.

The European Commission's Centre for Information, Discussion and Exchange on Immigration (CIREFI) is responsible for the collection of standard datasets covering the different types of data listed above from individual European states. Its aim is to provide a comparable and harmonised set of standard tables which cover the EU15 countries and 15 other non-EU states. These statistics are presented in the form of quarterly reports and are confidential (and thus are not generally available). The national authorities, the Border Police and ministries such as the Ministry of the Interior or Ministry of Justice (which are usually responsible for the Border Police) collect data as a result of their operations in border control. These operational data cover the different types of irregular migration but are not necessarily comparable country to country as their collection and presentation is entirely at the discretion of the individual states.

Regularisation programmes are another source of data on irregular migrants. These are amnesties to foreign nationals clandestinely residing or working, allowing them to regularise their status. However, regularisations programmes do not and do not attempt to cover all aspects of illegal migration. They may target certain industries or sectors of the workforce and often demand certain requirements (such as having employment or having entered the country before a certain date). Also, they occur infrequently and only in some countries.

3.5 Coverage

There are broad trends in the coverage of the data that are immediately apparent. Firstly, there are, on the whole, more data for Western Europe than for Central and Eastern Europe, not only in that there are fewer gaps in the tables but most of the countries are represented (countries for which there are no data have been omitted from the tables). Secondly, the main indicators (stocks, flows and asylum) have fairly good coverage (at least at the level of annual totals – at a more detailed level, i.e. breakdowns by citizenship and other variables, the data tend to be more uneven). Within the flows data, immigration is generally better represented and less problematic than emigration. This in part reflects the “unregistering” problem mentioned above and emigration data are usually less reliable than those for immigration. Several countries (notably France, Greece and Spain) do not provide emigration data. Thirdly, for other indicators, such as stocks and flows of foreign workers, the data are very patchy, even at the level of annual totals. Other data in this report are included on an *ad hoc* basis; tables being included for other datasets that are available and of interest. Such tables tend to be more complete but are more specialised and focus on more minor and specific indicators.

3.6 Data gathering for this report

Data for this report have been collected predominantly from the major sources mentioned above: the Council of Europe, the OECD, the UNHCR and Eurostat. The data were, in the first instance, gathered from reports and statistical volumes published by these organisations (an increasing number of which are now available online), and then supplemented by direct contact with experts and officials in various countries. The data in this report, therefore, represent as reasonably complete picture of international migration in Europe as it is currently possible to produce from available data, although gaps and errors may still exist.

4. STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION

4.1 Stocks of foreign population

The total recorded stock of foreign national population living in European countries in 2003 or latest year available (listed in Table 3) stood at around 24.56 million people. Foreign citizens thus appear to constitute some 4.5 per cent of the aggregate population of Europe. The greater part of this foreign stock was resident in Western Europe. Table 3 and Figures 2a-f set out data on 30 European states, from which the estimate of total numbers is derived.

Past reports have demonstrated that in Western Europe as a whole, stocks of foreign population have been rising. Table 3 suggests that in 2003 or thereabouts (using the latest date for which statistics are available) there were around 23.49 million foreign nationals resident in Western Europe, representing over 5.5 per cent of the total population of that area. In 1995 the figure for foreign nationals was 19.05 million. Hence, in the period since then, the total foreign national stocks in Western European increased by 23.3 per cent. However, a major difficulty in estimating the size and trend in the number of foreigners is that data for France are available only for 1999 (Census year). In the trend calculation above the same number for France was included in the estimate for both 1995 and 2003. If France is excluded, the percentage change for Western Europe is 27.6 per cent.

By contrast, although most countries in Central and Eastern Europe have also experienced some permanent immigration, some of it return migration, flows have been modest and stocks of foreign population remain relatively small. Table 3 indicates that in 2003 or latest year there were some 932,000 foreigners recorded as resident in the countries of that region listed (excluding Russia), representing about 0.4 per cent of a total population of over 242 million. However, information on stocks of foreign population is only slowly becoming available for East European countries and the data in Table 3 are less than comprehensive, derived from a variety of sources, concepts and definitions. In so far as they are based on official sources, they almost certainly underestimate the real total of foreign population currently living in the countries listed. Transit and other temporary migrants, for example, are excluded.

The foreign population of Western Europe is spread unevenly. Germany has about 31 per cent of the total, France about 14 per cent, the UK 12 per cent and Italy has risen to 9 per cent. Several other countries have significant numbers. Switzerland and Spain both have around a million and a half, Austria and Belgium over three quarters of a million. In Central and Eastern Europe numbers of recorded migrants are much smaller. Estonia is the leader in the field with 270,000 followed by the Czech Republic with nearly a quarter of a million, and then Hungary with around 130,000.

4.2 Rate and direction of change in stocks

Previous reports have taken a longer view, looking at change from the early 1980s onwards. In those countries of Western Europe for which data were available at or around 1981, 1988 and 1999 (the major omissions being France and the UK), rates of increase of foreign national stocks showed that during the period 1981-88 the annual

increase averaged 122,700 (1.4 per cent), but rose to 789,400 (8.3 per cent) per annum 1988-93, then fell to 210,650 (1.5 per cent) per annum 1993-99.

After 1995 the foreign national stock in Europe as a whole rose by 5.51 million from 19.05 to 24.56 million, an increase of about 3.6 per cent per annum, somewhere between the rates of the early and later 1990s. Since 2000 the annual increase has been about 3.7 per cent per annum. Most of the increase was in Western Europe and most was accounted for by the four Mediterranean countries of Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain. Their share of the Western European total almost doubled, from 9.5 to 18 per cent of the total, an absolute increase of 2.7 million. However, the bald statistics are misleading. Much of this rise can be attributed to regularisation programmes which have had the effect of converting unrecorded migrant stocks into recorded ones. As such, they do not reflect such a large rise in new stocks as might otherwise be surmised.

What are the trends in stock numbers? Western European countries have experienced varied trends during the second half of the 1990s. For some of them it was the earlier years that saw the largest annual increases, 1995-6 in the cases of Denmark and Germany, 1996-7 for Finland and Turkey, 1998-9 and 2002-3 for Austria, 1996-7 and 2001-3 for Italy, and 1998-9 and 2000-1 for Portugal.

For most Western European countries the current picture is one of relative stability, with either little change or small rises in the most recent statistics. Only Germany and Ireland show falls and they are modest. Italy and Spain particularly, with Austria and the UK, had substantial increases. In some countries, long-standing upward trends appear to have halted, examples being Ireland and Luxembourg. In contrast the slow decline in numbers in Belgium, Netherlands and Sweden has levelled off. There are different reasons for these trends, some more general, others specific to individual countries. Regularisation has been the most important factor in continuing the rise in Italy and Spain. In the case of the UK a combination of increased labour flows and asylum seeking has raised numbers, while in Austria family reunion has been important as well as labour migration. Ireland's rapid economic growth sucked in foreign workers after 2000 but the process has now slowed. Changes in foreign national stocks do not only reflect the balance of flows and changes of status that result in their incorporation in the statistics. Important also are rates of naturalisation which have greater or lesser effects, depending on destination country policies.

The situation in Central and Eastern Europe is more varied and more difficult to call because of the inadequacy of the data sources in many cases. Over the period as a whole, Romania recorded a fall, but more recently a modest rise, although the overall numbers recorded are small anyway. In the case of the Czech Republic, both 1999-2000 and 2000-01 saw substantial falls after several years of gain but since 2001 there has been a recovery. Hungarian numbers have fluctuated, falling at the beginning of the period then again after 1999, but rising in 2003.

It is difficult to generalise from the above but several observations may be made. First, it is probably true to say that foreign national stocks are continuing to rise: in most countries the trend in the most recent year is upward but for the most part gains are modest. Except for the amnesty countries, there is no evidence of large and sustained increases. Second, there are temporal variations between countries in their

growth peaks. Third, there are distinctive geographical variations at work. Countries differ in the rate, direction and timing of change in their foreign populations.

4.3 Foreign stocks as proportion of total population

The importance of foreigners in the total population varies considerably from country to country (Table 4 and Figures 3a-f). In 2003 (or the latest available date) the largest proportions of foreigners, relative to the total population, were in Luxembourg (38.9 per cent of the total population) and Switzerland (20 per cent). In two countries – Austria and Germany – the proportion was around nine per cent, with Belgium slightly behind, then Ireland and Sweden. In another group of countries – Denmark, France, Netherlands, Norway and the United Kingdom – it was around 4-5 per cent. In all other countries of Western Europe listed in Table 4, foreign citizens constituted under 4 per cent. With the major exception of Estonia, all countries in Central and Eastern Europe recorded around 2 per cent or less.

During the period since 1995, the foreign population has grown as a proportion of the total in most of Western Europe, 13 countries recording rising percentages with only Belgium and Sweden moving in the opposite direction. In two cases (Germany and Netherlands) there was no discernible trend. The situation in Central and Eastern Europe is harder to summarise. In five countries (Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland, Slovakia and Slovenia) there was little change in proportion, while that in the Czech Republic has fluctuated, rising since 2000. Only Latvia, with small numbers, seems to have a continuous rising proportion of foreigners recorded.

Explanation for the trends identified are complex and reflect a number of forces. The ratio between the domestic and foreign population is influenced by the rate of naturalisation which affects both components in the calculation. As alluded to in the previous section, regularisation is also important in bringing into the recorded population those who hitherto were uncounted. Ultimately, the statistics reflect what individual countries choose to measure, define and collect: this is a particular problem when making calculations with respect to Central and Eastern Europe.

4.4 Nationalities of the foreign population in Europe

There are broad differences between the foreign populations of Western Europe and of Central and Eastern Europe, as well as individual differences between countries. The following analysis therefore looks first at the situation in Western Europe and then separately at that in Central and Eastern Europe. It is based on the most recent data published by Eurostat.

The composition of the foreign population in Western Europe is a reflection of successive waves of post-war migration associated first with labour shortage and more recently (especially since the mid-1970s) with family reunion and formation, as well as the flight of refugees from war-torn areas both within and outside Europe. The dominant foreign groups within each country reflect the sources from which labour has been recruited since the war; particular historical links and bilateral relations with former colonies; and ease of access (in terms of geography or policy) for refugees and asylum seekers from different places. Despite their recent status as immigration countries, the largest foreign national groups continue to be from the traditional labour recruitment

countries of Southern Europe (Italy, Portugal, Spain and Greece), plus Turkey and former Yugoslavia, and more recently North Africa.

Comparative statistics on the national composition of the foreign population are available for 2000 for some but not all countries (dates indicated on Table 5), but the pace of change of composition is slow enough for them to give a reasonable picture of the current situation. Of particular significance is the number of fellow EEA nationals in member states, since these groups have rights of free movement and are not subject to the same immigration and residence controls as non-EEA citizens.

Within the EEA as a whole, there were 20.29 million foreigners of whom 13.04 million (64 per cent) were Europeans. Africans numbered 3.15 million (15.6 per cent) and Asians 2 million (11.1 per cent). There were 18.69 million foreign nationals resident in EU states at the beginning of 2000 (Table 5). About 5.7 million of these (30.5 per cent) were nationals of other member states. It would appear that the relative importance of other EU foreigners in EU states is fairly static, the comparative numbers for the two previous years being 5.6 and 5.7 million (31.9 and 31.7 per cent). The inclusion of the EEA states plus Switzerland (i.e. EU and EFTA) brings this total to 5.67 million, 30.5 per cent of all foreigners in the EU.

The data in Table 5 illustrate the considerable diversity of foreign migrant origins that exists in Western Europe. In Luxembourg, Ireland, and Belgium, over half of the foreign population is from other EU countries; for Spain, UK, France and Sweden between a third and a half. Around 60 per cent of Switzerland's (not an EEA country) foreign nationals are EU citizens. For most countries, however, the bulk of their foreign national population comes from outside the EEA.

The statistics in Table 5 reflect a complex set of geographical locations and migration histories. In the case of the UK, Ireland and Spain, proximity to a fellow EU member, together with a long history of population interchange, is clearly important (although this is not the case for Portugal as a destination). The situation in Belgium and Luxembourg reflects their geographical location, surrounded as they are by larger EU neighbours with open borders.

The significance of other regions as sources of foreign migrants varies with destination country. Africa is a particularly important source for France and Portugal reflecting earlier colonial ventures, and for Italy and Belgium to a lesser extent. America is important for Portugal and Spain (mainly South America), and also for Greece and Italy. Asia is a major source for the UK, Greece and Italy, though for different reasons and with emphases on different parts of that large and diverse continent. The UK receives Asian immigrants mainly from the Indian sub-continent, largely for settlement purposes; Italy's Asian contingent is mainly from South East Asia (particularly Filipinos); Greece's comes from proximate countries in the Middle East region.

The dominance of Germany as a destination for foreign nationals from non-EU European countries is also clear: it received over a quarter of EEA foreigners, over half of those from Central and Eastern Europe and three-quarters from Other Europe (which includes Turkey). Germany's Asian numbers are enhanced by Vietnamese recruited to the former GDR. However, African nationals in Germany are comparatively few. Despite the links between Spain and Portugal and the Americas, the UK receives the

largest proportion of foreign nationals from that continent (mainly the US) and, not surprisingly, about three-quarters of those from Australasia and Oceania.

Analysis of the data in Table 5 with earlier years demonstrates, not unexpectedly, a stable distribution pattern that changes only slowly, as a result of net migration flows. It serves to emphasise that Western European countries may well have sharply divergent perspectives on migration, derived from their different foreign stocks.

Data availability on the nationalities of the foreign population in Central and Eastern Europe varies from country to country. The major part appears to comprise nationals from other Central and East European states, though the picture is clearly not static and is complicated by changes in numbers which result from changes in citizenship.

In Hungary in 2004, the foreign population of 130,109 was dominated by those from Central and Eastern Europe and the former USSR. Romanians comprised the largest foreign group, 42.8 per cent of the total, followed by those from former Yugoslavia; Ukrainians were 10.1 per cent, those from Yugoslavia 9.5 per cent. EU nationals totalled 9.3 per cent. The eastern dominance is also to be seen in Czech data for the year 2003 on the foreign residents. Central and Eastern European countries, plus Russia and Ukraine accounted for 168,600 people, 70 per cent of the total. Slovakia and Ukraine were the largest origins, with 27 and 26 per cent respectively. Of around 40,000 permanent residents of foreign origin in Bulgaria in 2000, a third were from the former USSR, 8 per cent from the EU and 12 per cent from the rest of Europe. Romanian data for 2002 list 66,535 temporarily resident foreigners. The main national groups were Moldovans (12.2 per cent), Chinese (11.4 per cent) and Turks (8 per cent), Italians (6.9 per cent), and Greeks (5.5 per cent).

4.5 The foreign-born population of Europe

The foreign-born population in European countries exceeds that of foreign nationals, the extent of the difference varying between countries. In addition to those with foreign citizenship, the foreign-born include citizens of the country who may have been born abroad, together with former foreign nationals who have naturalised.

Table 6 is derived from the 2000-01 round of national censuses, the data brought together by the OECD for the first time (Dumont and Lemaitre, 2004). For the European countries listed there were 82.6 million born outside the country in which they were living. The largest group was in Germany, a reflection of both post-World War II foreign immigration and the inflow of ethnic Germans, especially in the late 1940s and early 1950s and again in the early 1990s. France, with nearly six million, and the UK, with nearly five, occupied the next two positions. Eight other countries had over a million foreign-born.

Across Europe as a whole, 7.8 per cent of the population was born outside the country in which they are now residing, compared with about 4.5 per cent who are foreign nationals. Proportionately, the smaller countries had the largest proportions of foreign-born, especially Luxembourg and Switzerland. Overall, in ten countries the foreign-born constituted over 10 per cent of the population.

The composition of the foreign-born is a reflection of immigration and colonial history. For example, of 5.9 million foreign-born in France, about 1.6 million were born with French nationality in colonial locations. Geographically, 2.8 million of France's foreign-born are from Africa, 80 per cent from the Maghreb. Portugal tells a similar story: 350,000 of its 650,000 foreign-born originated in Africa.

5. FLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION

The data problems discussed above apply *a fortiori* to migration flows. Statistics on emigration are particularly problematical; many countries do not collect them, and those that do tend towards underestimation (Salt, Singleton and Hogarth, 1994; Salt *et al.*, 2000). Even in countries with well developed data collection systems, more often than not there are substantial differences between the estimates of a particular flow made by its origin and destination countries respectively. It is still surprisingly difficult to monitor migration flows involving the countries of Central and Eastern Europe. The recording systems developed during Communist times were designed to record only certain types of flows, mainly those regarded as “permanent”, and have proved grossly inadequate for assessing most of the flows that have occurred in the region since 1989. Indeed, many of the categories of movement seen there defy most collection systems regarded as “normal”.

It is clear that the lifting of the Iron Curtain heralded increases in migration flows both within and from the region. One estimate is that in the early 1990s the annual average number of officially recorded net migrations from Central and Eastern European countries to western countries was around 850,000 (Garson, Redor and Lemaitre, 1997), compared with less than half this in the three preceding decades (Frejka, 1996; Okolski, 1998). Most emigration during the Communist period was ethnically based, mainly Jews and Germans.

5.1 Flows of migrants into and within Europe

Migration flow data for European countries are now more comprehensive than they have ever been, though significant gaps remain. As discussed in Section 3, there are still incompatibilities of measurement and definition between countries and this is a particular problem in the former communist countries. Most illegal flows may be assumed to escape the statistical record, although in some individual cases in-movement may occur legally after which the migrant adopts an illegal status.

Because statistics for all countries are not available for every year it is impossible to produce an accurate set of annual inflows of foreign population for the whole of Europe. Some countries have no usable data, others have only a partial record. Table 7 and Figures 4a-h show big differences between countries in available data and in the scale of inflow. By aggregating the flows for the latest year for the countries in Table 7, a best estimate of the current annual recorded flow may be produced. On this basis, the annual flow into Western Europe is about 2.46 million, that into the CEE area 285,500, giving an overall total of around 2.75 million.

The largest inflow is still to Germany, 601,800 in 2003. Spain was in second place, followed by the UK. Of the other countries, only Italy (2002) and France (2001) had an inflow in excess of 100,000. Switzerland’s inflow in 2003 fell below 100,000 for the first time since 2000. Inflows in Central and Eastern Europe were much lower, Russia being the main recipient. The Czech republic’s inflow has recently risen rapidly, reaching 60,000 in 2003. However, there is little doubt that inflows in CEE countries are significantly under-recorded.

There are fewer data on outflows than inflows. In Western Europe in 2003 or thereabouts, Germany lost around half a million to emigration; the UK was in second place with 170,600. No other country came near to matching this absolute scale of outflow (Table 8 and Figures 5a-g). Data for Central and Eastern Europe mostly record permanent emigration. Russia was the main source of emigration, 105,500 in 2002, followed by Ukraine with 88,800 (in 2001). Losses elsewhere were relatively low.

The combination of these in- and outflows resulted in a net gain in Western Europe in 2003 (or nearest year) of around 953,400 and a further 102,900 in CEE countries, giving a net overall gain of 1.05 million (Table 9 and Figures 6a-g). Italy had the largest net gain of 380,400 (2002), largely as a result of regularisation. The UK was in second place, with almost a quarter of a million. Of the other countries listed, only Germany had a substantial net gain. Perhaps most significantly, however, all the Western European countries listed had net migration gains in the most recent year for which data are available.

The situation is different in CEE countries. Although, with the exception of the Czech Republic and, especially, Russia net gains were modest, three countries recorded net losses in their emigration data in 2003.

5.2 Recent trends in migration flows

Past reports have shown that in the countries for which data were available, during the period 1980-99 there was a net aggregate gain of 8.48 million by migration.

In the first half of the 1980s, inflows of foreign population to Western Europe declined, then from the mid-1980s there were net gains for most countries. Since 1994 net gains have, on the whole, tended to fall. In the period 1995-2003 most countries experienced fluctuations in the annual rate of change of inflows and for most of them, rates of increase were higher in the early part of the period, especially 1998-99. Those countries with data for 2003 show universal declines from numbers entering the year before. In several cases, notably Denmark, Germany and the Netherlands, the most recent fall follows a longer term trend. In other cases the downturn in 2003 follows a period of steady increase, cases in point being Ireland, Spain, Switzerland and the UK. In a few cases the trend from the mid-1990s has been fairly flat, the latest year being one of minor fluctuation, examples being Finland and Luxembourg.

Central and Eastern Europe presents a more varied picture. There is evidence of increase in 2003 in the Czech and Slovak Republics, Poland and Slovenia, falls in Lithuania and Romania, while Croatia and Latvia show no discernible trend.

In Western Europe since the mid-1990s there seems to have been an increasing trend in emigration from Denmark, Luxembourg Norway and the UK, with the reverse in Ireland, Sweden and Switzerland. The other countries listed displayed no particular trend in either direction, though all had some annual fluctuation. Where available, the statistics for 2003 show little difference from those a year earlier. Falls are more likely than rises although the actual numbers are small. 'Flatlining' is probably the best description of the current trend.

The outflow data for Central and Eastern Europe are difficult to interpret because of the small numbers of permanent emigrants. In general, outflows fluctuated after the mid-1990s, Poland, for example, increasing its outflows between 1995 and 1998, then experiencing falls. In most cases, however, changes have occurred in quite small recorded annual flows. This situation broadly applies to the change between 2002 and 2003. Outflows from Lithuania and the Czech Republic have risen slightly, those from Poland and Slovenia have done the reverse.

Net migration trends show a clear West-East distinction. In Western Europe, eight countries (Austria, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Norway, Sweden, UK) had a general upward trend over the period, with only Denmark clearly moving in the opposite direction. Five other countries (Belgium, Finland, Germany, Luxembourg and Switzerland) showed marked fluctuations from year to year. Four Central and Eastern European countries (Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Romania) showed a relative net gain by virtue of a declining net loss; the Czech and Slovak Republics and Russia all had a declining positive trend.

New migrations have appeared. Some of these reflect the emergence of new origin areas. There were an estimated 63,000 Chinese migrants in Germany in 2001, double the figure in 1993 and ten times that of 1988 (Giese, 2003). In Italy, 68,000 residence permits were granted to Chinese citizens in 2001, more than five times that in 1993 (Ceccagno, 2003). Albanians have also been on the move, remittances from them representing the country's main source of external income after aid in the mid-1990s. By 2000, 133,000 of them had permits to stay in Italy (Mai and Schwander-Sievers, 2003).

There is also evidence of new types of flows. Peraldi (2004) describes how over the last ten years Algerian migratory routes have undergone radical change. The traditional labour migration into France has been replaced by forms of circulation in which many Algerians have become suitcase traders throughout the Mediterranean region. Often serving tourist markets, their moves take place within family networks which allow them to seize trading opportunities in whichever city they are presented. Romanians have also been observed to circulate within informal transnational networks which they use to exploit whatever "work niches" are opened to illegal workers (Potot, 2004). There is some evidence, too, that ethnic migrations have been metamorphosed into ones of circulation. Michalon (2004) demonstrates that the migration of ethnic Germans from Transylvania to Germany in the early 1990s has become a circulatory movement with periods of work in Germany interspersed with living back in Romania.

The trends described here are complex and indicate considerable variations from country to country and at different time periods. In the circumstances, explanations will also be complex, related to general economic conditions, stage of economic development reached in the CEE countries, the effects of Balkan wars, individual national policy initiatives, regularisation programmes, levels of asylum seeking and the efforts of smugglers and traffickers, as well as other factors. Even so, it should nevertheless be noted that the trends identified underestimate total flows, since for the most part they exclude asylum seekers and some categories of temporary immigrants, many of whom it is known stay illegally.

5.3 The migration of the former Soviet Union

5.3.1 The situation in 2000

Migration in the former Soviet Union is currently characterised by internal circulation, with some international spill-over. The causes of this movement are multiple, and include falling living standards, socio-political instability and a series of armed conflicts. The result is a complex typology of movement, some elements of which may be characterised as 'normal' (such as labour migrations), others as the products of a series of emergencies.

Table 10 shows recorded migration flows for the countries of the CIS in 2000. The information comes from a study compiled by the International Organisation for Migration (IOM, 2002). The data are of uneven quantity and quality and in some cases should be regarded at best as indicative, as was pointed out in section 3. Flows are divided into those within the CIS region and between it and other countries. What the data in Table 9 show is that most of the CIS countries are hardly engaging with those outside the region, indicating a potential for considerable growth as development proceeds. This is likely to be uneven because of the different social, economic and political paths taken by the countries and the dismantling of the previous unified economic system (*ibid*).

In the communist past the movements would have been regarded as internal migration and it is not surprising that the bulk of movement is within the region, frequently more than 90 per cent. With the notable exception of Tajikistan, inflows are largely within the region. Outflows are more likely to go outside the region, particularly in the cases of the western republics of Russia, Belarus and Ukraine.

Predictably, easily the largest flows involve Russia which saw a net increase of 213,600 in 2000. Russia had a positive migration balance with all other CIS states, except for Belarus. The bulk of the flow consisted of Russian repatriates. Only Belarus of the other states recorded a net gain. Kazakhstan recorded the biggest net loss, most of its emigrants going to Russia, though with significant numbers of ethnic Germans and Jews continuing to move out. However, its net losses have been falling in the last couple of years as its own economy has improved while Russia has experienced economic downturn.

5.3.2 Trends in the region

Recent trends have been dominated by a mixture of politico-military crises and economic fluctuations (IOM, 2002). In general, officially recorded migration flows have been decreasing: in 2000 they were 40 per cent down within the region and around 30 per cent down to and from outside. Russia continues to be the main migration partner of all the other countries in the region. Russian, Ukrainian and Belarusian repatriates have continued to be the main actors in the recorded migration flows, although the number of ethnic Slavs involved has decreased as their pool elsewhere has diminished.

Permanent migration outside the region is small and has continued to decrease, the main groups being Jews and Germans, although Russians and Ukrainians are now more in evidence among long-term emigrants. Short-term movement for work purposes is high and rising, much of which is irregular (*ibid*). In some countries, remittances have become a major element in household survival strategies, mainly from emigrants to

Russia but increasingly outside. It is recognised that official statistics underestimate the real numbers. In Russia, the trend in the last few years has been a reorientation from regular to irregular flows of labour migrants in response to the worsening financial situation and a tightening of regulations for the employment of foreign workers (Ivakhniouk, 2003).

Over the last couple of years, the number of asylum seekers and internally displaced persons from within the region remained largely stable, while those from outside fell (*ibid*).

5.4 Europe's migration fields

What has been the outcome for the European migration system as a whole of the trends in migration flows and the processes creating them indicated above? Table 11 is an attempt to measure the degree of self containment within Europe of the migration fields of individual countries, based on the proportion of immigration and emigration flows to and from the regions listed, and using the latest available data for those countries for which appropriate statistics exist. For both flow directions there are considerable differences between countries.

With regard to immigration, countries fall into several groups. For those in Central and Eastern Europe for which we have data (notably FYR Macedonia, Romania, Estonia and Croatia) the vast majority of immigrants come from elsewhere in Europe, mainly from other CEE countries, and with only small proportions from EU and EFTA states. Slovenia appears to be the exception with 88.9 per cent of immigrants coming from outside Europe. Scandinavian countries also display a relatively high degree of 'Euro self-containment', mainly from EU and EFTA states, and from 'Other Europe' (largely Turkey and former Yugoslavia) with only small proportions of flows from Central and Eastern Europe. Germany's immigration field is quite strongly European, and along with Austria, Finland and Liechtenstein receives a high proportion of its immigrants from Central and Eastern Europe. In contrast, almost three quarters of the UK's immigrants come from outside Europe. The Mediterranean countries also tend to look beyond Europe, as does the Netherlands.

Emigration data project a stronger picture of regional self-containment (the data for Spain are anomalous, including only Spaniards known to be moving abroad). Most of those leaving the Central and Eastern countries go elsewhere in the region or to the EU and EFTA. Only Germany, Austria and Liechtenstein in the west send a substantial proportion eastwards. Polish, Romanian and Czech data suggest a strong tendency for movement to EU and EFTA states.

It is difficult to generalise from Table 11 because of data interpretation problems for some countries, and the absence of statistics for many others. Nevertheless, three major conclusions may be drawn. First, there is some evidence of regional self-containment, especially for Central and Eastern European countries, in that the majority of exchanges are with elsewhere in Europe as a whole or its constituent parts. Second, there are marked differences in the migration fields of individual countries, reflecting a range of historical (such as post-colonial links) and geographical (especially proximity) processes. Finally, the patterns depicted reinforce the diversity of migration experience across Europe.

6. LABOUR MIGRATION

6.1 Stocks of foreign labour

6.1.1 Western Europe

It is more difficult to obtain accurate and comparable data across Europe for stocks of labour than for the foreign population as a whole. There are problems of knowing who is included, and which sources might be used. In addition, unrecorded workers are almost certainly proportionately more important in the labour market than are unrecorded residents in the total population.

The evidence from Table 12 (and Figures 7a-f) suggests that in Western Europe around 2002/2003 (using the latest data for each country) there were about 10.07 million recorded foreign workers, an increase of 38 per cent on the 1995 figure of about 7.29 million. However, this increase does not represent such a large increment to the foreign workforce as it appears. In some countries, notably Ireland, Switzerland and the UK, there have been significant rises in stocks owing to the entry of new foreign workers. The bulk of the increase tabulated is the result of amnesties for illegal workers in some countries, notable Italy, Spain, Portugal and Greece. Indeed, it would appear that if these groups are omitted, over the last few years stocks of recorded foreign labour have changed little. Elsewhere, stocks of recorded foreign labour have gone down (Germany) or remained relatively static (e.g. France). Germany, France, Italy and the UK between them contained 6.32 million, 62.8 per cent of the Western European total. Among those countries with 2003 data, Austria, Greece, Luxembourg, Spain and the UK recorded increases on the year before, Germany was more or less unchanged while foreign labour stocks in Switzerland fell.

6.1.2 Central and Eastern Europe

Data for Central and Eastern Europe are limited. Recording of foreign labour is much more patchy and the relative incidence of irregular or informal working probably higher than in Western Europe. For the countries listed in Table 12, but excluding Russia, the total was around 372,000. Both the Czech Republic and Hungary increased their recorded foreign labour stocks over the period. The figure for Estonia includes Russians and others with former Soviet Union passports.

6.2 Flows of labour

There are major difficulties in estimating inflows of foreign labour to individual countries and in aggregate. Across Europe as a whole there is a multiplicity of (usually) administrative sources which are frequently partial in coverage. For example, work permits are a common source but they exclude EEA nationals for member states, for which other sources have to be used. Only non-Nordic citizens are included in the figures in Nordic states. There are also severe problems in relation to the recording of seasonal, frontier and other short-term workers: they are included in the data for some countries but not for others. In the UK, for example, in 2002 the figure from the Labour Force Survey (used here) was 99,000 but when all types of foreign workers are included (such as short-term entrants under a range of special schemes as well as EEA nationals) the figure is almost a quarter of a million. Flows of irregular migrants are an added source of uncertainty. The statistics presented here are thus at best indicative.

Recorded inflows of foreign labour have been modest in most countries in recent years, the biggest recipient being Germany (Table 13 and Figures 8a-d). In a majority of the countries of Western Europe for which data are available the numbers moving per year are less than 20,000. More countries had higher numbers at the end of the period than at the beginning but only Germany and the UK showed large numerical increases.

The countries of Central and Eastern Europe have had variable experiences. Recorded inflows increased in Hungary and fell in the Czech Republic, Poland and Slovakia and were static at a low level in Bulgaria and Romania.

Around 3,000 contract workers and 40,000 temporary workers from CEE countries go to Germany each year under bilateral agreements. As workers from most CEE countries often no longer need a visa to travel to Western Europe for three months, movement to there is relatively easy, followed by overstay and undocumented work. It seems that much of this migration is to the newer immigration countries of the EU, notably Southern Europe and Ireland, and both Spain and Portugal entered into negotiations with selected CEE states to establish bilateral labour agreements to regulate the arrival of CEE workers (Laczko, 2002). However, most forms of labour migration from the CEE countries, including 'pendular migration' and petty trading are to other CEE countries rather than to Western Europe (Kraler and Iglicka, 2002). Management of labour migration in some of these countries is taking a new turn, for example, the Czech Republic introduced a points system where migrants are selected according to their skills and qualifications (*ibid*).

6.3 Labour migration in an enlarged Europe

One of the major political developments in 2004 has been the expansion of the EU eastwards. In anticipation of this event, in the last few years several studies have attempted to estimate the likely migration consequences. Although usually edged with caveats, numbers suggested are not large (Dustmann, 2003). The general consensus is that between a quarter and a third of a million people from CEE countries would move westwards per annum, the period for which this persisted depending upon the speed and success of economic transformation in the origin countries. Overall, these figures suggest that perhaps three per cent of the population of the candidate countries would move. Further movement is unlikely, regardless of economic development, because the migration potential of CEE countries is likely to decrease for demographic reasons (Fassmann and Münz, 2002).

Since accession to the EU of eight CEE countries (A8) in May 2004, most existing Western European states have instituted a transition period before allowing free movement of A8 nationals into their labour markets, the exceptions being the UK, Ireland and Denmark. The UK government decided to introduce a new Worker Registration Scheme for A8 workers which came into operation in the spring of 2004. During the period May-September there were 87,220 applications from individual workers, the vast majority of which (92.6 per cent) were approved. Poles were the largest national group, with over half the total, followed by Lithuanians and Slovaks.

Across Europe, patterns of foreign labour recruitment and use provide echoes of the 1960s. Several examples demonstrate this, including the UK Worker Registration Scheme. Almost all registrations were for low skilled work. The largest group (16.3

per cent) were process operatives in factories, followed by kitchen and catering assistants (7.2 per cent), waiters/waitresses (6.5 per cent), packers (5.4 per cent) and cleaners/domestic staff and farm workers (each 5.1 per cent). Thus the WRS is very much a route of entry for low-skilled workers – at least for those working for an employer since self-employed workers do not have to register. Not all of those registering were newly entering workers. Only 55.3 per cent arrived in the country after 1 May. Thus, most were already in the UK, some of them for quite a long time. It is not known how many of these were working illegally but it is likely that many/most of them were. It would appear then that the WRS has had the effect of legalising several thousand people.

The UK is not alone in Western Europe in importing foreign workers to work in low-skilled occupations. Germany's bilateral agreement with Poland brings in over a quarter of a million seasonal workers a year, mostly in agriculture (Dietz and Kaczmarczyk, 2004). In Ireland the most rapid increases in work permit issues were in agriculture, hotels and catering (Hughes, 2004). The Netherlands tells a similar story. In recent years the number of temporary work permits issued has risen, especially for agriculture, horticulture and a range of low-skilled service jobs such as drivers and hotel and catering workers (Snel et al, 2004). In Austria, agriculture and forestry and parts of the tourist sector have been increasing their foreign labour intake (Biffl, 2004).

In the years following the collapse of Communism, the CEE countries developed their own migration novelties, characterised by a wide range of circulatory and informal flows and sometimes referred to by the epithet 'pendular'. By the turn of the millennium, labour migration within and to the CEE countries was highly differentiated according to the duration, skills and origins of migrants (Wallace, 1999; Kraler and Iglicka, 2002). Migrants were more likely than indigenous workers to be in the private sector and working in small firms, generally in more insecure jobs. Among migrants of different nationalities some segmentation occurred. Examples include Romanian and Ukrainian casual, seasonal and construction workers. In contrast to those from elsewhere in Eastern Europe and the former USSR, Chinese and Vietnamese are frequently to be found as entrepreneurs, especially in restaurants and trading companies (*Ibid*).

The current situation in the CEE region shows some similarities with Western Europe during its guestworker phase. In the A8 states, foreign workers from further east are to be found (often working illegally) in the agriculture and construction industries and in the low-skilled and low-paid service sector. Often they are replacing the nationals of these countries who have moved to work in Western Europe. Turkish employers in agriculture and construction employ foreign men from an arc of countries to the north and east, and foreign women to work, usually illegally, in domestic service and entertainment (Icduygu, 2004).

7. ASYLUM

7.1 Trends in numbers of asylum applications

Much of the discussion about the scale of migration into and within Europe separates out asylum seekers from 'normal' (predominantly labour and family reunion) migration flows. There are sound reasons for this. Not only are the motivations of the two sets of moves different, but the data are also collected and presented differently. However, the distinction between the two has become increasingly blurred. Many asylum seekers are not in need of protection and are attempting to migrate for economic and/or family reasons, while the statistical distinction is no longer clear.

Most of the literature on asylum has focused on policy, legislation and procedures. Analyses of how and why asylum seekers choose particular destinations are scarce, though increasingly the role of smugglers and traffickers is emphasised. In the majority of cases the choice of country for asylum is not a conscious, rational choice by the asylum seeker and certainly not based on a comparison of the advantages and disadvantages of various options. Four interconnected factors appear to be very important for explaining the patterns of destination for asylum seekers: existing communities of compatriots, colonial bonds, knowledge of the language and, increasingly important, the smugglers and traffickers. Chain migration effects seem important, especially in terms of friendship and kinship networks. One study, mainly carried out in the Netherlands, Belgium and the UK, but with reference to the North American literature as well, found that most asylum seekers are not well informed with regard to possible destination countries: indeed, the influence of rumour is strong (Böcker and Havinga, 1998). A recent study in the UK found that facilitators/smugglers were primarily responsible for the choice of destination (Gilbert and Koser, 2004). Asylum policy and reception vary in importance between countries and this information is used by facilitators as well as by individual asylum seekers.

7.2 The destination perspective in Western Europe 1995-2003

Inflows of asylum seekers to Western Europe have fluctuated in total and between destination countries since the mid-1980s. In 1985 the region received 169,710 asylum seekers and reached a peak of 695,580 in 1992. By 1995 the number had fallen to 293,500 but rose again in 1998-99, mainly because of trouble in the Balkans, before falling back to around 420,000 in the three years 2000-02. However, the number rose slightly to 420,000 in 2001 and then to 425,400 in 2002 (Table 14 and Figures 9a-f). Overall, Western Europe experienced an increase in asylum seeker numbers of 42 per cent between 1995 and 2002. In 2003 the trend changed, total numbers being down by 22 per cent on the year before (Italy is excluded from this calculation because there are no data for 2003) to reach the lowest total since 1997. Some countries had particularly large falls, notably Germany (-29 per cent), Ireland (-32 per cent) and the UK (-41 per cent). Thirteen of the 18 countries listed in Table 14 with data for 2003 had fewer asylum seekers than the year before, three showed little change and only two had more. Explanation of these patterns is complex and the falls reflect a changing situation within Europe and globally. The perturbations in the Balkans had largely subsided, cease fires had occurred in some troubled parts of the world (e.g. Sri Lanka) and other countries were deemed now to be safe (Afghanistan, Iraq). Several destination countries have also put into operation asylum reduction

models designed to interdict flows, curtail administrative processes and reduce benefits to asylum seekers

A more even spread of asylum requests across Western Europe appears to be happening (Tables 14 and 15). A major feature is the changing situation in Germany. In 1985 it accounted for 43.5 per cent of requests, almost two-thirds in 1992 but fell to 15.2 per cent in 2003. Its asylum seeker numbers fell every year between 1995 and 2003, with the exception of 2001. In contrast, France experienced a sharp rise in numbers of requests for asylum after 1998 and in 2003 its share of the Western European total had risen to 15.2 per cent, almost on a par with Germany. The UK's situation has changed radically, from only 3.7 per cent of the total in 1985 to 24.5 per cent in 2002. Despite a fall in 2003 to 18.4 per cent of the total it has taken from Germany its traditional role of leading destination. Other countries with major increases in their numbers in the last few years are Austria, Belgium and Denmark. During the period since 1995 the major proportionate changes (sometimes, as with Greece, from a low base) are Ireland, Norway, Austria, Greece, Sweden and Denmark.

There have also been significant changes in asylum pressure, measured in terms of number of asylum requests per 10,000 population (Table 15). For the EU and EFTA states as a whole, pressure increased from 4.6 in 1985 to a peak of 18.4 in 1992 caused mainly by conflict in former Yugoslavia. There was then a fall to just under 11 in the years 2000-02, then down further to 8.5 in 2003. The countries experiencing the greatest pressure in 2003 are small in population, Austria, Luxembourg, Sweden and Norway. In the case of Ireland, asylum requests have risen from very small numbers since the early 1990s, partly in response to the strength of its economy, partly to its citizenship law. At the other end of the scale, Portugal, Iceland, and Spain have low asylum pressure, reflecting their geographical position, their relative popularity as destinations and their asylum laws. The countries with the largest numbers of applications, Germany and the UK, have relatively modest levels of pressure. What is not clear from Table 15, however, is how far these numbers are affected by registration of asylum flows.

7.3 Asylum applications in Central and Eastern Europe 1995-2003

For most countries in the region, the 1990s was a period of evolution for migration and asylum legislation and for statistical recording. In most cases, countries of the region were senders rather than receivers of asylum seekers. Even when they started to receive applications, most were a device for staying in the country prior to an attempt to get to Western Europe rather than being genuine requests. There is some recent evidence that asylum seekers are now targeting Central and Eastern European countries for settlement because of their political freedom and economic growth. In effect, they too have become attractive destinations.

Data on asylum seeking in Central and Eastern Europe are still very partial, and for the most part the numbers recorded are low (Table 14). In 2003 there was a total of 35,000 applications for asylum in the ten countries listed, a significant fall from the peak of 47,000 in 2001 but a substantial increase on 1995 when the aggregate was only 3,200. The trend in 2002-03 varied. In some countries the numbers were too small to identify a trend; among the rest, three experienced falling numbers, three rising. The Czech and

Slovak Republics were the most attractive destinations, between them accounting for nearly two thirds of the region's applications, their numbers now exceeding those in several Western European countries.

7.4 Trends in asylum decisions 1995-2003

Statistics on asylum decisions are difficult to interpret because of the time lag between an application being made and a decision being reached. A further complication is the appeals procedure which may mean several "decisions" on a single case. How these are recorded in the statistics affects the recognition rate. Table 16, based on UNHCR data, shows the number of initial asylum decisions for selected countries, together with the numbers and proportions granted 1951 Convention or other humanitarian status and those refused.

During the period 2000-2003 there were 1.47 million decisions. Numbers rose in 2001 and 2002 but fell by 10 per cent in 2002 to 346,000. In 2003 Western European countries made the bulk of decisions (87.9 per cent); the proportions for Southern and Central and Eastern Europe were 7.4 and 4.7 per cent respectively, indicating clearly where the main asylum pressure falls. France, Germany and the UK were the leading countries, each making about the same number of decisions.

Recognition rates vary considerably, across countries and over time for both full Convention and other humanitarian status. In the four years 2000-2003 the proportion granted Convention status fell from 15.7 to 8.5 per cent. Recognition on other humanitarian grounds also went down, from 14.7 to 7.9 per cent. In contrast, refusal rates rose from 69.6 to 83.5 per cent, the proportion being highest in the CEE region (87.7) and lowest in Southern Europe (75.9).

There were considerable variations in full Convention recognition rate between countries, with Turkey, Austria and Belgium having the highest rates. In most countries, fewer than one in ten was recognised as deserving full asylum status. In the most recent year, 2003, Turkey had the highest recognition rate. The three countries making the most decisions – UK, France and Germany - had only modest recognition rates, 14.1 and 8.0 and 4.3 respectively.

Full asylum is not the only protection status, although appropriate statistics are less systematically available. Most countries have some form of humanitarian ("B") status, granting asylum on humanitarian grounds but without full refugee rights. In those that do, the proportions are generally higher than of those granted full Convention status; this seems to be the case across Europe as a whole. In a few countries in 2003, including some making only a small number of decisions, humanitarian status was given in approaching half of all decisions.

Refusal rates of over 90 per cent were not uncommon, especially in the CEE region. Countries with such high refusal rates were Germany, Ireland, Greece, Czech and Slovak Republics, Poland and Romania. It should be pointed out, however, that these figures are for initial decisions only and in some countries the final refusal rate is lower as individual applications are granted after appeal.

Various forms of temporary protection have been offered by European governments in recent years, mainly to citizens of former Yugoslavia. Such schemes are beyond the UNHCR Convention system and other formal humanitarian statuses and assume that once conflict ends those given protection will return home.

7.5 Asylum applications by unaccompanied minors

A subject of concern to a number of governments, IGOs and humanitarian organisations in recent years has been the growing numbers of unaccompanied minors applying for asylum. Many of these would seem to have been smuggled or trafficked and they present particular problems for the authorities who have to deal with them, including the need for special housing and educational arrangements. In 2001 and 2002 in Europe as a whole the numbers of unaccompanied minors and separated children claiming asylum rose to over 20,000 but in 2003 they fell steeply to 12,781 (Table 17). This fall in absolute numbers was echoed in their importance as a proportion of all asylum applications, down from 5.4 per cent in 2002 to 4.2 per cent in 2003. The fall between 2002 and 2003 (-37 per cent) was greater than that in total asylum applications at the same time.

The data record some marked imbalances between destination countries as well as in trends over the period. Three main destinations stand out: Austria, Netherlands and the UK. In 2000 the Netherlands received the largest number (6,705), where they accounted for 15.3 per cent of all applications. In succeeding years the number and proportion fell significantly to 1,216 in 2003, 9.1 per cent of all applications. In contrast, applications to Austria rose after 2000, falling back in 2003 but with still over 2,000. Applications to the UK, already high in number in 2000, rose in the two succeeding years to peak in 2002 before falling to under 3,000 in 2003 when they accounted for 5.7 per cent of all asylum applications. Other countries experienced marked fluctuations, notably Hungary where in 2001 they accounted for over a fifth of all asylum applications. In Germany, numbers increased in 2001, fell in 2002 but rose again in the most recent year; however, they formed only a very small proportion of all applications. Although the totals for 2003 are modest for most countries compared with earlier years, it was common for these applications to be between five and ten per cent of the national total.

8. MIGRATION OF EXPERTISE

8.1 Introduction: the global migration market for skills

The last two decades have seen the emergence of a global migration market for skills. It affects all levels of skill but the real competition is for those with high levels of human expertise and there is now a complex pattern of movement by professional, managerial and technical staff. Since these movements are multi-directional, involving most states to a greater or lesser degree, we may call them “international brain exchanges”. Some countries are now more active than others in seeking to make net gains from these exchanges.

The main stimuli for competition in the global migration market has come from governments and multi-national employers. Some national health systems are also competing for medical staff. Competition was led in the 1980s by Australia and Canada, followed in the 1990s by the US. Europe held itself largely aloof until late in the 1990s with little action and almost no debate about competition in the migration skills market. The shortage of IT workers in particular prompted European governments to adopt more proactive policies to compete. Employers world-wide are now facing the problem of integrating new processes and technologies which require specific skills but are finding they must compete internationally, where their main competitors are OECD states but with India and China increasingly visible in this regard.

8.2 The main market forces

The migration market for expertise has two main drivers. The first is the attempt to increase the national bank of expertise through the acquisition of high level human resources; the other is the development of policies to counter specific skill shortages. Both of these are designed to increase the competitiveness of individual businesses and national economies in general.

8.2.1 Gathering expertise

Underlying the first of these is evidence that highly skilled migrants bring economic benefits to the host economy. Although some of the results are ambiguous or contradictory (see, for example, Coleman and Rowthorne, 2004), studies from as far afield as the UK, Denmark, Germany, Australia, Singapore and the US have shown that the higher the skill level of immigrants, the greater the likelihood of net fiscal gains to the economy (Gott and Johnston, 2002). Put bluntly, the more skilled the immigrants, the greater the economic benefit on the whole.

Studies also show that the fiscal effects vary by national origin of the migrants, with higher benefits flowing from those coming from high GDP countries. Thus, it is not surprising that those countries which still seek to attract permanent immigrants, notably Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the US, have been putting increasing emphasis on the skilled entry route. Among the main drivers are opportunities for high-tech entrepreneurship: by 1998, for example, Chinese and Indian engineers were running a quarter of Silicon Valley’s high technology businesses, their companies providing 58,000 jobs. Others include the globalisation of corporate activities and the

development by multi-nationals of global conditions of service to go with global career paths.

Other countries are following suit. The UK's new Highly Skilled Migrant Programme, which began in January 2002, is designed to allow people of high human capital to migrate to the UK in order to seek and take up work. In effect, it encourages highly skilled foreigners to nominate themselves for immigration. It uses a points system based on educational qualifications, work experience, past earnings, achievements in chosen fields and whether the skill is a priority area (the last is mainly for qualified overseas doctors). Four main groups dominate those entering under the scheme: Finance (including accountancy, banking, investment, etc.); Business Managers (including consultants, directors and executives); ICT (including software engineers, computer specialists and telecommunications specialists); and Medical occupations.

8.2.2 Specific skill shortages

Work permit systems have long existed to bring in skills from abroad that are in short supply. Mostly they have been seen as short-term measures to deal with temporary shortages, or to bring in specialists and corporate assignees. Nowadays, many developed countries have shortage lists for specific skills and have adopted new government schemes or programmes to deal with them. Skill shortages can occur because of the inefficiencies of the international labour market and because of mismatches caused by growth in demand outstripping local training capability or by an inadequacy of supply at the prevailing wage rate. In many countries in recent years, substantial skill shortages have occurred among two groups in particular: the ICT sector (including those working as practitioners and as users); and the more skilled end of public services, especially health (particularly nurses) and education. Developing strategies and procedures to recruit specific skills in shortage occupations has been predominantly employer led, with governments acting as facilitators.

One of the best known examples of a scheme designed to attract specific skills has been put into operation in Germany. Foreigners with an ICT related degree or who have graduated from German universities with an ICT degree can apply for a "Green Card". Those without an IT degree can apply if their ability in the field is confirmed by an agreement of an annual salary of over 100,000 DM. The permit is valid for a maximum of five years and applications will be accepted until January 2005. Up to the beginning 2004 around 16,000 permits have been granted. Permit holders can switch employers in Germany without a labour market test to check whether a German or EU specialist is available to fill the vacancy. Recent changes to German immigration law have facilitated the entry of highly skilled workers, such as computer and senior business staff, engineers and researchers.

The idea that in a tight job market the demand for staff can be met by rising inflows of foreign workers has attracted attention in the media and among market analysts and consultants. How successful this might be as a solution is unclear. For ICT skills the market downturn since 2001 has demonstrated that the migration solution may not be a permanent requirement and has focused attention on how best countries might manage temporary migration programmes.

8.3 Expatriate numbers and education levels

Comprehensive information on the skill levels of migrants remains elusive. Work permit systems provide some idea but they exclude the nationals of common labour market areas such as the EEA. Using census information on birthplace, the OECD has created a database for its member states on educational levels as a proxy for skill level, with tertiary education being regarded as a proxy measurement of the highly skilled (Dumont and Lemaitre, 2004). Table 18, derived from this database, shows the proportions of expatriates from the European countries listed resident in other OECD states. For Western Europe as a whole there were almost 15.8 million expatriates, 26.2 per cent of whom had a tertiary education and might thus be described as highly skilled. The proportions were lower for the Central and Other European regions, but still around a fifth.

In Western Europe it was common for a third or more of expatriates from the countries listed to have a tertiary education and for more than a quarter of those from Central Europe. Russian expatriates, modest in number compared with some other countries, were particularly likely to have a tertiary education. Comparison of these figures on expatriates with those on immigrants from other OECD states (Table 19) shows that most European members are net losers but that the picture changes significantly when movement from all countries to the OECD are included. For example, France and Germany send more highly skilled to other OECD states than they receive, but when all source countries are considered they become net gainers.

8.4 Foreign students

One of the major migration growth industries in recent years has been that of international students. An increasing number of students are taking the opportunity to study abroad in a growing variety of courses and curricula. Improving language skills (especially English) is seen by many young people as a key to promotion to positions of responsibility. In addition, the cultural experience acquired while studying abroad is an additional advantage for young people wanting to get on in the job market. Studying abroad has become much easier as host countries have competed to attract foreign students and “education for trade” rather than “education for aid” is now commonplace in higher education systems. The internationalisation of education systems has resulted in more complex and varied degree and other programmes and a much more cosmopolitan student population (OECD, 2001). There is a case for arguing that student mobility is another form of mobility by the highly skilled, given the potential for foreign students to enter the host country workforce upon graduation. Entry into the labour market is facilitated by their (usually) foreign language skills, their ability to adjust, their research and analytical capabilities and their familiarity with the customs and culture of the host country in which they have studied.

One area to which attention is increasingly being paid is that of student-switching, that is, allowing foreign graduates to switch status from education to workforce directly instead of having to return home at the conclusion of their studies. Australia, France, Germany, Norway and the UK, have already done this. The German ‘Green Card’ scheme has successfully sought to attract foreign graduates from German universities graduating with IT related degrees: 1,500 of the first 10,400 ‘Green Card’ permits were granted to them. The French government is keen to encourage student

switching by foreign IT graduates at French universities although there is little evidence of how successful this has been.

8.4.1 Trends in student migration

Numbers of students vary by country of origin and destination (Table 20). Country size and geographical proximity once again show the efficacy of the gravity model, but numerous other factors play a role, including EU policies on freedom of movement, recognition of degrees (currently under discussion in the Bologna process), exchange and network programmes such as Erasmus/Socrates. OECD calculations (2001) indicate that certain countries, notably UK, Austria, Denmark, France and Germany host large numbers of foreign students relative to their size. The existence of former student networks through institutional channels encourages chain movements.

There are several problems in compiling statistics on stocks of foreign students. They are a very heterogeneous group, with courses of varying content, length and different qualification requirements. Students come under a range of bilateral and multilateral agreements as well as under their own steam. Their statuses on arrival carry different entitlements from country to country. Responsibility for counting their numbers falls to a range of administrative institutions, frequently using different definitions. In these circumstances, comparative data are indicative rather than absolute.

Despite these caveats, Table 20 is instructive. Overall, the total in 2001-02 for the countries listed was 1.06 million. The UK is the clear market leader but Germany and France are other major destinations. Outside Western Europe, Russia has the largest number. There has been a clear upward trend in numbers, with only a few countries, mainly in Central and Other Europe, experiencing declines. For Europe as a whole number rose by 19.5 per cent over the period, a rate of increase exceeded by many countries, albeit in some cases on small absolute numbers.

Data on annual flows of foreign students are patchy mainly because most countries do not collect them in a systematic way. Those that do exist are from a range of sources and provide only a partial picture of numbers and trends.

9. IRREGULAR MIGRATION

The subject of illegal migration and particularly international trafficking and smuggling in human beings has captured a lot of attention in the last decade from many different interest groups. There are few parts of the world untouched by what may now be regarded as an expanding and usually criminal business always seeking out new markets. Many of the migrations under its auspices take place over extremely long distances; others are relatively local affairs.

It is clear that illegal migration, trafficking and human smuggling have the capacity to excite attention and divide opinion. The role of criminal organisations has been highlighted in a human trade on a par with drugs and arms smuggling, in both its profitability and perniciousness. Governments are increasingly co-operating to introduce measures to control what they deem to be an assault on their borders. Some politicians and media regard all illegal migrants as criminals, to be returned across borders as soon as possible. In contrast, human rights organisations argue that for many seeking asylum, traffickers and smugglers represent the best hope for safety and that the real victims are those migrants who have lost control of their own lives.

As the issues raised by irregular migration, especially migrant trafficking and human smuggling, have risen on the political agenda, so the enormous complexities inherent in them have become more apparent. In a very real sense, however, the rhetoric has run ahead of the research. There is a fundamental lack of hard evidence relating to most aspects of the problem. Methodologies for studying both traffickers/smugglers and their clientele are barely developed, the theoretical basis for analysis is weak and, most importantly, substantial empirical surveys are few and far between. Slowly, these deficiencies are being met. For example, two recent IOM studies have thrown light on the geographically pivotal role of Turkey with respect to irregular migration (Içduygu, 2003) and trafficking in women (Erder and Kaska, 2003). The ICMPD now carries out an annual survey and analysis of border management and apprehension data (ICMPD, 2004).

Previous reports have examined irregular migration, migrant trafficking and human smuggling at some length. After an initial review of attempts to assess the scale of the phenomena, the rest of the section looks at the findings of some recent studies.

9.1 The scale of the irregular population

Any attempt to measure this complex population is based on the simple principle that those people who are resident illegally will at some point manifest their identity in a researchable form. Due to the clandestine nature of the illegally resident population, all data types are substantially uncertain.

Futo and Tass (2001) identified four root causes for the lack of data on illegal immigration. Firstly, data collection on illegal migrants faces the problem of identifying and counting those people who have intentionally made themselves unobservable. Even apprehended illegal migrants will hide important personal data on their status to avoid removal. Secondly, information and data that may establish a person's illegal status are frequently dispersed between different agencies such as government departments, the police, employment offices etc, making access to data

difficult. Thirdly, legal problems may also prohibit the counting of cases, for example, in some countries irregular entry itself is not a criminal offence, therefore criminal statistics may not sufficiently cover the phenomenon. Fourthly, country-specific legislation and definitions on legality and illegality result in a lack of internationally comparable data on illegal immigration.

The first thing that must be said is that no one knows the size of the illegal population stock across Europe or in individual countries. Attempts have been made in some countries to estimate the size of the irregular population, using a variety of methods and assumptions, and they should be regarded as indicative at best. Among recent ones are a figure of 569,000 illegal foreign workers in Italy (Baldassarini, 2001), 90,000 in Belgium (Poulain, 1998) and a range of 70-180,000 illegal workers in Switzerland (Piguet and Losa, 2002). It was estimated that 40,000 worked illegally in the four cities of Amsterdam, Rotterdam, The Hague and Utrecht (Van der Leun, Engbersen and Van der Heijden, 1998).

One of the main sources used as an indicator of numbers of migrants living or working in an irregular situation is the number who apply to regularise their status when an amnesty programme is introduced. One by-product of an amnesty is that it usually provides information on the illegal population. By implementing such a programme, the government is able to ascertain the number and whereabouts of irregular migrants, who they are, how they live and work and at what. In effect, the programme provides a means to estimate a minimum number for the stock of the illegal population until they are actually regularised.

Amnesty programmes have been a fairly common feature in Mediterranean countries during the last two decades and have occurred in some other countries. Analysis of regularisations up to the beginning of 2000 (Apap et al., 2000) suggests that the total number regularised in the programmes of Greece, France, Spain and Italy was 1.75 million. Since then further amnesties in Southern Europe have resulted in approaching several hundred thousand more applications. Thus, in total the numbers are considerable and, in the absence of better estimates, numbers regularised provide the most solid baseline for estimating the scale of irregular populations.

9.2 Trends in flows of irregular migrants

Most statistics on flows of irregular migrants comes from border crossing data. The problems in using border crossing statistics to analyse the scale of illegal migration have attracted relatively little detailed comment, mainly because until recently so few studies have attempted to use them. Quite frequently there are differences of opinion between border guards and officials about the proportions of those trying to cross borders illegally who are apprehended (for Hungary, see Juhasz, 2000) and for Ukraine Klinchenko *et al*, 2000). A further problem is what is actually to be measured. Juhasz's study (2000) used an "illegal crossing event" as the unit of measurement in creating a database of illegal migration to and from Hungary. Such an event occurs each time an individual is arrested. Creating a statistical record to fit the variety of potential situations soon makes the complexity apparent. Multiple events can occur for a single person who is arrested, sent back, tries again and is again caught.

In 2003 about 164,400 apprehensions were recorded at the borders of 17 CEE countries surveyed by the ICMPD (Table 21) (ICMPD, 2004). This represents a considerable reduction on the figures for 2001 and 2002. Between 2001 and 2002 total numbers recorded fell by 22.7 per cent, then by a further 18.4 per cent the following year. Relatively high numbers of apprehensions in 2003 occurred at the borders of Turkey, Armenia, Hungary, Czech and Slovak Republics and Ukraine. In most cases the trend for both years was downward, although a few countries did show increases.

Similar systematic data are available in published form for only some Western European countries. Those in Table 22 have been compiled from several sources rather than one survey and they record different sorts of border action against irregular migration. The numbers vary from country to country. They fluctuate from one year to another but the most recent data generally show declines from the peaks of earlier years.

The trends in Tables 21 and 22 may be explained in a number of ways. The fall in numbers of apprehensions may be because there are fewer irregular migrants attempting to cross borders. This may be the result of better border management which has deterred attempted crossings. It may in some cases be a consequence of a slackening in visa regimes as was the case for Romanian travellers after 2002 (ICMPD, 2004). There may also have been diversion of flows into other routes and channels: this might explain the big increase in apprehensions in Cyprus in 2003 and frequent press reports of a surge in apprehensions in the Canary Islands in 2004-05.

On the face of it, however, the data here do not support the view that irregular migration flows are on the increase; indeed, they suggest the reverse.

9.3 Characteristics of irregular migrants

The ICMPD survey shows that most illegal migrants are still single males aged 20-45 and that cases of complete families with young children are fewer than five years ago. About a fifth are female and a twelfth a minor, both proportions having been increasing.

The geographical distribution of flows has become more complex as irregular migrants and their facilitators develop new routes in response to governmental measures against them. In consequence, although the main direction of movement is still towards Western Europe, there are no longer such clear-cut migration routes. It also seems that a substantial number of apprehensions are of return migrants who travelled legally but then overstayed their visas. There are three main origin regions. The largest is the former Soviet Union, the main groups being those with Russian citizenship (especially Chechens). The second largest group is from the Middle East, Central Asia, China and the Indian Sub-continent. A declining proportion of this group comes from places of armed conflict. The smallest group is from the CEE region itself. Formerly the largest groups were from Romania and former Yugoslavia, but numbers of these have fallen.

9.4 The scale of migrant trafficking and human smuggling

There is a paucity of data on how many irregular migrants are smuggled or trafficked and those that exist come from a wide range of sources (Laczko and Gramegna, 2003). Even when numbers trafficked are presented, they tend to be low, usually measured in hundreds, and a far cry from the tens and hundreds of thousands often quoted (*ibid*).

Table 23 is an attempt to bring together the various estimates made of the scale of smuggling and trafficking at the global and European level. Globally, numbers are put at 4 million annually, including up to 2 million women and children. Estimates for the EU as far apart as 1993 and 1999 give the same range of 50-400,000 for both sexes. Numbers of women smuggled and trafficked annually into the EU and Central and Eastern Europe have been put at 300,000. Still regarded as the most authoritative annual estimate – because the assumptions upon which it was based are available – is Widgren’s 100-220,000 in 1994.

Rarely is it clear how the estimates have been derived, though in general they rely on assumptions about the ratio between those apprehended at borders and those who succeed in getting through undetected. Thus, Heckmann *et al* (2000) derive their estimate of the number trafficked and smuggled into the EU (400,000 in 1999) from apprehension statistics. For every one person caught entering the EU illegally (260,000), it is assumed two pass unhindered.

Estimating of how many illegal crossings are trafficked or smuggled presents further difficulties. Incidences of trafficking are probably severely underestimated in data of illegal border crossings since the involvement of a smuggler is registered only if he or she is caught, or if an immigrant admits to have been assisted by a smuggler. Several countries in the CEE region report recent increases in smuggling through official road border crossings, with migrants hidden in the back of lorries or using forged documents.

9.5 Payments to smugglers and traffickers

Payments are very variable, depending on such factors as distance travelled, scale of the facilitating organisation, destination and conditions of travel. Table 24 was compiled by the Migration Research Unit at UCL from nearly six hundred reported cases in the literature/media worldwide since the mid-1990s (Petros, 2004). On average, the most costly moves are from Asia to the Americas, followed by Asia to Europe. In comparison, moves within Africa are cheap. The aggregate figures in the table are consistent with those reported by ICMPD for flows into the Schengen space: examples, include 10-15,000 USD from China and 4-6,000 from Afghanistan; 5-10,000 Euro from Ukraine and 1,500-2000 from Moldavia.

There is little evidence from the UCL data that smuggling and trafficking costs are increasing or falling. However, it appears from the ICMPD survey that although the overall number of border apprehensions has been falling, detection rates for smuggling and trafficking have remained high and may have risen and that a greater proportion of irregular migrants transiting the area use the services of facilitators than hitherto.

9.6 Trafficking in women

Much energy has been expended by governments, NGOs, IGOs and academics in writing about trafficking in women and children, one study pointing out that something like 40 per cent of the literature on trafficking and smuggling in Europe was addressed to this subject (Salt and Hogarth, 2000). However, both statistical data and empirical research are still lacking. Thus, although the European Commission reported estimates of up to 120,000 women and children trafficked into Western Europe each year, no clear basis for the calculation exists.

Because of the paucity of good data, it is by no means clear if the scale of trafficking is increasing. German statistics show a fall in number of trafficked women registered between 1995 and 1999, but the trend may reflect a lower number of police investigations rather than a real fall in numbers trafficked (Laczko, Klekowski, von Koppenfels and Barthel, 2002). What does seem to be happening is a change in the origin countries of the women coming to Western Europe, with more from Central and Eastern Europe replacing those from Asia, Latin America and Africa. In 2000, 56 per cent of trafficking victims in German were from CEE countries, 28 per cent from the CIS. Data from German NGOs confirm this trend (Laczko *et al.*, 2002). UK data also support the view that CEE countries are the main suppliers (Kelly and Regan, 2000). However, Polish police intelligence reports suggest that cases of trafficking in Polish women are decreasing each year (Laczko *et al.*, 2002)

A new trend is that the CEE countries are not only sending trafficked women but have become important receiving and transit countries as trafficking from further east, notably from Belarus, Russia, Lithuania, Ukraine and Moldova, has increased (Laczko, Klekowski, von Koppenfels and Barthel, 2002). Trafficking in women to parts of the Balkans has also grown, including flows from Moldova, Romania and Ukraine.

Similar sources account for most deportations for prostitution from Turkey, 93 per cent of the 3,500 in 2001 coming from the six countries of Azerbaijan, Georgia, Moldova, Romania, Russia and the Ukraine (Erder and Kaska, 2003).

10. RECENT INITIATIVES IN INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION

Over the last few years governments and intergovernmental organisations have begun to match the rhetoric of the need to ‘manage’ rather than ‘control’ international migration with firm proposals for action. The first systematic attempt was that of the Council of Europe in 1998, followed by a series of Communications by the European Commission to the European Council and Parliament. These are briefly described below.

10.1 The Council of Europe’s Migration Management Strategy

The strategy was designed to apply at the pan-European scale and based on four integrated principles:

- ***orderliness***

To develop a set of measures able to manage migration in an orderly manner, so as to maximise opportunities and benefits to individual migrants and to host societies and to minimise trafficking and illegal movement.

- ***protection***

To provide an appropriate capability for protection and for dealing with disorderly or sudden movements.

- ***integration***

To provide an environment conducive to integration.

- ***co-operation***

To engage in dialogue and co-operation with sending countries in order to link foreign policy and migration policy objectives.

The strategy accepted the reality that Europe is a region of immigration, the management of which has to be organised on a comprehensive basis. It emphasised that the protection of individual human rights is the basis of management. At the heart of the strategy was the conviction that many of the migration problems now confronting governments have resulted from a piecemeal approach to specific problems, such as the economy, asylum, illegality or return. A management strategy should be regarded as a comprehensive whole, to be applied over the long term.

10.2 The European Commission’s Common Migration Policy

Support for such a management approach has come also from the European Commission in its proposals for a common EU immigration policy over the next 20-30 years. It identifies four essentials for such a policy (European Commission, 2000).

1. The need to control migration movements through measures which promote legal immigration and combat illegal entry
2. Co-operation with the countries of origin of immigrants within the framework of policies of development aid designed to minimise migration push factors
3. Definition of a policy of integration which establishes the rights and obligations of immigrants

4. The elaboration of a legislative framework common to all Member States aimed at imposing penal sanctions on traffickers and smugglers, as well as providing support for the victims of trafficking

The basis of the policy is the recognition that the 'zero' immigration policies of the past 30 years are no longer appropriate, that immigration will continue and should be properly regulated in order to maximise its positive effects on the Union, on the migrants themselves and on the countries of origin. Migration of all types should be taken into account – humanitarian, family reunion and economic – to deal with the impact on sending and receiving countries as a whole.

The success of such a policy depends on effective co-ordination by all those concerned and on the adoption and implementation of new measures, as appropriate at both Community and Member State levels. A further Communication (COM(2001)387 final) set out proposals for the adaptation of an open method of co-ordination in the implementation of migration policy. It proposed that Member States would prepare national action plans in order to develop and evaluate the Common Immigration Policy.

10.3 The European Commission's Communication on Immigration, Integration and Employment

This Communication, produced in June 2003, aimed to provide a single document setting out what had been done towards immigration policy as detailed in documents from the Amsterdam Treaty in May 1999, the European Council in Tampere later that year and the November 2000 Communication on immigration. It also takes account of important relevant developments since Tampere. It:

- responds to the Tampere conclusions by reviewing current practice and experience with integration policy at national and EU level;
- examines the role of immigration in relation to the Lisbon objectives in the context of demographic ageing and
- outlines, on this basis, policy orientations and priorities, including action at EU level, to promote the integration of immigrants.

10.4 The European Commission's Communications on a Common Asylum Procedure

These Communications in late 2000 and March 2003 propose a directive on minimum standards of procedures in Member States for granting and withdrawing refugee status in order to establish a minimum level of harmonisation of the rules applicable. In effect, there is to be a move towards a 'one-stop shop' type of procedure in order to centralise the examination of all protection needs at a single place so as to assure the applicant that no form of persecution or risk is ignored and also to reduce the time taken to examine the request for protection.

Initially states retain their national systems, subject to respect for certain norms and conditions regarding competent authorities and the applicable procedures. At a second stage there is to be a move towards laying down a common procedure, with less scope

for national flexibility and achievement of some convergence in national interpretations of procedures. Ultimately the objective is the adoption of a common asylum procedure and a uniform status for those given asylum.

10.5 The European Commission's Communication "Towards more accessible, equitable and managed asylum systems"

This Communication, produced in June 2003, results from an invitation by the Council to explore the issues raised in a white paper sent in March 2003 to the Presidency detailing the need for a "*better management of the asylum process*". The UK paper outlined problems common to the current asylum system of the EU and proposed a new approach of regions protection areas in origin countries and 'transit processing centres' in third countries along transit routes to the EU.

The Communication suggests that such a new approach would need to build upon the ongoing harmonisation of existing asylum systems in the European Union. While Community legislation lays down a minimum level playing field for in-country asylum processes in the EU, the new approach intends to move beyond to the realm of such processes and address the phenomenon of mixed flows and the external dimension of these flows. Embracing the new approach, it asserts, would not render the ongoing harmonisation obsolete: spontaneous arrivals will continue to occur in the future and should remain subject to common standards. However, the new approach would reinforce the credibility, integrity and efficiency of the standards underpinning the systems for spontaneous arrivals by offering a number of well-defined alternatives.

10.6 The European Commission's Communications on a Common Policy on Illegal Migration, Smuggling and Trafficking of Human Being, External Borders and the Return of Illegal Residents

In these Communications, produced at the end of 2001 and June 2003 (after the European Council of Thessaloniki), the Commission proposed to adopt a comprehensive approach to tackling the issues of illegal migration, trafficking and smuggling. It identified six areas of action: visa policy; infrastructure for information exchange, co-operation and co-ordination; border management; police co-operation; aliens law and criminal law; and returns and admissions policy.

Visa policy covers country lists, uniform standards, the creation of common administrative structures and the development of a European visa identification system. Information needs include better statistics, information gathering, intelligence and analysis and the development of an early warning system. Pre-frontier measures are important, including liaison and financial support in third countries and awareness-raising campaigns. Better border management includes the setting up of a European Border Guard, with surveillance by joint teams and an advanced role for Europol. Better legal instruments were proposed to deal with trafficking, smuggling and employment exploitation. Finally, it argued that a Community return policy should be based on common principles, standards and measures.

10.7 The European Commission's Communication on a Community Return Policy on Illegal Residents

This Communication at the end of 2002 followed that on combating illegal migration. Four items were highlighted: first, the need to step up operational co-operation; second, the development of a suitable legal framework; third, the programme must be an integrated one; finally, close co-operation with third countries is essential.

Among the detailed proposals made was that a return policy is best developed gradually by short-term measures that can be implemented immediately, that states should offer and provide mutual assistance in facilitating returns and that better co-ordination of an enhanced operational co-operation on return should be achieved with the development of the information and co-ordination network proposed in the Communication on illegal migration. Furthermore, common minimum standards on removal are required to ensure efficient return policies. Overall, it argued that the EU should develop its own approach for integrated return programmes, covering all phases of the return process and tailored to specific countries.

10.8 Other proposals to combat illegal migration

Outside the Commission other organisations were active in combating trafficking. In May 2000, the UNHCR issued "Recommended Guidelines on Human Rights and Human Trafficking" as part of a report to the UN Economic and Social Council. In November 2000 the United Nations General Assembly adopted a "New Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, especially Women and Children". The Protocol was in response to the general dissatisfaction felt with regard to the inadequacy of the 1949 Protocol and pledged support for trafficking victims and the intent to promote co-operation between States to meet objectives to combat trafficking. The Parliamentary Assembly of the OSCE urged in Chapter 3 of its "Bucharest Declaration" another resolution to criminalize trafficking while ensuring the victims' immunity from prosecution.

10.9 Migration management: summary

Some generalisations can be made from these brief descriptions of the various migration management strategies proposed.

First, management rather than control is now the name of the game. There is a recognition by individual states and by intergovernmental organisations that international migration cannot be controlled, in the sense that countries can turn the taps of movement on or off at their borders. In reality they were never able to do that anyway.

Second, there is an acceptance that migration is generally a positive phenomenon and that the prime purpose of management is to ensure an all-round positive outcome.

Third, migration management strategies require a comprehensive approach that takes in the complete spectrum of movement and deals with both legal and illegal moves. Tackling one issue invariably leads unintended consequences elsewhere, frequently

observed in the exploitation of loopholes which allow the diversion of migration streams from one channel to another.

Fourth, countries can no longer act alone. Co-operation is vital, both with European neighbours and with countries further afield. The consequence is the move towards greater commonality of policy within the EU. Such is the momentum that even non-EU states are now having to harmonise their policies to fit a single model.

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Table 1

Estimated and projected population of the world and major areas, 1950, 2000 and 2050

Region	Millions and Per Cent					
	1950		2000		2050	
	Nos.	%	Nos.	%	Nos.	%
Total	2519	100.0	6057	100.0	8919	100.0
Africa	221	8.8	794	13.1	1803	20.2
Asia	1399	55.5	3672	60.6	5222	58.5
Europe	548	21.8	727	12.0	632	7.1
Latin America and the Caribbean	167	6.6	519	8.6	768	8.6
North America	172	6.8	314	5.2	448	5.0
Oceania	13	0.5	31	0.5	46	0.5

Source: United Nations Population Division, World Population Prospects: the 2002 Revision

Notes:

The 2050 data are based upon medium fertility variants

Table 2
Components of population change in Europe, 2002-03 average (unless stated)

Country	annual average per cent		
	Growth Rate	Natural Increase	Net Migration
Albania	0.82	1.20	-0.38 (1)
Andorra	4.35	0.76	3.59
Armenia	-0.01	0.26	-0.27
Austria	0.47	0.02	0.46 p
Azerbaijan	0.75	0.79	-0.04 (2)
Belarus	-0.52	-0.57	0.06
Belgium	0.42	0.05	0.37 p
Bulgaria	-0.58	-0.58	0.00
Croatia	-0.04	-0.24	0.19 (2)
Cyprus	1.76	0.37	1.38 p
Czech Republic	0.03	-0.16	0.19
Denmark	0.27	0.12	0.16
Estonia	-0.39	-0.38	-0.01 p
Finland	0.24	0.14	0.11
France	0.47	0.37	0.10 p
Georgia	-3.08	-0.02	-3.07 (3)
Germany	0.06	-0.16	0.23 *
Greece	0.24	0.00	0.25 p
Hungary	-0.29	-0.38	0.09 p
Iceland	0.69	0.79	-0.10
Ireland	1.58	0.81	0.77 e
Italy	0.71	-0.04	0.75 *
Latvia	-0.57	-0.51	-0.06
Liechtenstein	1.23	0.46	0.77 p
Lithuania	-0.43	-0.31	-0.12 p
Luxembourg	0.84	0.32	0.52
Malta	0.67	0.21	0.46
Moldova	-0.26	-0.17	-0.09 (2)
Netherlands	0.46	0.37	0.10 p
Norway	0.59	0.28	0.32
Poland	-0.06	-0.03	-0.04
Portugal	0.70	0.06	0.65
Romania	-0.28	-0.26	-0.02
Russian Federation	0.08	-0.63	0.71
San Marino	1.81	0.31	1.51
Serbia and Montenegro	-0.27	-0.27	0.00 (4) p
Slovakia	0.01	-0.01	0.03
Slovenia	0.06	-0.08	0.14
Spain	1.63	0.13	1.50 p
Sweden	0.38	0.04	0.34
Switzerland	0.73	0.14	0.60 p
FYR Macedonia	-0.74	0.48	-1.22 (2)
Turkey	1.55	1.41	0.15
Ukraine	-0.82	-0.76	-0.06
United Kingdom	0.32	0.13	0.19 *

Source: Eurostat

Notes:

1. 1999 data only.
2. 2002 data only.
3. 2000 data only.
4. Does not include Kosovo.

* - national estimate.

p - provisional data.

e - Eurostat estimate.

Table 3
Stock of foreign population in selected European countries, 1995-2003 (thousands)

(a) Western Europe

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Austria	673.8	680.3	683.1	683.7	689.3	698.6	704.9	731.6	755.1
Belgium	909.8	911.9	903.1	892.0	897.1	861.7	846.7	850.1	-
Denmark	222.7	237.7	237.7	249.6	259.4	258.6	266.7	265.4	271.2
Finland	68.6	73.8	81.0	85.1	87.7	91.1	98.6	103.7	107.0
France	-	-	-	-	3263.2	-	-	-	-
Germany	7173.9	7314.0	7365.8	7319.6	7343.6	7296.8	7318.6	7355.6	7334.8
Greece (1)	153.0	155.0	165.4	-	305.3	281.5	797.1	431.0	433.1
Iceland	4.8	5.1	5.6	6.5	7.3	8.8	9.9	10.2	10.2
Ireland	96.1	117.5	113.9	110.9	118.0	126.5	152.2	227.7	223.1
Italy (2)	991.4	1095.6	1240.7	1250.2	1252.0	1388.2	1362.6	1512.3	2194.0
Luxembourg	132.5	138.1	142.8	147.7	152.9	159.4	164.7	166.7	174.2
Netherlands	725.4	679.9	678.1	662.4	651.5	667.8	690.4	700.0	702.2
Norway	160.8	157.5	158.0	165.1	178.7	184.3	185.9	197.7	204.7
Portugal	168.3	172.9	175.3	178.1	190.9	207.6	238.7	-	-
Spain	499.8	539.0	609.8	719.6	801.3	895.7	1109.1	1324.0	1647.0
Sweden (3)	531.8	526.6	522.0	499.9	487.1	477.3	476.0	474.1	476.1
Switzerland (4)	1330.6	1337.6	1340.8	1347.9	1368.7	1384.4	1419.1	1447.3	1471.0
Turkey (5)	-	68.1	135.9	162.2	-	272.9	-	-	-
United Kingdom	1948.0	1934.0	2066.0	2207.0	2208.0	2342.0	2587.0	2681.0	2865.0

(b) Central and Eastern Europe

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Bulgaria (6)	81.0	78.7	86.0	92.8	102.2	101.3	99.2	100.5	-
Czech Republic (7)	159.2	199.2	210.3	220.2	228.9	203.0	210.8	231.6	240.4
Estonia	-	-	-	323.0	291.7	287.1	273.8	269.5	-
Hungary (8)	140.0	142.5	148.3	150.2	153.1	110.0	116.4	115.9	130.1
Latvia	7.1	12.1	17.4	23.7	27.6	29.4	31.3	30.0	33.3
Lithuania	-	-	-	-	-	-	31.2	30.5	32.7
Poland (9)	-	29.9	32.5	-	42.8	-	-	49.2	-
Romania (10)	1.9	1.7	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.4	2.0
Russia (11)	171.6	158.5	138.3	-	-	-	-	-	-
Slovak Republic (12)	21.9	21.5	26.4	28.4	29.5	28.8	29.4	29.5	29.3
Slovenia	48.0	43.0	41.7	39.4	42.5	42.3	44.7	-	45.3

Sources: Council of Europe, National Statistical Offices, OECD SOPEMI Correspondents

NOTES

1. 1999 and 2000 do not include 0-14 year olds
2. Figures refer to residence permits.
3. Some foreigners permits of short duration are not counted (mainly citizens of other Nordic countries).
4. Numbers of foreigners with annual residence permits (including, up to 31/12/82, holders of permits of durations below 12 months) and holders of settlement permits (permanent permits). Seasonal and frontier workers are excluded.
5. 2000 figure from the 2000 Census.
6. Stock of long-term resident foreigners, Ministry of Interior. 2001 figure is provisional.
7. Data derived from Ministries of Labour and Interior, and include only those holding permanent and long-term residence permits.
8. Temporary residence permit holders only.
9. 2002 figure from the Census.
10. Foreign nationals with permanent residence visas.
11. Only permanent resident foreigners, Ministry of Interior, 1998.

Table 4

Stock of foreign population as a percentage of total population in selected European countries, 1995-2003 (per cent)

(a) Western Europe

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Austria	8.5	8.6	8.6	8.6	8.6	8.7	8.8	9.1	9.4
Belgium	9.0	9.0	8.9	8.8	8.8	8.4	8.2	8.2	—
Denmark	4.3	4.5	4.5	4.7	4.9	4.9	5.0	4.9	5.0
Finland	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.1
France	—	—	—	—	5.6	—	—	—	—
Germany	8.8	8.9	9.0	8.9	9.0	8.9	8.9	8.9	8.9
Greece	1.4	1.5	1.5	—	2.8	2.6	7.3	3.9	3.9
Iceland	1.8	1.9	2.1	2.4	2.6	3.2	3.5	3.6	3.5
Ireland	2.7	3.2	3.1	3.0	3.2	3.3	4.0	5.8	5.6
Italy	1.7	1.9	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.4	2.4	2.6	3.8
Luxembourg	32.7	33.6	34.3	35.0	35.8	36.8	37.5	37.5	38.9
Netherlands	4.7	4.4	4.4	4.2	4.1	4.2	4.3	4.3	4.3
Norway	3.7	3.6	3.6	3.7	4.0	4.1	4.1	4.4	4.5
Portugal	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.3	—	—
Spain	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.8	2.0	2.2	2.7	3.2	4.0
Sweden	6.0	6.0	5.9	5.7	5.5	5.4	5.4	5.3	5.3
Switzerland	19.0	18.9	18.9	19.0	19.2	19.3	19.7	19.9	20.1
Turkey	—	0.1	0.2	0.2	—	0.4	—	—	—
United Kingdom	3.3	3.3	3.5	3.7	3.7	3.9	4.3	4.5	4.8

(a) Central and Eastern Europe

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Bulgaria	1.0	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	—
Czech Republic	1.5	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.0	2.1	2.3	2.4
Estonia	—	—	—	23.2	21.1	20.9	20.0	19.8	—
Hungary	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.3
Latvia	0.3	0.5	0.7	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.4
Lithuania	—	—	—	—	—	—	0.9	0.9	0.9
Poland	—	0.1	0.1	—	0.1	—	—	0.1	—
Romania	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Russia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Slovak Republic	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Slovenia	2.4	2.2	2.1	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.2	—	2.3

Sources: Council of Europe, National Statistical Offices, OECD SOPEMI Correspondents

Notes:
see Table 3.

Table 5
Foreign population in EU and EFTA countries, as of 1 January 2000 (or latest year available)

Absolute figures

Year	B 2000	DK 1999	D 2000	EL 1997	E 2000	F 1999	IRL 2000	I 2000	L 1998	NL 2000	A 2000	P 2000	FIN 2000	S 2000	UK 1999	IS 2000	LI 1997	N 2000	CH 2000	EU 15 (2)	EFTA (2)	EEA (2)	EU & EFTA (2)
Total	853369	256276	7343591	161148	801329	3263186	126533	1270553	147700	651532	753528	190898	87680	487175	2297947	7271	11714	178686	1406630	18692445	1592587	18878402	20285032
Europe	661258	157203	5930311	97432	352974	1555679	92209	498170	-	333380	474728	56712	60171	330763	1057261	5094	11414	118354	1254001	11658251	1377449	11781699	13035700
EU 15 & EFTA	570531	72473	1905432	46789	326388	1225755	-	161024	-	200087	-	54253	17333	214757	874272	2941	9629	83355	810512	5669094	896808	5755390	6565902
EU 15	563556	53195	1858672	45020	312203	1195498	92209	148506	131410	195886	-	52429	16328	177430	859138	2617	5012	78482	807332	5701480	888431	5782579	6589911
EFTA	6975	19278	46760	1769	14185	30257	-	12518	-	4201	-	1824	1005	37327	15134	324	4617	4873	3180	191233	8377	196430	199610
Central and Eastern E	21544	46626	1969760	47264	25733	119849	-	328144	-	32468	340499	2361	41066	99424	118395	2142	985	31467	362624	3193133	396233	3226742	3589366
Other Europe	69183	38104	2055119	3379	853	210075	-	9002	-	100825	-	98	1772	16582	64594	11	800	3532	80865	2569586	84408	2573129	2653994
Africa	153356	23871	300611	13237	213012	1419758	-	411492	-	149764	-	89518	7791	27726	291388	184	18	11567	35446	3101524	47197	3113275	3148721
Americas	18744	9808	205373	19996	166709	81293	8044	120898	-	36484	-	35987	3649	31814	249669	828	178	14318	46955	988468	62101	1003614	1050569
Asia	19047	55524	823092	27884	66922	203432	-	236369	-	62368	-	7890	13813	84140	559042	1104	99	33274	67386	2159523	101764	2193901	2261287
Oceania	648	1110	10033	1242	1013	3024	-	3154	-	3168	-	516	495	2171	98669	56	5	761	2568	125243	3385	126060	128628
Other (3)	316	8760	74171	-	699	-	-	470	-	66368	278800	275	1761	10561	23846	5	34	412	274	466027	691	466444	466718

Proportion of total foreign population of reporting country (per cent)

Year	B 2000	DK 1999	D 2000	EL 1997	E 2000	F 1999	IRL 2000	I 2000	L 1998	NL 2000	A 2000	P 2000	FIN 2000	S 2000	UK 1999	IS 2000	LI 1997	N 2000	CH 2000	EU 15 (2)	EFTA (2)	EEA (2)	EU & EFTA (2)
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Europe	77.5	61.3	80.8	60.5	44.0	47.7	72.9	39.2	-	51.2	63.0	29.7	68.6	67.9	46.0	70.1	97.4	66.2	89.1	62.4	86.5	62.4	64.3
EU 15 & EFTA	66.9	28.3	25.9	29.0	40.7	37.6	-	12.7	-	30.7	-	28.4	19.8	44.1	38.0	40.4	82.2	46.6	57.6	30.3	56.3	30.5	32.4
EU 15	66.0	20.8	25.3	27.9	39.0	36.6	72.9	11.7	89.0	30.1	-	27.5	18.6	36.4	37.4	36.0	42.8	43.9	57.4	30.5	55.8	30.6	32.5
EFTA	0.8	7.5	0.6	1.1	1.8	0.9	-	1.0	-	0.6	-	1.0	1.1	7.7	0.7	4.5	39.4	2.7	0.2	1.0	0.5	1.0	1.0
Central and Eastern E	2.5	18.2	26.8	29.3	3.2	3.7	-	25.8	-	5.0	45.2	1.2	46.8	20.4	5.2	29.5	8.4	17.6	25.8	17.1	24.9	17.1	17.7
Other Europe	8.1	14.9	28.0	2.1	0.1	6.4	-	0.7	-	15.5	-	0.1	2.0	3.4	2.8	0.2	6.8	2.0	5.7	13.7	5.3	13.6	13.1
Africa	18.0	9.3	4.1	8.2	26.6	43.5	-	32.4	-	23.0	-	46.9	8.9	5.7	12.7	2.5	0.2	6.5	2.5	16.6	3.0	16.5	15.5
Americas	2.2	3.8	2.8	12.4	20.8	2.5	6.4	9.5	-	5.6	-	18.9	4.2	6.5	10.9	11.4	1.5	8.0	3.3	5.3	3.9	5.3	5.2
Asia	2.2	21.7	11.2	17.3	8.4	6.2	-	18.6	-	9.6	-	4.1	15.8	17.3	24.3	15.2	0.8	18.6	4.8	11.6	6.4	11.6	11.1
Oceania	0.1	0.4	0.1	0.8	0.1	0.1	-	0.2	-	0.5	-	0.3	0.6	0.4	4.3	0.8	0.0	0.4	0.2	0.7	0.2	0.7	0.6
Other (3)	0.0	3.4	1.0	-	0.1	-	-	0.0	-	10.2	37.0	0.1	2.0	2.2	1.0	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.0	2.5	0.0	2.5	2.3

Proportion of total foreign citizenship in EU and EFTA countries (per cent)

Year	B 2000	DK 1999	D 2000	EL 1997	E 2000	F 1999	IRL 2000	I 2000	L 1998	NL 2000	A 2000	P 2000	FIN 2000	S 2000	UK 1999	IS 2000	LI 1997	N 2000	CH 2000	EU 15 (2)	EFTA (2)	EEA (2)	EU & EFTA (2)
Total	4.2	1.3	36.2	0.8	4.0	16.1	0.6	6.3	0.7	3.2	3.7	0.9	0.4	2.4	11.3	0.0	0.1	0.9	6.9	92.1	7.9	93.1	100.0
Europe	5.1	1.2	45.5	0.7	2.7	11.9	0.7	3.8	-	2.6	3.6	0.4	0.5	2.5	8.1	0.0	0.1	0.9	9.6	89.4	10.6	90.4	100.0
EU 15 & EFTA	8.7	1.1	29.0	0.7	5.0	18.7	-	2.5	-	3.0	-	0.8	0.3	3.3	13.3	0.0	0.1	1.3	12.3	86.3	13.7	87.7	100.0
EU 15	8.6	0.8	28.2	0.7	4.7	18.1	1.4	2.3	2.0	3.0	-	0.8	0.2	2.7	13.0	0.0	0.1	1.2	12.3	86.5	13.5	87.7	100.0
EFTA	3.5	9.7	23.4	0.9	7.1	15.2	-	6.3	-	2.1	-	0.9	0.5	18.7	7.6	0.2	2.3	2.4	1.6	95.8	4.2	98.4	100.0
Central and Eastern E	0.6	1.3	54.9	1.3	0.7	3.3	-	9.1	-	0.9	9.5	0.1	1.1	2.8	3.3	0.1	0.0	0.9	10.1	89.0	11.0	89.9	100.0
Other Europe	2.6	1.4	77.4	0.1	0.0	7.9	-	0.3	-	3.8	-	0.0	0.1	0.6	2.4	0.0	0.0	0.1	3.0	96.8	3.2	97.0	100.0
Africa	4.9	0.8	9.5	0.4	6.8	45.1	-	13.1	-	4.8	-	2.8	0.2	0.9	9.3	0.0	0.0	0.4	1.1	98.5	1.5	98.9	100.0
Americas	1.8	0.9	19.5	1.9	15.9	7.7	0.8	11.5	-	3.5	-	3.4	0.3	3.0	23.8	0.1	0.0	1.4	4.5	94.1	5.9	95.5	100.0
Asia	0.8	2.5	36.4	1.2	3.0	9.0	-	10.5	-	2.8	-	0.3	0.6	3.7	24.7	0.0	0.0	1.5	3.0	95.5	4.5	97.0	100.0
Oceania	0.5	0.9	7.8	1.0	0.8	2.4	-	2.5	-	2.5	-	0.4	0.4	1.7	76.7	0.0	0.0	0.6	2.0	97.4	2.6	98.0	100.0
Other (3)	0.1	1.9	15.9	-	0.1	-	-	0.1	-	14.2	59.7	0.1	0.4	2.3	5.1	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	99.9	0.1	99.9	100.0

Source: Eurostat

Notes:

1. "-" refers to data which are unavailable.
3. These sub-totals have been constructed by summing relevant figures where available in the preceding columns. Therefore, owing to unavailable figures and data from different years, some of these figures are (under-)estimates.
5. Includes those not included in other categories, stateless and unknown.

Notes:

1. "-" refers to data which are unavailable.
2. For UK C&E Europe includes F. Soviet Union and Other Europe does not.
3. These sub-totals have been constructed by summing relevant figures where available in the preceding columns. Therefore, owing to unavailable figures and data from different years, some of these figures are (under-)estimates.
4. Includes Former USSR and Former Yugoslavia.
5. Includes those not included in other categories, stateless and unknown.

Table 6

Size of the foreign born and foreign-national populations in selected European countries, according to the 2001 (or latest) national census

	Foreign born	
	thousands	proportion of total population
Total	82627.1	7.8
Austria	1002.5	12.5
Belgium	1099.2	10.7
Czech Republic	448.5	4.5
Denmark	361.1	6.8
Finland	131.4	2.5
France	5868.2	10.0
Germany	10256.1	12.5
Greece	1122.6	10.3
Hungary	292.9	2.9
Ireland	400	10.4
Luxembourg	142.7	32.6
Netherlands	1615.4	10.1
Norway	333.8	7.3
Poland	775.3	2.1
Portugal	651.5	6.3
Slovak Republic	119.1	2.5
Spain	2172.2	5.3
Sweden	1077.6	12.0
Switzerland	1570.8	22.4
Turkey	1259.4	1.9
United Kingdom	4865.6	8.3

Source: National censuses, compiled and calculated by the OECD.

Table 7

Inflows of foreign population to selected European countries, 1995-2003 (thousands) (1)

(a) Western Europe

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Austria	–	57.1	56.9	59.2	72.4	66.0	75.0	–	–
Belgium	53.1	51.9	49.2	50.9	57.8	57.3	66.0	–	–
Denmark	39.0	31.4	27.3	28.7	26.5	29.0	31.4	29.3	27.5
Finland	7.3	7.5	8.1	8.3	7.9	9.1	11.0	10.0	9.4
France	77.0	75.5	102.4	139.5	114.9	126.8	141.0	–	–
Germany	792.7	707.9	615.3	605.5	673.9	649.2	685.3	658.3	601.8
Greece	20.2	22.2	22.1	12.6	–	–	–	–	–
Iceland	0.9	1.3	1.4	1.8	1.9	2.5	2.5	1.9	1.4
Ireland (2)	13.6	21.5	23.6	21.7	22.2	27.8	32.7	39.9	33.0
Italy	68.2	143.2	–	127.1	268.0	271.5	232.8	388.1	–
Liechtenstein	–	–	–	–	2.7	–	–	–	–
Luxembourg	10.3	10.0	10.4	11.6	12.8	11.8	11.2	11.0	11.5
Netherlands	67.0	77.2	76.7	81.7	78.4	91.4	94.5	86.6	73.6
Norway (3)	16.5	17.2	22.0	26.7	32.2	27.8	25.4	30.8	26.8
Portugal	5.0	3.6	3.3	6.5	14.5	18.4	19.0	17.0	13.8
Spain	19.5	16.7	35.6	57.2	99.1	330.9	394.0	443.1	429.5
Sweden (4)	36.1	35.4	33.4	35.7	34.6	42.6	44.1	47.6	45.3
Switzerland (5)	91.0	74.4	69.6	74.9	85.8	87.4	101.4	101.9	94.0
United Kingdom (6)	228.0	224.2	237.2	287.3	337.4	379.3	373.3	418.2	406.8

(b) Central and Eastern Europe

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Croatia	42.0	44.6	–	51.8	32.9	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.1
Czech Republic (7)	10.5	10.9	12.9	10.7	9.9	7.8	12.9	44.7	60.0
Estonia (10)	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.4	1.4	–	–	–
FYR Macedonia	1.0	0.6	0.6	–	1.2	1.2	1.2	2.3	–
Hungary (8)	14.0	13.7	13.3	16.1	20.2	20.2	20.3	15.7	–
Latvia (10)	2.8	2.7	2.9	3.1	1.8	1.6	1.1	1.2	1.1
Lithuania (10)	2.0	3.0	2.5	2.7	2.7	1.5	4.7	5.1	4.7
Poland (9)	8.1	8.2	8.4	8.9	7.5	7.3	6.6	6.6	7.0
Romania (11)	4.5	2.1	6.6	11.9	10.1	11.0	10.4	6.6	3.3
Russia	866.3	647.0	597.7	513.6	379.7	359.3	193.4	177.3	–
Slovak Republic	3.0	2.5	2.3	2.1	2.1	2.3	2.0	2.3	2.6
Slovenia	–	–	6.8	3.7	3.6	5.3	6.8	7.7	8.0

Sources: Council of Europe, National Statistical Offices, OECD SOPEMI Correspondents

NOTES:

1. Asylum seekers are excluded.
2. CSO immigration estimates.
3. Entries of foreigners intending to stay longer than six months in Norway.
4. Some short duration entries are not counted (mainly citizens of other Nordic countries).
5. Entries of foreigners with annual residence permits, and those with settlement permits (permanent permits) who return to Switzerland after a temporary stay abroad. Seasonal and frontier workers, and transformations are excluded.
6. Source: International Passenger Survey, ONS.
7. Immigrants are persons who have been granted a permanent residence permit.
8. Data refer to foreigners with long-term resident permits or immigration permits, except for foreigners with labour permits.
9. Immigrants are persons granted a permanent residence permit. Numbers may be underestimates since not all children accompanying immigrants are registered.
10. Recorded as "external" migration flows referring to non-Baltic countries.
11. Persons granted a permanent residence permit.

Table 8
Outflows of population from selected European countries, 1995-2003 (thousands)

(a) Outflows of of foreign nationals from Western Europe

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Austria	–	42.4	49.8	44.9	47.3	44.4	51.0	–	–
Belgium	33.1	22.0	23.5	32.5	24.4	35.6	24.5	–	–
Denmark	11.1	13.0	14.1	15.6	16.2	16.5	17.3	17.8	18.2
Finland	1.5	3.0	1.6	1.7	2.0	4.1	2.2	2.8	2.3
Germany (1)	567.4	559.1	637.1	639.0	555.6	562.8	497.0	505.6	499.1
Iceland	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.7	1.0	0.8	1.1	1.1	0.9
Italy	8.4	8.5	–	7.9	8.6	12.4	–	7.7	–
Luxembourg	5.7	6.4	6.6	7.8	8.0	8.1	7.6	8.3	9.4
Netherlands	21.7	22.4	21.9	21.3	20.7	20.7	20.4	21.2	21.9
Norway	9.0	10.0	10.0	12.0	12.7	14.9	15.2	12.3	14.3
Portugal	–	0.2	–	–	0.4	–	–	10.0	–
Sweden (3)	15.4	14.5	15.3	14.1	13.4	12.6	12.7	14.2	14.6
Switzerland (4)	69.4	71.9	67.9	59.0	58.1	56.8	52.7	49.7	46.3
United Kingdom	101.0	108.0	130.6	125.7	151.6	159.6	148.5	173.7	170.6

(b) Permanent emigration from Central and Eastern Europe

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Belarus	35.0	–	–	13.2	13.2	13.8	14.3	13.4	–
Bulgaria	55.0	62.0	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Croatia (9)	15.4	10.0	15.2	–	8.7	0.1	0.2	0.6	0.4
Czech Republic (5)	0.5	0.7	0.8	1.2	1.1	1.3	21.5	32.4	34.2
Estonia	9.8	7.2	4.5	3.0	2.0	1.2	0.9	–	–
FYR Macedonia	0.4	0.2	0.3	–	–	0.2	0.5	0.1	–
Hungary (8)	2.4	2.8	1.9	2.3	2.5	2.2	1.9	1.8	–
Latvia	13.3	10.0	9.7	6.3	3.7	3.5	6.6	2.5	1.6
Lithuania	3.8	3.9	2.5	2.1	1.4	2.6	7.3	7.0	11.0
Poland (6)	26.3	21.3	20.2	22.2	21.5	26.9	23.3	24.5	20.8
Romania (7)	–	4.8	3.1	2.3	1.3	1.3	0.9	0.7	0.8
Russia	340.0	388.0	233.0	213.4	215.0	145.7	121.2	105.5	–
Slovak Republic	0.2	0.2	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.8	1.0	1.4	1.2
Slovenia	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	4.6	4.0
Ukraine	2.6	–	4.6	–	110.6	110.3	88.8	–	–

Sources: Council of Europe, National Statistical Offices, OECD SOPEMI Correspondents

NOTES:

1. Data includes registered exits of asylum seekers.
2. CSO emigration estimates. Figures refer to total emigration (including nationals).
3. Some foreign citizens (in particular from other Nordic countries) are not included.
4. Exits of foreigners with annual residence permits and holders of settlement permits (permanent permits).
5. Includes only emigrants who report their departure.
6. Only persons who register their intention to establish a permanent residence abroad with the authorities are included in statistics.
7. Foreign nationals emigrating.
8. 1997 figure - Source: HCSO. Data refer to foreigners with long-term resident permits or immigration permits except for foreigners with labour permits.
9. Includes only emigrants who report their departure.

Table 9

Net population flows of selected European countries, 1995-2003 (thousands)

(a) Western Europe

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2003 or latest year
Austria	-	14.7	7.1	14.3	25.1	21.6	24.0	-	-	24.0
Belgium	20.0	29.9	25.7	18.4	33.4	21.7	41.5	-	-	41.5
Denmark	27.9	18.4	13.2	13.1	10.3	12.5	14.1	11.5	9.3	9.3
Finland	5.8	4.5	6.5	6.6	5.9	5.0	8.8	7.2	7.1	7.1
Germany	225.3	148.8	-21.8	-33.5	118.3	86.4	188.3	152.7	102.7	102.7
Iceland	0.2	0.6	0.6	1.1	0.9	1.7	1.4	0.8	0.5	0.5
Italy	59.8	134.7	-	119.2	259.4	259.1	-	380.4	-	380.4
Luxembourg	4.6	3.6	3.8	3.8	4.8	3.7	3.6	2.7	2.1	2.1
Netherlands	45.3	54.8	54.8	60.4	57.7	70.7	74.1	65.4	51.7	51.7
Norway	7.5	7.2	12.0	14.7	19.5	12.9	10.2	18.5	12.5	12.5
Portugal	-	3.4	-	-	14.1	-	-	7.0	-	7.0
Sweden	20.7	20.9	18.1	21.6	21.2	30.0	31.4	33.4	30.7	30.7
Switzerland	21.6	2.5	1.7	15.9	27.7	30.6	48.7	52.2	47.7	47.7
United Kingdom	127.0	116.2	106.6	161.6	185.8	219.7	224.8	244.5	236.2	236.2
									Total	953.4

(b) Central and Eastern Europe

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2003 or latest year
Croatia	26.6	34.6	-	-	24.2	2.0	1.9	1.4	1.7	1.7
Czech Republic	10.0	10.2	12.1	9.5	8.8	6.5	-8.6	12.3	25.8	25.8
Estonia	-8.2	-5.6	-2.9	-1.4	-0.6	0.2	-	-	-	0.2
FYR Macedonia	0.6	0.4	0.3	-	-	1.0	0.7	2.2	-	2.2
Hungary	11.6	10.9	11.4	13.8	17.7	18.0	18.4	13.9	-	13.9
Latvia	-10.5	-7.3	-6.8	-3.2	-1.9	-1.9	-5.5	-1.3	-0.5	-0.5
Lithuania	-1.8	-0.9	0.0	0.6	1.3	-1.1	-2.6	-1.9	-6.3	-6.3
Poland	-18.2	-13.1	-11.8	-13.3	-14.0	-19.6	-16.7	-17.9	-13.8	-13.8
Romania	-	-2.7	3.5	9.6	8.8	9.7	9.5	5.9	2.5	2.5
Russia	526.3	259.0	364.7	300.2	164.7	213.6	72.2	71.8	-	71.8
Slovak Republic	2.8	2.3	1.7	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.0	0.9	1.4	1.4
Slovenia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.1	4.0	4.0
									Total	102.9

Sources: Council of Europe, National Statistical Offices, OECD SOPEMI Correspondents

Notes:

See Table 6 and 7.

Table 10
Migration flows for Eastern European and Central Asia countries, 2000

		Absolute figures (thousands)			Proportions (per cent)		
		Inflow	Outflow	Net Flow	In Flow	Out Flow	Gross Flow
Armenia	Total	1.6	12.5	-10.9	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Within region	1.6	12.0	-10.4	99.6	96.4	96.5
	Outside region	0.0	0.5	-0.4	0.4	3.6	3.5
Azerbaijan	Total	4.4	9.9	-5.6	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Within region	4.3	9.5	-5.3	97.5	95.7	96.5
	Outside region	0.1	0.4	-0.3	2.5	4.3	3.5
Belarus	Total	25.9	13.8	12.1	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Within region	24.2	7.4	16.8	93.4	53.7	79.6
	Outside region	1.7	6.4	-4.7	6.6	46.3	20.4
Georgia	Total	2.3	21.5	-19.2	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Within region	2.3	21.5	-19.2	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Outside region	-	-	-	-	-	-
Kazakhstan	Total	33.6	156.8	-123.2	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Within region	31.6	117.5	-85.9	94.0	74.9	78.3
	Outside region	2.0	39.4	-37.3	6.0	25.1	21.7
Kyrgyzstan	Total	5.3	27.9	-22.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Within region	5.3	24.7	-19.4	99.1	88.7	90.4
	Outside region	0.0	3.2	-3.1	0.9	11.3	9.6
Moldova	Total	5.0	20.5	-15.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Within region	4.0	16.6	-12.6	80.0	81.0	80.8
	Outside region	1.0	3.9	-2.9	20.0	19.0	19.2
Russia	Total	359.3	145.7	213.6	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Within region	350.3	83.4	266.9	97.5	57.3	85.9
	Outside region	9.0	62.3	-53.2	2.5	42.7	14.1
Tajikistan	Total	8.7	13.2	-4.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Within region	2.0	13.1	-11.1	22.9	99.3	68.9
	Outside region	6.7	0.1	6.6	77.1	0.7	31.1
Turkmenistan	Total	1.2	10.7	-9.5	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Within region	1.2	10.2	-9.0	96.3	95.5	95.8
	Outside region	0.0	0.5	-0.4	3.7	4.5	4.2
Ukraine	Total	53.7	100.3	-46.6	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Within region	49.7	55.4	-5.7	92.6	55.2	68.2
	Outside region	4.0	44.9	-40.9	7.4	44.8	31.8
Uzbekistan	Total	5.4	62.5	-57.1	100.0	100.0	100.0
	Within region	5.0	57.8	-52.8	92.4	92.4	92.5
	Outside region	0.4	4.7	-4.3	7.6	7.6	7.5

Source: IOM 2002

Note

"region" refers to the EECA and Baltic States (former Soviet Union)

Table 11

Percentage of total immigration/emigration by previous/next residence, 2001 or latest year available

	Immigration					Emigration				
	EU & EFTA	C&E Europe	Other Europe	Europe	Rest of World	EU & EFTA	C&E Europe	Other Europe	Europe	Rest of World
Austria	29.3	41.8	9.2	80.3	19.7	36.4	39.6	5.4	81.4	18.6
Croatia (1)	12.5	74.1	0.0	86.6	13.4	3.9	20.9	0.0	24.8	75.2
Czech Republic (2)	11.8	66.7	0.2	78.7	21.3	56.8	31.3	0.3	88.4	11.6
Denmark	40.7	10.2	4.1	55.0	45.0	52.6	6.6	3.8	63.0	37.0
Estonia (2)	15.3	75.3	0.0	90.6	9.4	40.8	47.6	-0.1	88.3	11.7
Finland	44.1	28.4	1.9	74.4	25.6	76.0	6.0	0.4	82.4	17.6
FYR Macedonia	1.5	97.4	0.2	99.1	0.9	1.3	80.1	18.3	99.7	0.3
Germany	19.1	41.0	6.5	66.6	33.4	29.1	38.0	6.3	73.4	26.6
Iceland (3)	63.6	16.1	0.3	80.0	20.0	82.2	4.0	0.2	86.4	13.6
Italy (3)	14.0	34.9	0.6	49.5	50.5	56.6	7.0	1.3	64.9	35.1
Latvia (4)	12.3	64.5	0.1	76.9	23.1	16.6	63.3	0.0	79.9	20.1
Liechtenstein (2)	3.4	81.4	0.0	84.8	15.2	12.2	57.9	0.0	70.1	29.9
Lithuania (4)	13.0	66.0	0.4	79.4	20.6	20.9	57.0	0.1	78.0	22.0
Netherlands	27.6	8.8	4.9	41.3	58.7	57.9	3.6	1.7	63.2	36.8
Norway	44.9	10.9	2.1	57.9	42.1	63.3	8.4	0.6	72.3	27.7
Poland	53.2	14.6	0.3	68.1	31.9	82.7	0.6	0.0	83.3	16.7
Portugal (4)	44.0	2.3	0.1	46.4	53.6	82.2	0.0	0.0	82.2	17.8
Romania (5)	5.5	89.2	0.3	95.0	5.0	60.5	7.9	0.8	69.2	30.8
Slovakia	13.9	67.9	0.8	82.6	17.4	42.6	43.2	0.2	86.0	14.0
Slovenia (4)	5.4	5.6	0.1	11.1	88.9	29.3	59.0	0.6	88.9	11.1
Spain (4)	14.1	14.6	0.2	28.9	71.1	0.6	0.0	14.5	15.0	85.0
Sweden	42.2	12.3	2.2	56.7	43.3	64.0	3.8	0.7	68.5	31.5
United Kingdom (4)	22.8	2.3	2.1	27.2	72.8	33.6	2.3	0.8	36.7	63.3

Source: Eurostat

Notes:

1. Emigration figure refers to 1999.
2. Figures refer to 1999.
3. Figures refer to 2000.
4. Emigration figure refers to 2000.
5. Emigration figure refers to 1997.

Table 12
Stocks of foreign labour in selected European countries, 1995-2003 (thousands)

(A) Western Europe (1)

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Austria (2)	300.3	300.4	298.8	298.6	306.4	319.9	329.3	334.4	350.4
Belgium (3)	328.8	343.8	377.4	390.7	386.2	–	388.6	–	–
Denmark (4)	83.8	88.0	93.9	98.3	96.3	96.8	106.6	–	–
Finland	25.5	29.7	32.5	36.0	37.2	40.7	45.4	46.1	–
France (5)	1573.3	1604.7	1569.8	1586.7	1593.9	1577.6	1617.6	–	–
Germany (6)	–	2119.6	2044.2	2030.3	1924.8	1963.6	2008.1	1960.0	1964.1
Greece (7)	27.4	28.7	29.4	–	204.6	184.0	157.4	203.6	233.5
Ireland	42.1	43.4	51.7	53.3	57.7	63.9	82.1	–	–
Italy (8)	332.2	580.6	539.8	614.0	747.6	850.7	1338.2	–	–
Luxembourg (9)	111.8	117.8	124.8	134.6	145.7	157.5	170.7	177.6	182.8
Netherlands (10)	221.0	218.0	208.0	235.0	–	–	–	–	–
Norway (11)	52.6	54.8	59.9	66.9	104.6	111.2	–	–	92.3
Portugal (12)	84.3	86.8	87.9	88.6	91.6	99.8	–	–	–
Spain (13)	139.0	166.5	178.7	197.1	199.8	454.6	607.1	831.7	925.3
Sweden	220.0	218.0	220.0	219.0	222.0	222.0	226.0	–	–
Switzerland (14)	729.0	709.1	692.8	691.1	701.2	717.3	738.8	830.0	809.0
Turkey	–	16.3	21.0	23.4	–	82.8	–	–	–
United Kingdom (15)	862.0	865.0	949.0	1039.0	1005.0	1107.5	1243.0	1303.0	1396.0

(B) Central And Eastern Europe

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Albania	–	0.4	0.7	–	–	–	–	–	–
Czech Republic(16)	148.9	188.7	194.3	156.5	151.9	165.0	167.7	161.7	168.0
Estonia	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	111.0
Hungary (17)	21.0	18.8	20.4	22.4	28.5	35.0	38.6	42.7	48.7
Latvia	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	7.0
Lithuania	0.4	0.5	1.0	–	1.2	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.6
Romania (18)	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.3	1.5	1.6	2.1	1.5	1.9
Russia (19)	–	292.2	241.5	–	–	–	–	–	–
Slovenia (20)	–	–	36.1	33.9	40.3	37.8	34.8	35.3	32.1
Slovak Republic (21)	2.7	3.3	3.8	3.7	2.6	2.5	2.5	2.7	2.7

Sources: Council of Europe, National Statistical Offices, OECD SOPEMI Correspondents

NOTES:

1. Includes the unemployed, except in Benelux and the U.K. Frontier and seasonal workers are excluded unless otherwise stated.
2. Annual average. Work permits delivered plus permits still valid. Figures may be over-estimated because some persons hold more than one permit. Self-employed are excluded.
3. Excludes the unemployed and self-employed.
4. Data from population registers and give the count as of the end of November each year except December (end of December).
5. Data as of March each year derived from the labour force survey.
6. Data refer to employed foreigners who are liable for compulsory social insurance contributions.
7. Excludes the unemployed. From 2001 constitutes foreign nationals, over the age of 15 years old, in employment.
8. Work permit holders.
9. Data as of 1 October each year. Foreigners in employment, including apprentices, trainees and frontier workers. Excludes the unemployed.
10. Estimates as of 31 March, including frontier workers, but excluding the self-employed and their family members as well as the unemployed.
11. Excludes unemployed.
12. Excludes unemployed.
13. Data derived from the annual labour force survey. There is a break in the series between 1999 and 2000. Figures from 2000 onwards include
14. Data as of 31 December each year. Numbers of foreigners with annual residence permits and holders of settlement permits (permanent permits) who engage in gainful activity.
15. Excludes the unemployed.
16. Source: Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs.
17. 1996 figure for first half of year. Valid work permits.
18. Total work permit holders.
19. Source: Federal Migration Service, 1998.
20. Total work permit holders. Source: Slovenian Employment Service.
21. Total work permit holders.

Table 13

Inflows of foreign labour into selected European countries, 1995-2003 (thousands)

(a) Western Europe

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Austria (1)	15.4	16.3	15.2	15.4	18.3	25.4	27.0	24.6	24.1
Belgium	2.7	2.2	2.5	7.3	8.7	7.5	7.0	–	–
Denmark (2)	2.2	2.7	3.1	3.2	3.1	3.6	5.1	5.3	–
Finland	–	–	–	–	–	10.4	14.1	20.1	24.2
France (3)	13.1	11.5	11.0	10.3	10.9	11.3	–	–	–
Germany (4)	470.0	439.7	451.0	402.6	433.7	473.0	553.7	529.6	502.7
Ireland (5)	–	–	–	3.8	4.6	15.7	30.0	23.8	22.5
Luxembourg (6)	16.5	18.3	18.6	22.0	24.2	27.3	–	22.4	22.6
Netherlands (7)	–	9.2	11.1	15.2	20.8	27.7	30.2	34.6	38.0
Portugal	2.2	1.5	1.3	2.6	4.2	7.8	6.1	–	–
Spain (8)	29.6	31.0	30.1	53.7	56.1	74.1	41.6	–	–
Sweden	–	–	–	2.4	2.4	3.3	3.3	–	–
Switzerland (9)	32.9	29.8	25.4	26.8	31.5	34.0	–	–	–
United Kingdom (10)	51.0	50.0	59.0	68.0	61.2	86.5	76.2	99.0	80.0

(b) Central and Eastern Europe

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Bulgaria (11)	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	–	–
Czech Republic (12)	–	71.0	61.0	49.9	40.3	40.1	40.1	44.6	47.7
Hungary	–	–	24.2	26.3	34.1	40.2	47.3	49.8	57.4
Poland (13)	10.5	13.7	17.5	–	17.1	17.8	–	22.8	18.8
Romania (14)	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.3	1.5	–	–	–	–
Slovak Republic (15)	3.0	3.3	3.2	2.5	2.0	1.8	2.0	–	–

Sources: Council of Europe, National Statistical Offices, OECD SOPEMI Correspondents

Notes:

1. Data for all years covers initial work permits for both direct inflow from abroad and for first participation in the Austrian labour market of foreigners already in the country.
 2. Residence permits issued for employment. Nordic citizens are not included.
 3. Issue of initial work permits for non-EU-residents.
 4. Break in series 1998-1999.
 5. Work permits issued for non-EU nationals.
 6. Data cover both arrivals of foreign workers and residents admitted for the first time to the labour market.
 7. Number of temporary work permits (WAV). 2002 data refer to January-September.
- Source: CWI.
8. Work permits granted.
 9. Seasonal and frontier workers are not taken included.
 10. Data from the Labour Force Survey.
 11. Work permits, new and extensions.
 12. Work permits issued for foreigners.
 13. Numbers of Individual work permits.
 14. New work permits issued to foreign citizens.
 15. Work permits granted. Czech nationals do not need work permits in Slovakia.

Table 14

Asylum applications in selected European countries, 1995-2003 (thousands)

a) Western Europe

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Austria	5.9	7.0	6.7	13.8	20.1	18.3	30.1	39.4	32.3
Belgium	11.4	12.4	11.8	22.0	35.8	42.7	24.6	18.8	16.9
Denmark	5.1	5.9	5.1	9.4	12.3	12.2	12.5	6.1	4.6
Finland	0.9	0.7	1.0	1.3	3.1	3.2	1.7	3.4	3.1
France	20.4	17.4	21.4	22.4	30.9	38.8	47.3	51.1	51.4
Germany	127.9	116.4	104.4	98.6	95.1	78.6	88.3	71.1	50.6
Greece	1.3	1.6	4.4	3.0	1.5	3.1	5.5	5.7	8.2
Iceland	0.0	–	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1
Ireland	0.4	1.2	3.9	4.6	7.7	11.1	10.3	11.6	7.9
Italy	1.7	0.7	1.9	11.1	33.4	15.6	9.6	7.3	–
Liechtenstein	–	–	–	0.2	0.5	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1
Luxembourg	0.4	0.3	0.4	1.7	2.9	0.6	0.7	1.0	1.6
Netherlands	29.3	22.2	34.4	45.2	42.7	43.9	32.6	18.7	13.4
Norway	1.5	1.8	2.3	8.4	10.2	10.8	14.8	17.5	16.0
Portugal	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.1
Spain	5.7	4.7	5.0	6.7	8.4	7.9	9.5	6.3	5.8
Sweden	9.1	5.8	9.7	12.8	11.2	16.3	23.5	33.0	31.4
Switzerland	17.0	18.0	24.0	41.3	46.1	17.6	20.6	26.1	21.1
United Kingdom	55.0	37.0	41.5	58.5	91.2	98.9	91.6	103.1	61.1
Totals (Western Europe)	293.5	253.4	278.2	361.4	453.4	419.8	423.6	420.7	325.6

b) Central and Eastern Europe

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Bulgaria	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.8	1.3	1.8	2.4	2.9	1.6
Czech Republic	1.4	2.2	2.1	4.1	7.3	8.8	18.1	8.5	11.4
Estonia	–	–	–	0.0	0.0	–	0.0	0.0	0.0
Hungary	0.1	0.2	0.2	7.1	11.5	7.8	9.6	6.4	2.4
Latvia	–	–	–	0.1	0.0	–	0.0	0.0	0.0
Lithuania	–	–	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2
Poland	0.8	3.2	3.5	3.4	3.0	4.6	4.5	5.2	6.9
Romania	–	0.6	1.4	1.2	1.7	1.4	2.4	1.2	1.1
Slovakia	0.4	0.4	0.7	0.5	1.3	1.6	8.2	9.7	10.3
Slovenia	–	0.0	0.1	0.5	0.9	9.2	1.5	0.7	1.1
Totals (Central and Eastern Europe)	3.2	6.9	8.7	17.9	27.1	35.4	47.0	34.9	35.0

Source: Governments, UNHCR. Compiled by UNHCR (Population Data Unit).

Table 15
Asylum applications in EU and EFTA countries, 1985, 1992, 1999-2003 (thousands)

	1985			1992			1999			2000			2001			2002			2003		
	absolute figures	proportion of EU & EFTA total (per cent)	per 10,000 population	absolute figures	proportion of EU & EFTA total (per cent)	per 10,000 population	absolute figures	proportion of EU & EFTA total (per cent)	per 10,000 population	absolute figures	proportion of EU & EFTA total (per cent)	per 10,000 population	absolute figures	proportion of EU & EFTA total (per cent)	per 10,000 population	absolute figures	proportion of EU & EFTA total (per cent)	per 10,000 population	absolute figures	proportion of EU & EFTA total (per cent)	per 10,000 population
EU 15	159.2	93.8	4.4	672.4	96.7	18.3	396.6	87.5	10.6	391.4	93.2	10.4	388.0	91.6	10.3	376.9	89.6	9.9	295.6	88.8	7.8
Austria	6.7	4.0	8.9	16.2	2.3	20.6	20.1	4.4	25.2	18.3	4.4	22.9	30.1	7.1	37.5	39.4	9.4	49.0	32.3	9.7	40.0
Belgium	5.4	3.2	5.5	17.7	2.5	17.6	35.8	7.9	35.0	42.7	10.2	41.7	24.6	5.8	24.0	18.8	4.5	18.2	16.9	5.1	16.3
Denmark	8.7	5.1	17.0	13.9	2.0	26.9	12.3	2.7	23.1	12.2	2.9	22.9	12.5	3.0	23.4	6.1	1.4	11.4	4.6	1.4	8.5
Finland	0	0.0	0.0	3.6	0.5	7.2	3.1	0.7	6.0	3.2	0.8	6.2	1.7	0.4	3.3	3.4	0.8	6.5	3.1	0.9	6.0
France	28.9	17.0	5.2	28.9	4.2	5.0	30.9	6.8	5.3	38.8	9.2	6.6	47.3	11.2	8.0	51.1	12.1	8.6	51.4	15.4	8.6
Germany	73.8	43.5	9.5	438.2	63.0	54.6	95.1	21.0	11.6	78.6	18.7	9.6	88.3	20.8	10.7	71.1	16.9	8.6	50.5	15.2	6.1
Greece	1.4	0.8	1.4	2.1	0.3	2.0	1.5	0.3	1.4	3.1	0.7	2.8	5.5	1.3	5.0	5.7	1.4	5.2	8.2	2.5	7.5
Ireland	-	-	-	0	0.0	0.1	7.7	1.7	20.6	11.1	2.6	29.4	10.3	2.4	26.9	11.6	2.8	29.7	7.9	2.4	19.9
Italy	5.4	3.2	1.0	2.6	0.4	0.5	33.4	7.4	5.8	15.6	3.7	2.7	9.6	2.3	1.7	7.3	1.7	1.3	-	-	-
Luxembourg	0.1	0.0	2.1	0.1	0.0	3.1	2.9	0.6	67.9	0.6	0.1	13.8	0.7	0.2	15.9	1.0	0.2	22.5	1.6	0.5	35.7
Netherlands	5.6	3.3	3.9	20.3	2.9	13.4	42.7	9.4	27.1	43.9	10.5	27.7	32.6	7.7	20.4	18.7	4.4	11.6	13.4	4.0	8.3
Portugal	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.7	0.1	0.7	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.0	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.0	0.1
Spain	2.3	1.4	0.6	11.7	1.7	3.0	8.4	1.9	2.1	7.9	1.9	2.0	9.5	2.2	2.4	6.3	1.5	1.5	5.8	1.7	1.4
Sweden	14.5	8.5	17.4	84	12.1	97.2	11.2	2.5	12.6	16.3	3.9	18.4	23.5	5.5	26.5	33.0	7.8	37.0	31.4	9.4	35.1
United Kingdom	6.2	3.7	1.1	32.3	4.6	5.6	91.2	20.1	15.6	98.9	23.6	16.9	91.6	21.6	15.6	103.1	24.5	17.5	61.1	18.4	10.3
EU 15 + EFTA 4	10.5	6.2	9.7	23.2	3.3	20.3	56.8	12.5	47.8	28.4	6.8	23.8	35.6	8.4	29.6	43.8	10.4	36.2	37.3	11.2	30.6
Iceland	-	-	-	0	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	3.5	0.1	0.0	3.5	0.1	0.0	3.5
Liechtenstein	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.5	0.1	156.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	30.3	0.1	0.0	29.4	0.1	0.0	29.4
Norway	0.8	0.5	2.0	5.2	0.8	12.3	10.2	2.2	22.9	10.8	2.6	24.1	14.8	3.5	32.9	17.5	4.2	38.7	16.0	4.8	35.1
Switzerland	9.7	5.7	15.0	18	2.6	26.2	46.1	10.2	64.7	17.6	4.2	24.6	20.6	4.9	28.6	26.1	6.2	35.9	21.1	6.3	28.8
EU 15 + EFTA 4	169.7	100.0	4.6	695.6	100.0	18.4	453.4	100.0	11.7	419.8	100.0	10.8	423.6	100.0	10.9	420.7	100.0	10.8	332.9	100.0	8.5

Source: UNHCR, Eurostat

Notes:
EFTA: 1985, 1999 estimated
EU15: 1985, 2003 estimated

Table 16
Number of initial decisions made on asylum applications and corresponding recognition rates for selected European countries, 2000-03

	2000				2001				2002				2003															
	Convention number	Humanitarian number	Refusals number	Total (1) number	Convention number	Humanitarian number	Refusals number	Total (1) number	Convention number	Humanitarian number	Refusals number	Total (1) number	Convention number	Humanitarian number	Refusals number	Total (1) number												
Total	55057	15.7	51764	14.7	244732	69.6	351553	53557	13.9	57425	14.9	273623	71.1	384605	37243	9.7	43946	11.4	304009	78.9	385198	29485	8.5	27441	7.9	289078	83.5	346004
Western Europe	49299	16.1	49962	16.3	206738	67.6	305999	47035	13.7	54849	15.9	242494	70.4	344378	32322	9.6	40938	12.1	263942	78.3	337202	25266	8.3	23496	7.7	255474	84.0	304236
Austria	1002	17.3	0	0.0	4787	82.7	5789	1152	23.1	0	0.0	3840	76.9	4992	1073	20.0	0	0.0	4285	80.0	5358	2084	29.6	0	0.0	4951	70.4	7035
Belgium	1192	23.5	750	14.8	3133	61.7	5075	898	26.5	0	0.0	2486	73.5	3384	1166	25.4	0	0.0	3427	74.6	4593	1201	23.1	0	0.0	3988	76.9	5189
Denmark	1202	17.1	2265	32.1	3579	50.8	7046	1857	21.2	2740	31.4	4142	47.4	8739	1134	12.7	1389	15.5	6428	71.8	8951	500	14.5	270	7.8	2683	77.7	3453
Finland	9	0.7	458	35.3	832	64.0	1299	4	0.3	809	55.4	646	44.3	1459	14	0.8	577	34.6	1078	64.6	1669	8	0.5	486	29.5	1152	70.0	1646
France	5185	17.1	0	0.0	25093	82.9	30278	7323	17.0	0	0.0	35730	83.0	43053	8495	16.2	0	0.0	43880	83.8	52375	9790	14.1	0	0.0	59818	85.9	69608
Germany	10894	15.0	1363	1.9	60274	83.1	72531	17547	23.6	2395	3.2	54279	73.1	74221	6034	7.2	1016	1.2	77124	91.6	84174	2854	4.3	1174	1.8	61721	93.9	65749
Iceland	1	3.6	2	7.1	25	89.3	28	0	0.0	1	7.1	13	92.9	14	0	0.0	1	1.9	51	98.1	52	0	0.0	7	10.6	59	89.4	66
Ireland	211	4.2	0	0.0	4767	95.8	4978	456	9.0	69	1.4	4532	89.6	5057	893	12.8	111	1.6	5966	85.6	6970	345	5.9	0	0.0	5460	94.1	5805
Liechtenstein	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	0.0	8	18.2	36	81.8	44	0	0.0	25	55.6	20	44.4	45	0	0.0	12	12.0	88	88.0	100
Luxembourg	17	0.9	42	2.3	1782	96.8	1841	89	4.5	353	17.9	1531	77.6	1973	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	62	6.9	149	16.5	690	76.6	901
Netherlands	896	11.6	5968	77.2	869	11.2	7733	244	1.1	5161	23.4	16647	75.5	22052	198	0.7	3359	11.2	26471	88.2	30028	393	2.0	4228	22.0	14560	75.9	19181
Norway	97	1.2	2856	36.4	4899	62.4	7852	292	2.2	4036	30.3	8976	67.5	13304	332	2.7	2958	23.9	9066	73.4	12356	577	4.7	2962	24.3	8640	70.9	12179
Sweden	343	2.1	6647	41.6	8983	56.2	15973	165	1.1	4330	28.6	10644	70.3	15139	264	1.1	4860	20.6	18496	78.3	23620	435	1.7	3090	11.8	22560	86.5	26085
Switzerland	2061	4.7	16966	38.7	24759	56.5	43786	2253	9.5	8922	37.7	12470	52.7	23645	1729	8.9	4172	21.5	13500	69.6	19401	1638	8.3	3314	16.8	14739	74.9	19691
United Kingdom	26189	25.7	12645	12.4	62956	61.8	101790	14755	11.6	26025	20.4	86522	68.0	127302	10990	12.5	22470	25.6	54150	61.8	87610	5379	8.0	7804	11.6	54365	80.5	67548
Southern Europe	5051	14.7	604	1.8	28646	83.5	34301	5514	24.5	1036	4.6	16002	71.0	22552	4333	13.6	958	3.0	26675	83.4	31966	3541	13.7	2653	10.3	19559	75.9	25753
Cyprus	39	14.9	0	0.0	223	85.1	262	36	11.0	0	0.0	291	89.0	327	92	10.8	0	0.0	762	89.2	854	180	11.1	1	0.1	1445	88.9	1626
Greece	222	11.3	175	8.9	1573	79.8	1970	147	11.2	148	11.3	1017	77.5	1312	36	0.4	64	0.7	9278	98.9	9378	3	0.1	25	0.5	4523	99.4	4551
Italy	1649	6.6	0	0.0	23255	93.4	24904	2102	15.9	564	4.3	10553	79.8	13219	1121	7.6	704	4.8	12888	87.6	14713	726	5.4	2181	16.3	10501	78.3	13408
Malta	28	38.4	1	1.4	44	60.3	73	39	41.5	24	25.5	31	33.0	94	20	4.8	101	24.1	298	71.1	419	49	9.1	268	49.7	222	41.2	539
Portugal	16	17.0	46	48.9	32	34.0	94	7	14.6	34	70.8	7	14.6	48	14	8.8	16	10.1	129	81.1	159	2	9.1	11	50.0	9	40.9	22
Spain	381	14.7	382	14.8	1821	70.5	2584	314	12.2	266	10.4	1989	77.4	2569	165	10.4	73	4.6	1352	85.0	1590	238	8.6	167	6.1	2350	85.3	2755
Turkey	2716	61.5	0	0.0	1698	38.5	4414	2869	57.6	0	0.0	2114	42.4	4983	2885	59.4	0	0.0	1968	40.6	4853	2343	82.2	0	0.0	509	17.8	2852
Central and Eastern Europe	707	6.3	1198	10.6	9348	83.1	11253	1008	5.7	1540	8.7	15127	85.6	17675	588	3.7	2050	12.8	13392	83.5	16030	678	4.2	1292	8.1	14045	87.7	16015
Bulgaria	267	22.3	421	35.2	509	42.5	1197	385	17.5	1185	53.8	633	28.7	2203	75	5.0	646	43.3	770	51.6	1491	19	1.3	411	28.0	1036	70.7	1466
Czech Rep.	88	4.8	0	0.0	1736	95.2	1824	75	1.2	0	0.0	6032	98.8	6107	101	1.9	0	0.0	5154	98.1	5255	187	2.3	0	0.0	7838	97.7	8025
Estonia	4	57.1	0	0.0	3	42.9	7	0	0.0	3	50.0	3	50.0	6	0	0.0	0	0.0	20	100.0	20	0	0.0	0	0.0	14	100.0	14
Hungary	197	5.1	680	17.6	2978	77.3	3855	174	5.0	290	8.4	2995	86.6	3459	104	3.9	1304	48.6	1274	47.5	2682	178	10.3	772	44.8	773	44.9	1723
Latvia	1	25.0	0	0.0	3	75.0	4	1	6.7	0	0.0	14	93.3	15	0	0.0	3	15.8	16	84.2	19	0	0.0	6	54.5	5	45.5	11
Lithuania	3	3.7	0	0.0	79	96.3	82	0	0.0	0	0.0	145	100.0	145	1	1.0	80	76.2	24	22.9	105	3	4.1	32	43.2	39	52.7	74
Poland	52	2.0	0	0.0	2519	98.0	2571	271	8.7	0	0.0	2846	91.3	3117	250	5.1	0	0.0	4677	94.9	4927	221	6.6	24	0.7	3099	92.7	3344
Romania	85	5.9	86	6.0	1271	88.1	1442	83	3.5	38	1.6	2232	94.9	2353	36	3.6	15	1.5	952	94.9	1003	42	5.8	27	3.7	655	90.5	724
Slovakia	10	7.5	0	0.0	123	92.5	133	18	12.2	0	0.0	130	87.8	148	20	6.2	0	0.0	303	93.8	323	11	2.5	0	0.0	421	97.5	432
Slovenia	0	0.0	11	8.0	127	92.0	138	1	0.8	24	19.7	97	79.5	122	1	0.5	2	1.0	202	98.5	205	17	8.4	20	9.9	165	81.7	202

Source: UNHCR

Notes:

1. "Total" refers to the sum of the substantive decisions: Convention recognition, humanitarian leave to remain and refusals. Other closures of cases, such as withdrawals, are not included.

Table 17

Asylum applications made by unaccompanied and separated children in selected European countries, 2000-03

	2000		2001		2002		2003	
	number	% of total apps	number	% of total apps	number	% of total apps	number	% of total apps
Total	15858	4.2	20127	5.1	20241	5.4	12781	4.2
Austria	553	3	3484	11.6	3163	8	2049	6.3
Belgium	848	2	747	3	603	3.2	589	3.5
Bulgaria	44	2.5	–	–	205	7.1	152	9.8
Croatia	0	–	2	2.4	4	4	6	9.5
Cyprus	1	0.2	0	–	0	–	2	0
Czech Rep.	298	3.4	280	1.5	216	2.5	129	1.1
Denmark	219	1.8	239	1.9	137	2.3	159	3.5
Finland	94	3	35	2.1	68	2	108	3.4
FYR Macedonia	0	–	0	–	1	0.8	10	0.4
Germany	946	1.2	1068	1.2	873	1.2	977	1.9
Greece	–	–	206	3.7	247	4.4	314	3.8
Hungary	1170	15	2018	21.1	658	10.3	190	7.9
Ireland	300	2.7	600	5.8	288	2.5	277	3.5
Latvia	0	–	0	–	0	–	0	–
Liechtenstein	–	–	2	1.8	3	3.1	3	3
Malta	–	–	1	0.9	14	4	16	2.8
Netherlands	6705	15.3	5951	18.3	3232	17.3	1216	9.1
Norway	566	5.2	–	–	894	5.1	916	5.9
Poland	69	1.5	80	1.8	213	4.1	217	3.1
Portugal	10	4.5	9	3.8	18	7.3	6	5.6
Romania	34	2.5	121	5	53	4.6	21	1.9
Slovakia	145	9.3	–	–	1058	10.9	704	6.8
Slovenia	45	0.5	113	7.5	24	3.4	34	3.1
Spain	4	0.1	2	0	1	0	1	0
Sweden	350	2.1	461	2	550	1.7	561	1.8
Switzerland	727	4.1	1238	6	1518	5.8	1324	6.3
United Kingdom	2730	3.4	3470	4.9	6200	7.4	2800	5.7

Source: UNHCR

Table 18

Expatriates of selected European countries of birth in OECD countries(1) and the proportion who have tertiary education, 2000 (or nearest census date) (thousands and per cent)

	Expatriates	% with tertiary education
Western Europe	15790.0	26.2
Austria	366.0	28.7
Belgium	321.5	33.8
Cyprus	138.7	25.2
Denmark	173.0	34.6
Finland	265.2	25.4
France	1013.6	34.4
Germany	2933.8	29.5
Greece	735.4	16.1
Iceland	23.1	33.8
Ireland	792.3	23.5
Italy	2430.3	12.4
Liechtenstein	3.5	19.3
Luxembourg	27.2	26.2
Malta	96.8	19.5
Netherlands	616.9	34.0
Norway	122.1	32.1
Portugal	1268.7	6.5
Spain	763.0	18.0
Sweden	206.6	37.8
Switzerland	262.5	35.8
United Kingdom	3229.7	39.2
Central Europe	4044.2	22.0
Albania	389.3	9.1
Bulgaria	527.8	14.5
Czech Republic	215.9	24.6
Estonia	35.1	32.0
Former Czechoslovakia	110.0	29.8
Hungary	314.9	28.7
Latvia	54.2	37.4
Lithuania	132.8	22.1
Poland	1276.5	25.7
Romania	613.2	26.3
Slovak Republic	374.6	13.8
Other Europe	8180.7	19.0
Belarus	149.9	25.0
Bosnia-Herzegovina	536.3	11.5
Croatia	422.3	14.0
Federal Rep. Of Yugoslavia	1064.6	11.9
Former USSR	2222.3	29.0
Former Yugoslavia	54.8	11.8
Macedonia	149.0	11.8
Russia	580.6	43.0
Slovenia	52.3	17.5
Turkey	2195.6	6.3
Ukraine	753.1	27.2

Source: National censuses in OECD countries, collated by the OECD in Dumont and Lemaitre, 2004

Notes:

All OECD countries, excluding Italy and Japan.

Table 19

Stock of foreign born by with tertiary education for selected European countries, 2001 or latest year available

	thousands	per cent
Austria	104.7	11.3
Belgium	176.9	21.6
Czech Republic	54.8	12.8
Denmark	62.2	19.5
Finland	21.3	18.9
France	1011.4	18.1
Germany	1372.3	15.5
Greece	153.1	15.3
Hungary	54.5	19.8
Ireland	128.8	41
Luxembourg	23.9	21.7
Netherlands	208.9	17.6
Norway	65.5	31.1
Poland	86.4	11.9
Portugal	113.3	19.3
Slovak Republic	16.4	14.6
Spain	404.4	21.8
Sweden	207.6	24.2
Switzerland	276.8	23.7
Turkey	161.6	16.6
United Kingdom	1374.4	34.8

Source: OECD

Table 20

Stock of foreign students in selected European countries, academic years 1998-99 to 2001-02 (thousands)

	1998-99	1999-00	2000-01	2001-02	% change 1998-99 to 2001-02
Western Europe	762.6	795.1	820.2	898.2	17.8
Austria	29.8	30.4	31.7	28.5	-4.4
Belgium	36.1	38.8	38.2	40.4	11.9
Cyprus	1.9	2.0	2.5	3.1	63.2
Denmark	12.3	12.9	12.5	14.5	17.9
Finland	4.8	5.6	6.3	6.8	41.7
France (1)	131.0	137.1	147.4	165.4	26.3
Germany	178.2	187.0	199.1	219.0	22.9
Greece	—	—	—	8.6	—
Ireland (2)	7.2	7.4	8.2	9.2	27.8
Italy	23.5	24.9	29.2	28.4	20.9
Netherlands (3)	13.6	14.0	16.6	18.9	39.0
Norway	9.0	8.7	8.8	9.5	5.6
Portugal	—	11.2	—	15.7	—
Spain	33.0	40.7	39.9	44.9	36.1
Sweden	24.4	25.5	26.3	28.7	17.6
Switzerland	25.3	26.0	27.8	29.3	15.8
United Kingdom (4)	232.5	222.9	225.7	227.3	-2.2
Central Europe	42.7	39.9	55.1	52.5	23.0
Bulgaria	8.4	8.1	8.1	8.0	-4.8
Czech Republic (5)	4.6	5.5	7.8	9.8	113.0
Hungary (6)	8.9	—	11.2	11.8	32.6
Latvia (7)	1.8	6.0	7.9	3.3	83.3
Poland (8)	5.7	6.1	6.7	7.4	29.8
Romania	13.3	12.6	11.7	10.6	-20.3
Slovak Republic	—	1.6	1.7	1.6	—
Other Europe	82.3	21.3	101.6	110.4	34.1
Belarus	2.7	2.7	1.8	2.6	-3.7
Croatia	0.5	—	2.7	0.7	40.0
Moldova	—	—	2.6	2.9	—
Russian Federation	41.2	—	64.1	70.7	71.6
Serbia and Montenegro	1.3	0.9	0.8	—	—
Turkey (9)	18.3	17.7	16.7	16.3	-10.9
Ukraine	18.3	—	12.9	17.2	-6.0

Source: UNESCO

Notes:

1. 1998-99, 1999-00 and 2000-01 figures are partial data.
2. 1998-99, 1999-00 and 2000-01 data refer to full time students only.
3. 1998-99, 1999-00 and 2000-01 data do not include ISCED 6.
4. 1999-00 and 2000-01 figures are an estimate.
5. 1999-00 data refer to ISCED 5A and 6 only.
6. 1998-99, 2000-01 and 2001-02 data refer to ISCED 5A and 6 only.
7. 1998-99 data refer to ISCED 5A and 6 only.
8. Data refer to ISCED 5A and 6 only, except for 2000-01 where data refer to ISCED level 5A only.
9. 1998-99 data do not include ISCED 6.

Table 21

Number of border violation related apprehensions in selected Central and Eastern European countries, 2001-03

	2001	2002	2003	% change 2001-02	% change 2002-03
Armenia	–	15.8	19.0	–	20.5
Azerbaijan	7.6	8.3	3.8	8.6	-53.7
Bosnia Herzegovina	–	0.4	1.0	–	145.4
Bulgaria	6.0	6.5	5.1	8.2	-20.4
Croatia	17.4	5.9	4.2	-66.3	-28.1
Cyprus	0.2	0.7	3.7	298.4	413.9
Czech Republic	23.8	14.7	13.2	-38.2	-10.4
Hungary	16.6	16.0	13.5	-4	-15.3
Latvia	7.8	9.7	8.6	24.2	-12
Lithuania	1.4	0.8	0.8	-41.2	0.8
Poland	5.2	4.3	5.1	-18.2	18.6
Romania	32.0	3.1	2.1	-90.4	-30.8
Yugoslavia	1.3	0.8	0.9	-35.6	3.9
Slovak Republic	15.5	15.2	12.5	-2	-18
Slovenia	20.9	6.9	5.0	-67	-27.2
Turkey	92.4	82.8	56.2	-10.3	-32.1
Ukraine	12.6	9.6	9.6	-23.6	0
Total	260.7	201.5	164.4	-22.7	-18.4

Source: ICMPD

Table 22

Enforcement action against irregular migration in selected Western European countries, 1995-2003 (thousands)

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
<i>Apprehensions at border</i>									
Germany	29.6	27.0	35.2	40.2	37.8	31.5	28.6	22.6	–
<i>Refusals of entry</i>									
Austria	134.7	134.0	80.7	25.5	24.7	19.1	17.6	–	–
Italy (1)	–	–	–	31.7	37.7	27.2	34.0	31.8	25.7
Switzerland	10.4	9.9	9.8	9.8	9.1	10.1	8.8	8.7	8.4
<i>Enforcement actions against illegal entry</i>									
United Kingdom	10.8	14.6	14.4	16.5	21.2	47.3	69.9	48.1	–

Sources: National ministries of the interior and border police, in SOPEMI national correspondents' reports.

Notes:

1. Figures are for July to June – i.e. 1998 figures refer to July 1998 to June 1999.

Table 23
Estimates of human trafficking and smuggling, by region, 1994-2001

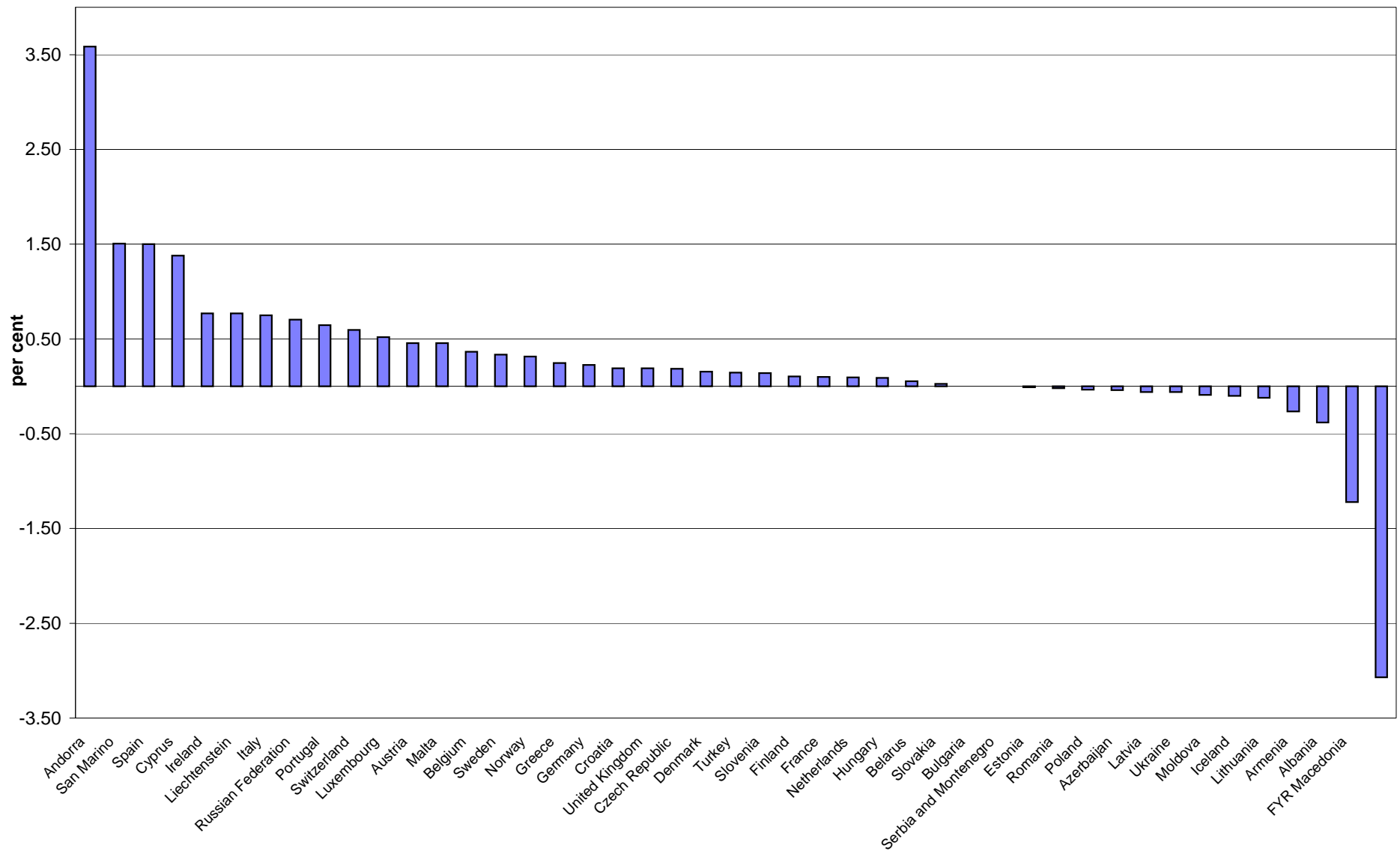
Number	Time period	Region	Based on (assumptions)	Source
100,000 to 200,000	1993	to W. European states	All, (smuggled) calculated by 15 to 30% of immigrants entering illegally	ICMPD (in Transcrime, 1996 No.8)
100,000 to 220,000	1993	to W. European states	All (traff) 15-30% of illegal migrants, 20-40% of a-s without founded claims, make use of traffickers (at some point in journey)	Widgren, 1994:9-10 (prepared for IOM)
300,000	Annually	to EU and Central Europe	Women (Smug.)	Economist.com, 2000
400,000	Last Decade	out of Ukraine	Women, estimate from Ukranian Ministry of Interior	Trafficking in Migrants, No.23, IOM (2001:5)
4000	Annually	into US from NIS & E.Europe	Women & Children	CIA briefing, (1999) Global Trafficking in Women and Children (in O'Neill Richard 1999)
2,000 - 6,000	Annually	into Italy	Women, into sex industry (estimated from per cent of irregular female migrants who enter the sex industry p.a.)	Trafficking in Migrants, No.23, IOM (2001:6)
400,000+	1999	into European Union	All (smuggled into) on EU apprehension data (equation = 1 is caught, 2 pass)	Heckmann et al. (2000:5)
50,000-	1993	into European Union	All (smuggled into) on EU apprehension data (equation = 1 is caught, 2 pass)	Heckmann et al. (2000:5)
1 million+	Annually	Globally	Women & Girls (Smug.) (most ending up in US)	UN and FBI statistics, (Tehran Times, March 18, 2001)
1 million+	Annually	Globally	Women & Girls, for sexual exploitation in sex industries	Hughes, 2001 (from International Agencies and governemental estimates)
1 to 2 million	Annually	Globally	Women & Children, for forced labour, domestic servitude or sexual exploitation	US Department of State, 1998 (in Miko and Park, 2000)
1-2 million	Annually	Globally	Women & Children	US Government, (cited in ECRE, 2001)
4 million	Annually	Globally	All (Smug. or Traff.)	IOM, (in Graycar, 1999:1)
4 million	Annually	Globally	All (Smug. or Traff.)	IOM News - North American Supplement, No.6 (1998)
4 million	Annually	Globally	All (Smug. or Traff.)	IOM, 1996 (in McInerny, 2000)
4 million	Annually	Globally	All (Smug. or Traff.)	IOM, 1996 (in Tailby, 2000)
700,000 to 2 million	Annually	Globally	Women & Children, across International borders	Trafficking in Migrants, No.23, IOM (2001:1), based on US Government figures (1998)
700,000 to 2 million	Annually	Globally	Women & Children, excl. internal trafficking within countries such as India and Thailand	IOM, (in O'Neill Richard (1999))
100,000+	Annually	from Soviet Union	Women & Children	Miko and Park, 2000
150,000+	Annually	from South Asia	Women & Children	US Department of State, (in Miko and Park, 2000)
75,000+	Annually	from Eastern Europe	Women & Children	Miko and Park, 2000
400,000	1999	European Union	All (smug.) based on apprehension data	Heckmann, Wunderlich, Martin & McGrath (2001:5)
50,000	1993	European Union	All (smug.) based on apprehension data	Heckmann, Wunderlich, Martin & McGrath (2001:5)

Table 24
Global Costs for Human Smuggling and Trafficking

Regional Movement	USD	
	Mean Cost	Median Cost
Africa – Africa	203	158
Africa – Americas	2200	2200
Africa – Australasia	1951	1951
Africa – Europe	6533	2675
Africa – Other	4000	4000
Americas – Americas	2984	1625
Americas – Europe	4528	5000
Asia – Americas	26041	27745
Asia – Asia	12240	3500
Asia – Australasia	14011	14011
Asia – Europe	9374	5000
Asia – Other	6350	4000
Europe – Americas	6389	4000
Europe – Asia	16462	15000
Europe – Australasia	7400	7400
Europe – Europe	2708	2000
Europe – Other	4000	4000

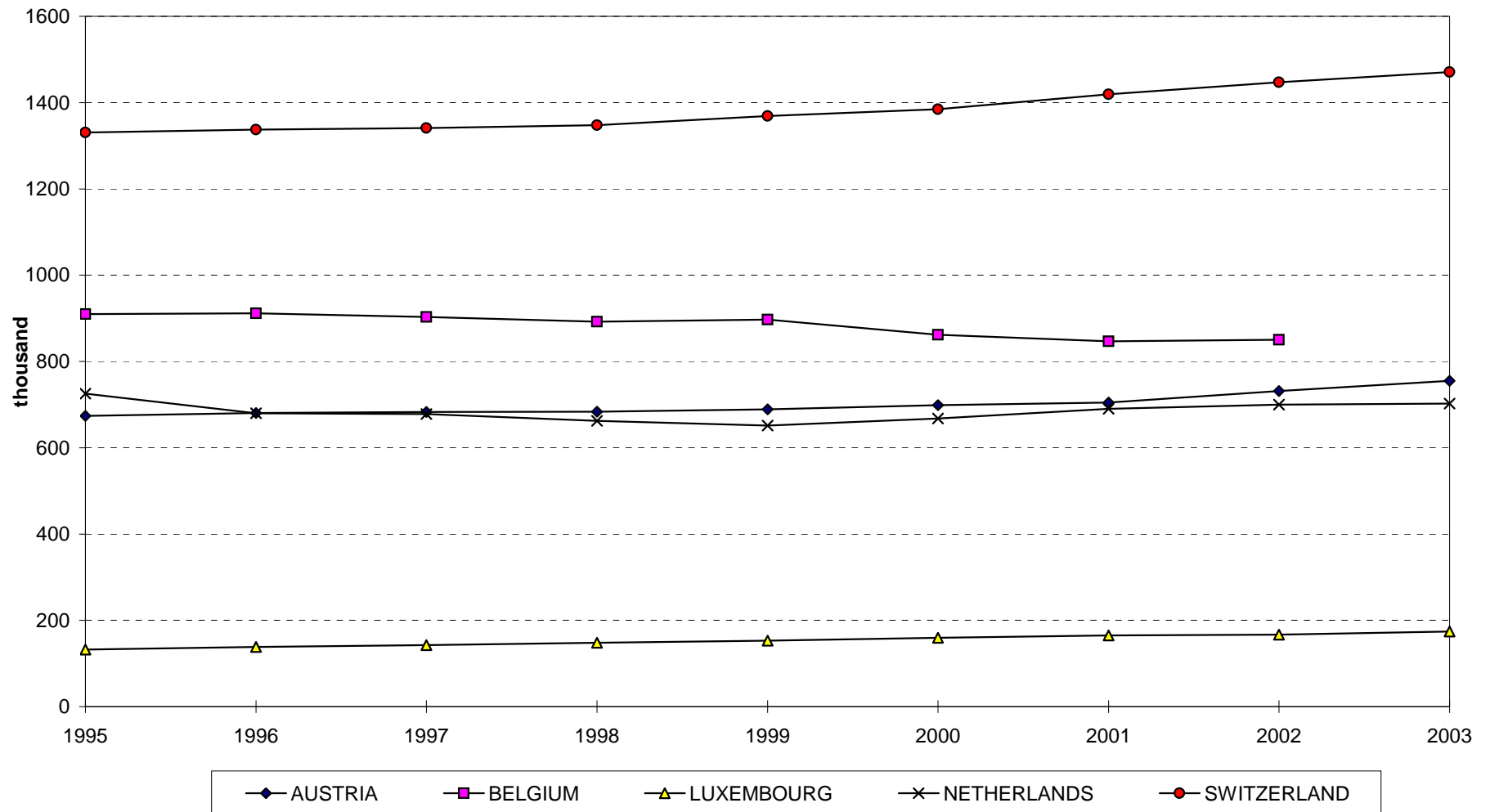
Source: Various documentary sources, compiled by the Migration Research Unit, 2004

FIGURE 1 - NET MIGRATION AS A COMPONENT OF AVERAGE ANNUAL POPULATION GROWTH IN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 2002-2003



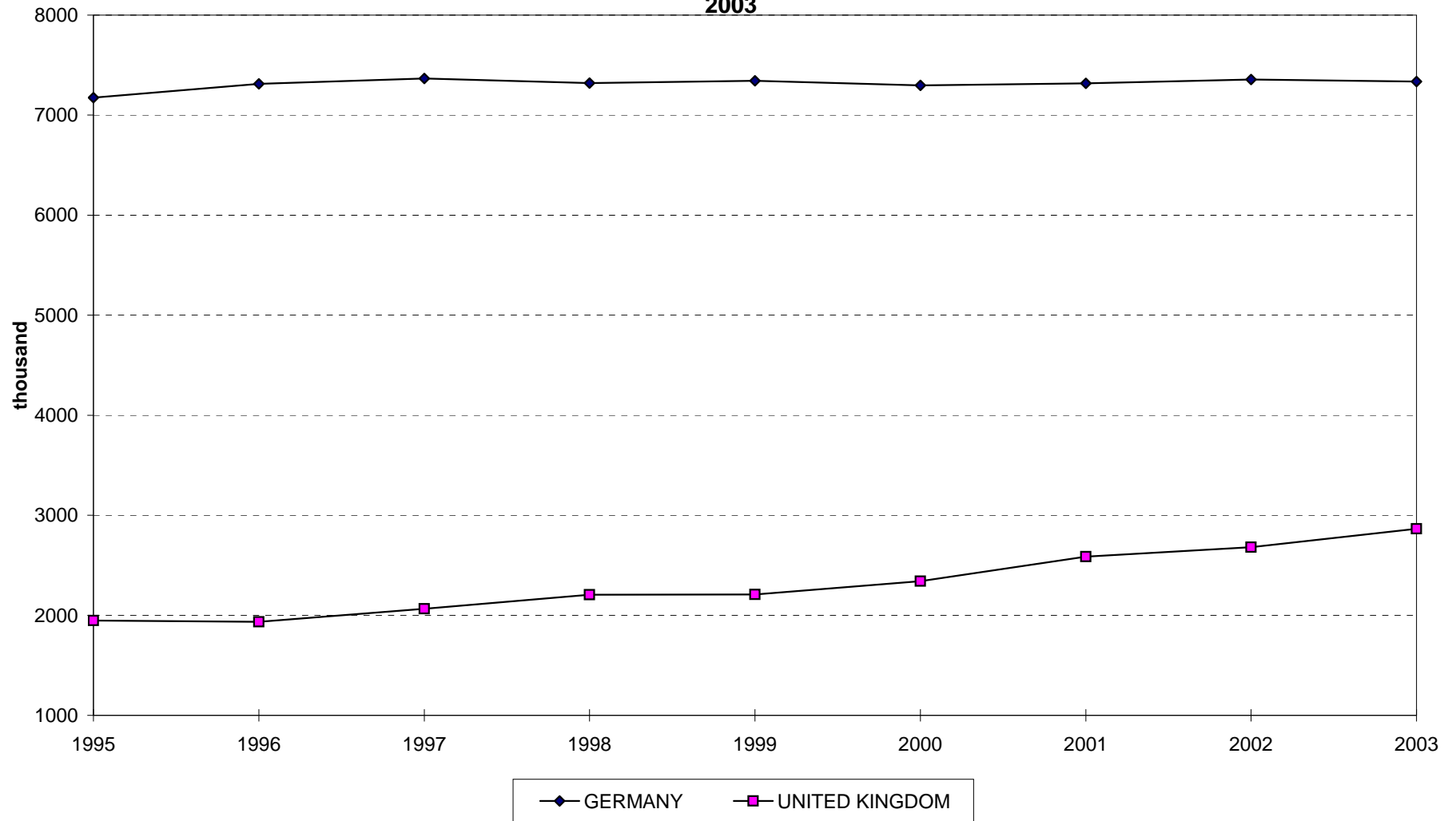
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

**FIGURE 2a - STOCK OF FOREIGN POPULATION IN SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES,
1995-2003**



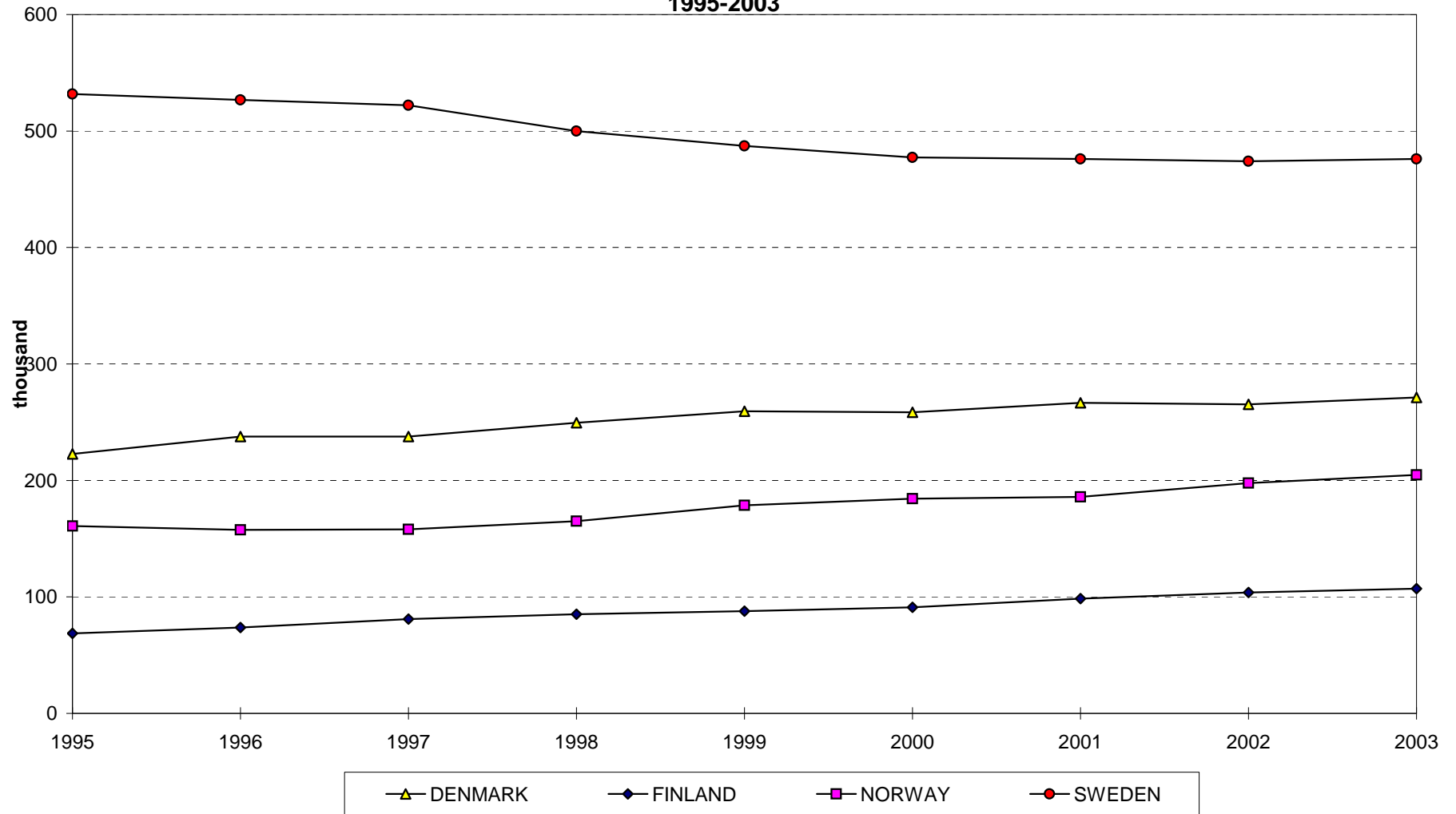
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 2b - STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION IN GERMANY AND THE UNITED KINGDOM, 1995-2003



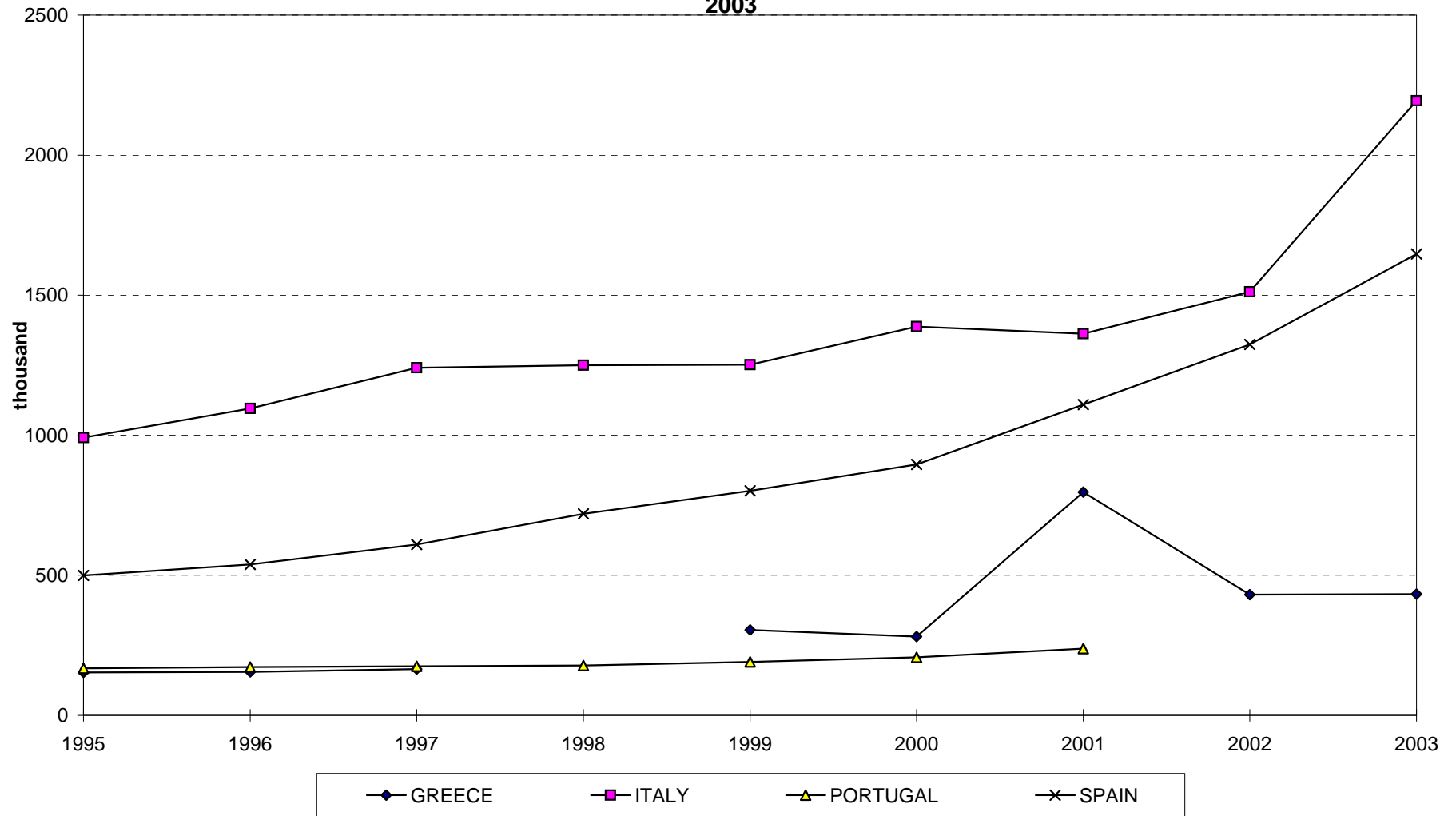
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

**FIGURE 2c - STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION IN SELECTED SCANDINAVIAN COUNTRIES,
1995-2003**



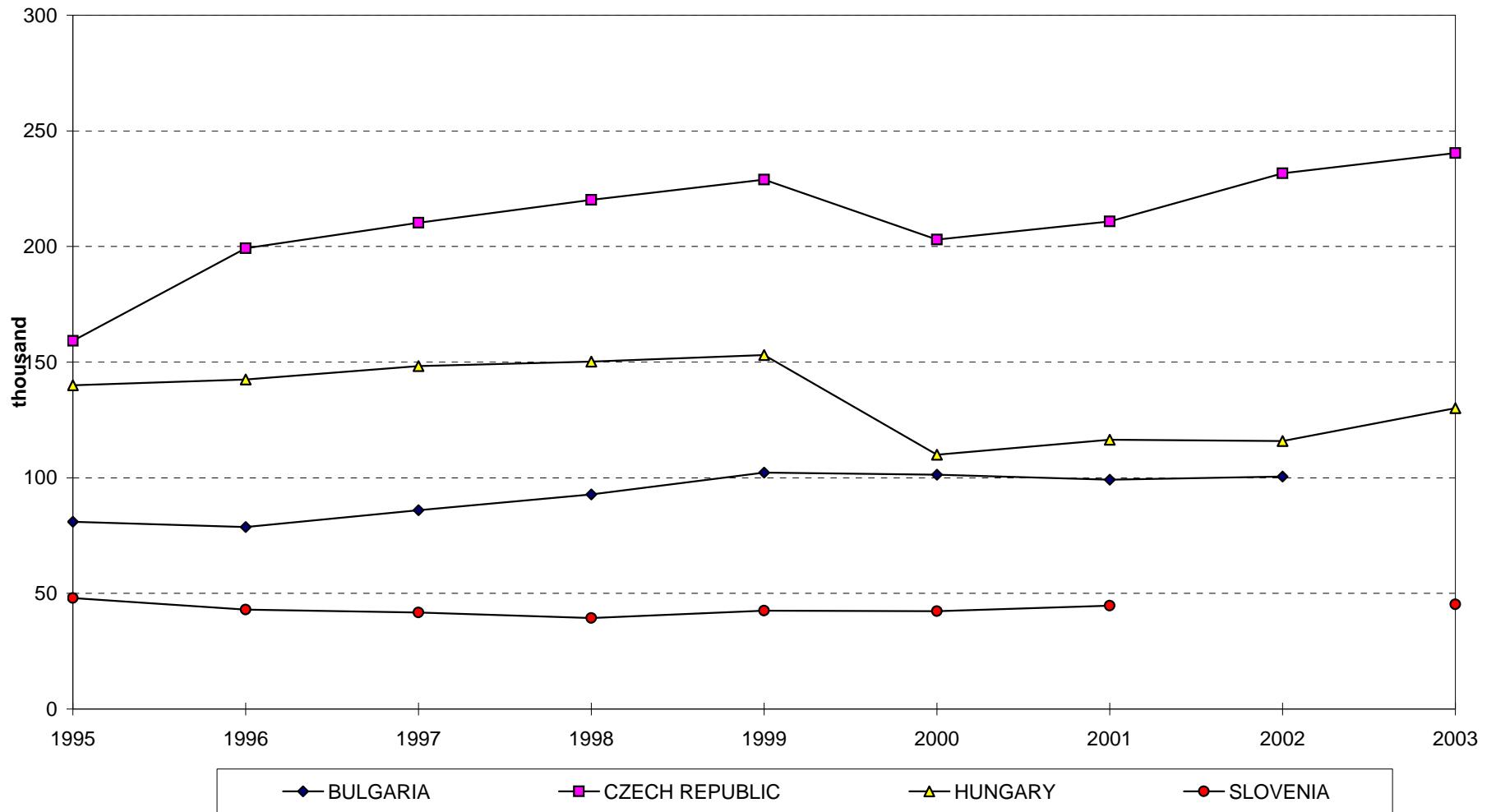
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 2d - STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION IN SELECTED MEDITERRANEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2003



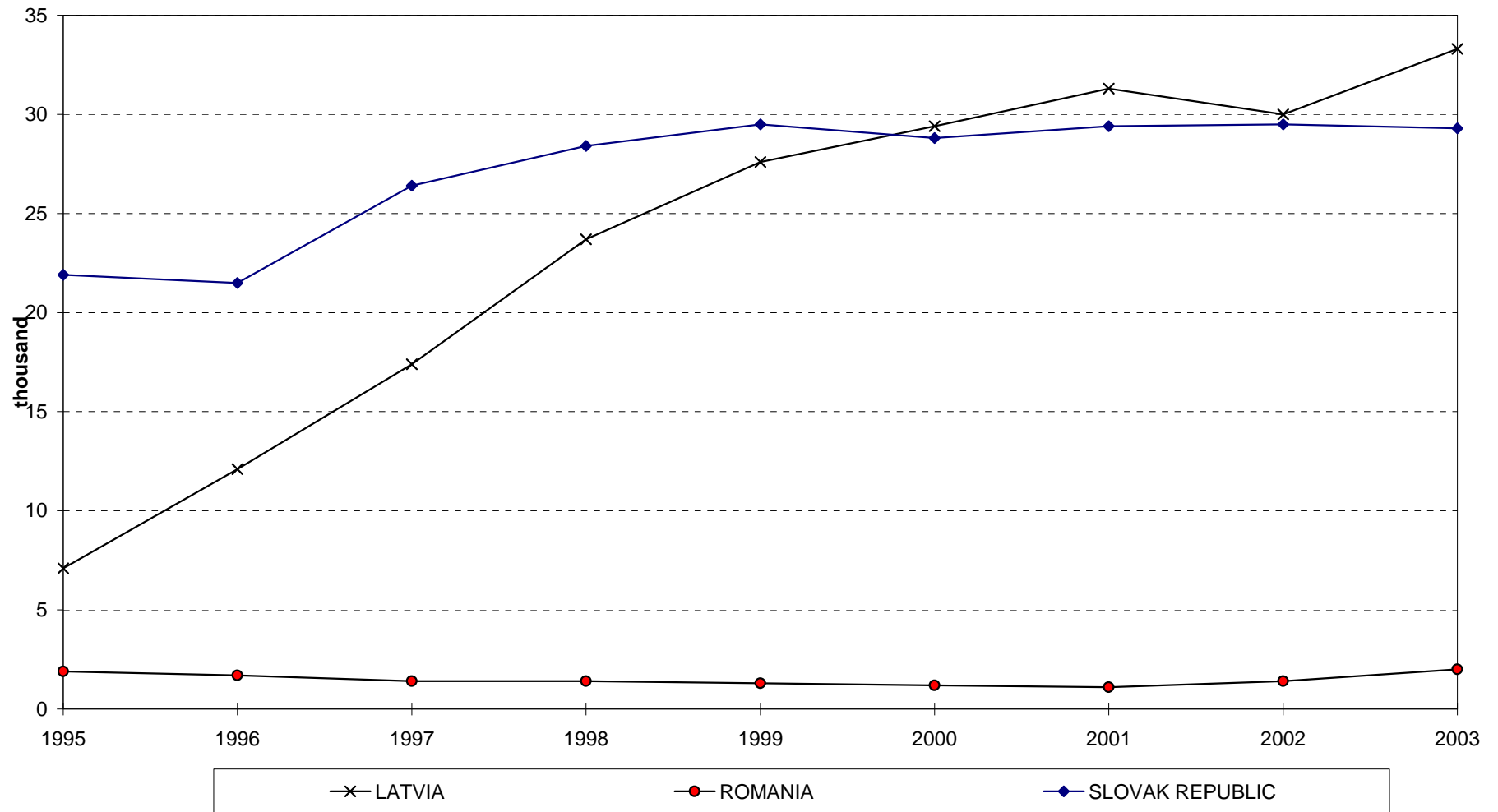
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 2e - STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION IN SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2003



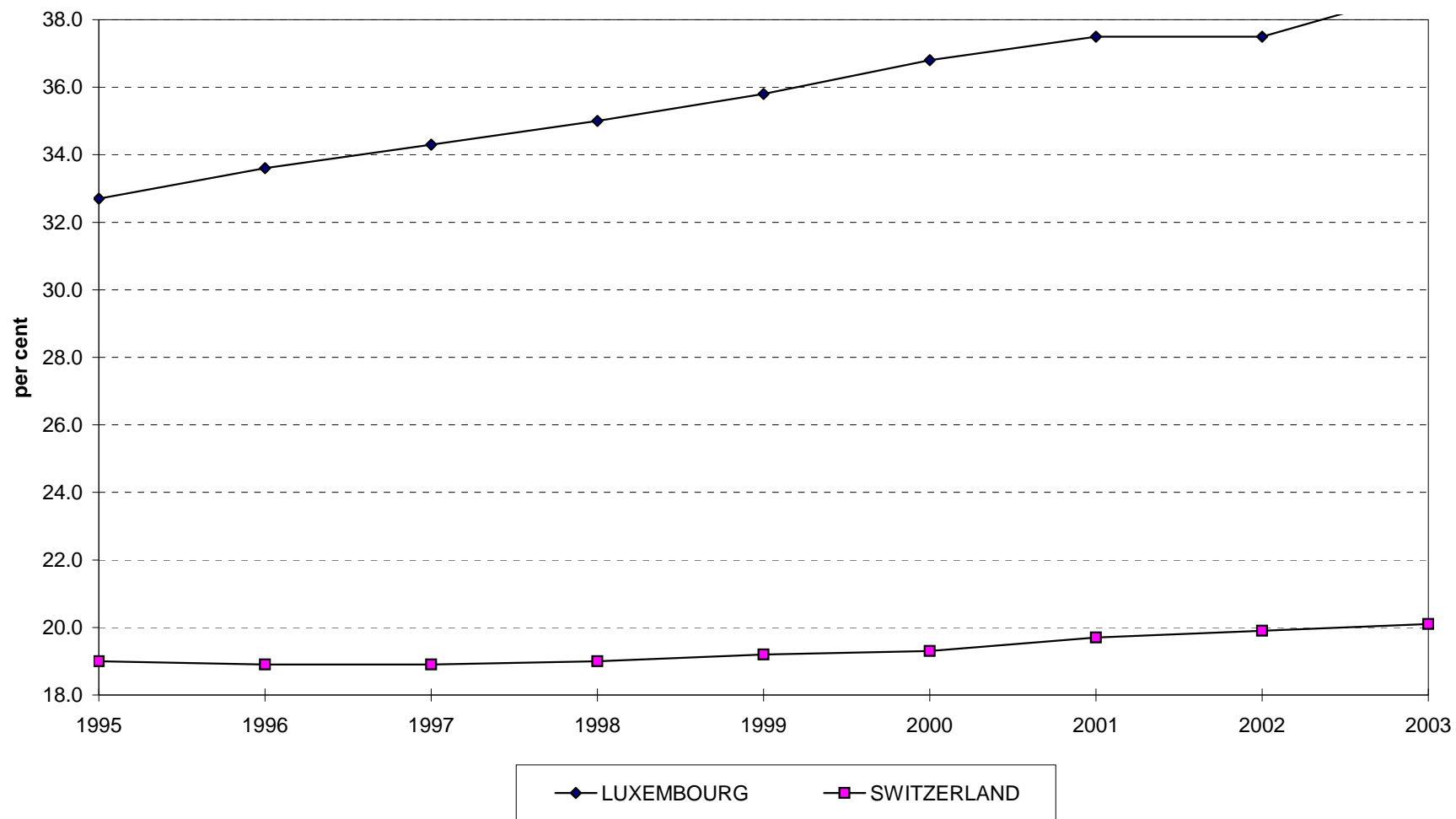
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 2f - STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION IN SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2003



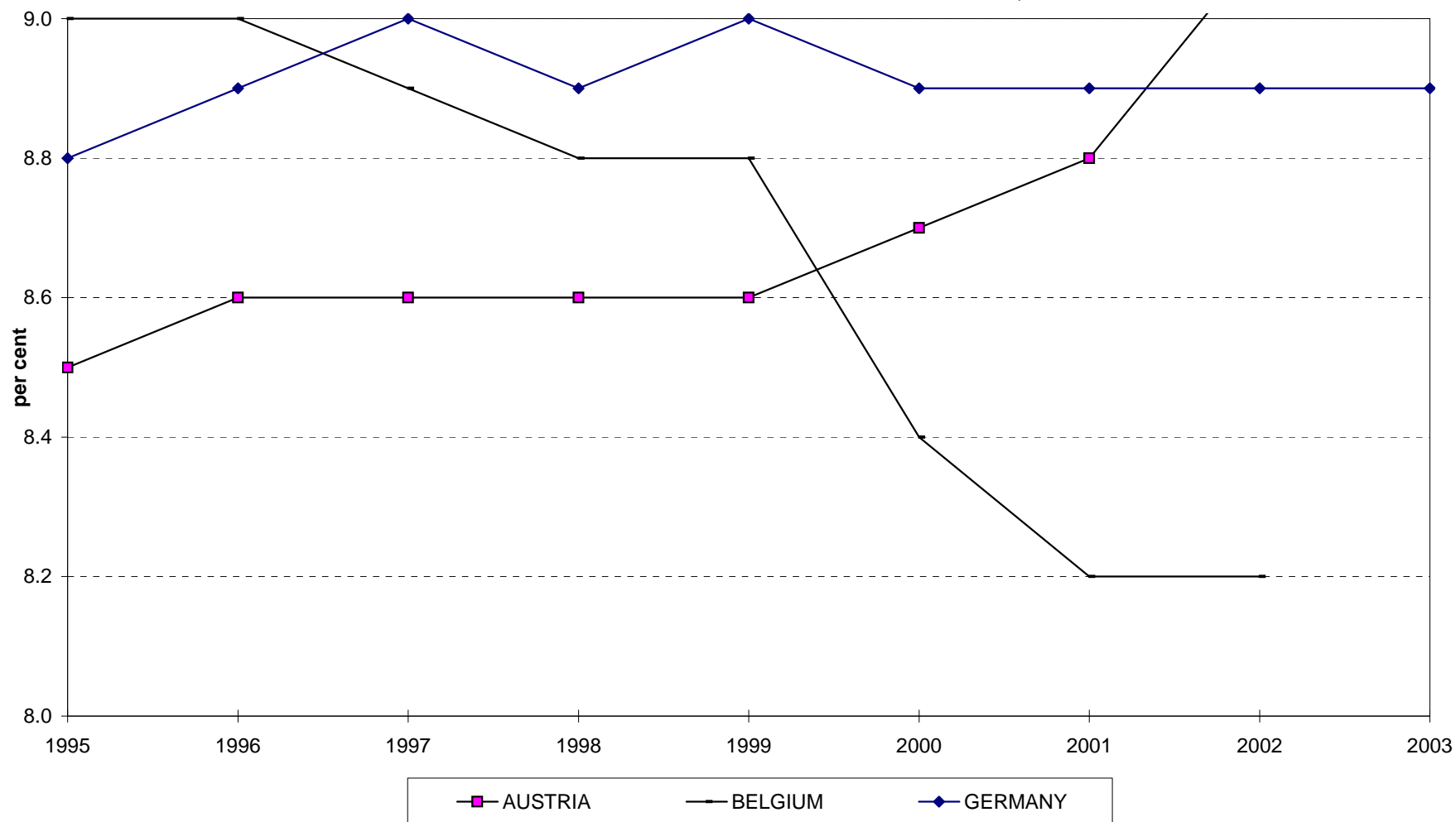
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

**FIGURE 3a - STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL POPULATION
IN SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2003**



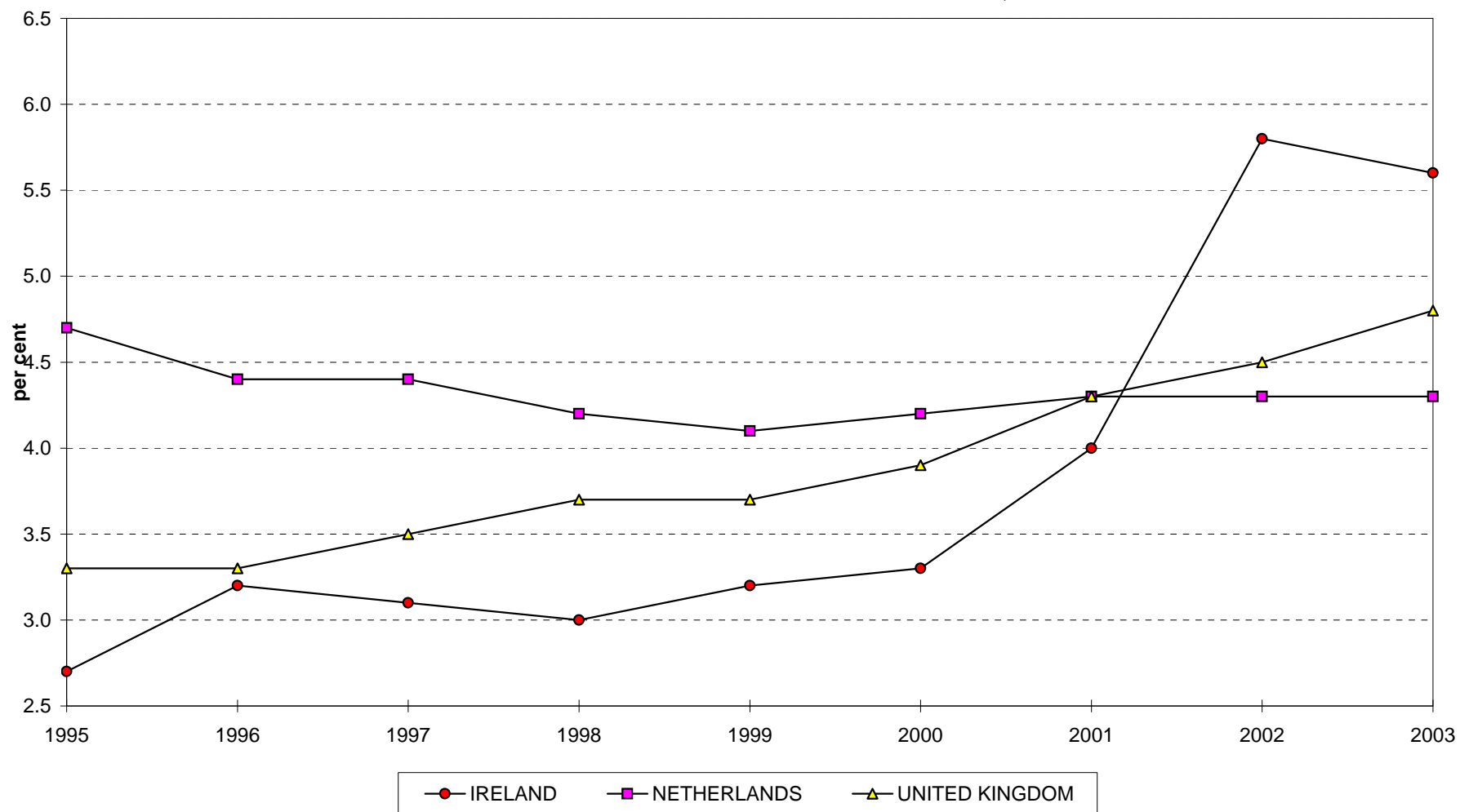
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

**FIGURE 3b - STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL POPULATION
IN SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2003**



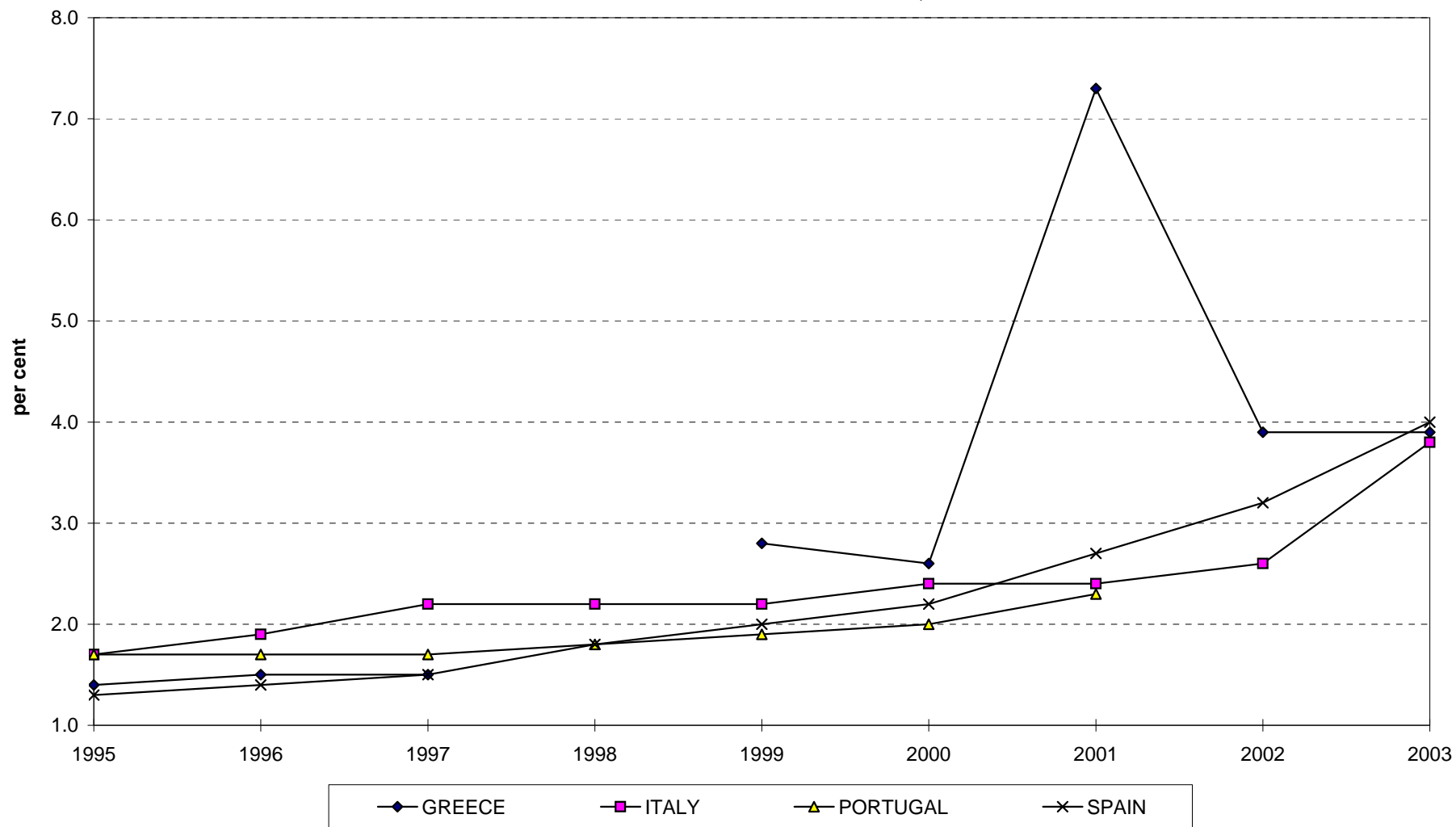
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

**FIGURE 3c - STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL POPULATION
IN SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2003**



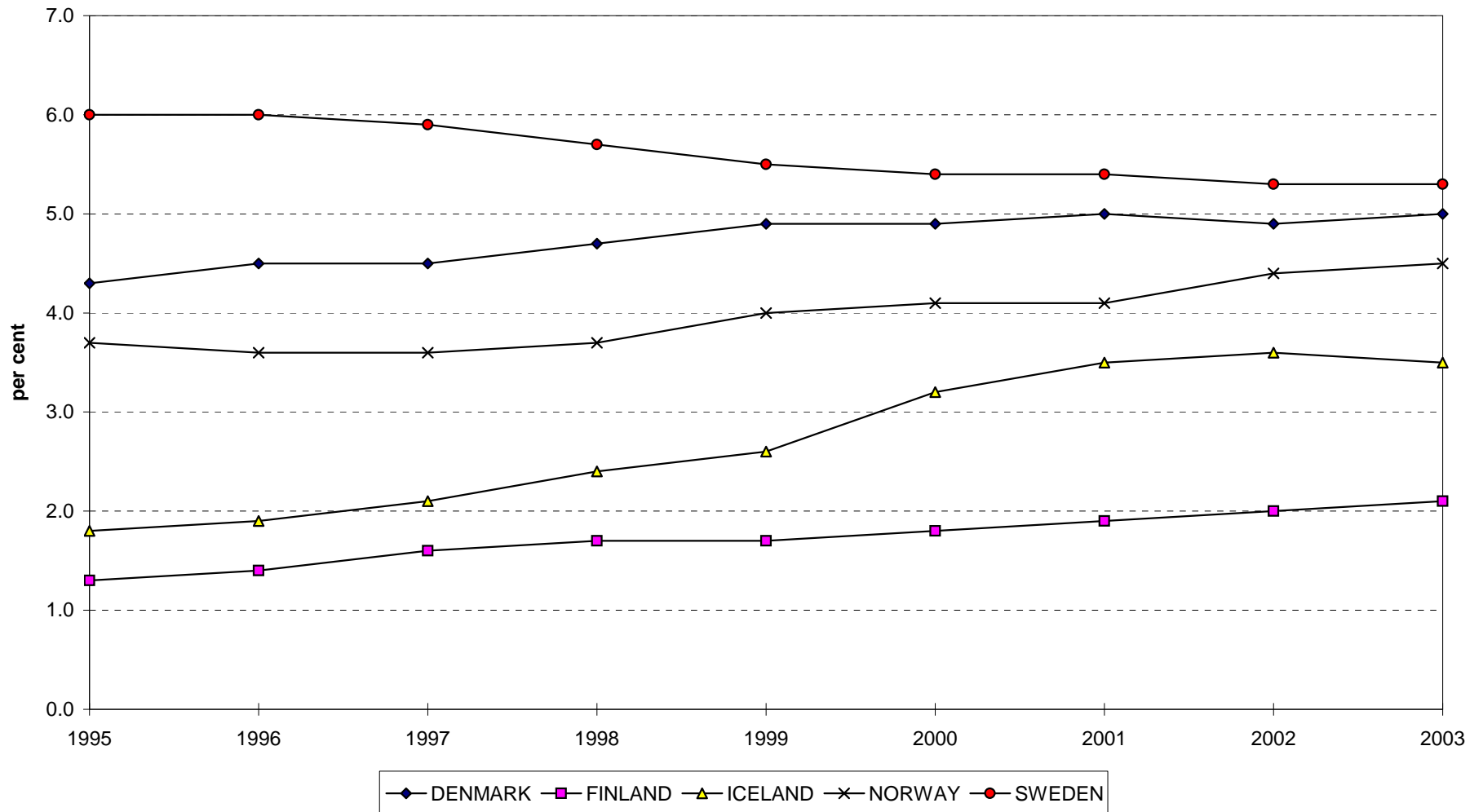
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

**FIGURE 3d - STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL POPULATION
IN SELECTED MEDITERRANEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2003**



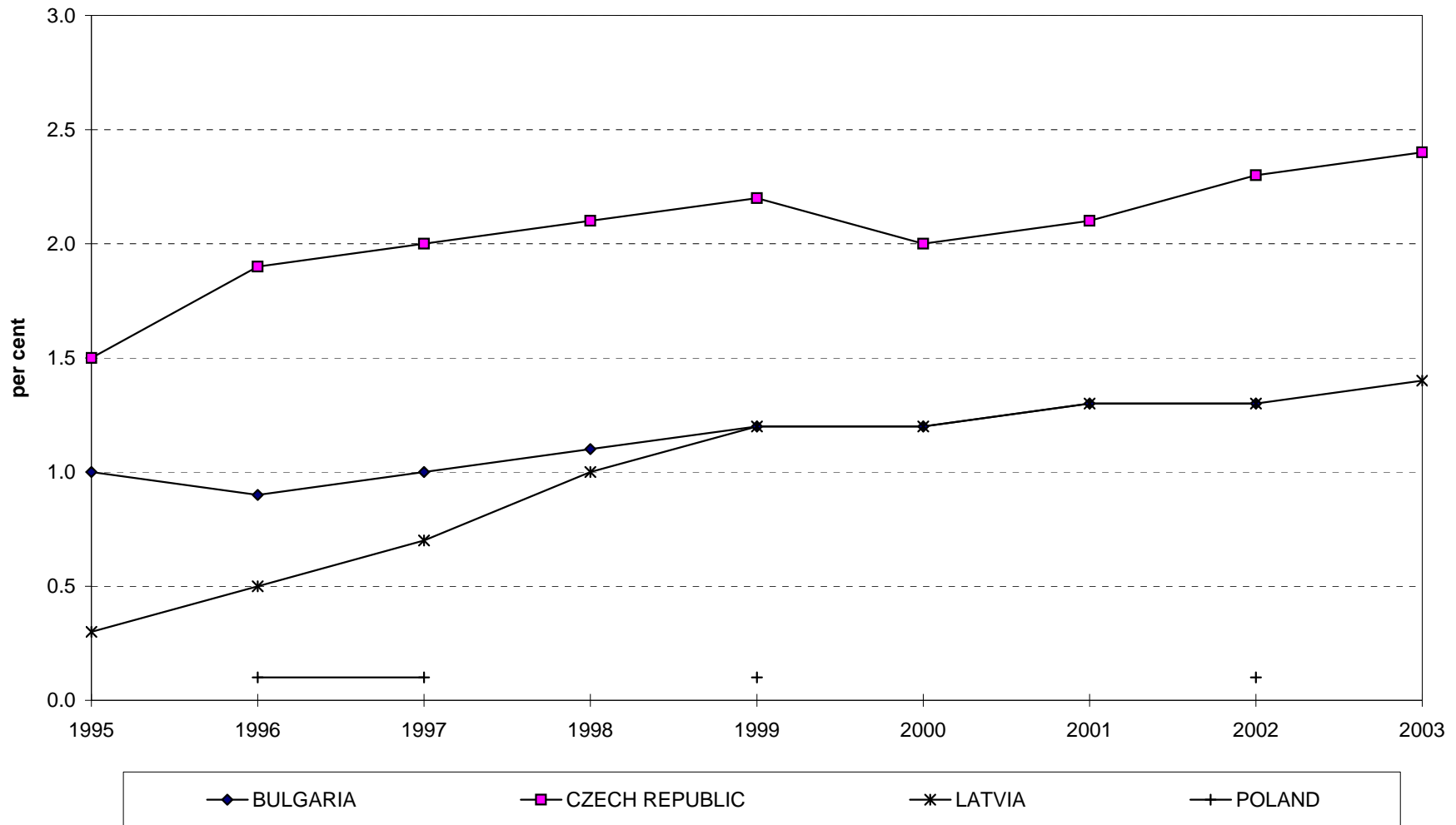
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

**FIGURE 3e - STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL POPULATION
IN SELECTED NORTHERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2003**



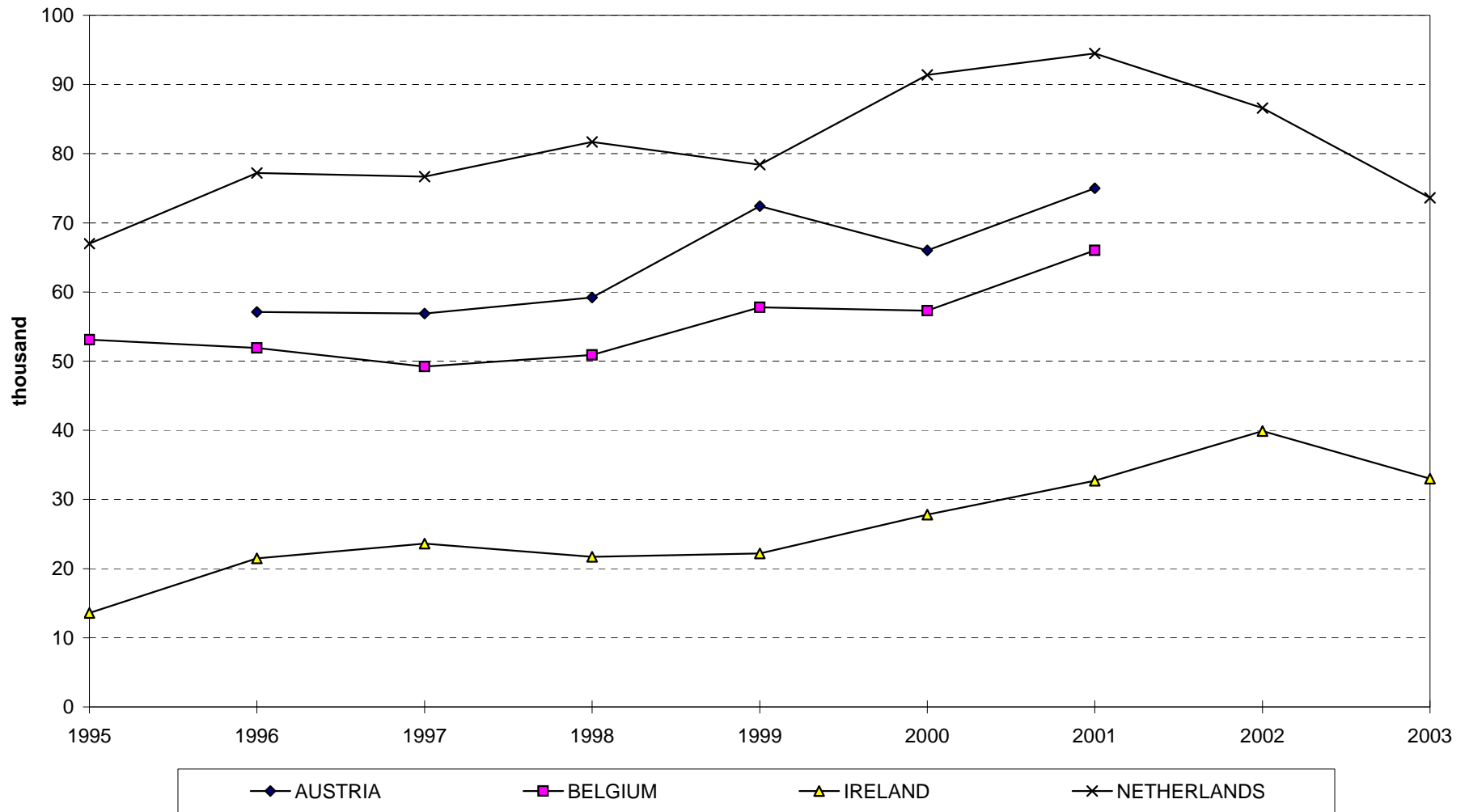
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 3f - STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL POPULATION IN SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2003



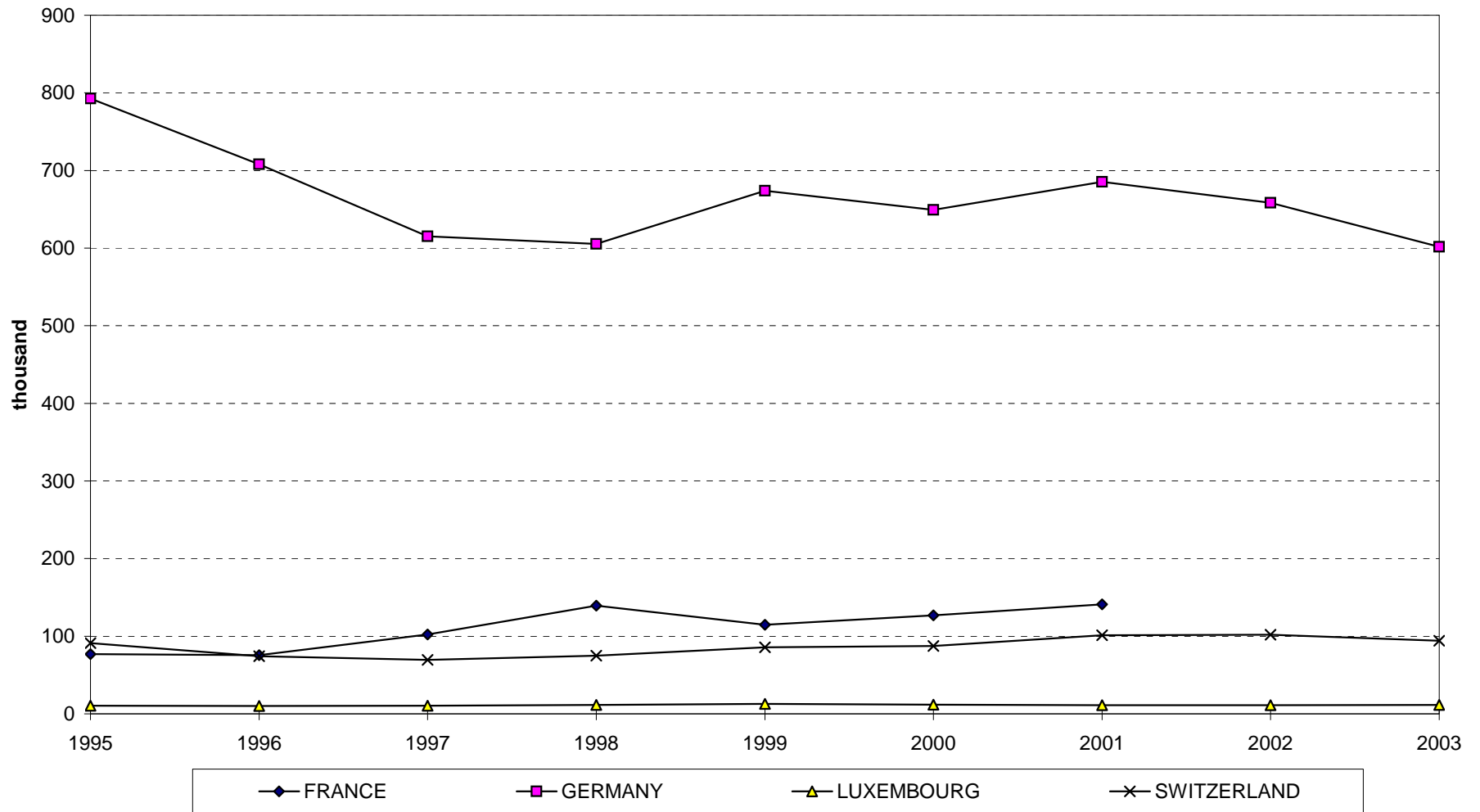
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 4a - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2003



For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 4b - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2003



For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 4c - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO SELECTED SCANDINAVIAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2003



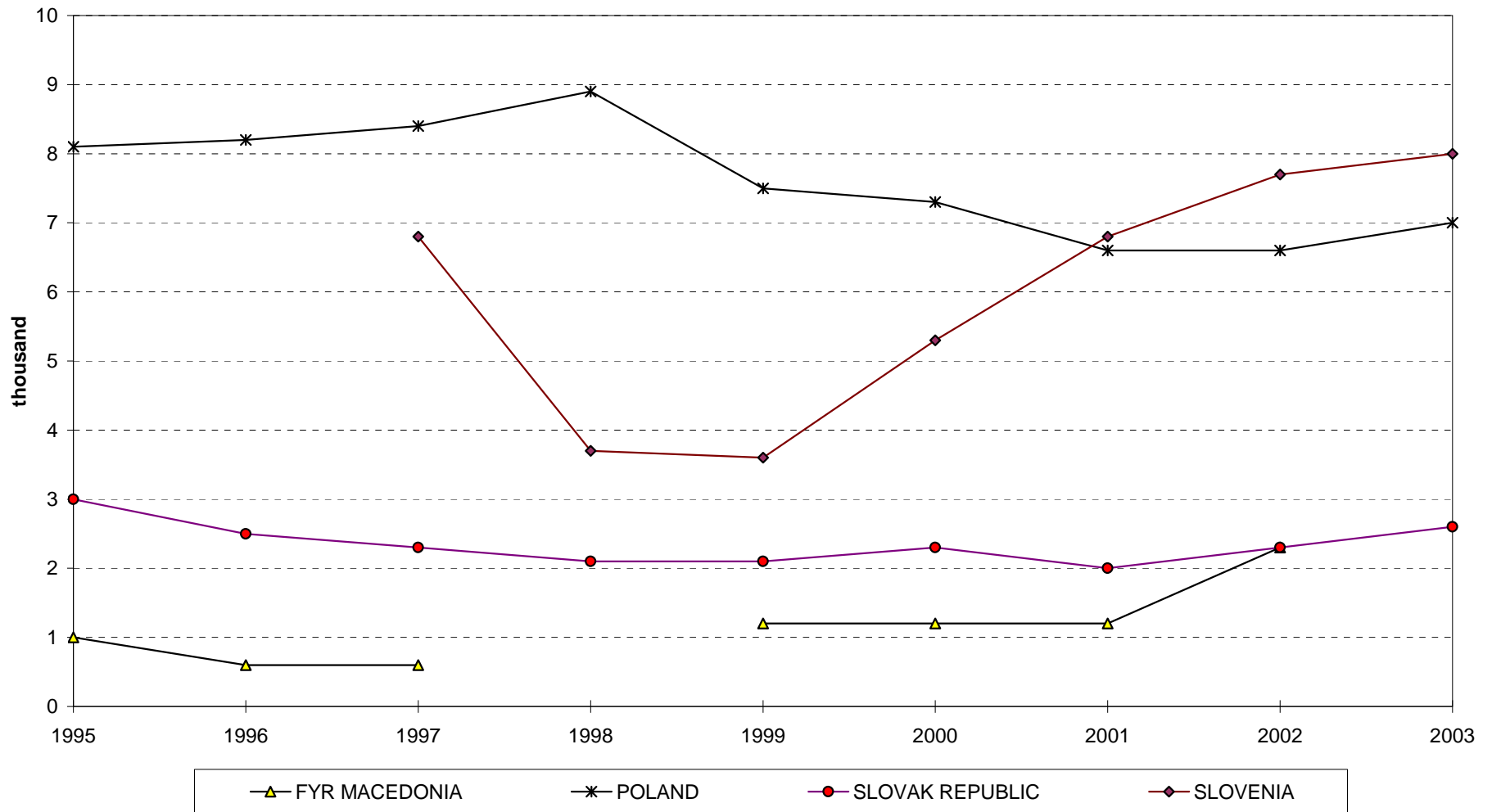
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

**FIGURE 4d - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO SELECTED MEDITERRANEAN COUNTRIES,
1995-2003**



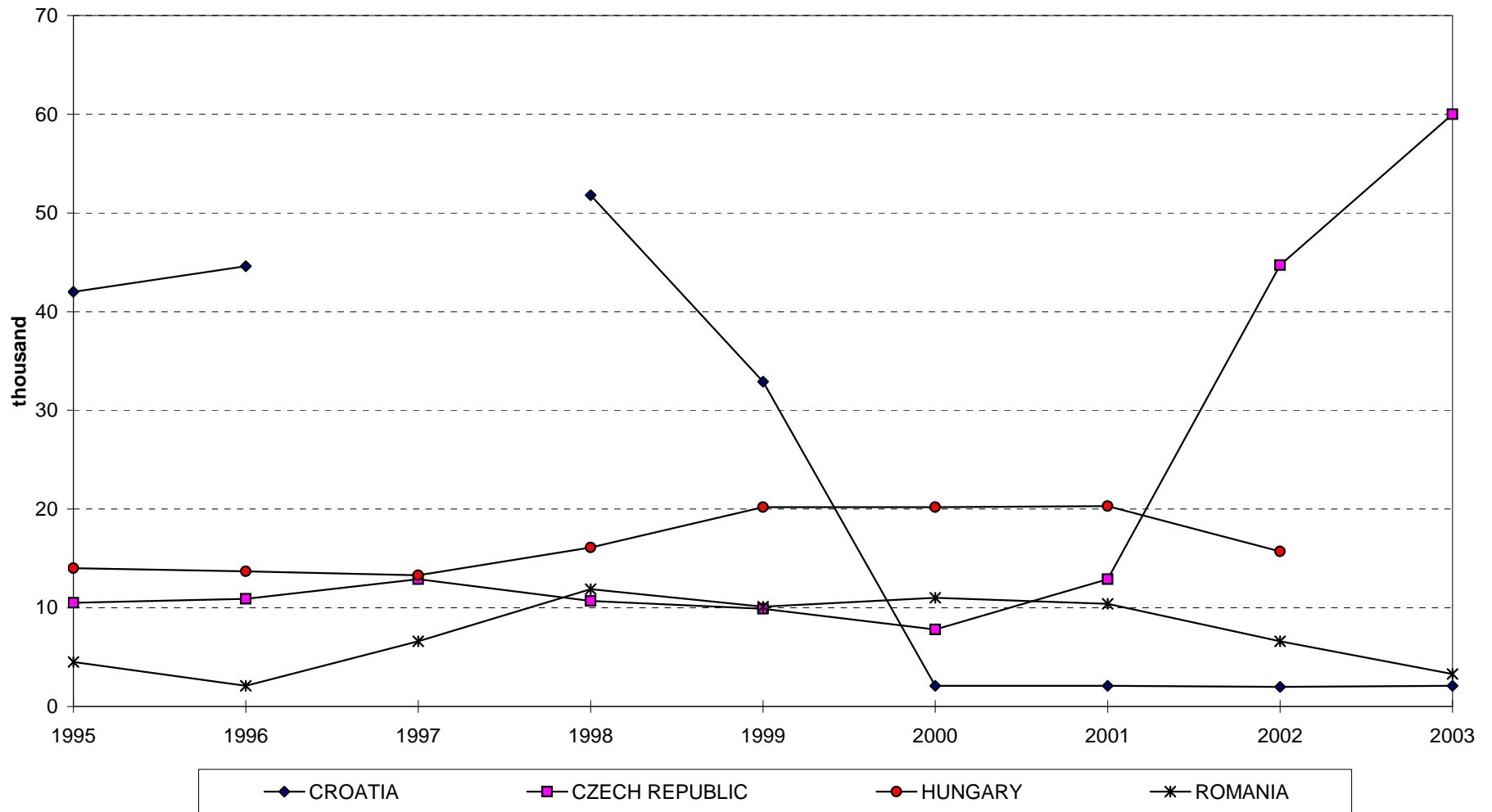
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 4e - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2003



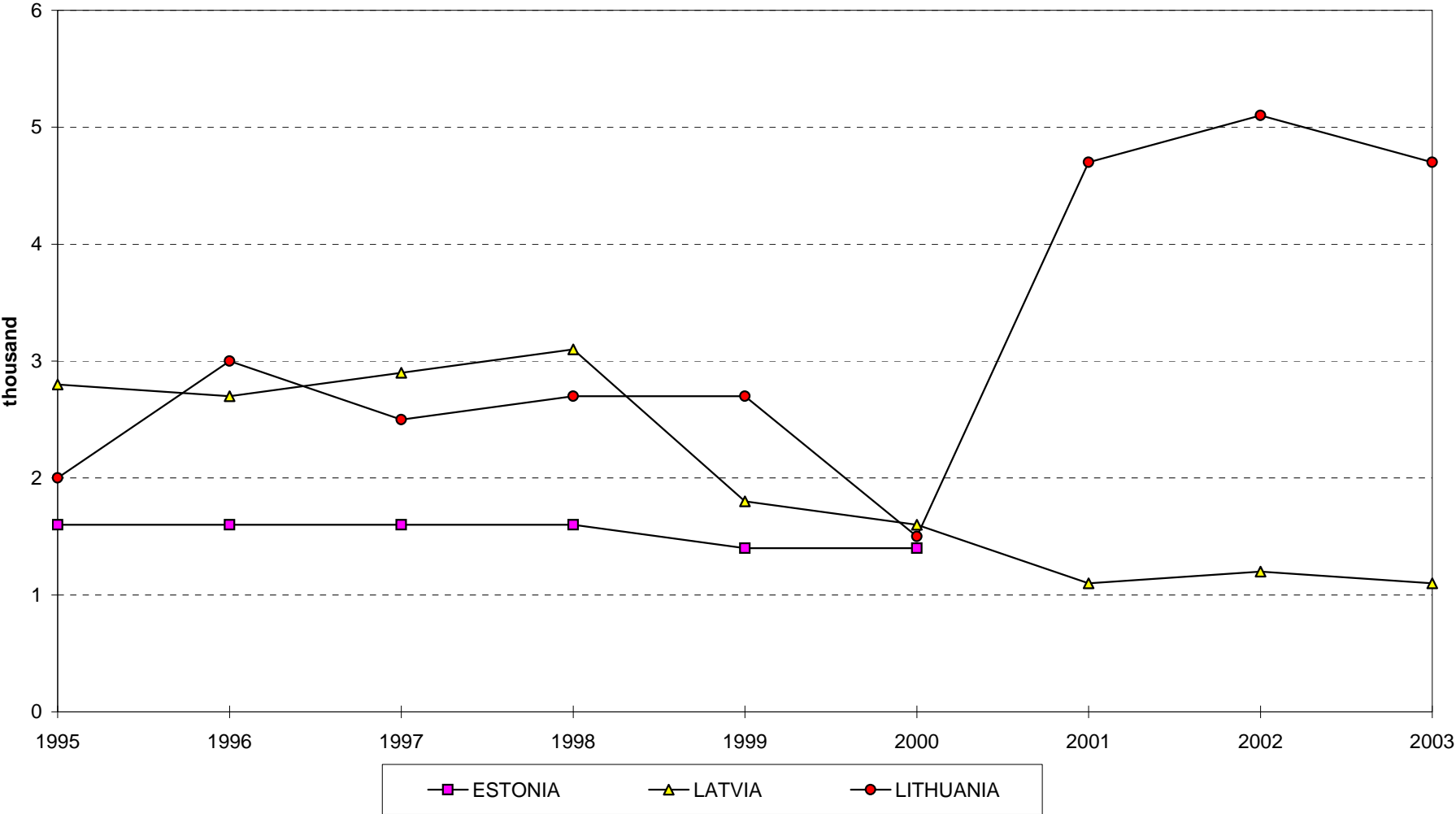
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 4f - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2003



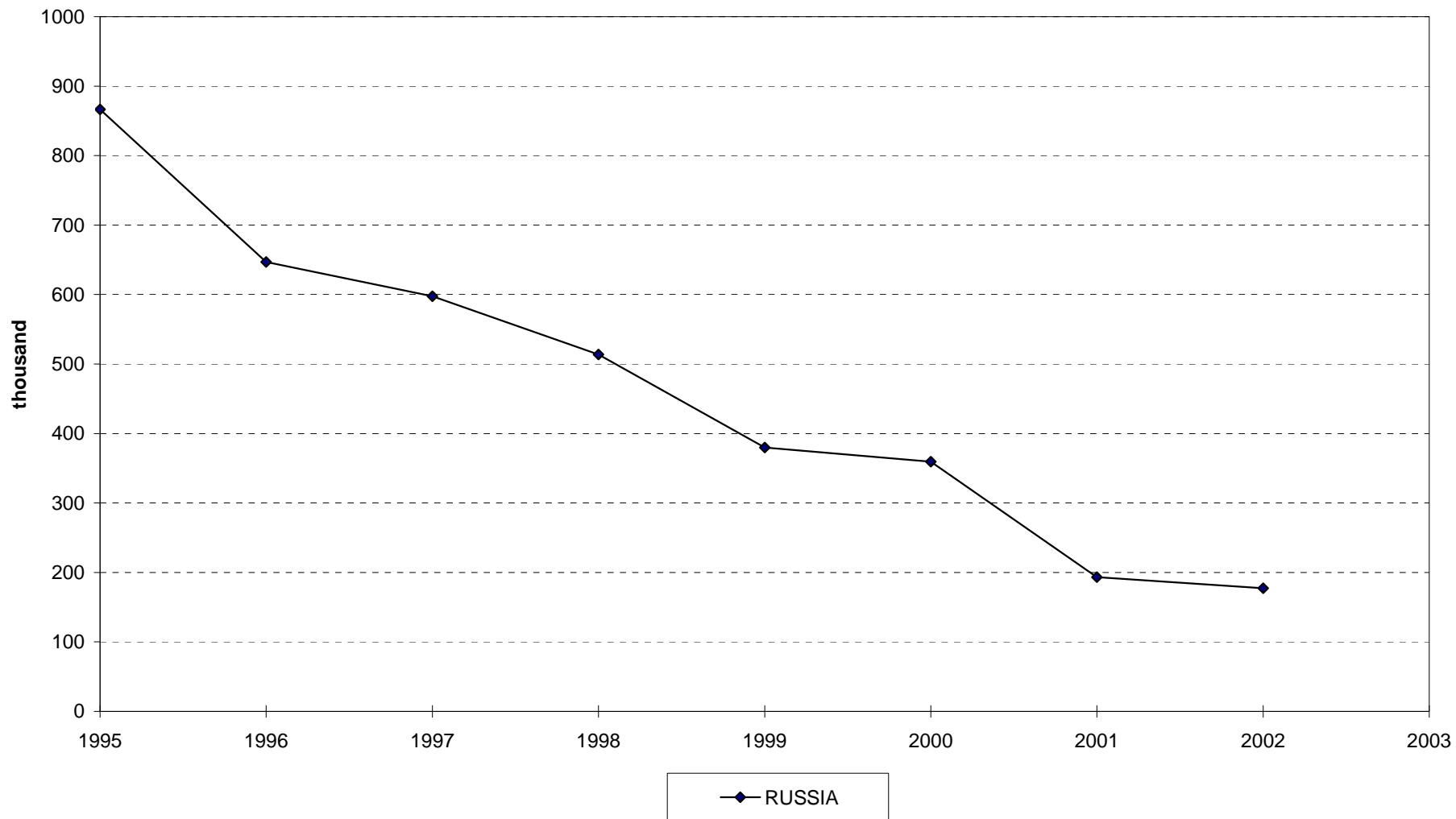
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 4g - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO THE BALTIC STATES, 1995-2003



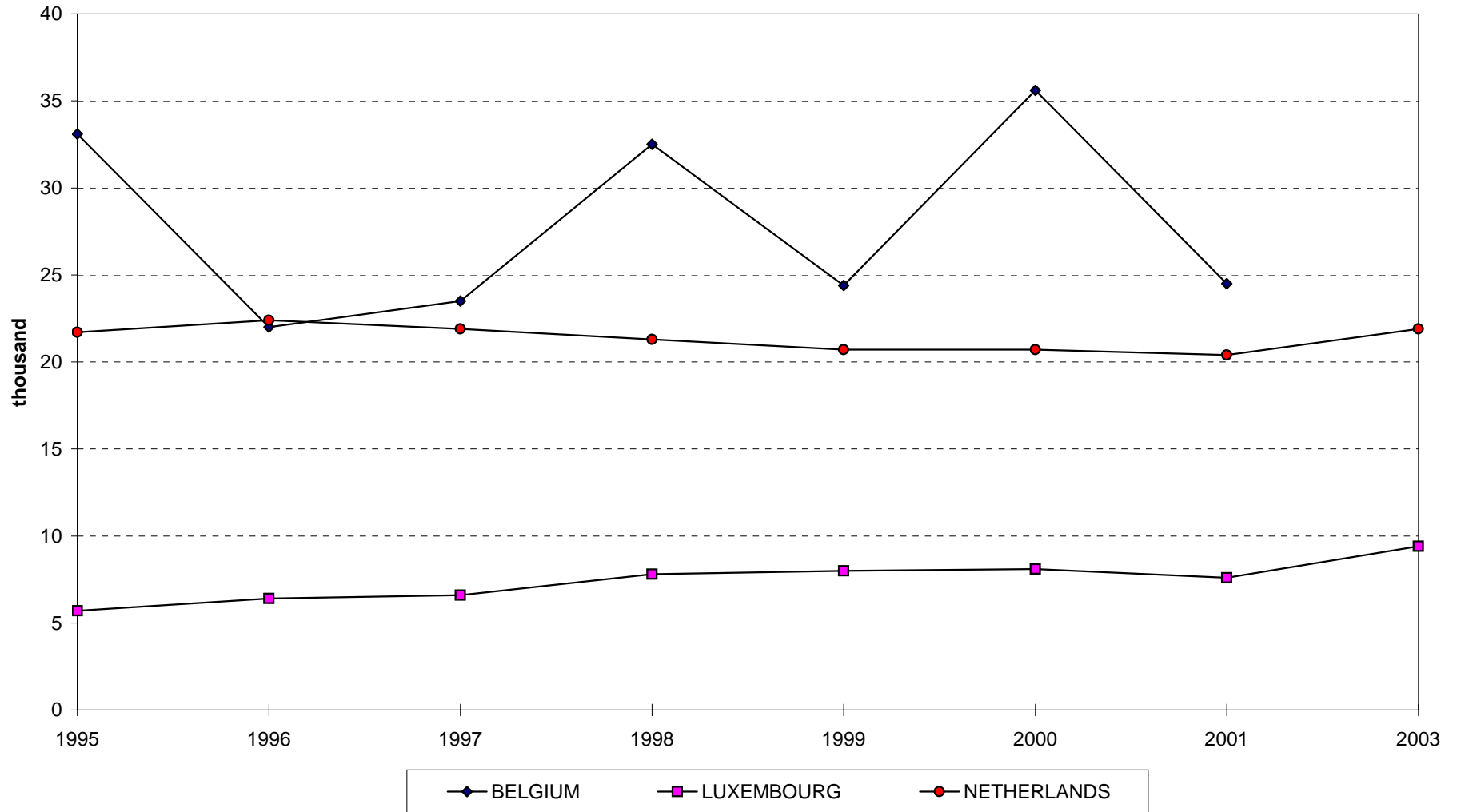
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 4h - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO RUSSIA, 1995-2003



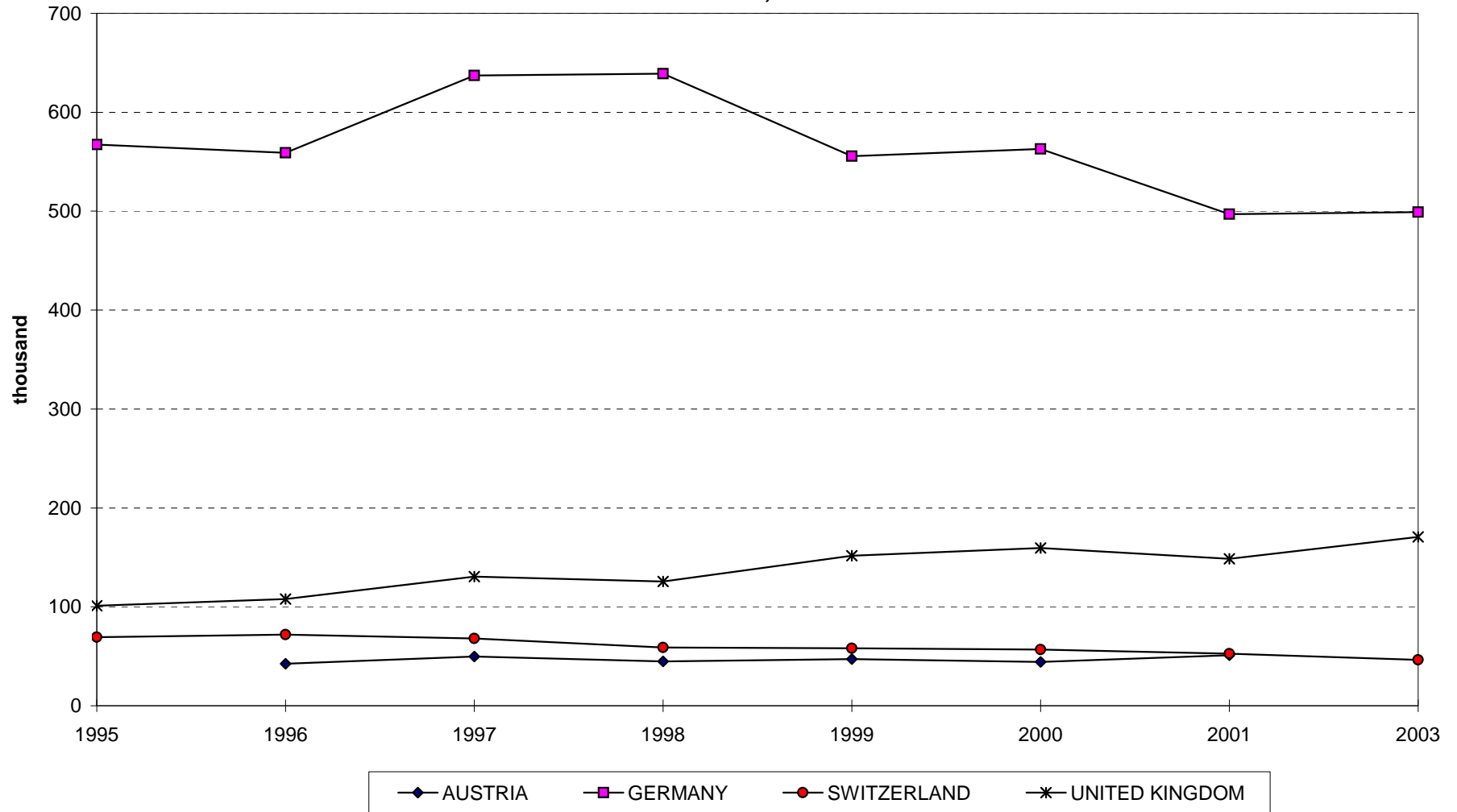
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 5a - OUTFLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION FROM THE BENELUX COUNTRIES, 1995-2003



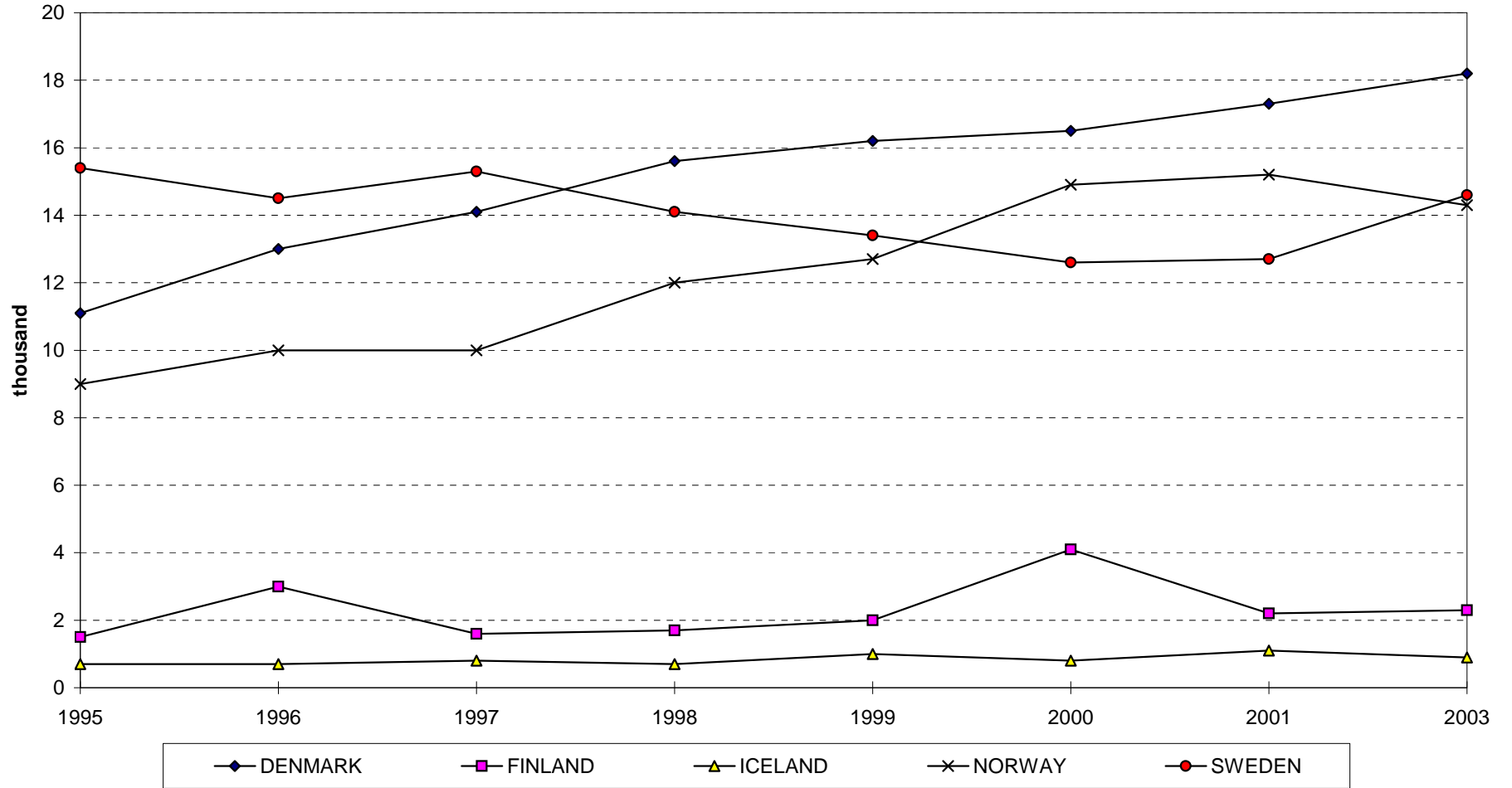
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 5b - OUTFLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION FROM SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2003



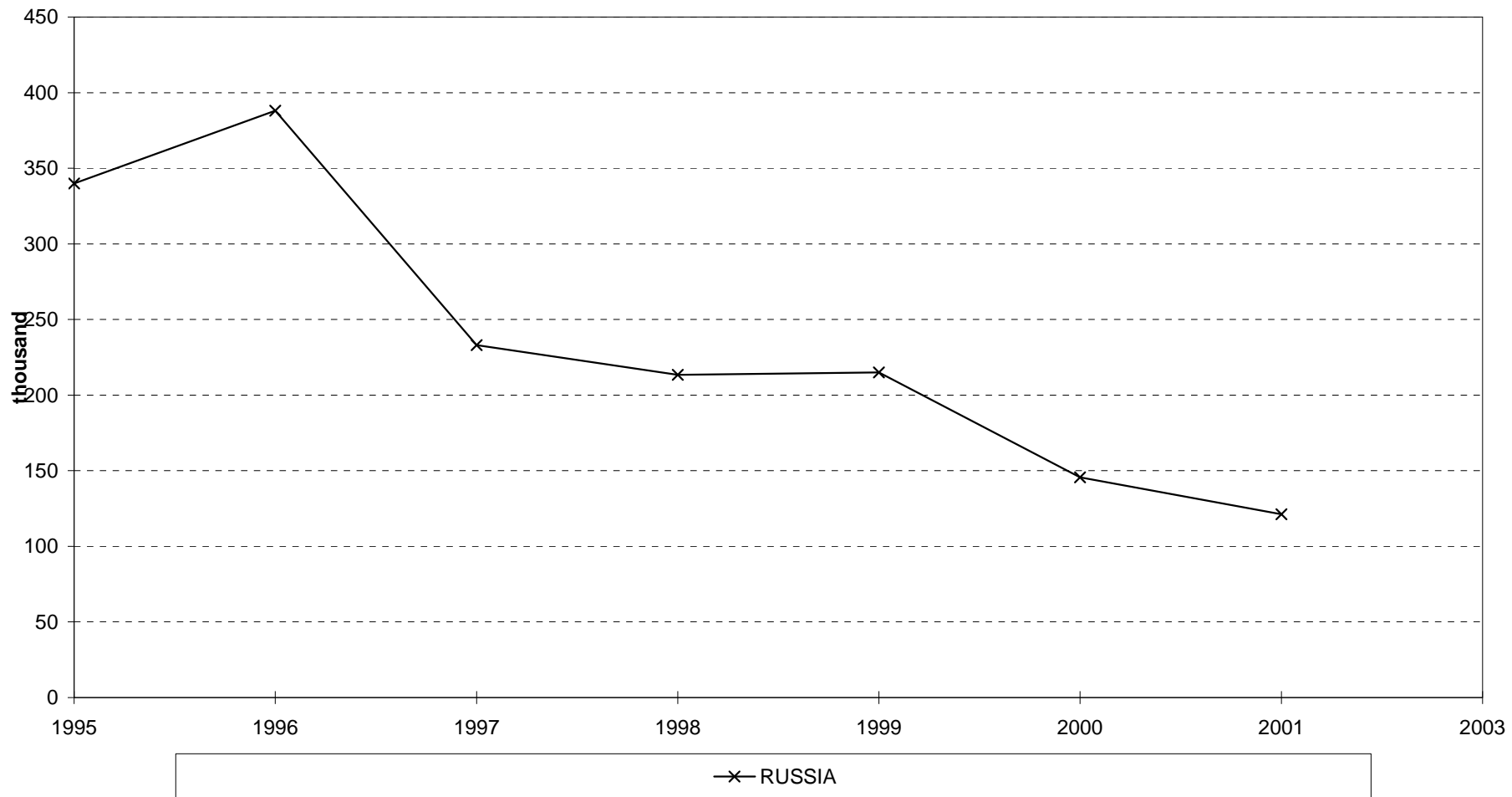
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 5c - OUTFLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION FROM SELECTED NORTHERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2003



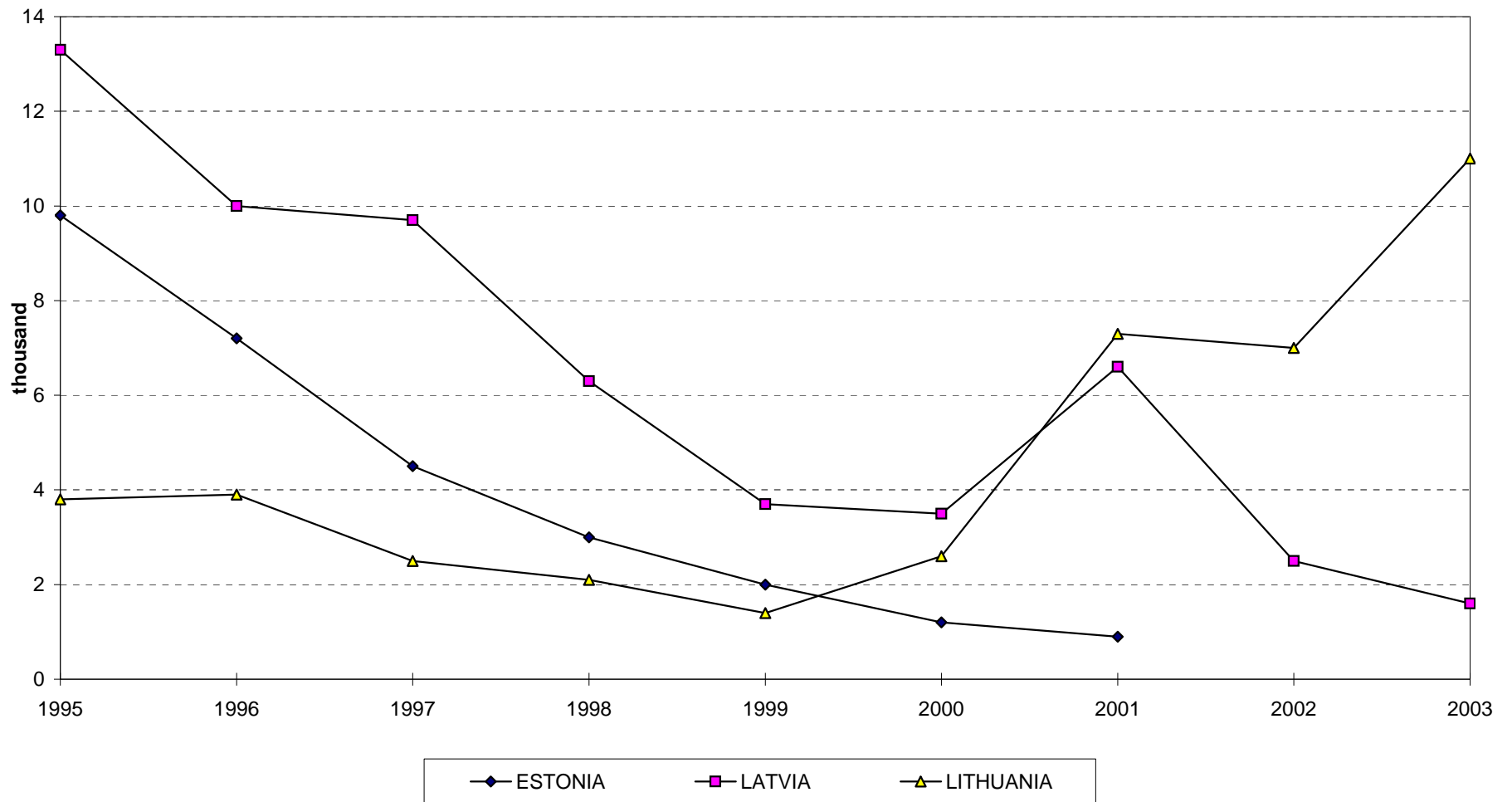
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 5d - PERMANENT EMIGRATION FROM SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2003



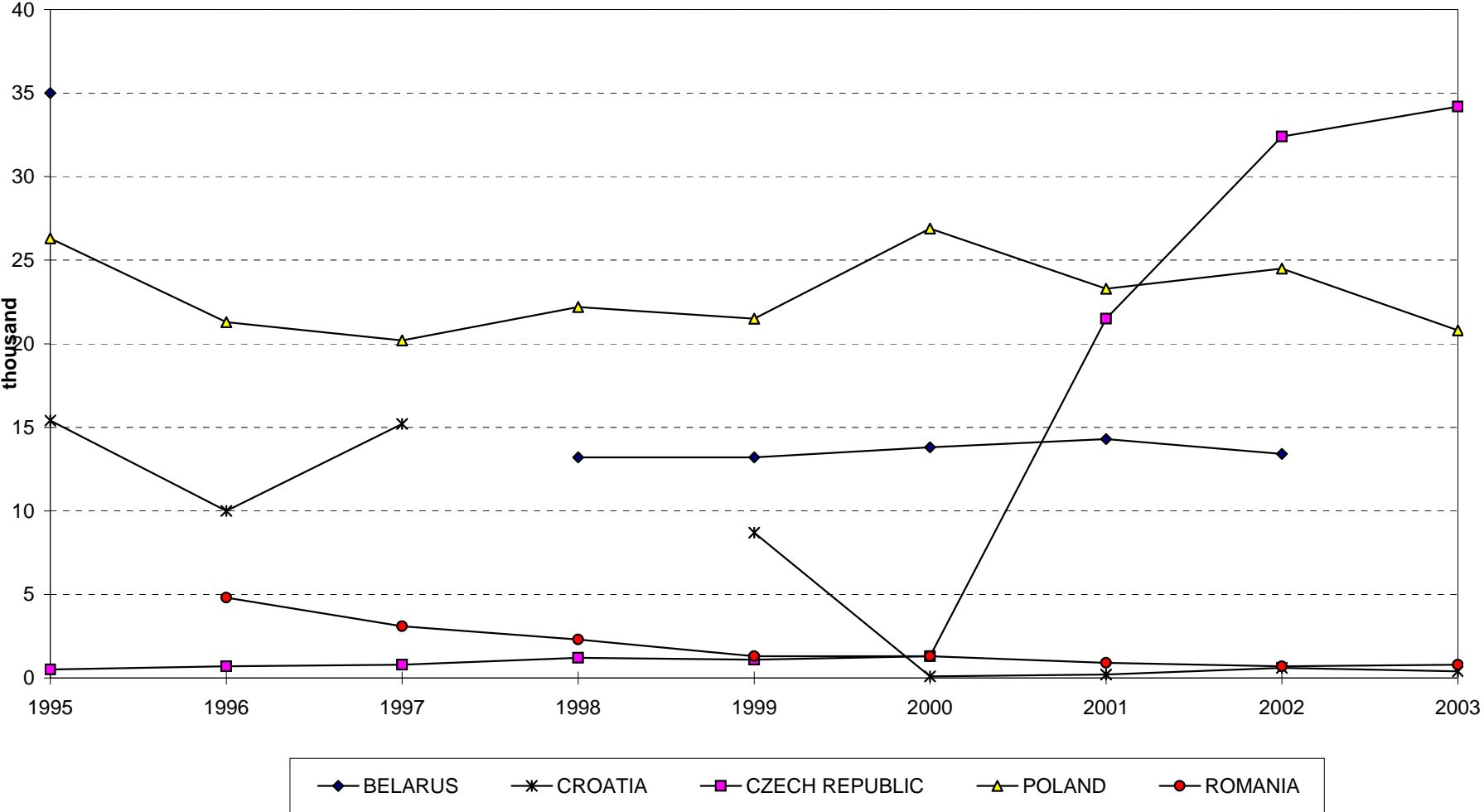
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 5e - PERMANENT EMIGRATION FROM THE BALTIC STATES, 1995-2003



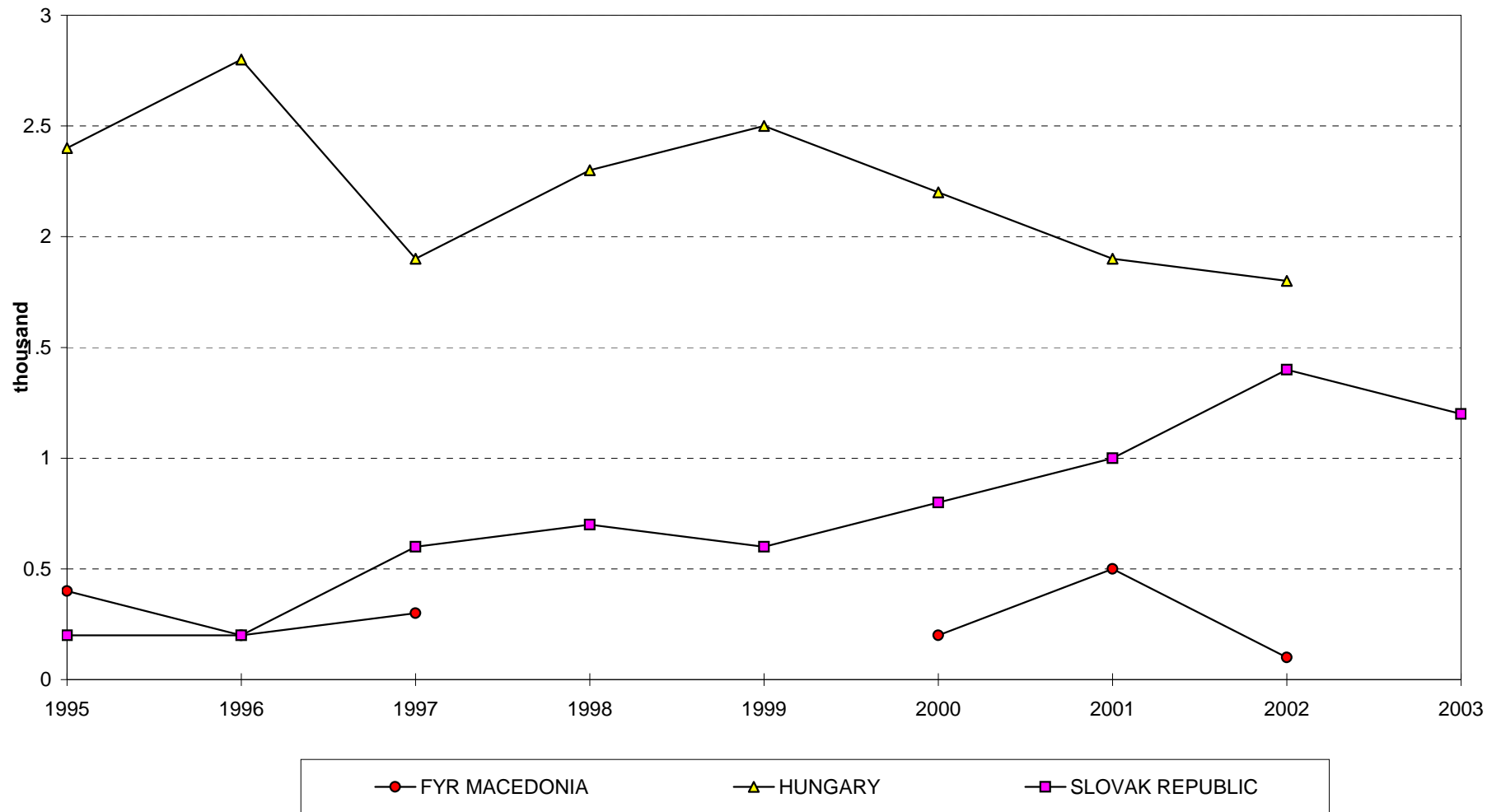
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 5f - PERMANENT EMIGRATION FROM SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2003



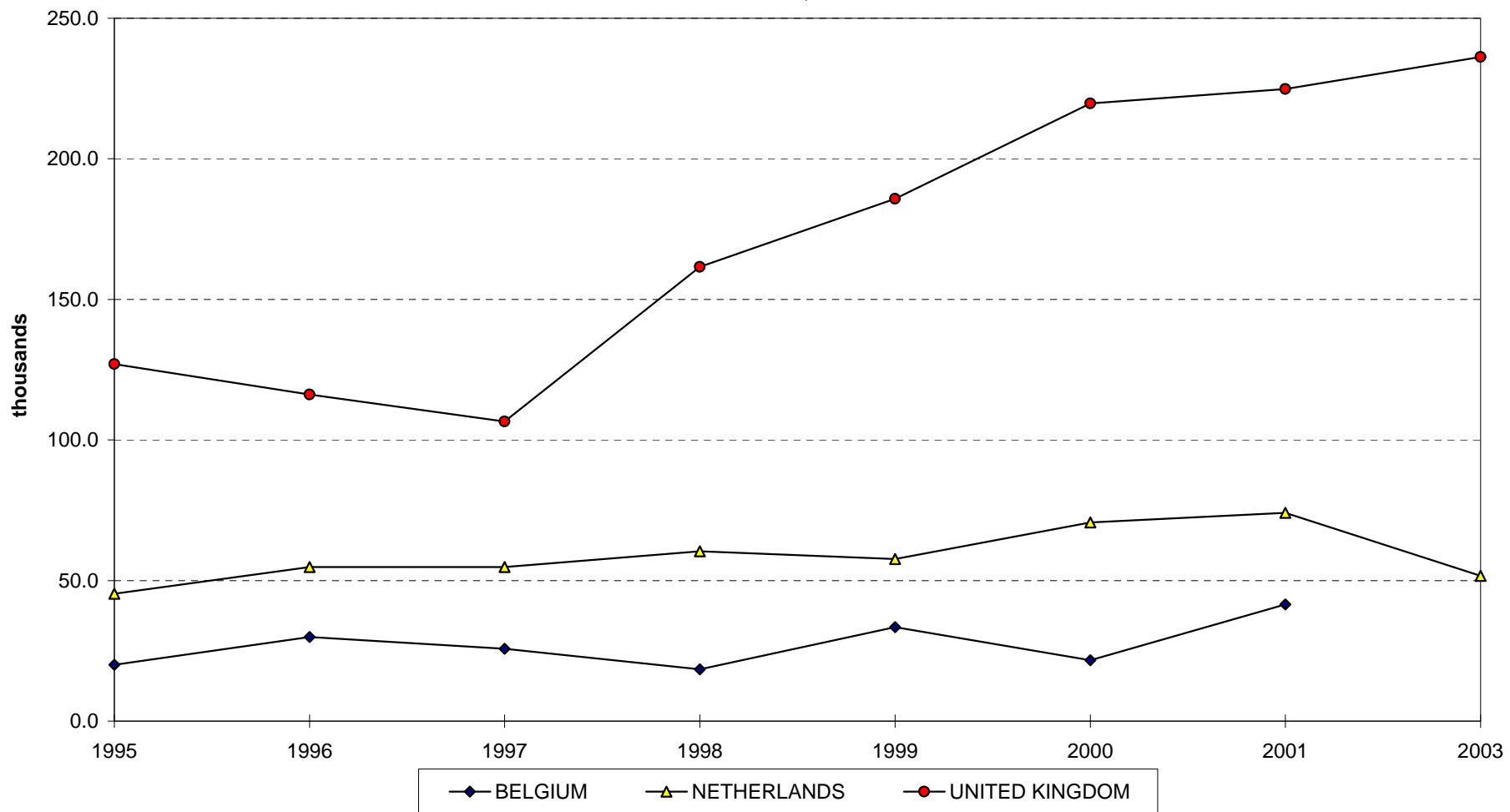
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 5g - PERMANENT EMIGRATION FROM SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2003



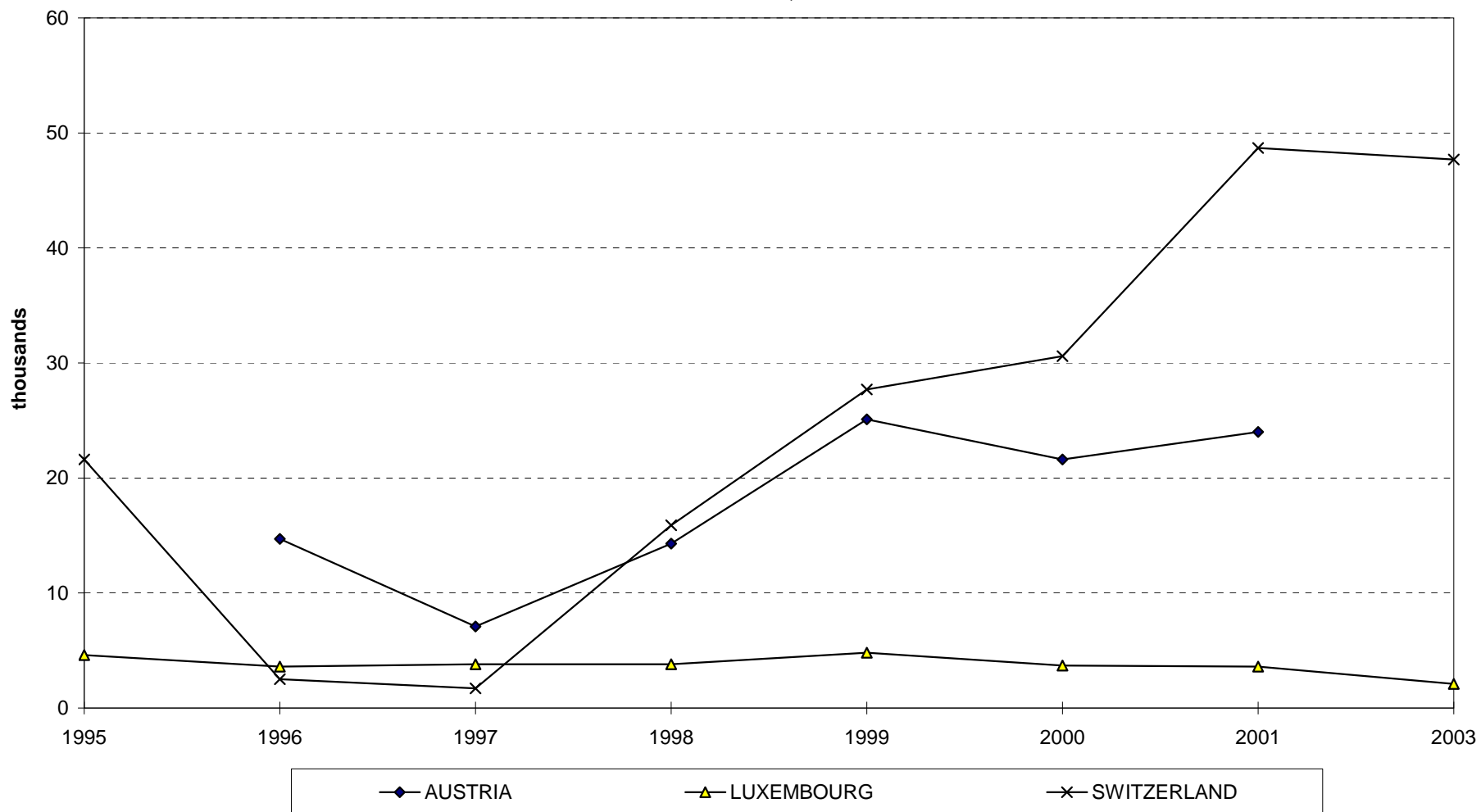
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 6a - NET FLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO/FROM SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2003



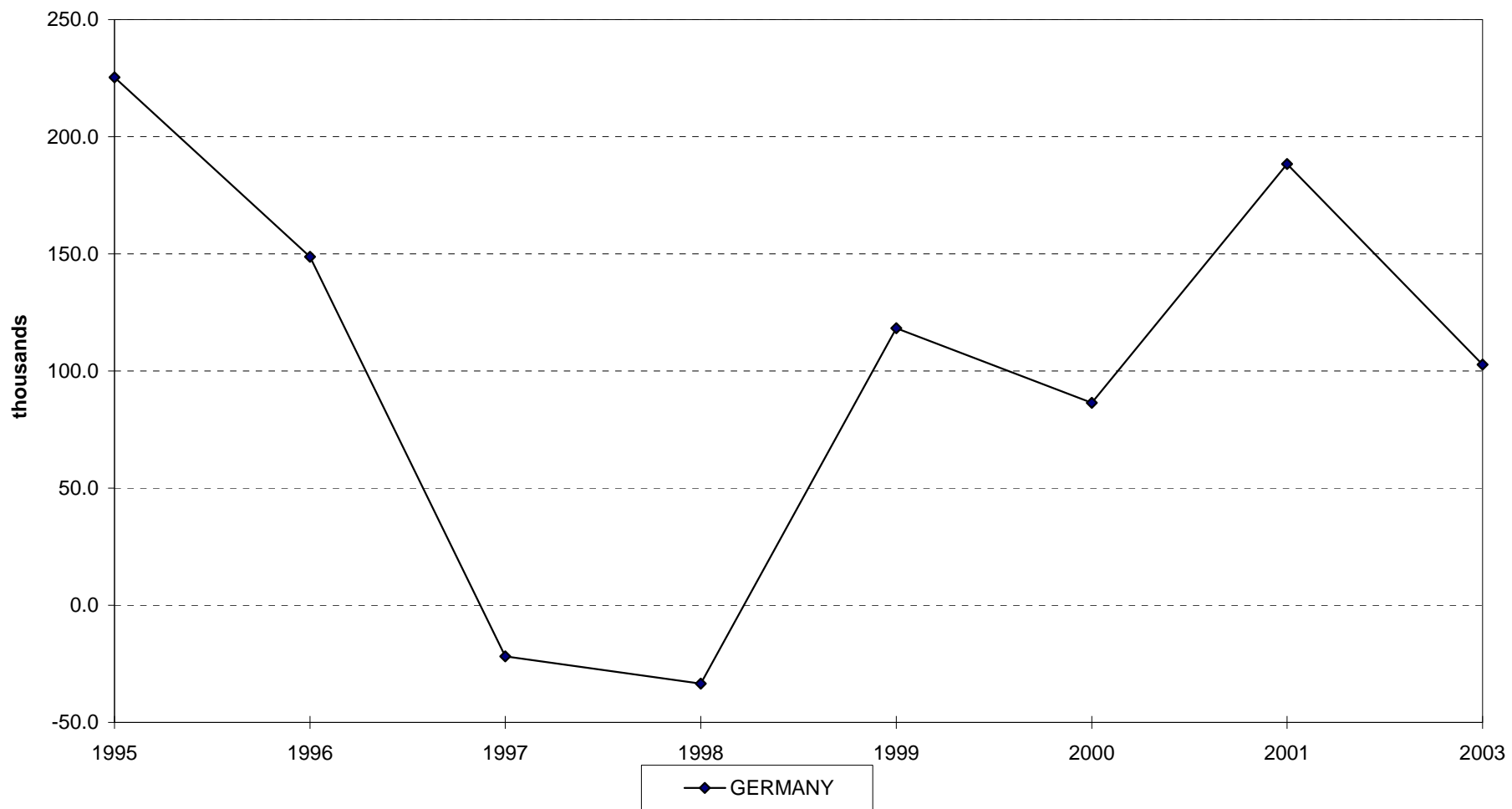
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 6b - NET FLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO/FROM SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2003



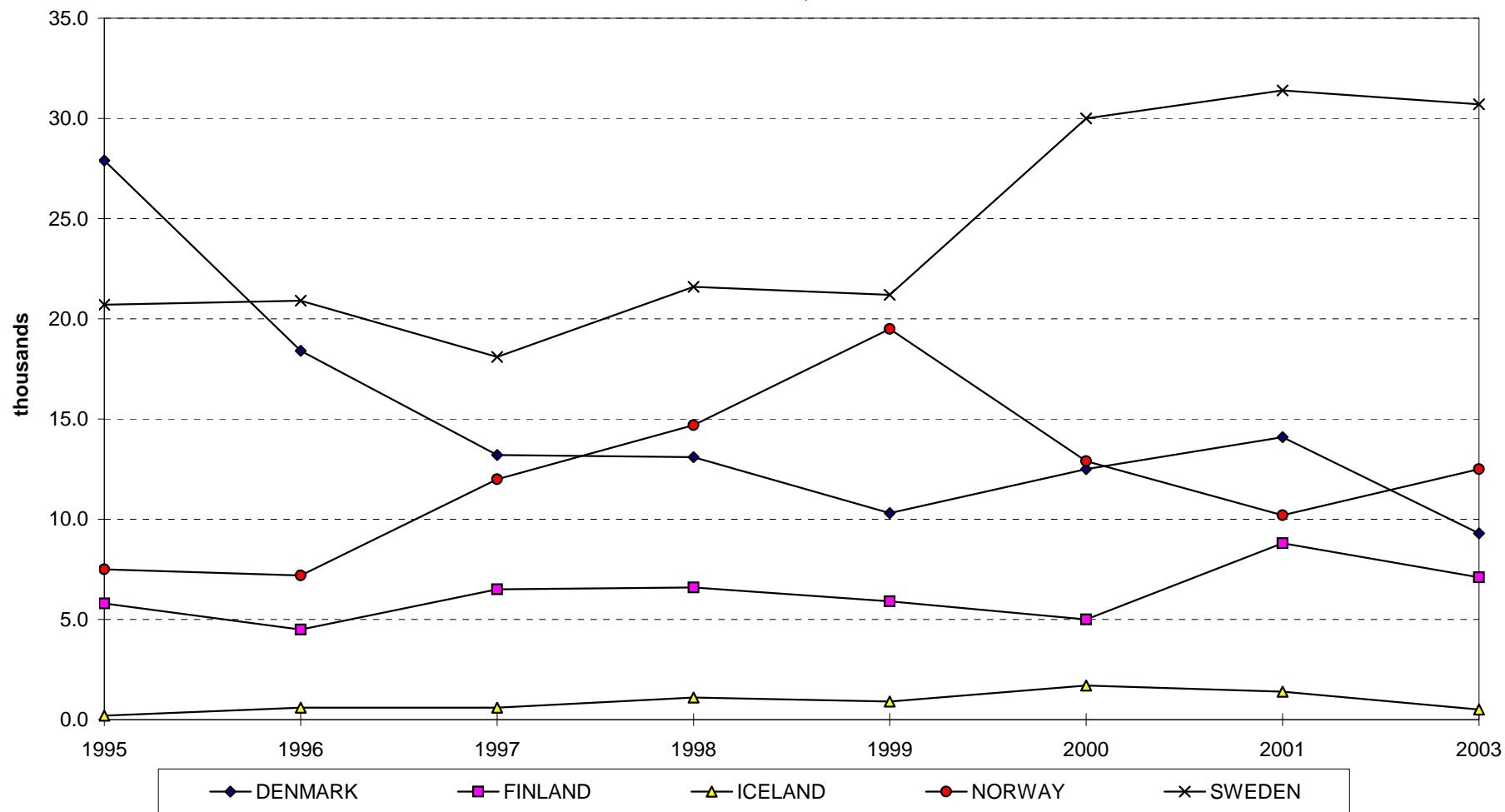
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 6c - NET FLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO/FROM GERMANY, 1995-2003



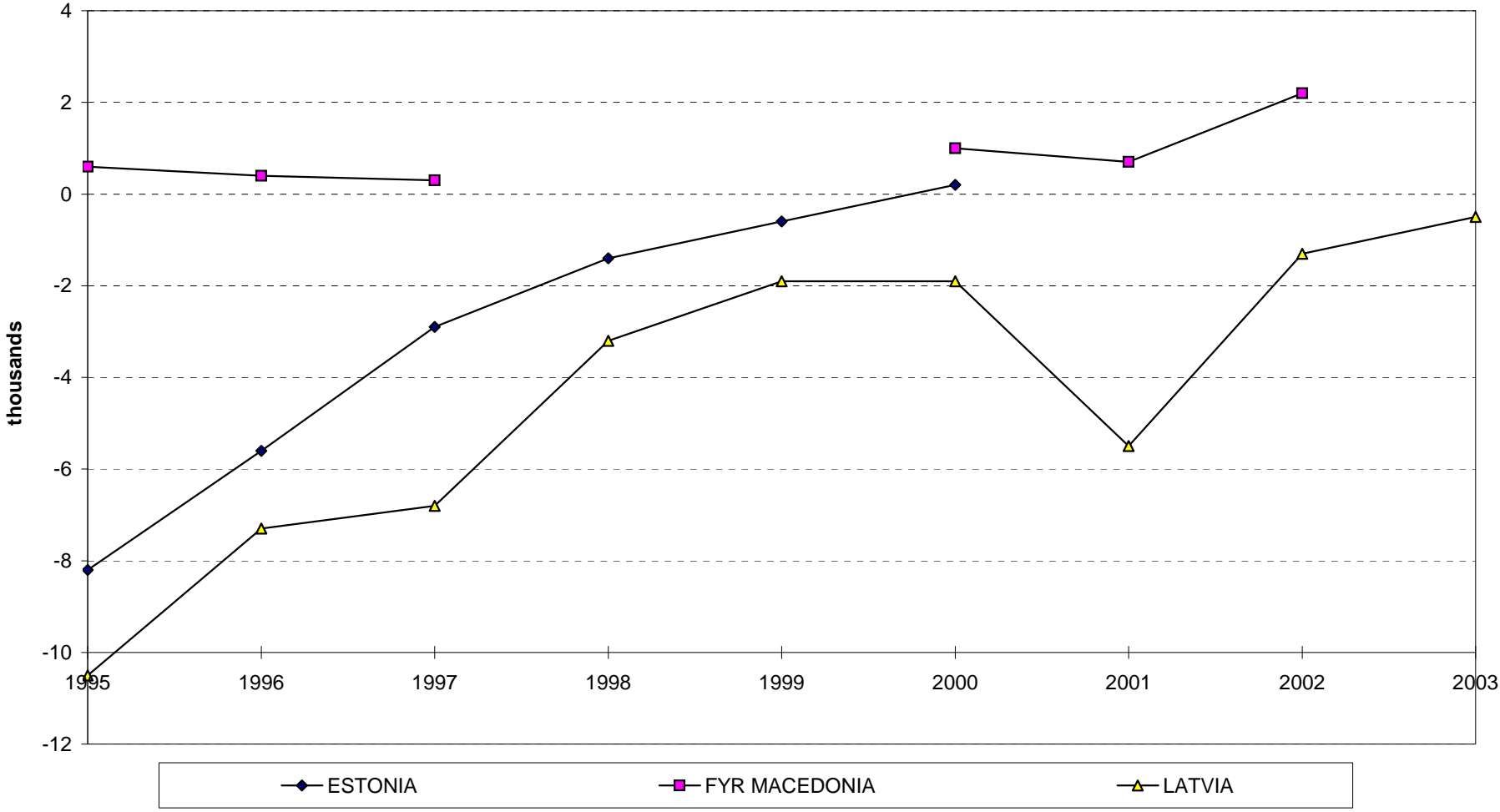
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 6d - NET FLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO/FROM SELECTED NORTHERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2003



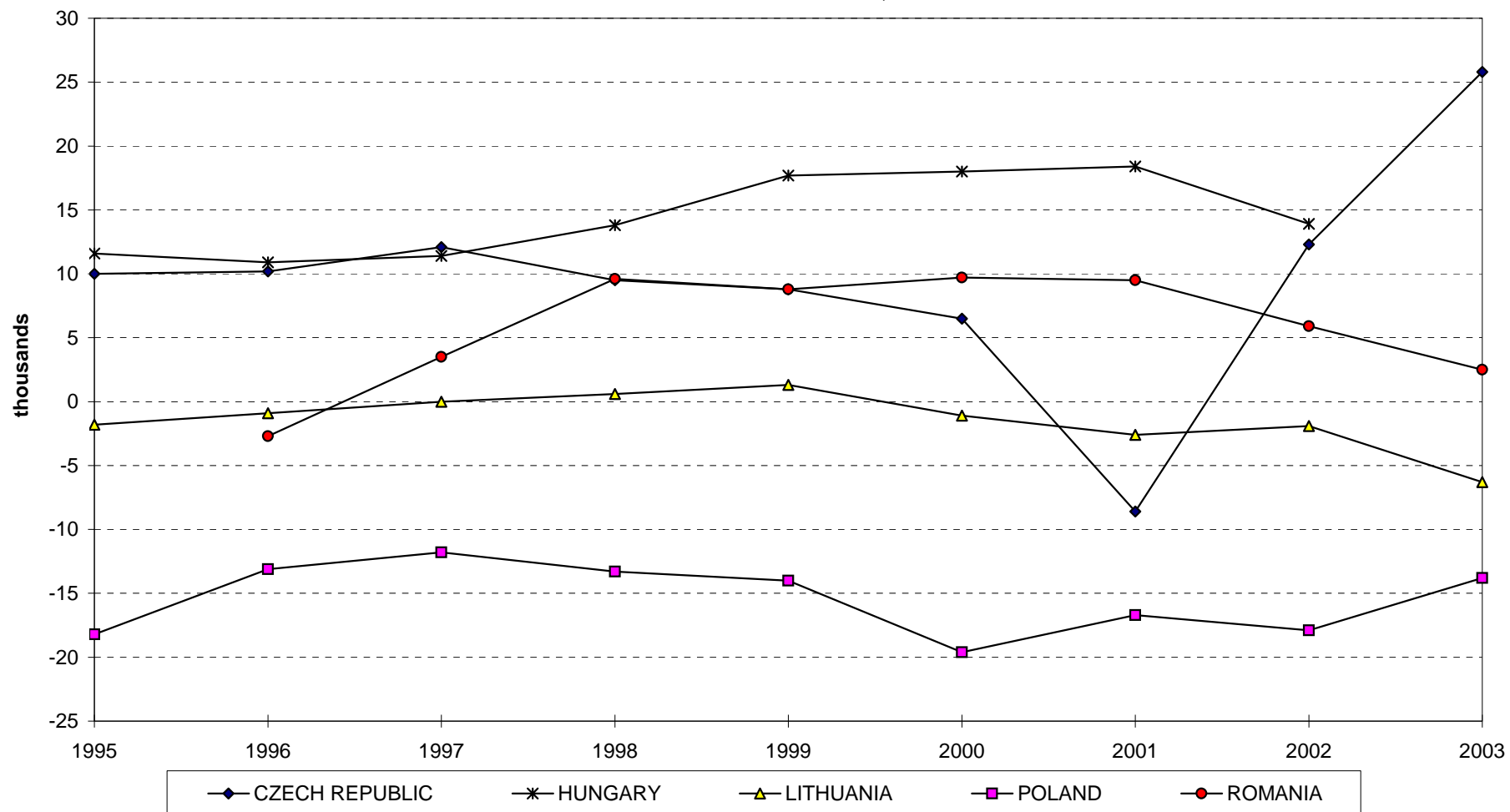
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 6e - NET FLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO/FROM SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2003



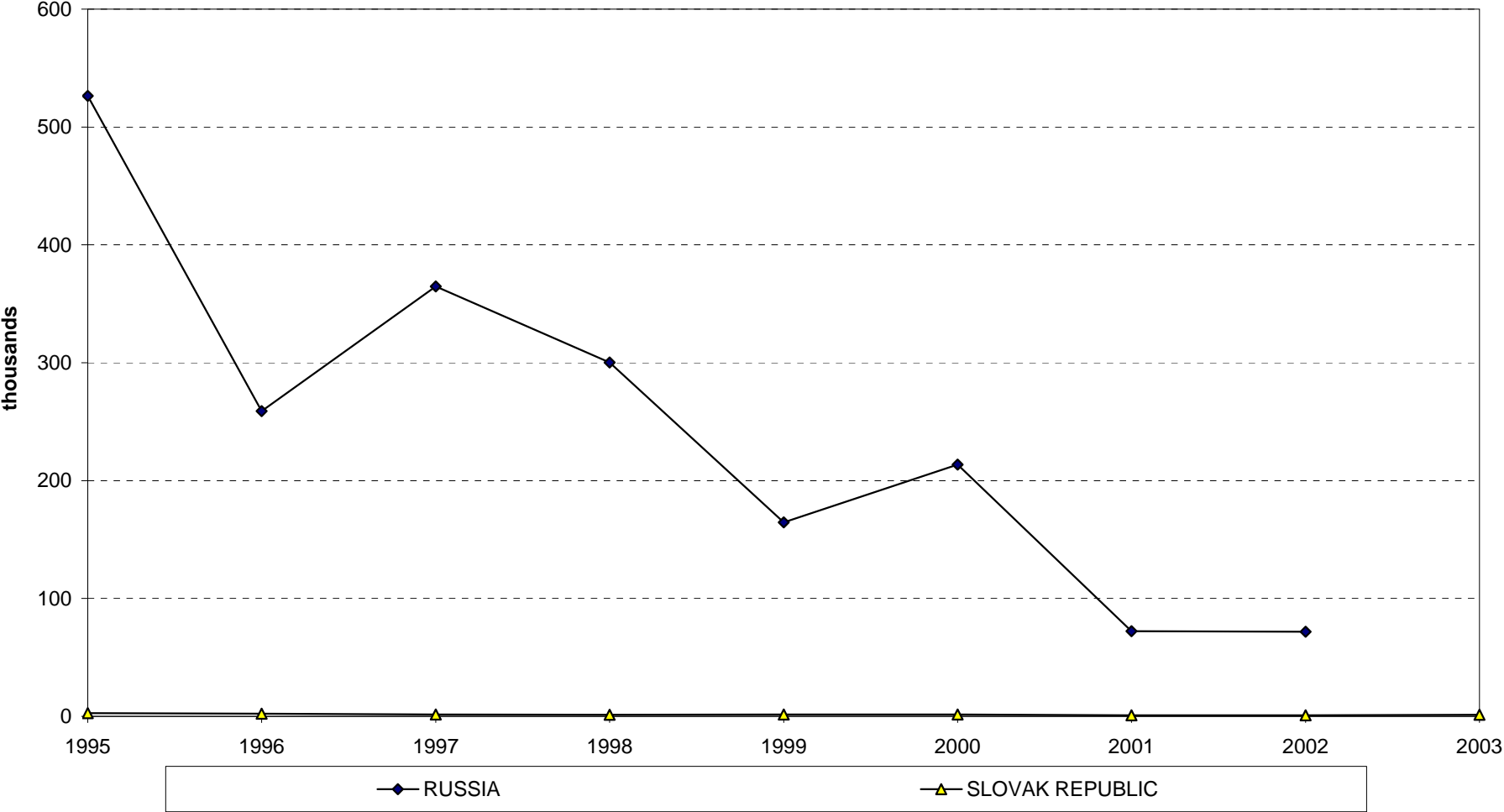
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 6f - NET FLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO/FROM SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2003



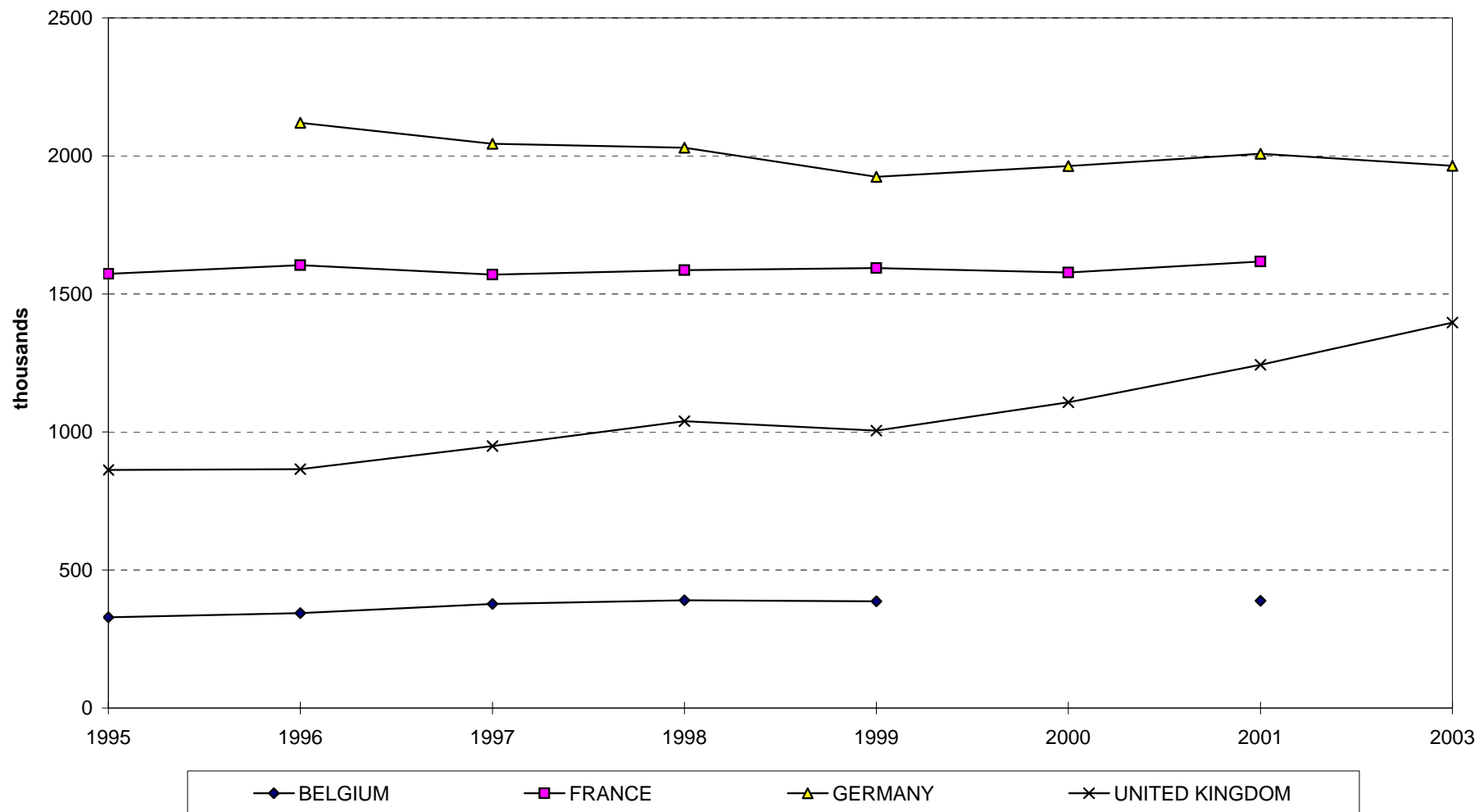
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 6g - NET FLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO/FROM SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2003



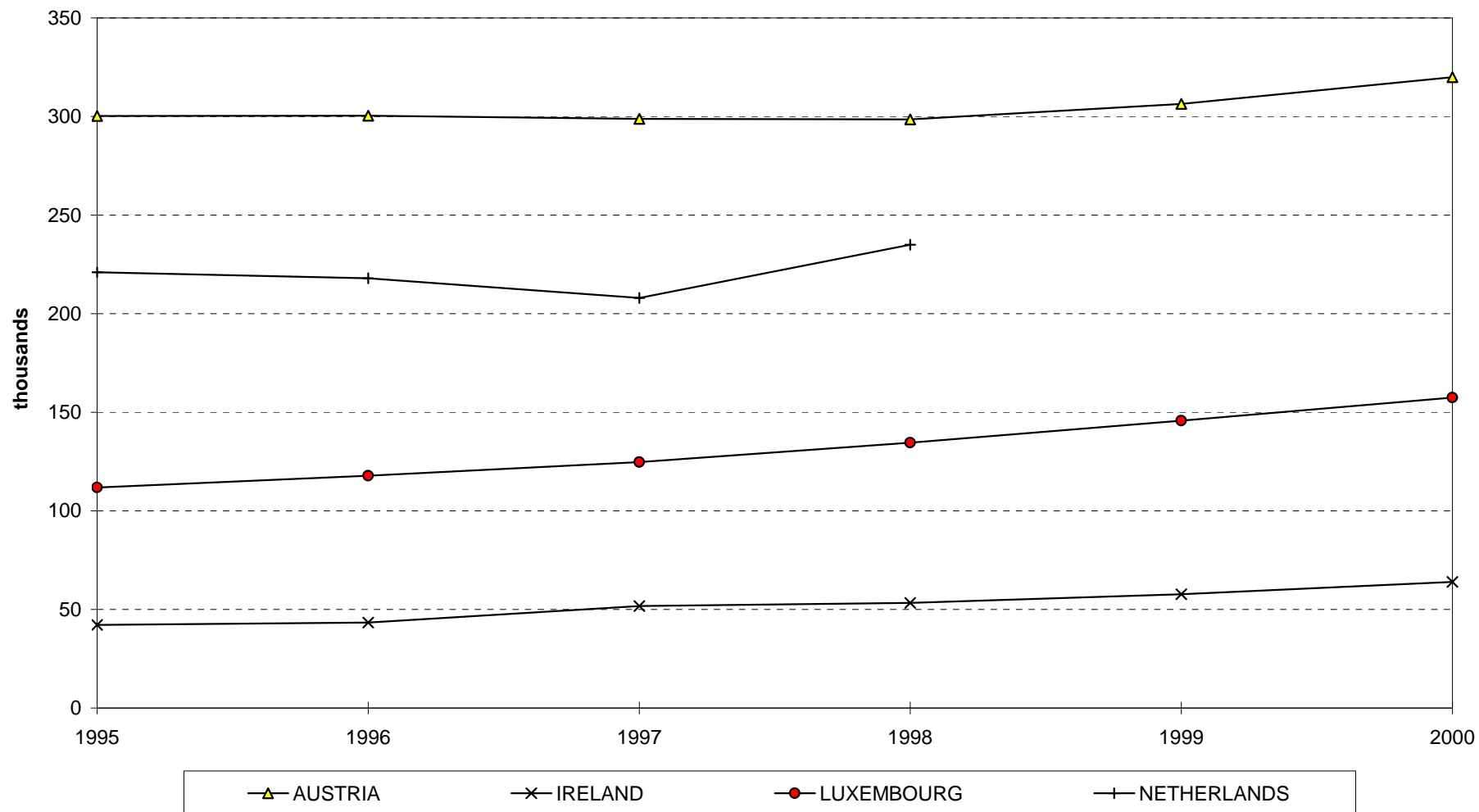
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

**FIGURE 7a - STOCK OF FOREIGN LABOUR IN SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES,
1995-2003**



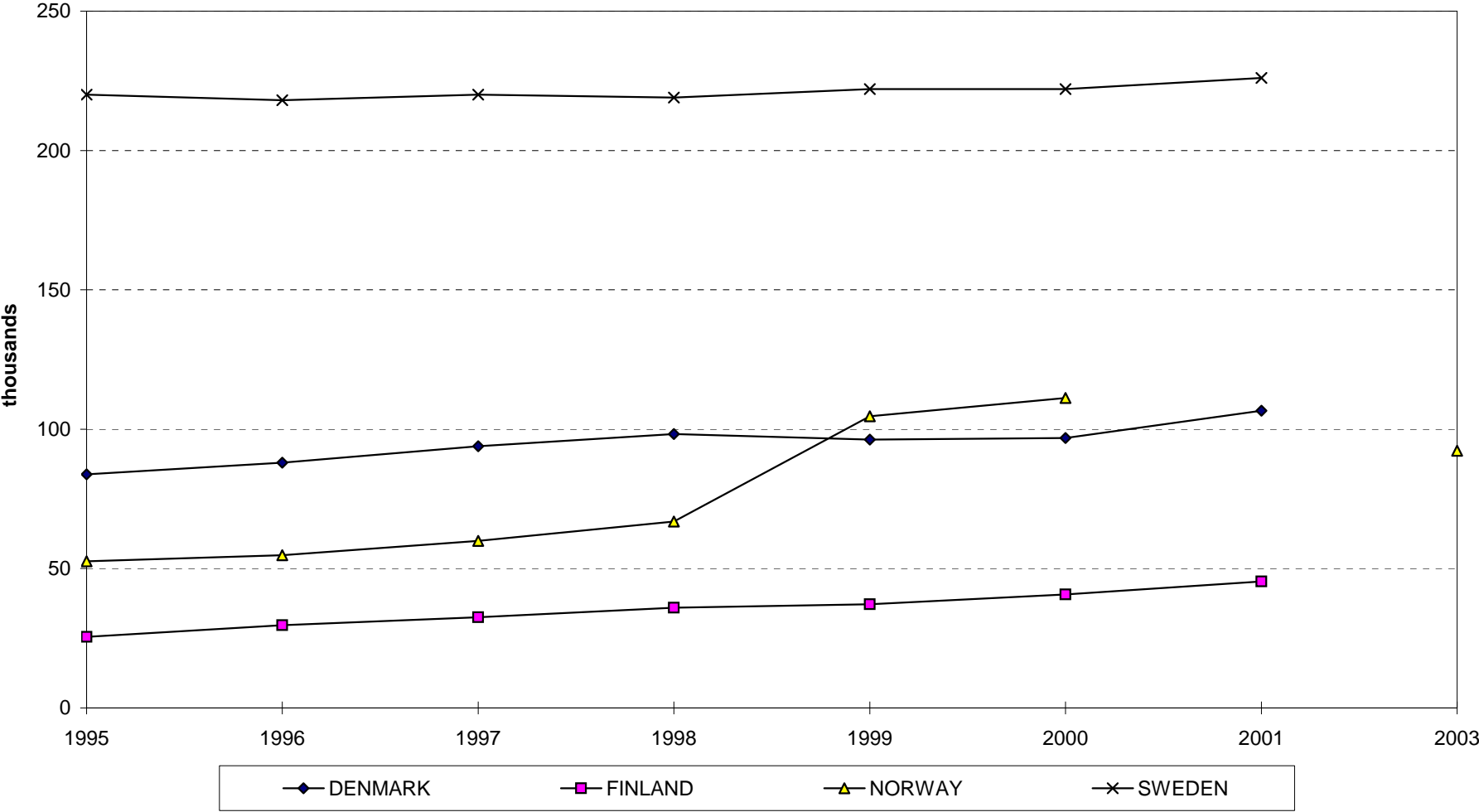
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

**FIGURE 7b - STOCK OF FOREIGN LABOUR IN SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES,
1995-2003**



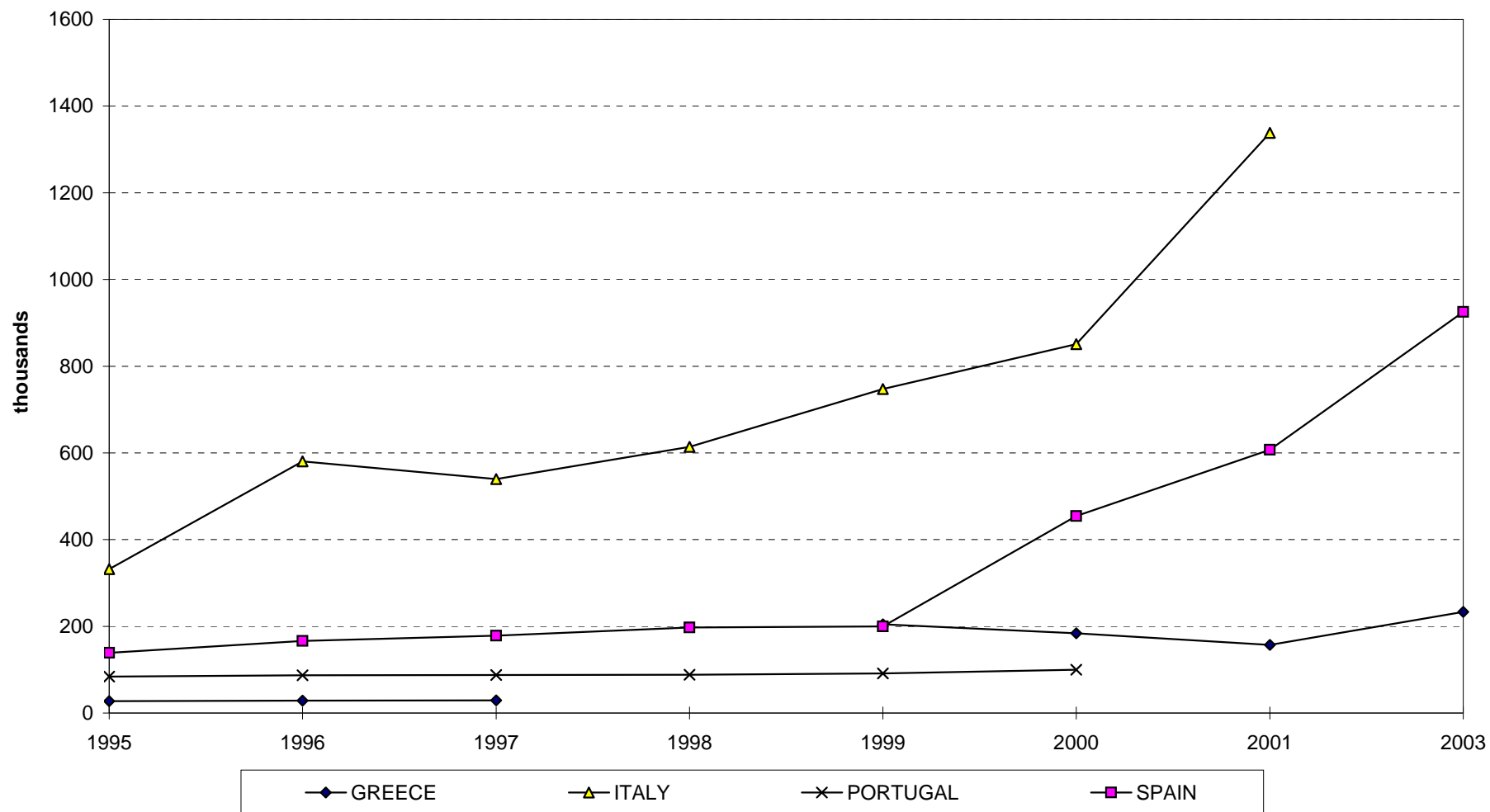
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 7c - STOCK OF FOREIGN LABOUR IN SELECTED SCANDINAVIAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2003



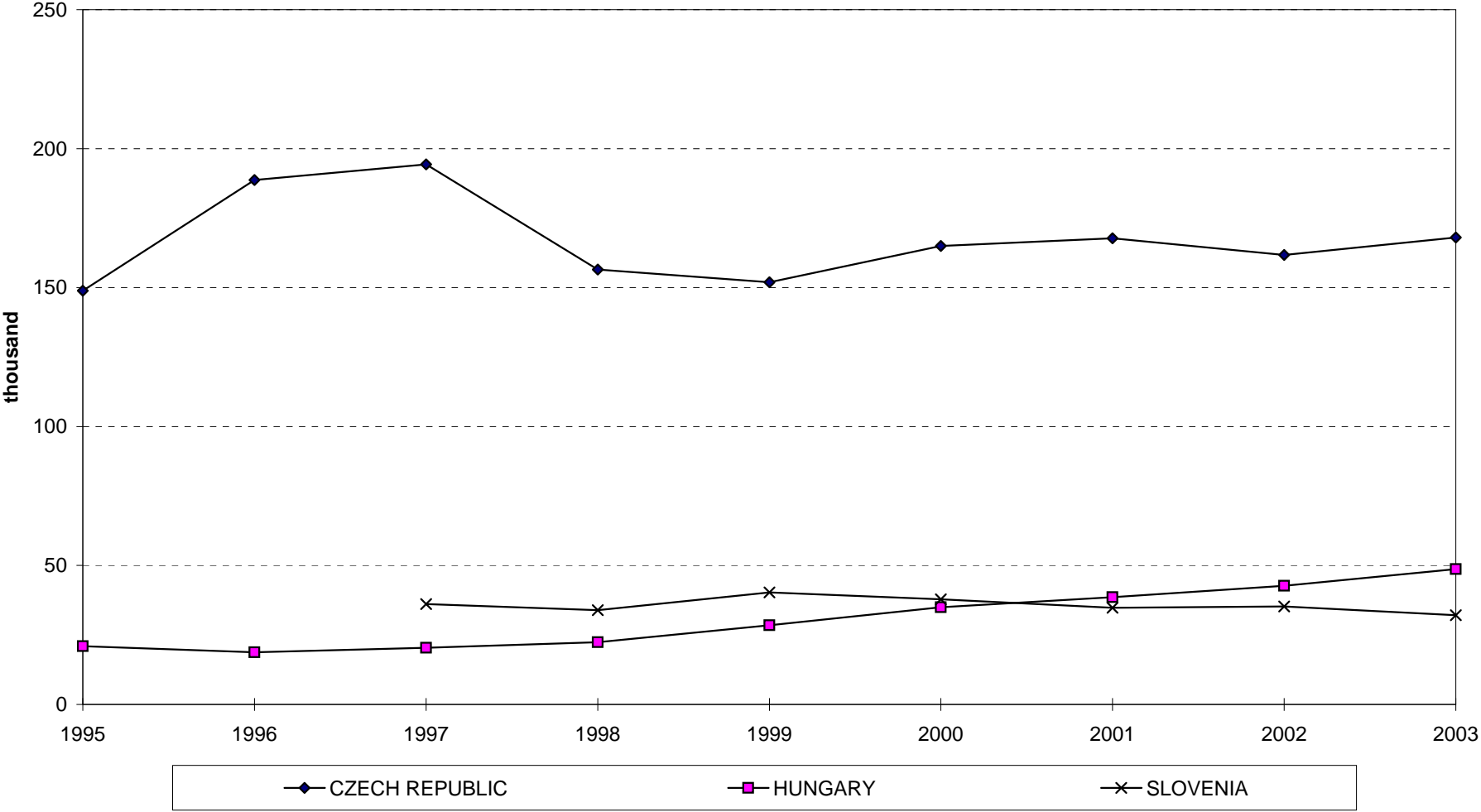
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 7d - STOCK OF FOREIGN LABOUR IN SELECTED MEDITERRANEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-20012



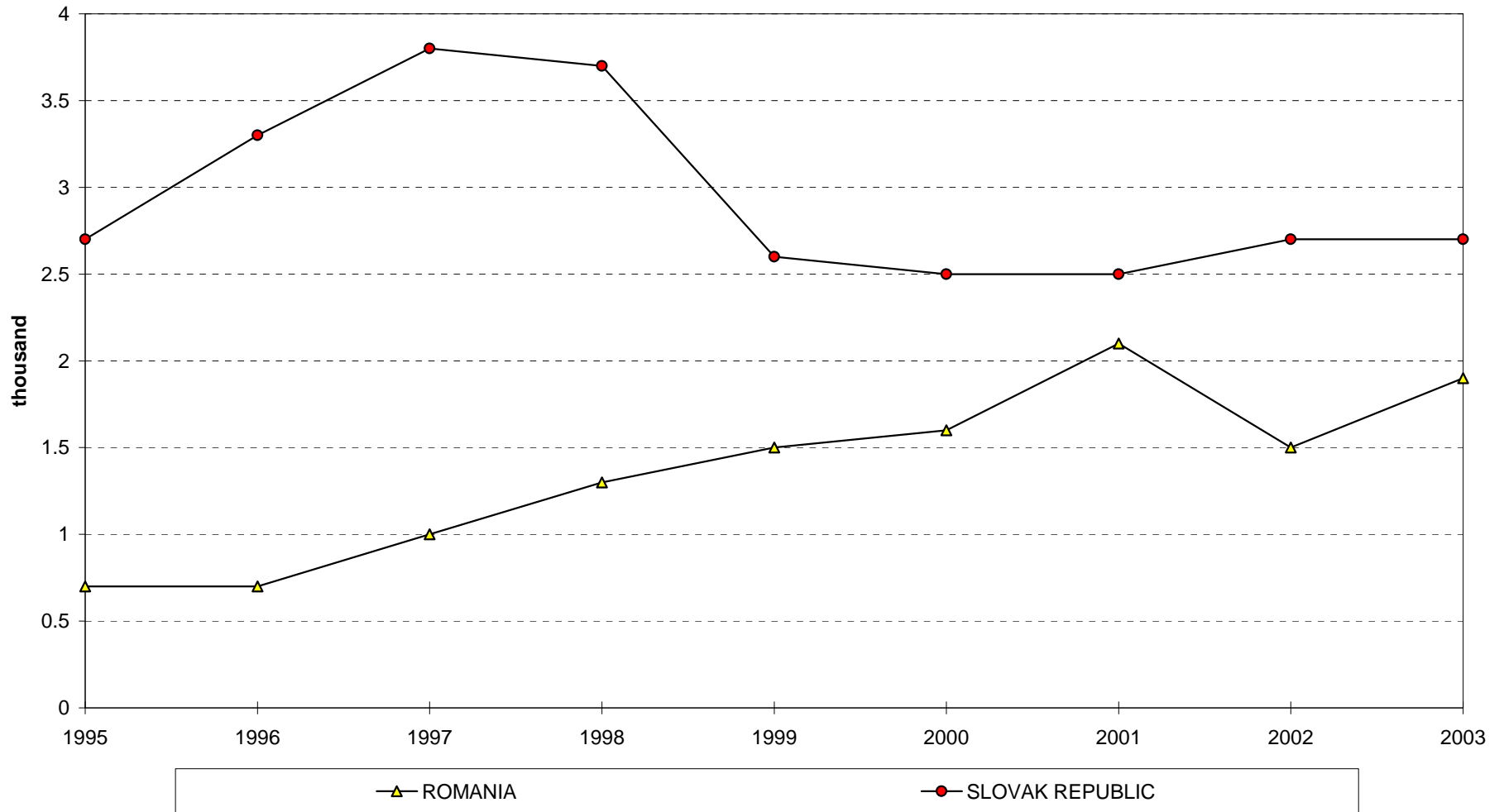
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 7e - STOCK OF FOREIGN LABOUR IN SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2003



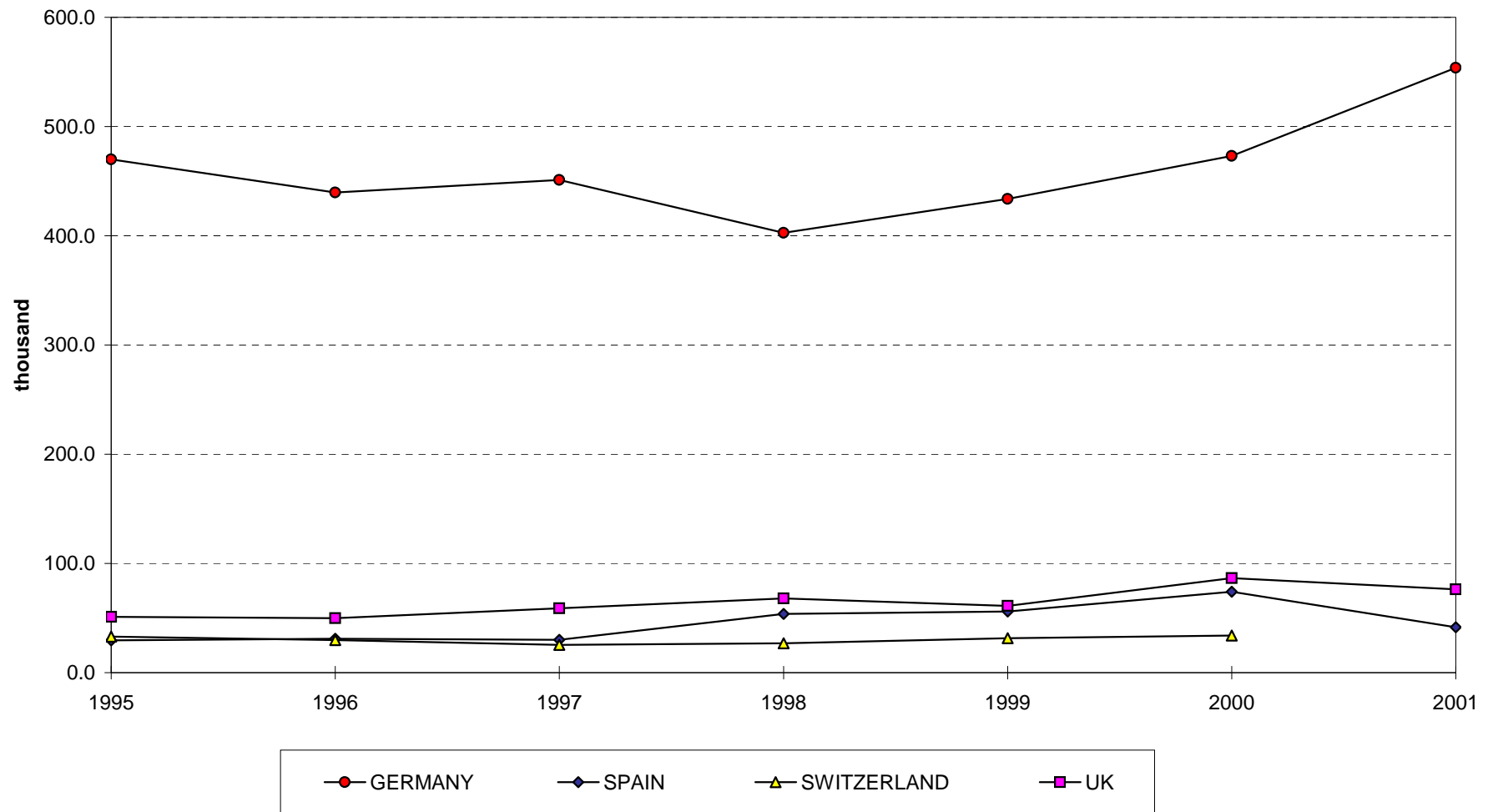
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 7f - STOCK OF FOREIGN LABOUR IN SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2003



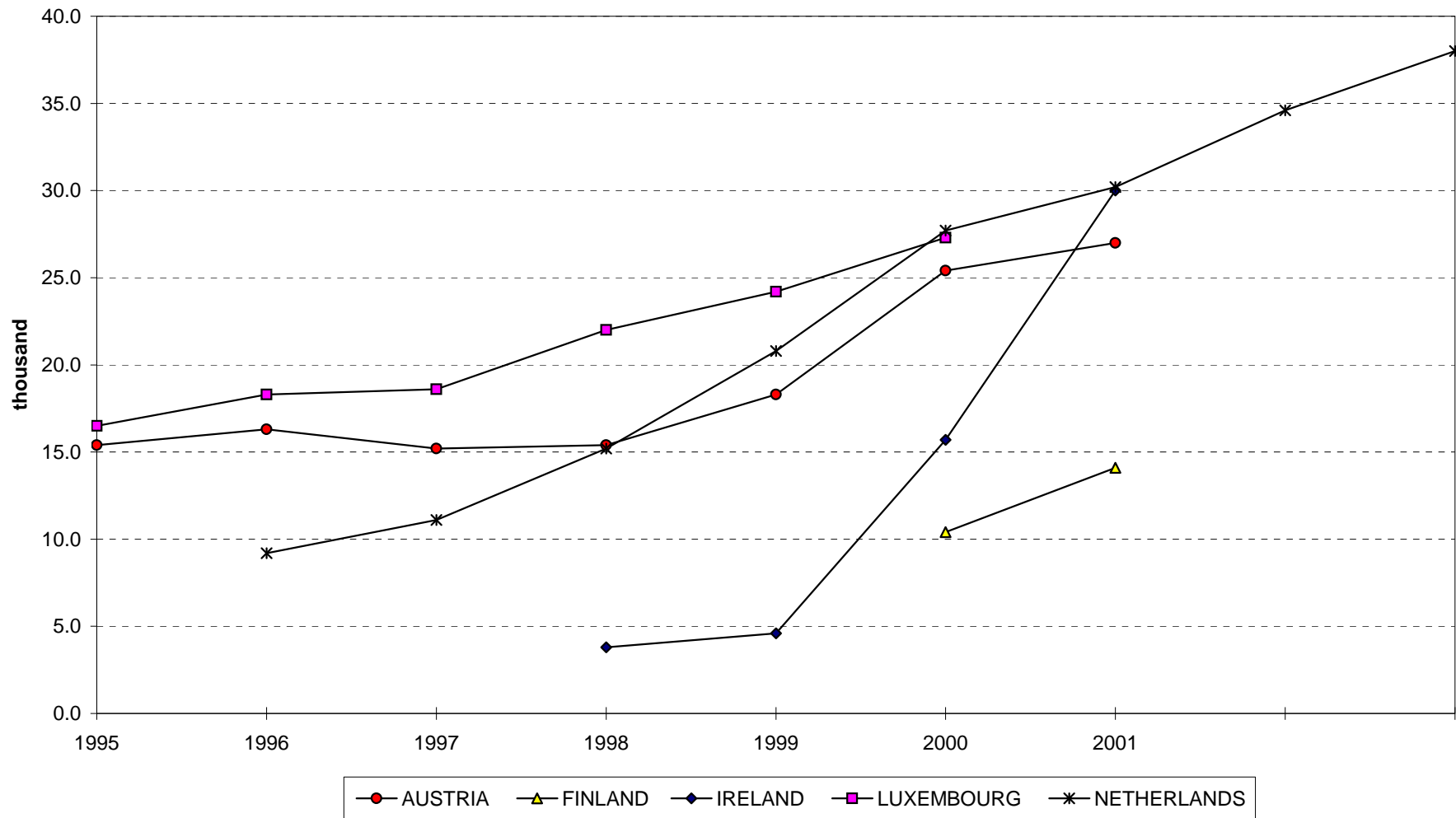
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

**FIGURE 8a - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN LABOUR TO SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES,
1995-2003**



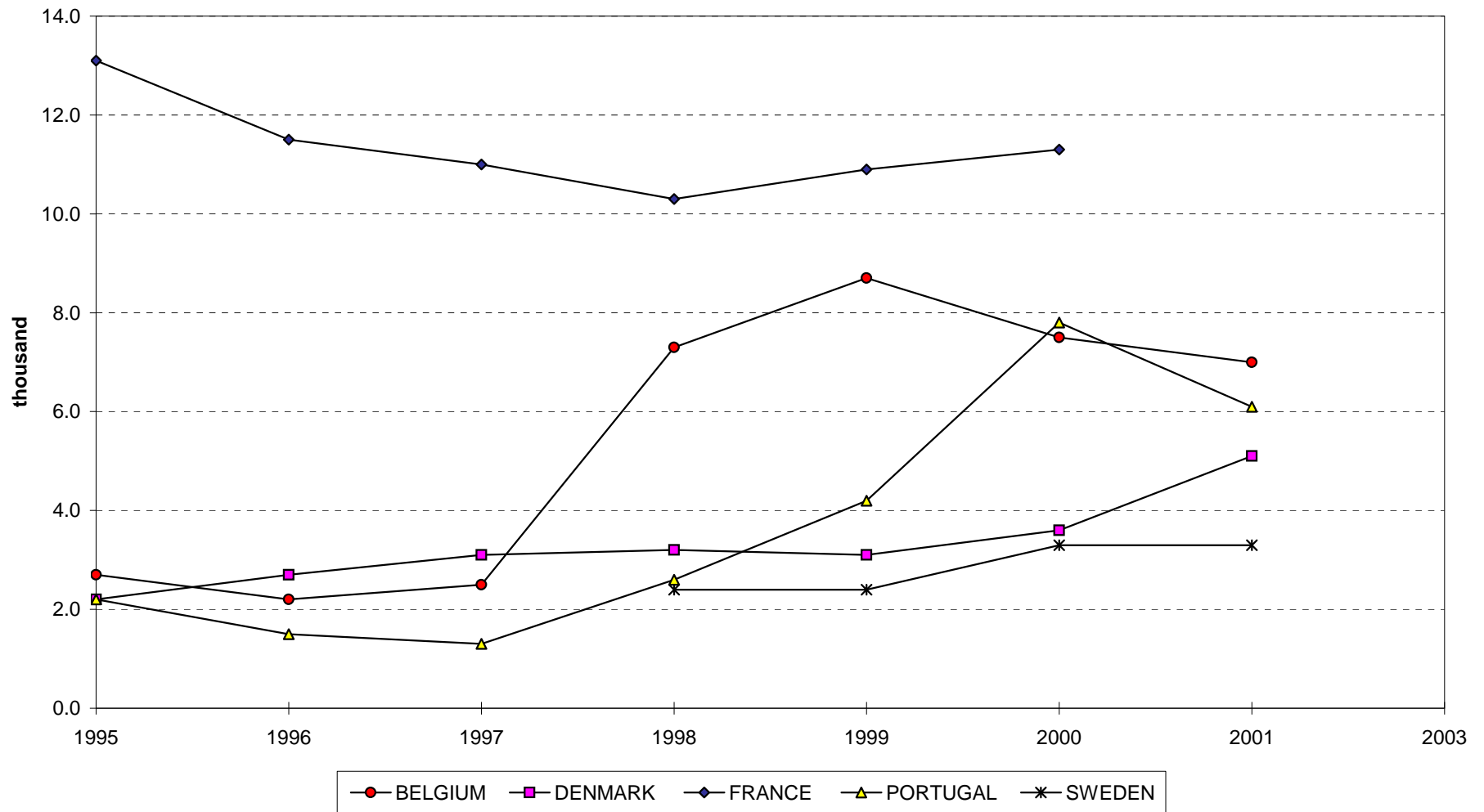
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

**FIGURE 8b - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN LABOUR TO SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES,
1995-2003**



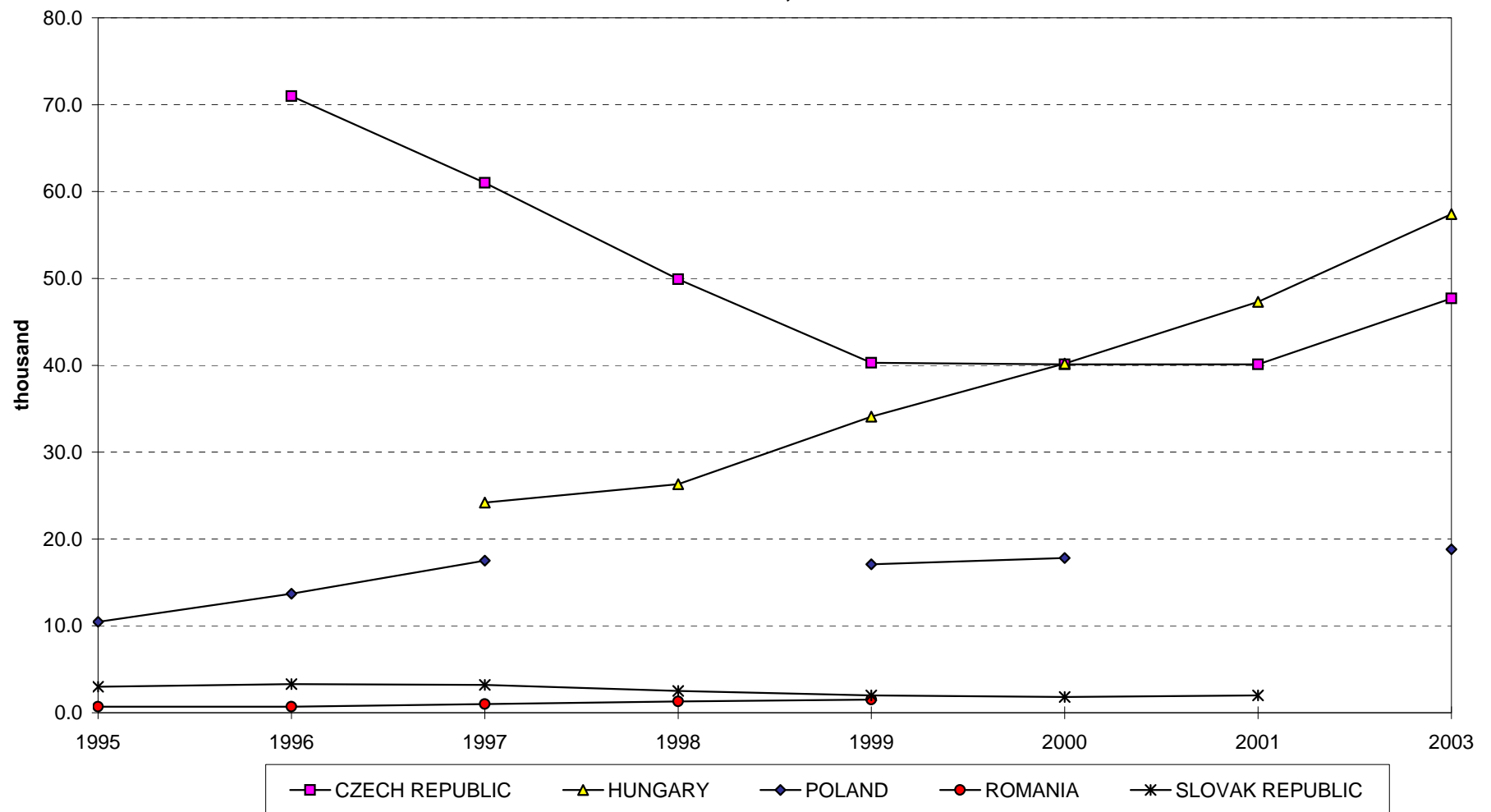
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

**FIGURE 8c - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN LABOUR TO SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES,
1995-2003**



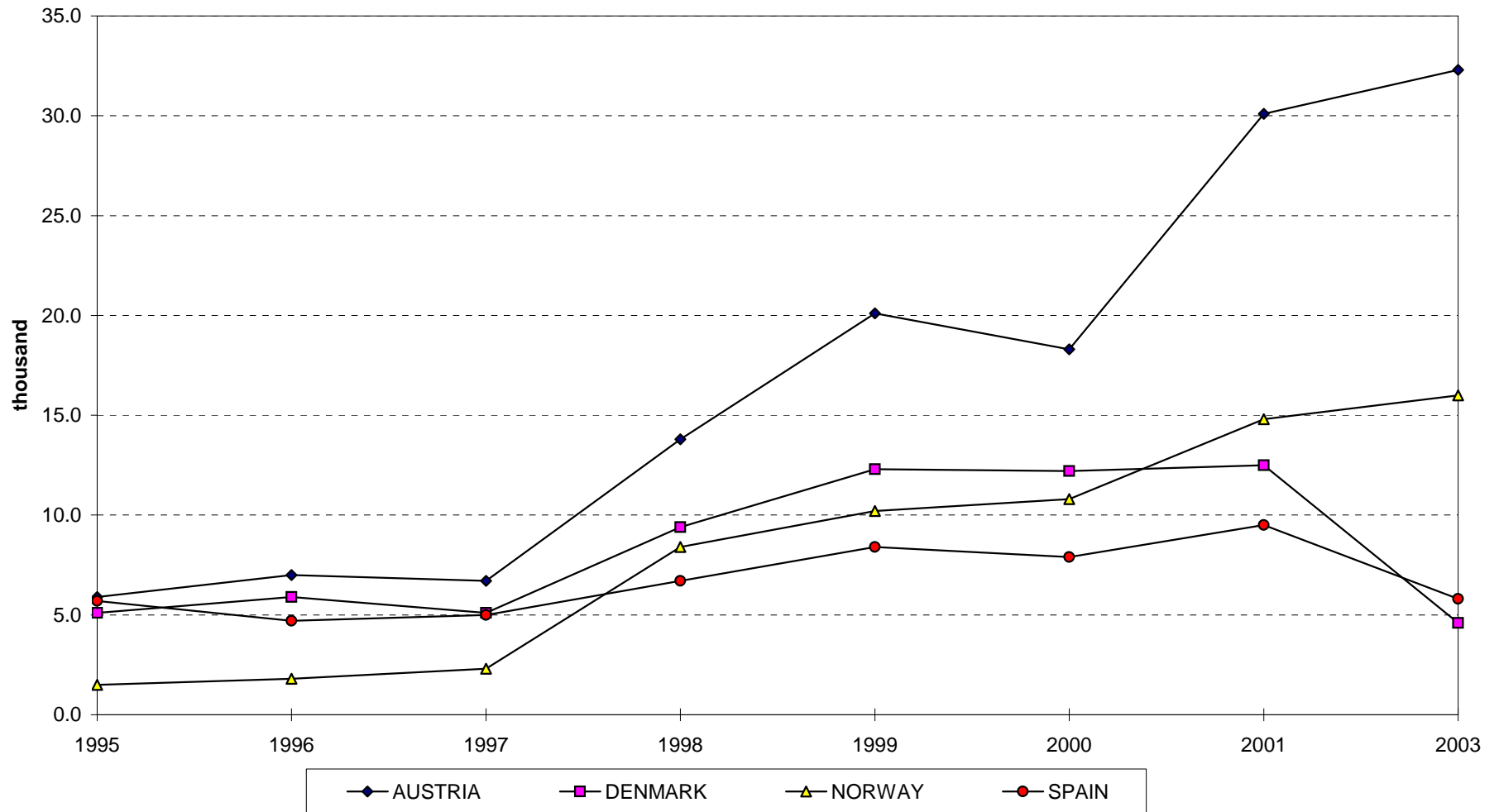
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 8d - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN LABOUR TO SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2003



For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 9a - ASYLUM APPLICATIONS IN SELECTED EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2003



For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 9b - ASYLUM APPLICATIONS IN SELECTED EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2003



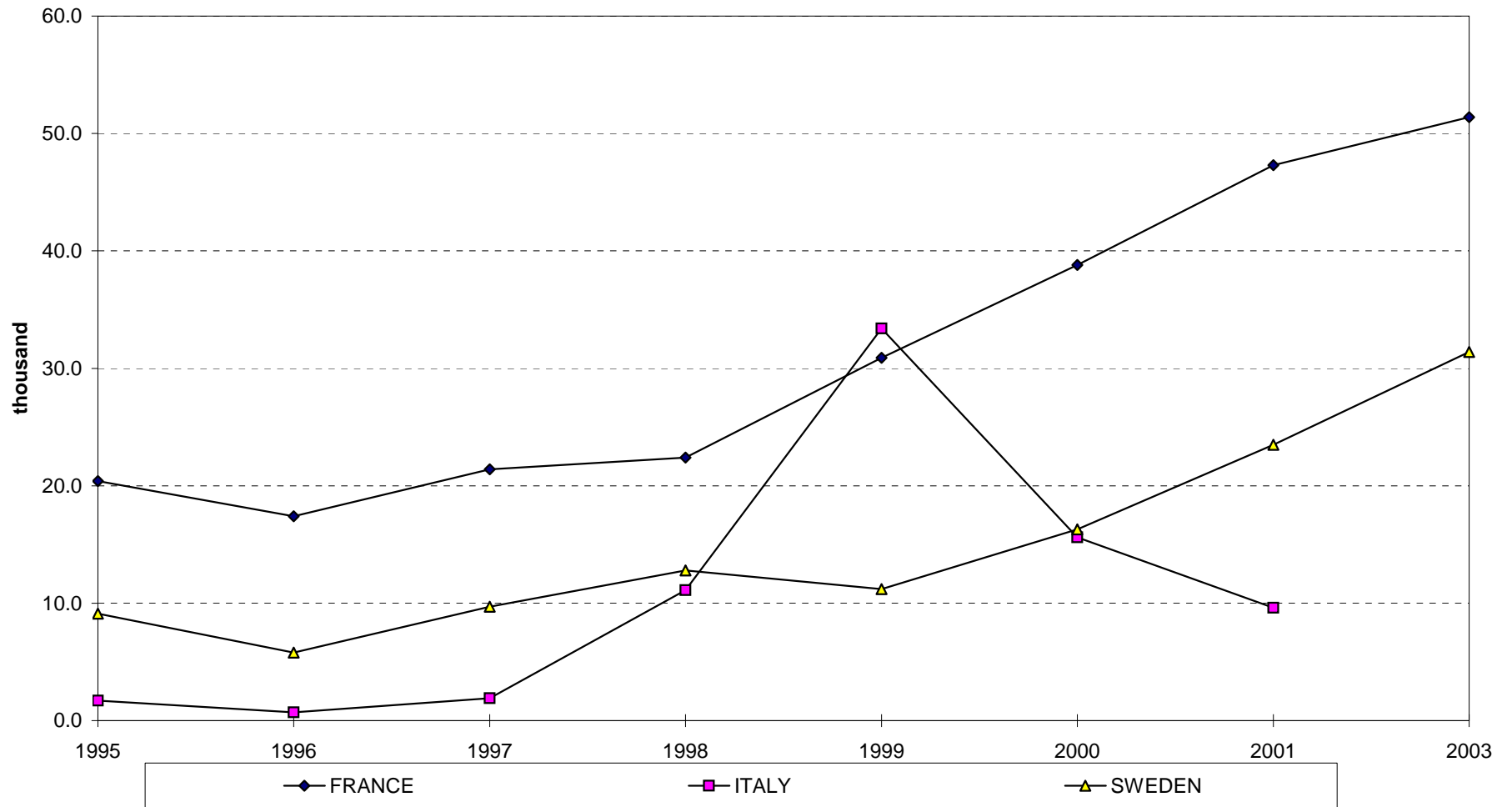
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 9c - ASYLUM APPLICATIONS IN SELECTED EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2003



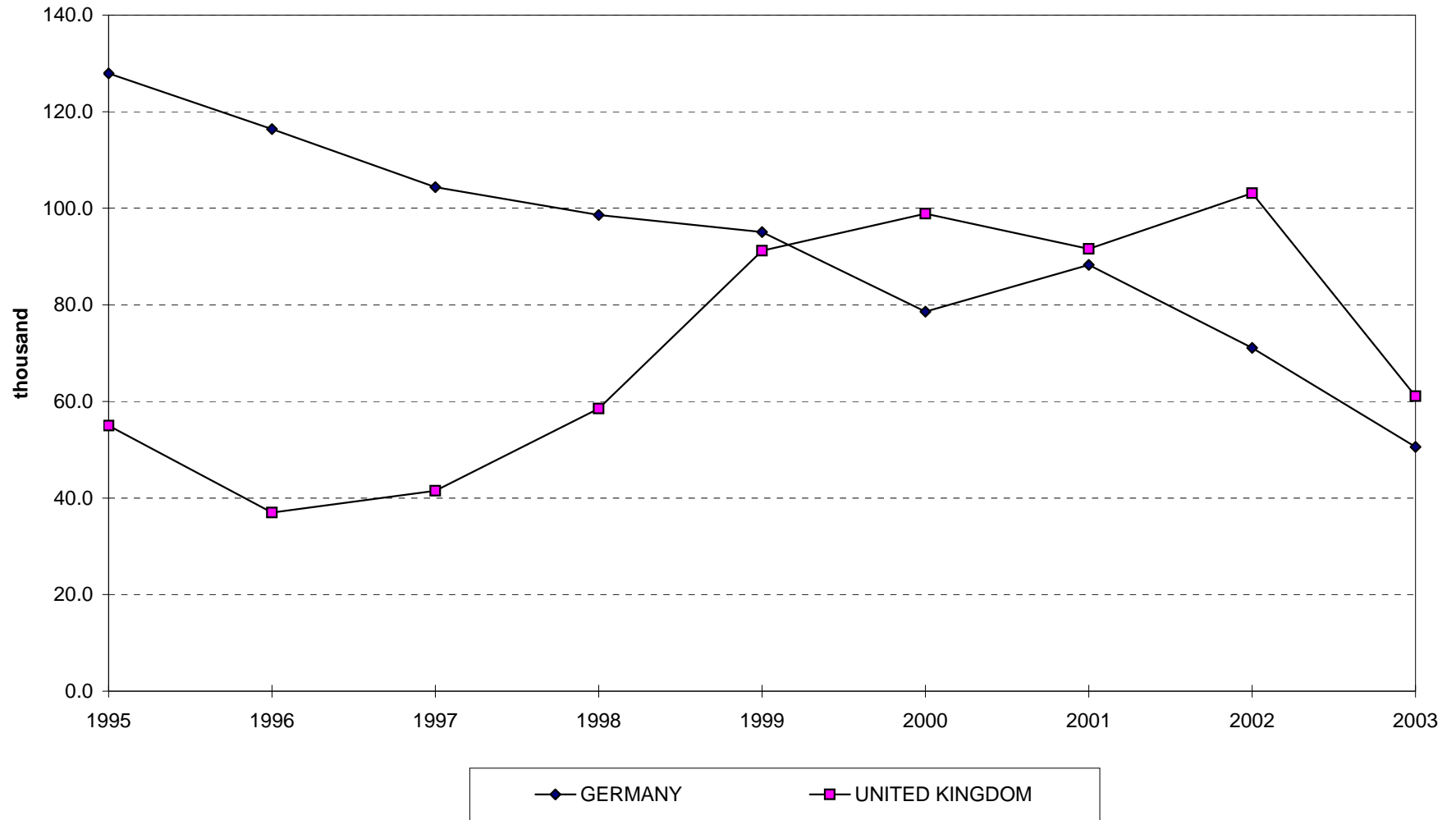
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 9d - ASYLUM APPLICATIONS IN SELECTED EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2003



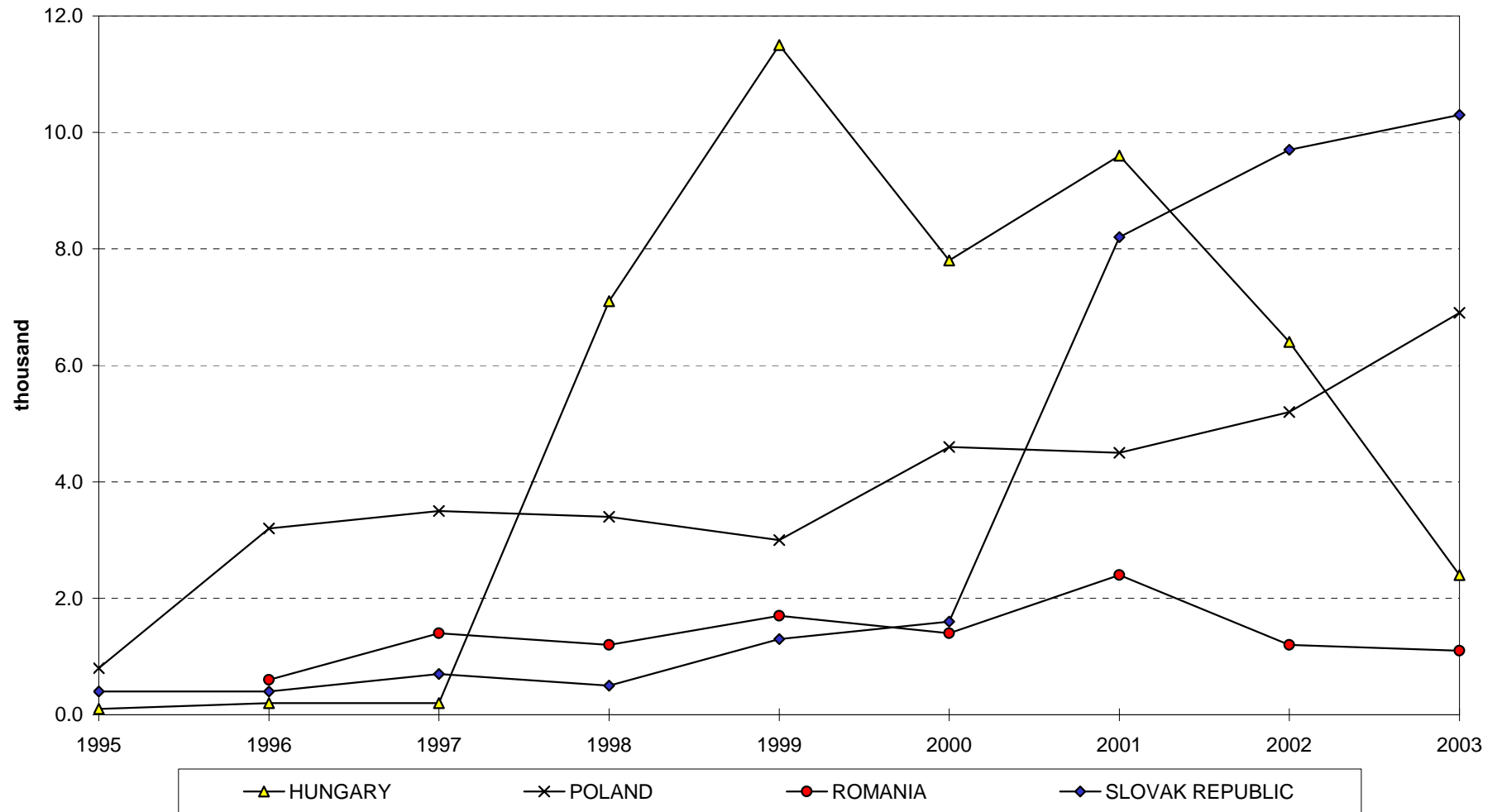
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 9e - ASYLUM APPLICATIONS IN GERMANY AND THE UNITED KINGDOM, 1995-2003



For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.

FIGURE 9f - ASYLUM APPLICATIONS IN SELECTED EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2003



For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table.