CDMG (2003) 39

CURRENT TRENDS IN INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION IN EUROPE

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December 2003

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1. INTRODUCTION

This is the 13th 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 demographies 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. Unrecorded and irregular migrations continue to pose challenges, although there is no hard evidence that their scale is increasing.

In the medium term the biggest issue will be the effects of the next 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.

There is probably now more research into international migration in Europe than ever before. New migrations are coming under the spotlight, like those of the Chinese in Europe (see, for example, *International Migration*, 41(3), 2003) or the Albanian diaspora (*Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 29(6), 2003). Increasing attention is also being paid to integration and social inclusion/exclusion, to new cross-border relations and to a wide range of management issues.

2. MIGRATION AND POPULATION CHANGE IN EUROPE

The world's population looks set to continue its rapid growth, rising to around 9.322 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 estimates of numbers of people living outside their own country vary from 100-150 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 for the period 2000-02, indicating that migration was the most important component in 23 (51 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*: Czech Republic, Latvia, Lithuania, Moldova, Romania, Ukraine. In all of these natural decrease was more influential than net emigration, except for Lithuania where the two had equal weight.
2. *Population loss owing to natural decrease more than offsetting migration gain*: Belarus, Bulgaria (migration balance indicated), Estonia, Hungary, Russia.
3. *Population loss owing to net emigration offsetting natural increase*: Armenia, Georgia, Poland.
4. *Population gain owing to both natural increase and net immigration*: Austria, Belgium, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Cyprus, Denmark, Finland, France, Iceland, Ireland, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Malta, Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, San Marino, Serbia and Montenegro, Slovakia, Spain, Switzerland, Turkey and the UK.
5. *Population gain owing to natural increase more than offsetting migration loss*: Andorra, Azerbaijan, FYR Macedonia.
6. *Population gain owing to net immigration more than offsetting natural decrease*: Croatia, Germany, Greece, Italy, Slovenia, Sweden.

Several observations stem from this classification. All of the countries with population loss are in Central and Eastern Europe or the former USSR. In a majority of cases 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 and including representatives of northern, central and Mediterranean Europe. Only three countries gained population through natural increase while experiencing net emigration and, with the exception of Andorra, they were located in the Balkans and Caucasus. Growing entirely because of migration were six countries, geographically dispersed from Sweden to Greece.

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).

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 the problems are compounded by inadequate methods of collection and the 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 foreign nationals (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. As described above, 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.

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 has been extended to the CEE region. What now happens is a single, annual, multi-national data harvest.

Despite these developments, considerable gaps exist in data availability, especially 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.

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 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. Even data from regularisation programmes (amnesties) underestimate the total illegal stock.

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 complete a picture of international migration in Europe as it is currently possible to produce, although gaps and errors may still exist.

4. STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION

4.1 Stocks of foreign population

The total recorded stock of foreign population living in European countries in 2001/2002 or latest year available (listed in Table 3) stood at around 22.72 million people. The foreign population thus appears 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 increased considerably in recent years. Table 3 suggests that in 2000/2001 or thereabouts (using the latest date for which statistics are available) there were around 22.11 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 19.37 million. Hence, in the period since then, the total foreign national stocks in Western European increased by 11.4 per cent.

By contrast, although most countries in Central and Eastern Europe have also experienced some permanent immigration, much of it return migration, flows have been modest and stocks of foreign population remain relatively small. Table 3 indicates that in 2001/2002 or latest year there were some 995,000 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 is spread unevenly across Western Europe. Germany has about a third of the total, France about 15 per cent and the UK 12 per cent. Several other countries have significant numbers, Italy, Switzerland and Spain both well over a million, Austria and Belgium over three quarters of a million. In Central and Eastern Europe numbers of recorded migrants are much smaller. Numbers of foreigners in Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania are difficult to assess because of the status of Russians and others with former Soviet passports. Otherwise, Estonia is the leader in the field with 270,000 followed by the Czech Republic with around 232,000, and then Hungary with around 116,000.

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.

The present report, as last year, focuses on the most recent period only, charting change from 1995 to the latest date available. During this time the foreign national stock in Europe as a whole rose by 3.14 million from 19.98 to 23.12 million, an increase of about 1.9 per cent per annum. Most of the increase was in Western Europe. The share of the Mediterranean countries in Western Europe rose considerably, from 9 to 15.8 per cent of the total, an absolute increase of 1.69 million. Much of this rise can be attributed to the effects of 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 current trends in stock numbers? In the most recent year for which data are available, Belgium, Denmark, Sweden and Switzerland recorded minor falls but the decrease in Greece was more substantial, probably a statistical consequence of regularisation. The countries with the largest annual increases were the Mediterranean countries of Italy, Spain and Portugal, together with the UK and Ireland. There are different reasons for these trends. In the case of the first three, regularisation has been important. Ireland has had rapid economic growth that has sucked in foreign workers, while in the case of the UK a combination of increased labour flows and asylum seeking has raised numbers. These same countries feature as those experiencing the largest increases over the period 1995-2002 as a whole.

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 for Austria and Belgium, 1996-7 and 2001-2 for Italy, and 1998-9 and 2000-1 for Portugal.

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, 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 2001-2 saw a recovery. Hungarian numbers have fluctuated, falling at the beginning of the period then again after 1999.

Several observations may be made from the above. First, in most countries the trend in the most recent year is upward although, for the most part, gains are modest. Second, there are temporal variations in when countries have experience their strongest growth. Third, there are distinctive geographical variations at work. Countries do differ in both the rate 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 2002 (or the latest available date) the largest proportions of foreigners, relative to the total population, were in Luxembourg (37.7 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. In another group of countries – Denmark, France, Netherlands, Norway, Sweden 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 around 3 per cent or less.

With the 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 six countries (Bulgaria, Hungary, Poland, Russia, Slovakia and Slovenia) there was little change in proportions, while those in the Czech Republic fluctuated. Only Latvia, with small numbers, seems to have a 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.

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, 30.5per 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 1999, the foreign population was dominated by those from Central and Eastern Europe and the former USSR. Romanians comprised the largest foreign group, 38 per cent of the total, followed by those from former Yugoslavia; Ukrainians were 5 per cent, those from the rest of the former USSR 7 per cent. EU nationals totalled 11 per cent. The eastern dominance is also to be seen in Czech data for the year 2000 on the holders of permanent residence permits. Central and Eastern European countries, plus Russia and Ukraine accounted for 42,300 people, 63 per cent of the total. Poland and Slovakia were the largest origins, with 18 and 17 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 2000 show that of 69,400 temporarily resident foreigners, Central and Eastern Europeans and those from the former USSR were only19 per cent of the total. The main national groups were Moldovans (12 per cent), Chinese and Turks (each 10 per cent), Italians (8 per cent), and Greeks (7 per cent).

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.

The data in Table 6 and Figures 4a-h show big differences between countries in the scale of inflow. The largest is to Germany, 658,300 in 2002. Spain had the second largest inflow, followed by the UK and Italy. Of the other countries, only France and Switzerland had an inflow in excess of 100,000. Inflows in Central and Eastern Europe were much lower, Russia being the main recipient. 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 2001-2002 Germany lost around half a million to emigration; the UK was in second place with 185,700. No other country came near to matching this absolute scale of outflow (Table 7 and Figures 5a-g). Data for Central and Eastern Europe mostly record permanent emigration. Russia was the main source of emigration, 105,500, 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 2001 (or nearest year) of around 937,200 and a further 84,900 in CEE countries (Table 8 and Figures 6a-g). In 2001 or 2002 Italy had the largest net gain, over a quarter of a million, largely as a result of regularisation. Not far behind was the UK where the net

flow is boosted by the inclusion in the inflow statistics of asylum seekers and other visitors. 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 Russia net gains were modest, four countries had net losses in 2002.

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 1995-2002 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. 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. Austria, Belgium, Finland, Germany and the Netherlands displayed no particular trend in either direction, though all had some annual fluctuation. The CEE countries also fluctuated, Poland, for example, increasing its inflows between 1995 and 1998, then experiencing falls. In most cases, however, changes were occurring in quite small recorded annual flows.

The trend in outflows across countries has also fluctuated, though the data suggest that in recent years falls have commonly occurred, for example in Finland, Ireland, Luxembourg and Switzerland in 2000-01. The outflow data for Central and Eastern Europe are difficult to interpret because of the small numbers of permanent emigrants. Overall, numbers seem to have been going down, for example, from Romania, Hungary, the Baltic states and Russia.

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. 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).

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 spillover. 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 9 shows recorded migration flows for the countries of the CIS in 2000. The information comes from the latest in a series of studies 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 10 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 10 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 11 (and Figures 7a-f) suggests that in Western Europe around 2001/2002 (using the latest data for each country) there were about 9.9 million recorded foreign workers, an increase of 35.8 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, Switerland 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 6.22 million, 62.8 per cent of the Western European total.

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 11 the total was around 486,000. Both the Czech Republic and Hungary increased their recorded foreign labour stocks over the period.

6.2 Flows of labour

Recorded inflows of foreign labour have been modest in most countries in recent years, the biggest recipient being Germany (Table 12 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 Poland, fell in the Czech Republic and Slovakia and were static at a low level in Bulgaria and Romania.

The total number of people from Central and Eastern Europe working outside their own country is unknown, although data on total numbers of foreign citizens for the EEA countries provide some guide (Table 13). Not surprisingly, Germany has the most, followed by Switzerland, Austria and Italy. There are some differences by nationality. In Finland, most are from the former USSR, Poles not in Germany are to be found in France, Italy and the UK.

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 have recently 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 Central and Eastern Europe

The countries of the region both send and receive migrants. As controls have tightened on the borders of Western Europe and steps have been taken to curb illegal migration (including smuggling and trafficking), what were "countries of second choice" for migrants from further afield have become ones of first choice (Kraler and Iglicka, 2002). Enlargement of the EU eastwards and acceptance of the *acquis* by countries of Central and Eastern Europe is leading to the creation of a new buffer zone beyond their boundaries in Bulgaria, Romania, Ukraine and Croatia. These countries are likely to have to cope with larger numbers of migrants in transit to the west and are likely to become the new "vestibules" of the EU.

In Poland the number of foreign (primarily seasonal) workers in the informal economy was estimated at 200,000 in 1999 (OECD, 2001). Polish data suggest that the emigration of people with post-secondary education has fallen to below 2 per cent, while in Romania they make up over half of all emigrants, though the proportion is decreasing (OECD, 2001). Ukrainian emigrants have lower levels of education, reflecting the less skilled and temporary jobs to which they move (Bedzir, 2001).

Labour migration to the CEE countries is highly differentiated according to the duration, skills and origins of migrants (Wallace, 1999; Kraler and Iglicka, 2002). Migrants are 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 occurs. 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 (Kraler and Iglicka, 2002).

Kraler and Iglicka (*ibid*) distinguish between three groups of countries with respect to labour migration and describe the main characteristics of their foreign workforce. First, "fully fledged or emerging immigration countries" where labour migrants for a substantial part of the total workforce and or long-term or permanent residents (e.g. Czech Republic, Hungary, Slovakia, Slovenia). Second, countries with substantial but temporary or transit migration where migrants form an important (often illegal) part of the workforce (e.g. Poland, Bulgaria, Romania). Third, countries with negligible

labour migration where employment of foreigners is mainly of professionals, usually from the West (e.g. Estonia, Moldova).

6.4 Informal labour markets in Central and Eastern Europe

It is impossible to say how many people work in informal labour markets in Central and Eastern Europe, though numbers are thought to be considerable. Favoured sectors include construction, agriculture and domestic service. Small businesses are more prone to using illegal workers, entrepreneurs often employing their co-nationals. In Poland, Okolski (1996, 1999) has pointed to the role of illegal foreign workers in small textile and leather businesses, in the Czech Republic and Hungary they are to be found in construction, agriculture and forestry (Maresova, 1999; Juhasz, 1999). In many countries of the region, including the Baltic states, FYR Macedonia, Belarus and Ukraine, little is known about the use made of undocumented or transit labour (Kraler and Iglicka, 2002).

6.5 Enlargement of the European Union

One of the major political developments in 2002 has been the agreement by the European Council to confirm the timetable for expansion of the EU eastwards. In anticipation of this decision, 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). So far, several countries of the EU (including the UK and Ireland) have said that they will allow free movement by the citizens of the new member states immediately upon their accession, while others (including Germany and Austria) are insisting on a transition period.

7. MIGRATION IN SOUTHERN EUROPE

The four southern countries of Portugal, Spain, Italy and Greece may now be considered countries of immigration. In recent years their migration statistics have improved and new information on the characteristics of their foreign populations has become available as a result of regularisation programmes.

7.1 Portugal

Over the last decade Portugal's migration situation has changed considerably. It has become a net immigration country, has developed an appetite for low skilled foreign workers and, recently, experienced a geographical shift in migrant origins.

Portugal has had a net positive migration balance since the early 1990s, the 2001 census results suggesting an average migration surplus of over 35,000 people per year, fed both by the return of nationals (estimated at 12,600 in 2000) and the settlement of foreigners (Malheiros, 2001). Recently it is the latter component that has been dominant, though until 2001 the distribution by origin country followed the traditional pattern. In 2000 there were 18,000 requests by foreigners for residence permits, 44 per cent of them from people from PALOP (Portuguese-speaking African) countries, 11 per cent from Brazil and around 20 per cent more from Spain, Germany, UK and France.

The situation changed as a result of the new foreigners act in January 2001 which gave foreigners in possession of a working contract but without a valid visa the opportunity to legalise their status through the grant of a permanence permit. Of almost 100,000 granted during the first nine months, over half (53 per cent) were from Eastern Europe, especially Ukraine, while PALOP nationalities accounted for only one in ten. There has thus been a significant shift in the structure of immigration towards a new region of origin and people who do not speak Portuguese. Evidence also suggests that the new migrants are more scattered regionally within Portugal and that a significant proportion of them are relatively skilled.

Foreign workers have become a more important feature of the Portuguese labour market. Although traditionally polarised between highly qualified professional and managerial jobs at one end and low skilled at the other, they are increasingly to be found in the latter, including construction, cleaning, agriculture and hotels and catering (Malheiros, 2001). This trend reflects the inability of the domestic labour market to satisfy employers' needs and the response to this by smugglers and traffickers which has led to a noticeable presence of undocumented workers. To counter this, the government has taken steps through the permanence permit to regularise the position of the undocumented, signed immigration agreements with some countries (e.g. Bulgaria and Romania) to facilitate the recruitment of workers and sought to co-ordinate better the different government departments involved with the implementation of immigration policy, including measures to improve integration at local levels.

7.2 Spain

Numbers of foreign residents and workers in Spain have been growing and the country is now very much one of net immigration. In the late 1990s the annual growth rate in the number of resident foreigners ranged between 12 and 18 per cent, double that of the first half of the decade (Izquierdo Escribano, 2001). In 1999, foreign labour was concentrated in domestic service (31 per cent), agriculture (20 per cent) and hotels and catering (12 per cent), with the most rapid increases occurring in the last of these and construction (Izquierdo Escribano, 2000). Moroccans dominated (36 per cent), followed by Ecuadorians, Peruvians and Chinese.

Regularisation has changed the number and composition of the foreign population of Spain. By the end of 2001 the number of foreigners living legally was around 1.25 million, over 3 per cent of the total population and a substantial departure from earlier trends. The flow from Eastern Europe grew more strongly than that from the West. However, it is flows originating outside Europe that have grown most quickly and in 2001 one in three immigrants granted residence (including those legalised) was from Africa and one in four from Latin America. Morocco continues to be the most important source but Algeria, Senegal and Nigeria have also become significant. There has also been a shift in Latin American origins, with Ecuador and Colombia now more important than the Dominican Republic and Peru, the leaders in the early 1990s.

The regularisation programme in 2000-2001 brought in about a quarter of a million applications. Moroccans were the leading group (27 per cent), followed by Ecuadorians (9 per cent) and Colombians (6 per cent). Chinese, Romanians, Pakistanis, Algerians, Nigerians and Senegalese each had 3-5 per cent of the total. The distribution of applications for legalisation by field of activity reflects two differing phenomena: the sharp rise in temporary employment, especially in construction, domestic service and hotels and catering; and the extension of the irregular economy in agriculture. Around 27 per cent of those regularised worked in domestic service, 21 per cent in agriculture and 10 per cent in construction.

7.3 Italy

Italy has long been characterised by a complex matrix of migration origins. Its five main source countries provide only just over a third of the foreign population (Chaloff, 2001), generally a lot lower than many other EU states. New groups, such as Eastern Europeans, South Asians, Latin Americans and Chinese, are challenging the dominance of the historically predominant North Africans and Filipinos.

As with the other Mediterranean EU members, Italy's migration data reflect its regularisation programmes. The millennial year saw a continuing rise in the foreign population of Italy according to all available indicators (Chaloff, 2001). More than twice as many new residence permits were issued in 1999 and 2000 as in 1998, about half of them granted to people benefiting from the 1998 amnesty. The effect of the regularisation is to distort analysis of the immigration data for 1999 and 2000 by boosting the number of work-related immigrants because so many of those applying for amnesty did so as illegal workers. However, family migration can be expected to

rise in the future as these regularised workers seek to reunite with their spouses and children.

The broad migration trends of the 1990s continued into the new millennium. Most legal immigrants come from outside the EEA and other rich countries, 59 per cent from Eastern Europe, 19 per cent from East and South Asia, 15 per cent from North Africa and 11 per cent from Latin America. The top foreign populations all grew in 2000 and their relative ranking did not change significantly. Overall, however, three trends appear to be asserting themselves: large, long-term stable populations characterised by family reunion (e.g. Morocco, Philippines); large, new and rapidly growing foreign populations with little gender imbalance (e.g. China, Albania); new labour migrant populations where one gender or the other is present (e.g. Bangladesh, Ecuador) (Chaloff, 2001). In consequence, the immigrant workforce continues to grow, mainly in low skilled jobs where the largest demand in the Italian labour market is located.

Domestic service has long been one of the most important sectors for foreign workers, foreign women working legally there now representing half of all registered domestic workers. The fastest growth among these is now among East European women, while the traditional groups of Filipinas and Cape Verdians have remained stable.

Seasonal activity is also important for Eastern Europeans who enter the Schengen area without a visa, work illegally for a few months, often without any kind of contract, and then return home.

One trend is for the numbers of immigrants in self employment to increase. In part this reflects the 1998 amnesty in which 15 per cent of applicants were entrepreneurs of some sort. The Chinese have been particularly noticeable in this regard.

7.4 Greece

Like the other southern European countries, Greece has also undergone a transformation from a sending to a net receiving country. However, data from its regularisation programmes show significant differences in its migration when compared with Spain, Portugal and Italy. Three important features set it off: the role of former Communist countries in feeding migration flows; the proximity of source countries; and the dominance of a single source country (Cavounidis, 2002).

The political changes in the communist countries led to an intensification of movement into Greece at the beginning of the 1990s, with migration across its northern border from Albania being especially notable. Most of those who came were not of Greek descent; they entered illegally or overstayed their visas and caused the numbers of undocumented migrants living and working in Greece to rise rapidly (*ibid*). Poor statistics mean that neither the numbers nor the characteristics of the legal population are known with any accuracy.

It was not until the regularisation programme in 1998 that data became available on the characteristics of Greece's immigrant population. An estimated 10 per cent of the country's labour force were found to be undocumented (OECD, 1999). However, during 1999 only 20,000 undocumented foreigners were expelled (Petropoulos, 2000).

More recently the undocumented population has been estimated at 7.5-9.5 per cent of the total population (Robolis, 2001). Among these people citizens from former communist countries predominated, accounting for 86 per cent of the total and with Albania alone having 65 per cent. Comparatively, the other countries of Southern Europe are much less influenced by flows from former communist countries (Cavounidis, 2002).

Most of those applying for regularisation did not disclose their occupations so a breakdown by economic sector is not available, though there is no reason to assume that those working illegally in Greece were not in the same occupations as those working illegally in the other countries where amnesties occurred. About a quarter of applicants for regularisation were women, the proportions varying by nationality. Women constituted only two per cent of those from the Indian sub-continent, 75 per cent of those from Russia and 80 per cent of Filipinos and Ukrainians.

In 2001 a second amnesty was instituted, occasioning more than 300,000 applications. Between them the two amnesties resulted in over 700,000 applications in total, indicating something of the real scale of labour immigration in Greece.

Most of the immigrants have come from countries with which Greece shares a land border. This geographical proximity also extends to the inflows of ethnic Greeks, around a quarter of a million, who were able to return to Greece after 1989. One consequence of this proximity may be the development of an interacting set of labour markets between Greece and its neighbours and the emergence of cross-frontier economic regions following the pattern of those in Central Europe.

8. ASYLUM

8.1 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. 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). 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. Asylum policy and reception vary in importance between countries, but overall, visa policy tends to be more significant.

8.2 The destination perspective in Western Europe 1995-2001

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 418,000 in 2000. However, the number rose slightly to 420,000 in 2001 and then to 425,400 in 2002 (Table 14 and Figures 9a-f). As a result, the overall trend was down 1995-6, rose in the three following years and fell around the turn of the new millennium but has shown a slight increase in the last couple of years. Overall, Western Europe experienced an increase in asylum seeker numbers of 42 per cent between 1995 and 2002.

Tables 14 and 15 display the considerable variability of experience of the countries listed. 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 17 per cent in 2002. Its asylum seeker numbers fell every year between 1995 and 2002, with the exception of 2001. In contrast, France experienced a sharp rise in numbers of requests for asylum after 1998, though in 2002 its share of the Western European total was only 11.9 per cent. The UK's situation has changed radically, from only 3.7 per cent of the total in 1985 to 26 per cent in 2002, taking 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. Only Germany and Portugal saw decreases.

The volatility of the trends in asylum requests is well illustrated in the year 2001-02. For countries where the comparison was possible, six had fewer requests, ten had more and there was one with no change. Explanation of these patterns is complex. They reflect combinations of geographical location, legislative changes, migrant networks, better border management systems, as well as the activities of smugglers and traffickers. What does seem to be emerging is a move towards a more even spread of asylum requests across Western Europe.

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 as a whole, pressure increased from 4.4 in 1985 to 10.1 in 2002, the peak of 18.3 in 1992 caused mainly by conflict in former Yugoslavia. The countries experiencing the greatest pressure in 2002 are small in population, Austria, Norway, Switzerland and Ireland. 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, Italy, Spain and Finland have low asylum pressure, reflecting their geographical position, their relative popularity as destinations and their asylum laws. What is not clear, however, is how far these numbers are affected by registration of asylum flows.

8.3 Asylum applications in Central and Eastern Europe 1995-2001

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. In 2002 there was a total of 34,500 applications for asylum in the seven countries listed, a significant fall on the previous year when they totalled 46,700. However, with the exception of 2002, there has been a general upward trend in numbers of applications since. In consequence, in some countries in the region applications now exceed those in some Western European countries. Broadly speaking, the number of applications received reflects the country's economic situation. The Slovak Republic was the most popular in 2002 with 28 per cent of applications recorded by countries listed in Table 14, followed by the Czech Republic, with a quarter and Hungary with almost a fifth.

8.4 Asylum applications in Europe 2003

8.4.1 Applications by destination

Asylum applications for the first nine months of 2003 are recorded in Table 16. For Europe as a whole the number was about 222,700, with 198,800 in Western Europe. It should be noted that these total figures are lower than they should be as they exclude figures for Iceland, Italy and the UK, for which data are not available for the entire nine month period. September had the largest number but the rate fluctuated during the year and there was no clear trend. Annualising from these figures would give a total number for the year of around 297,000, only 87 per cent of the total for 2002 (excluding Iceland, Italy and the UK). Annualising 2003 data for Central and Eastern Europe suggests that the number of applications in that region is lower than in the year before, a second year of decline. If this is the case, it seems that the steady rise in asylum applications there in recent years has halted, though this may be temporary.

In 2002, the UK took over in Western Europe as the leading destination, with almost a quarter of all applications. Whilst figures for the UK are not available for the first three quarters of 2003, data are available for the first half. During the six month period, the UK again saw the highest number of applications at just over 33,000. To compare, Germany had 26,000 applications and France 24,000. Amongst the Central and Eastern European countries, the Czech Republic, Slovakia and Poland were the leading destinations.

8.4.2 Applications by origin

The top twenty origin countries provided almost two thirds of all asylum seekers in Europe (Table 17). Russia was the main source in the first nine months of the year, with 8.3 per cent of the total followed by Iraq, Serbia and Montenegro and Turkey. No other origin accounted for more than five per cent of the total. Of the leading three origins, Russian numbers, with the exception of February, grew throughout the nine months; Iraqi numbers declined throughout the period although they rose in September; Serbian and Montenegrin numbers fell for the first half and then rose again in the second, ending the period a little higher than they began it.

Table 17 illustrates the widespread distribution of national origins of asylum seekers, with Europe, the Middle East, South-east and East Asia and Africa all represented among those listed.

8.5 Trends in asylum decisions 1995-2002

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 18, based on UNHCR data, shows the number of asylum decisions for selected countries, together with the proportion that were granted 1951 Convention status.

During the period 1995-2002 there were 3.4 million decisions. The trend was downward from 1995 to 1998, then figures rose. Between 2001 and 2002 the increase was substantial, from 498,000 to 662,000, up by a third. Germany has tended to dominate the

statistics on but the trend there has been steadily downward. In 1995 it accounted for around half of the total but only 20 per cent in 2002 (although this was16 per cent the year before). In 2002 the UK made the largest number of decisions (147,000), 22 per cent of the total, but this was a fall from that of 2001 when it accounted for almost a third of all decisions (153,000).

Recognition rates vary considerably, across countries and over time. Table 18 shows the percentages of decisions granting full refugee status under the 1951 Geneva Convention. They are generally low. During the period as a whole 387,000 people were granted refugee status, a recognition rate of 11.4 per cent. Overall there were no major fluctuations from year to year, the range being 10.7-14.9.

There were considerable variations between countries, with Malta, Turkey, Slovakia and Belgium having the highest rates. In most countries, fewer than one in five was recognised and frequently it was less than one in ten. In the most recent year, 2002, Turkey had the highest recognition rate. The two countries making the most decisions – UK and Germany - had only modest recognition rates, 14.9 and 5.0 respectively.

Full asylum is not the only protection status, although appropriate statistics are less systematically available. Most countries have some form of “B” status, granting asylum on humanitarian grounds but without full refugee rights. 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 assume that once conflict ends those given protection will return home.

9. MIGRATION OF EXPERTISE

9.1 Introduction: the global migration market for skills

There is a growing realisation that the last two decades have seen the emergence of a global migration market. 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 stimulus for competition in the global migration market has come from governments. Competition was led in the 1980s by Australia and Canada, followed in the 1990s by the US. Europe held itself largely aloof until very recently with little action and almost no debate about competition in the migration skills market. 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 the main competitors are the US, Australia and Canada and a growing number of European states.

9.2 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.

9.2.1 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, 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 your immigrants, the greater the economic benefit on the whole they found the outcome to be positive.

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.

Others 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).

9.2.2 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 July 31st 2003. 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.

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 in the last year or so 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.

9.3 Types of policies to recruit skills

This section is based on a recent study of special schemes set up by countries in Europe to attract high level skills (McLaughlan and Salt, 2002). For purposes of comparison reference is also made to Australia, Canada and the USA.

It is possible to identify some of the main features of skill recruitment policies adopted in response to the skill requirements mentioned in Section 2 above.

9.3.1 The design of the overall policy

This varies between countries. In some cases work permit regulations and procedures have been simplified in order to facilitate entry of highly skilled migrants, largely as a result of employer pressure. Examples are France, the Netherlands and Norway. Strategies often address specific shortages, notably those that are ICT related (e.g.

France, Germany, Denmark, Canada, US – as well as Australia) or health related (e.g. Norway, Denmark, Ireland). Schemes may also be part of wider policies to encourage participation of existing foreign workers; an example is the Danish "icebreaker" scheme which provides incentives to employers to recruit highly skilled but unemployed immigrants. Other policies encourage the return of highly skilled emigrants (Ireland), or develop training programmes for indigenous workers, especially those who are unemployed (Germany, the Netherlands). Canada, recognising the realities of the modern two-career family, has developed a scheme to facilitate access to the labour market for the spouses of highly skilled migrants in order to make the country more attractive to highly skilled workers and senior executives from other countries.

9.3.2 Exemptions from regulations and procedures

In a number of cases countries have sought to attract the highly skilled by exempting them from existing regulations and procedures. Measures include exemptions from national or regional labour market tests, thus enabling governments to offer 'fast-track visas': both the Dutch and Danish governments have taken this route. In Ireland, work permit requirements for some highly skilled personnel, especially intra-company transferees, have been relaxed, while labour market testing for spouses of permit holders have been removed in the Netherlands and Canada.

9.3.3 Simplification of procedures

This is another strategy. Employers may apply to central employment offices rather than first having to apply to regional offices (Netherlands), or the central employment office no longer has to send out applications from employers for shortage workers to regional offices for a market test (Denmark). There may also be self-assessment of skills before a permanent migration application is made, as is the case in Australia.

9.3.4 Foreign students

The growth of knowledge-based economies is relying more on intellectual expertise than in the past, especially in science and technology. One element in this competition for expertise is the attempt by some governments to harness the internationalisation of higher education.

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.

At the moment there are no clear links between attempts to attract more overseas students ('education for trade') and policies towards student switching but this is likely to happen. Students from poorer countries are attracted by the existence of centres of expertise, particularly for scientific and technical research when sending students abroad is cheaper than developing the facilities at home.

Cultural and linguistic factors are also important. The historically and economically more important language countries have a greater propensity to host foreign students who use the experience to improve those linguistic skills that have economic value. Hence the proportion of students going to countries where teaching is in a language other than the mother tongue is particularly high in English-, French- and German-speaking countries. Data show that most mobility to countries with a different language is to English-speaking countries.

9.3.5 Some difficulties

Countries report a number of problems in setting up and operating these special schemes. These include how to assess the skill/qualifications level of applicants and the language barrier to integration and ability to perform. A scheme is also less attractive if possibility of permanent residence is not offered, if there is delayed or no access to labour market for the spouse or if there are delays associated with residence permits. In some cases there is a feeling that immigration is a cheap option to the detriment of the domestic workforce. There are also felt to be unresolved issues, notably how to deal with those foreigners who become unemployed and what happens in an economic downturn.

10. 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 few years 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. Much of the concern expressed about both their causes and consequences has been emotional, for example, dwelling on the plight of women and children trafficked into prostitution and sweatshops. The role of criminal organisations has been highlighted in a human trade that some put on a par with drugs and arms smuggling, in both its profitability and perniciousness. Governments have introduced 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. 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).

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.

10.1 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, Engberson 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. Table 19 lists the number of applications for regularisation in the amnesty programmes of European states over the last couple of decades and, for purposes of comparison, provides a ratio of the number of applications to the recorded foreign population. In total the numbers are considerable and, in the absence of better estimates, numbers regularised provide a baseline for estimating the irregular population in the countries listed.

10.2 The scale of migrant trafficking and human smuggling

A review of the estimates of numbers of smuggled and trafficked migrants globally and in Europe reveals two main features. First, there is a preference for nice round numbers. Second, estimates are frequently rehearsed and recycled and take on a momentum of their own. One thing is clear: there is a paucity of data 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 20 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.

The problems in using border crossing statistics to analyse the scale of illegal migration have attracted relatively little detailed comment, mainly because so few studies have attempted to use them. Two examples will suffice. Interviews with border guards and officials in Hungary by Juhasz (2000) found that estimates of the proportion of cases discovered were "many and varied even within the organisation most qualified to make them, the border guard service itself". At senior levels there seems to be a high degree of optimism and a belief that the majority of those illegally crossing the border were caught. However, "from the central bodies down to the operative units this optimism decreases dramatically, while those actually patrolling the border judge their own effectiveness to be only ten per cent" (*ibid*).

Differences of opinion regarding the proportions caught were also evident from interviewees in a study in Ukraine (Klinchenko *et al*, 2000). The officials and border controllers said that less than one per cent of those trying to cross the country's western border illegally succeeded but migrants themselves put the proportion between a third and a half. Similar problems beset attempts to calculate the scale of illegal migration. In Ukraine the Ministry of Internal Affairs estimated there were 20-30,000 illegal foreigners, whereas some of the experts interviewed suggested that half- to one million was more realistic, a calculation based on border guard statistics of numbers entering and leaving (*ibid*).

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.

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. One illustration provided by Juhasz of the under estimation of the incidence of smuggling was that only one-third of the apprehended migrants from Asian countries were recorded as having received any kind of assistance, despite the unlikelihood that they would have had sufficient local knowledge to cross the borders of the many countries on their route on their own (*ibid*).

10.3 Irregular migration through Bosnia and Herzegovina

An active area of irregular migration, smuggling and trafficking is south-east Europe. One consequence of the Balkan Wars of the 1990s is that the region has become one of transit for irregular migration in the direction of the EU. In part this is related to the existence of other smuggling routes through the Balkans for drugs and arms. One recent study of transit migrants in Bosnia and Herzegovina (BiH) found that during 2000, an estimated 40-50,000 migrants transited BiH (Kolakovic, Martens and Long, 2002). The difficulties of policing borders in the region are considerable. BiH has around 1,700 km of border, 40 per cent of which is along rivers. However, Sarajevo international airport is the main entry point for irregular migrants, with three of the main routes through the country running from that city. Little attempt seems to be made to hide smuggling operations, with certain hotels in Sarajevo known to accommodate migrants (*ibid*).

Survey evidence shows the geographical complexity of the transit migration through BiH (*ibid*). Tunisia, Turkey, Iran, China, Bangladesh and India are the main origins. Although the majority of those interviewed claimed to be Iraqi, they were, in fact, Tunisians, while most of those from Turkey were Kurds. Over half said they left their own country for economic reasons, only a third because of political persecution; most were unemployed before moving. The motivations of Kurds were more complex, rooted in social, political and economic reasons. The vast majority – 97 per cent – were male and had only completed primary or secondary school.

10.4 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 (BKA, 2001). 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).

11. MANAGING MIGRATION

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.

11.1 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.

11.2 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.

11.3 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 curret 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.

11.4 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 or 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.

11.5 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.

11.6 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 Thessalonki), 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.

11.7 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.

11.8 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.

11.9 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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TABLES

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	9322	100.0
Africa	221	8.8	794	13.1	2000	21.5
Asia	1399	55.5	3672	60.6	5428	58.2
Europe	548	21.8	727	12.0	603	6.5
Latin America and the Caribbean	167	6.6	519	8.6	806	8.6
North America	172	6.8	314	5.2	438	4.7
Oceania	13	0.5	31	0.5	47	0.5

Source: United Nations Population Division,World Population Prospects: The 2000 Revision, Volume 1: Comprehensive Tables (United Nations, New York 2001)

Notes:

The 2050 data are based upon medium fertility variants

TABLE 2
COMPONENTS OF POPULATION CHANGE IN EUROPE, 2000-2002

	annual average per cent		
Country	Growth Rate	Natural Increase	Net Migration
Andorra	0.31	0.78	-0.47
Armenia	-0.06	0.23	-0.29
Austria	0.27	0.02	0.25
Azerbaijan	0.77	0.82	-0.06
Belarus	-0.41	-0.49	0.09
Belgium	0.38	0.08	0.30
Bosnia and Herzegovina (1)	0.62	0.22	0.39
Bulgaria	-0.55	-0.55	0.00
Croatia	0.11	-0.19	0.30
Cyprus	0.87	0.44	0.43
Czech Republic	-0.25	-0.17	-0.08
Denmark	0.33	0.13	0.20
Estonia	-0.39	-0.40	0.01
Finland	0.23	0.14	0.09
France	0.50	0.40	0.10
FYR Macedonia (1)	0.42	0.55	-0.13
Georgia	-0.70	0.02	-0.73
Germany	0.15	-0.12	0.27
Greece (2)	0.10	-0.02	0.12
Hungary	-0.26	-0.36	0.10
Iceland (1)	1.33	0.85	0.49
Ireland (1)	1.39	0.68	0.71
Italy (1)	0.28	-0.03	0.32
Latvia	-0.71	-0.53	-0.18
Liechtenstein	1.44	0.54	0.90
Lithuania	-0.48	-0.24	-0.24
Luxembourg	0.95	0.40	0.55
Malta	0.69	0.26	0.43
Moldova	-0.23	-0.13	-0.11
Netherlands	0.68	0.39	0.29
Norway	0.55	0.29	0.26
Poland	-0.03	0.01	-0.04
Portugal	0.69	0.10	0.59
Romania	-0.13	-0.12	-0.01
Russian Federation	-0.57	-0.65	0.08
San Marino (3)	1.64	0.38	1.26
Serbia and Montenegro (1)	0.12	0.12	0.01
Slovak Republic	0.02	0.01	0.02
Slovenia	0.12	-0.04	0.17
Spain	0.79	0.11	0.68
Sweden	0.30	-0.02	0.32
Switzerland	0.71	0.18	0.53
Turkey (1)	1.62	1.47	0.15
Ukraine	-0.98	-0.76	-0.22
United Kingdom (1)	0.41	0.12	0.30

Source: Council of Europe

Notes:
1. Data refer to 2000-01.
2. Data refer to 2000.
3. Data for net migration refer to 2000 and 2002.

TABLE 3
STOCK OF FOREIGN POPULATION IN SELECTED EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002 (thousands)

(A) WESTERN EUROPE

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
AUSTRIA	673.8	680.3	683.1	683.7	689.3	698.6	704.9	705.1
BELGIUM	909.8	911.9	903.1	892.0	897.1	861.7	846.7	-
DENMARK	222.7	237.7	237.7	249.6	259.4	258.6	266.7	265.4
FINLAND	68.6	73.8	81.0	85.1	87.7	91.1	98.6	103.7
FRANCE	-	-	-	-	3263.2	-	-	-
GERMANY	7173.9	7314.0	7365.8	7319.6	7343.6	7296.8	7318.6	7355.6
GREECE (1)	153.0	155.0	165.4	-	305.3	281.5	797.1	431.0
ICELAND	4.8	5.1	5.6	6.5	7.3	8.8	9.9	-
IRELAND	96.1	117.5	113.9	110.9	118.0	126.5	152.2	227.7
ITALY (2)	991.4	1095.6	1240.7	1250.2	1252.0	1388.2	1362.6	1512.3
LUXEMBOURG	132.5	138.1	142.8	147.7	152.9	159.4	164.7	166.7
NETHERLANDS	725.4	679.9	678.1	662.4	651.5	667.8	690.4	700.0
NORWAY	160.8	157.5	158.0	165.1	178.7	184.3	185.9	197.7
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
SWEDEN (3)	531.8	526.6	522.0	499.9	487.1	477.3	476.0	474.1
SWITZERLAND (4)	1363.6	1369.5	1375.2	1383.6	1406.6	1424.4	1457.8	1447.3
TURKEY	-	68.1	135.9	162.2	-	-	-	-
UNITED KINGDOM	1948.0	1934.0	2066.0	2207.0	2208.0	2342.0	2587.0	2680.6

(B) CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPE

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
BULGARIA (5)	43.7	40.0	45.5	51.7	63.6	61.1	59.1	60.0
CZECH REPUBLIC (6)	159.2	199.2	210.3	220.2	228.9	201.0	210.8	231.6
ESTONIA	-	-	-	323.0	291.7	287.1	273.8	269.5
HUNGARY (7)	140.0	138.0	143.0	150.2	153.1	110.0	116.4	115.9
LATVIA	7.1	12.1	17.4	23.7	27.6	29.4	30.0	-
LITHUANIA	-	-	-	-	-	-	31.2	-
POLAND	-	29.9	32.5	-	42.8	-	-	-
ROMANIA	1.9	1.7	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.1	-
RUSSIA (8)	171.6	158.5	138.3	-	-	-	-	-
SLOVAK REPUBLIC (9)	21.9	21.5	26.4	28.4	29.5	28.8	29.4	29.5
SLOVENIA	48.0	43.0	41.7	39.4	42.5	42.3	44.7	-

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. Stock of long-term resident foreigners, Ministry of Interior. 2001 figure is provisional.
6. Data derived from Ministries of Labour and Interior, and include only those holding permanent and long-term residence permits.
7. Temporary residence permit holders only.
8. Only permanent resident foreigners, Ministry of Interior, 1998.
9. Number of residence permits. Source Presidium of Police Corps, in Slovak Correspondent's SOPEMI Report, 2001.

TABLE 4
STOCK OF FOREIGN POPULATION AS A PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL POPULATION
IN SELECTED EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002, (per cent)

(A) WESTERN EUROPE

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
AUSTRIA	8.4	8.4	8.5	8.5	8.5	8.6	8.7	8.7
BELGIUM	9.0	9.0	8.9	8.7	8.8	8.4	8.2	-
DENMARK	4.3	4.5	4.5	4.7	4.9	4.8	5.0	5.0
FINLAND	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.0
FRANCE	-	-	-	-	5.6	-	-	-
GERMANY	8.8	8.9	9.0	8.9	8.9	8.9	8.9	8.9
GREECE	1.5	1.5	1.6	-	2.9	2.7	7.6	4.1
ICELAND	1.8	1.9	2.1	2.4	2.6	3.1	3.5	-
IRELAND	2.7	3.2	3.1	3.0	3.1	3.3	3.9	5.9
ITALY	1.7	1.9	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.4	2.4	2.6
LUXEMBOURG	32.3	33.2	33.9	34.6	35.4	36.4	37.3	37.7
NETHERLANDS	4.7	4.4	4.3	4.2	4.1	4.2	4.3	4.4
NORWAY	3.7	3.6	3.6	3.7	4.0	4.1	4.1	4.4
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	2.8	3.3
SWEDEN	6.0	6.0	5.9	5.6	5.5	5.4	5.4	5.3
SWITZERLAND	19.4	19.4	19.4	19.5	19.7	19.8	20.2	20.0
TURKEY	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
UNITED KINGDOM	3.3	3.3	3.5	3.7	3.7	3.9	4.4	4.5

(B) CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPE

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
BULGARIA	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.8
CZECH REPUBLIC	1.5	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.0	2.1	2.3
ESTONIA	-	-	-	22.3	20.7	21.0	20.0	19.7
HUNGARY	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.1	1.1	1.1
LATVIA	0.3	0.5	0.7	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	-
LITHUANIA	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.9	-
POLAND	-	0.1	0.1	-	0.1	-	-	-
ROMANIA	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
SLOVENIA	2.4	2.2	2.1	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.2	-

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

Notes:
see Table 3.

TABLE 5
FOREIGN POPULATION IN EU AND EFTA COUNTRIES, AS OF 1 JANUARY 2000 (OR LATEST YEAR AVAILABLE)

Absolute figures

	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	N	CH	EU 15	EFTA	EEA	EU & EFTA
Year	2000	1999	2000	1997	2000	1999	2000	2000	1998	2000	2000	2000	2000	2000	1999	2000	1997	2000	2000	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Total	853369	256276	7343591	161148	801329	3263186	126533	1E+06	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 Easte	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)

	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	N	CH	EU 15	EFTA	EEA	EU & EFTA
Year	2000	1999	2000	1997	2000	1999	2000	2000	1998	2000	2000	2000	2000	2000	1999	2000	1997	2000	2000	(2)	(2)	(2)	(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 Easte	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)

	B	DK	D	EL	E	F	IRL	I	L	NL	A	P	FIN	S	UK	IS	LI	N	CH	EU 15	EFTA	EEA	EU & EFTA
Year	2000	1999	2000	1997	2000	1999	2000	2000	1998	2000	2000	2000	2000	2000	1999	2000	1997	2000	2000	(2)	(2)	(2)	(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 Easte	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 preceeding 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 preceeding 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
INFLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO SELECTED EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002 (thousands) (1)

(A) WESTERN EUROPE

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
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	33.0	24.7	20.4	21.3	27.9	30.8	33.7	30.6
FINLAND	7.3	7.5	8.1	8.3	7.9	9.1	11.0	12.9
FRANCE	77.0	75.0	103.0	139.0	108.1	119.3	-	-
GERMANY	792.7	707.9	615.3	605.5	673.9	649.2	685.3	658.3
GREECE	20.2	22.2	22.1	12.6	-	-	-	-
ICELAND	0.9	1.3	1.4	1.8	1.9	2.5	2.5	-
IRELAND (2)	31.2	39.2	44.0	44.0	47.5	42.3	46.2	76.1
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
NETHERLANDS	67.0	77.0	76.7	81.7	78.4	91.4	94.5	86.6
NORWAY (3)	16.5	17.2	22.0	26.7	32.2	27.8	25.4	30.8
PORTUGAL	5.0	3.6	3.3	6.5	14.5	18.4	19.0	17.0
SPAIN	19.5	16.7	35.6	57.2	99.1	330.9	394.0	443.1
SWEDEN (4)	36.1	35.4	33.4	35.7	34.6	42.6	44.1	47.6
SWITZERLAND (5)	91.0	74.4	69.6	72.2	83.7	84.2	98.2	103.8
UNITED KINGDOM (6)	228.0	224.2	237.2	287.3	337.4	379.3	373.3	418.2

(B) CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPE

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
CROATIA	42.0	44.6	-	51.8	32.9	2.1	2.1	2.0
CZECH REPUBLIC (7)	10.5	10.9	12.9	10.7	9.9	7.8	12.9	44.7
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	19.5	-
LATVIA (10)	2.8	2.7	2.9	3.1	1.8	1.6	1.1	1.2
LITHUANIA (10)	2.0	3.0	2.5	2.7	2.7	1.5	4.7	5.1
POLAND (9)	8.1	8.2	8.4	8.9	7.5	7.3	6.6	6.6
ROMANIA (11)	4.5	2.1	6.6	11.9	10.1	11.0	10.4	6.6
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
SLOVENIA	-	-	6.8	3.7	3.6	5.3	6.8	7.7

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

NOTES:
1. Asylum seekers are excluded.
2. Year ending April.
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 7
OUTFLOWS OF POPULATION FROM SELECTED EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002 (thousands)

(A) OUTFLOWS OF OF FOREIGN NATIONALS FROM WESTERN EUROPE

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
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	5.3	6.0	6.7	7.7	16.2	16.5	17.3	17.7
FINLAND	1.5	3.0	1.6	1.7	2.0	4.1	2.2	3.4
GERMANY (1)	567.4	559.1	637.1	639.0	555.6	562.8	497.0	505.6
ICELAND	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.7	1.0	0.8	1.1	-
IRELAND (2)	33.1	31.2	29.0	21.2	29.0	22.3	19.9	-
ITALY	8.4	8.5	-	7.9	8.6	12.4	-	-
LUXEMBOURG	5.7	6.4	6.6	7.8	8.0	8.1	7.6	8.3
NETHERLANDS	21.7	22.4	21.9	21.3	20.7	20.7	20.4	21.2
NORWAY	9.0	10.0	10.0	12.0	12.7	14.9	15.2	12.3
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
SWITZERLAND (4)	69.4	71.9	67.9	64.0	62.8	59.3	56.5	53.5
UNITED KINGDOM	135.5	155.7	148.7	125.8	139.2	161.1	159.2	185.7

(B) PERMANENT EMIGRATION FROM CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPE

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
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
CZECH REPUBLIC (5)	0.5	0.7	0.8	1.2	1.1	1.3	21.5	32.4
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	-
LATVIA	13.3	10.0	9.7	6.3	3.7	3.5	6.6	2.5
LITHUANIA	3.8	3.9	2.5	2.1	1.4	2.6	7.3	7.1
POLAND (6)	26.3	21.3	20.2	22.2	21.5	26.9	23.4	24.5
ROMANIA (7)	25.7	21.5	19.9	17.5	12.6	14.8	9.9	8.2
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
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. Year ending April.
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. Persons who already settled their permanent residence abroad (documented).
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 8
NET POPULATION FLOWS OF SELECTED EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002 (thousands)

A) WESTERN EUROPE

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2002 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	27.7	18.7	13.7	13.6	11.7	14.3	16.4	12.9	12.9
FINLAND	5.8	4.5	6.5	6.6	5.9	5.0	8.8	9.5	9.5
GERMANY	225.3	148.8	-21.8	-33.5	118.3	86.4	188.3	152.7	152.7
ICELAND	0.2	0.6	0.6	1.1	0.9	1.7	1.4	-	1.4
IRELAND	-1.9	8.0	15.0	22.8	18.5	20.0	26.3	-	26.3
ITALY	59.8	134.7	-	119.2	259.4	259.1	-	-	259.1
LUXEMBOURG	4.6	3.6	3.8	3.8	4.8	3.7	3.6	2.7	2.7
NETHERLANDS	45.3	54.6	54.8	60.4	57.7	70.7	74.1	65.4	65.4
NORWAY	7.5	7.2	12.0	14.7	19.5	12.9	10.2	18.5	18.5
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	33.4
SWITZERLAND	21.6	2.5	1.7	8.2	20.9	24.9	41.7	50.3	50.3
UNITED KINGDOM	92.5	68.5	88.5	161.5	198.2	218.2	214.1	232.5	232.5
								Total	937.2

B) CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPE

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2002 or latest year
CROATIA	-13.0	-17.4	-	-	-	-	-	1.4	1.4
CZECH REPUBLIC	-4.9	0.9	-2.3	-	1.2	7.7	12.7	12.3	12.3
ESTONIA	1.1	0.9	0.8	0.4	0.3	0.1	-	-	0.1
FYR MACEDONIA	-8.8	-6.6	-3.9	-	-0.8	0.0	0.3	2.2	2.2
HUNGARY	13.6	13.5	13.0	-	-	20.0	19.0	-	19.0
LATVIA	0.4	-0.1	1.0	0.8	-0.7	-0.6	-0.8	-1.3	-1.3
LITHUANIA	-11.3	-7.0	-7.2	-3.6	-1.0	-2.0	-1.9	-2.0	-2.0
POLAND	4.3	4.3	5.9	6.8	6.1	4.7	-0.7	-17.9	-17.9
ROMANIA	-21.8	-19.2	-13.6	-10.3	-11.4	-15.9	-13.0	-1.6	-1.6
RUSSIA	840.6	625.5	577.8	496.1	367.1	344.5	183.5	71.8	71.8
SLOVAK REPUBLIC	-337.0	-385.5	-230.7	-211.3	-212.9	-143.4	-119.2	0.9	0.9
								Total	84.9

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

Notes:
See Table 6 and 7.

TABLE 9
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 10
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	15.0	14.5	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 11
STOCKS OF FOREIGN LABOUR IN SELECTED EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002 (thousands)

(A) WESTERN EUROPE (1)

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
AUSTRIA (2)	300.3	300.4	298.8	298.6	306.4	319.9	329.3	334.4
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	-	-
FINLAND	25.5	29.7	32.5	36.0	37.2	40.7	-	-
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
GREECE (7)	27.4	28.7	29.4	-	204.6	184.0	-	249.3
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
NETHERLANDS (10)	221.0	218.0	208.0	235.0	-	-	-	-
NORWAY (11)	52.6	54.8	59.9	66.9	104.6	111.2	-	-
PORTUGAL (12)	84.3	86.8	87.9	88.6	91.6	99.8	-	-
SPAIN (13)	-	-	-	-	335.0	454.6	607.1	831.7
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
TURKEY	-	16.3	21.0	23.4	-	-	-	-
UNITED KINGDOM (15)	862.0	865.0	949.0	1039.0	1005.0	1107.5	1243.0	1302.8

(B) CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPE

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
ALBANIA	-	0.4	0.7	-	-	-	-	-
BULGARIA	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
CZECH REPUBLIC(16)	148.9	188.7	194.3	156.2	151.9	165.0	167.7	161.7
HUNGARY (17)	21.0	18.8	20.4	22.4	28.5	35.0	38.6	42.7
ROMANIA (18)	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.3	1.5	1.6	-	-
RUSSIA (19)	-	292.2	241.5	-	-	-	-	-
SLOVENIA (20)	-	-	36.1	33.9	40.3	37.8	34.8	35.3
SLOVAK REPUBLIC (21)	2.7	3.3	3.8	3.7	2.6	2.5	2.5	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.
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.
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.

Table 12
Inflows of Foreign Labour into Selected European Countries, 1995-2002 (Thousands)

(a) Western Europe

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Austria (1)	15.4	16.3	15.2	15.4	18.3	25.4	27.0	24.9
Belgium	2.7	2.2	2.5	7.3	8.7	7.5	-	-
Denmark (2)	2.2	2.7	3.1	3.2	3.1	3.6	-	-
Finland	2.5	2.7	2.9	3.2	3.0	3.6	-	-
France	13.1	11.5	11.0	10.3	10.9	11.3	-	-
Germany	270.8	262.5	285.3	275.5	304.9	333.8	-	-
Ireland (3)	-	-	-	3.8	4.6	15.7	30.0	23.8
Luxembourg (4)	16.5	18.3	18.6	22.0	24.2	27.3	-	-
Netherlands (9)	-	-	-	-	-	27.7	30.2	26.2
Portugal	2.2	1.5	1.3	2.6	4.2	7.8	-	-
Spain (6)	100.3	126.4	86.8	85.5	91.6	-	-	-
Sweden	-	-	-	2.4	2.4	3.3	3.3	-
Switzerland (7)	32.9	29.8	25.4	26.8	31.5	34.0	-	-
United Kingdom (8)	51.0	50.0	59.0	68.0	61.2	86.5	76.2	99.0

(b) Central and Eastern Europe

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
Bulgaria (9)	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	-
Czech Republic (10)	-	71.0	61.0	49.9	40.3	40.1	40.1	44.6
Hungary	-	-	24.2	26.3	34.1	40.2	47.3	49.8
Poland (11)	10.5	13.7	17.5	-	17.1	17.8	-	-
Romania (12)	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.3	1.5	-	-	-
Slovak Republic (13)	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
2. Residence permits issued for employment. Nordic citizens are not included.
3. Work permits issued for non-EU nationals.
4. Data cover both arrivals of foreign workers and residents admitted for the first time to the labour market.
5. Number of temporary work permits (WAV). 2002 data refer to January-
6. Work permits granted.
7. Seasonal and frontier workers are not taken included.
8. Data from the Labour Force Survey.
9. Work permits, new and extensions.
10. Work permits issued for foreigners.
11. Numbers of Individual work permits.
12. New work permits issued to foreign citizens.
13. Work permits granted. Czech nationals do not need work permits in Slovakia.

TABLE 13
FOREIGN POPULATION FROM CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES
IN EU AND EFTA COUNTRIES, 2000 OR LATEST AVAILABLE YEAR

	Total	Former USSR	Poland	Hungary	Other
Austria	340.5	-	-	-	-
Belgium	21.5	0.0	6.7	1.1	13.7
Denmark (1)	46.6	5.0	5.5	0.4	35.7
Finland	41.1	34.2	0.7	0.6	5.6
France (1)	119.8	17.2	33.8	3.0	65.9
Germany	1969.8	325.7	291.7	53.2	1299.3
Greece (2)	53.4	23.3	5.2	0.6	24.2
Iceland	2.1	0.3	1.2	0.1	0.6
Italy	328.1	15.3	24.8	2.8	285.2
Liechtenstein (3)	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.9
Netherlands	32.5	7.1	5.6	1.4	18.3
Norway	31.5	4.0	2.0	0.3	25.1
Portugal	2.4	0.9	0.2	0.1	1.1
Spain	25.7	6.1	6.5	0.4	12.7
Sweden	99.4	9.5	16.3	3.0	70.6
Switzerland	362.6	8.2	4.2	3.6	346.7
United Kingdom (1)	118.4	37.6	28.0	5.9	46.9

Source: Eurostat 2002

Notes:
1. Data refer to 1999.
2. Data refer to 1998.
3. Data refer to 1997.

TABLE 14
ASYLUM APPLICATIONS IN SELECTED EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002 (thousands)

(A) WESTERN EUROPE

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
AUSTRIA	5.9	7.0	6.7	13.8	20.1	18.3	30.1	37.1
BELGIUM	11.4	12.4	11.5	22.1	35.8	42.7	24.6	18.8
DENMARK	5.1	5.9	5.1	9.4	6.5	10.1	12.4	5.9
FINLAND	0.8	0.7	1.0	1.3	3.1	3.3	1.7	3.4
FRANCE	20.4	17.4	21.4	22.4	30.8	38.6	47.3	50.8
GERMANY	127.9	116.4	104.3	98.6	95.1	78.8	88.3	71.1
GREECE	1.3	1.6	4.4	3.0	1.5	3.0	5.5	5.7
ICELAND					-	-	-	0.1
IRELAND	0.4	1.2	3.9	4.6	7.9	10.9	10.3	11.6
ITALY	1.7	0.7	1.9	11.1	18.5	18.0	9.6	7.3
LIECHTENSTEIN					-	0.0	-	0.1
LUXEMBOURG (1)	0.4	0.2	0.4	1.7	2.9	0.6	0.7	1.0
NETHERLANDS	29.3	22.2	34.4	45.2	39.3	43.9	32.6	18.7
NORWAY	1.5	1.8	2.3	8.4	9.1	10.3	14.8	17.5
PORTUGAL	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2
SPAIN	5.7	4.7	5.0	6.7	8.4	7.0	9.5	6.2
SWEDEN	9.1	5.8	9.7	12.8	11.8	16.4	23.5	33.0
SWITZERLAND	17.0	18.0	24.0	41.3	60.7	17.7	20.6	26.2
UNITED KINGDOM	55.0	37.0	41.5	58.5	70.4	97.9	88.3	110.7
TOTALS (Western Europe)	293.5	253.2	277.8	361.3	422.2	417.7	420.0	425.4

(B) CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPE

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
BULGARIA (4)	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.8	1.3	1.8	2.4	2.9
CZECH REPUBLIC	1.4	2.2	2.1	4.1	7.3	8.8	18.1	8.5
HUNGARY (2)	5.9	1.3	2.1	7.1	11.5	7.8	9.6	6.4
POLAND (3)	0.8	3.2	3.5	3.4	3.0	4.6	4.5	5.2
ROMANIA (6)	1.2	0.6	1.4	1.2	1.7	1.4	2.4	1.1
SLOVAK REPUBLIC (5)	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.5	1.3	1.6	8.2	9.7
SLOVENIA		0.0	0.1	0.5	0.9	9.2	1.5	0.7
TOTALS (Central & Eastern E	10.2	8.0	10.2	17.6	27.0	35.2	46.7	34.5

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

NOTES:
1. Figures refer to the number of persons who applied for asylum.
2. Figures refer to first instance ("new") applications only.

TABLE 15
ASYLUM APPLICATIONS IN EU AND EFTA COUNTRIES, 1985, 1992, 1999-2002

	1985			1992			1999			2000			2001			2002		
	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	159180	93.8	4.4	672380	96.7	18.3	352380	83.5	9.4	389590	93.3	10.3	384530	91.6	10.2	381623	89.7	10.1
Austria	6724	4.0	8.9	16238	2.3	20.6	20137	4.8	24.9	18280	4.4	22.5	30140	7.2	37.1	37074	8.7	46.0
Belgium	5387	3.2	5.5	17675	2.5	17.6	35778	8.5	35.0	42690	10.2	41.6	24550	5.8	23.9	18805	4.4	18.0
Denmark	8698	5.1	17.0	13884	2.0	26.9	6476	1.5	12.2	10080	2.4	18.8	12400	3.0	23.2	5947	1.4	11.0
Finland	18	0.0	0.0	3634	0.5	7.2	3106	0.7	6.0	3320	0.8	6.4	1650	0.4	3.2	3443	0.8	7.0
France	28925	17.0	5.2	28872	4.2	5.0	30830	7.3	5.2	38590	9.2	6.5	47290	11.3	8.0	50798	11.9	9.0
Germany	73832	43.5	9.5	438191	63.0	54.6	95113	22.5	11.6	78760	18.9	9.6	88290	21.0	10.7	71127	16.7	9.0
Greece	1400	0.8	1.4	2108	0.3	2.0	1528	0.4	1.5	3000	0.7	2.8	5500	1.3	5.2	5664	1.3	5.0
Ireland	-	-	-	40	0.0	0.1	7850	1.9	21.0	10920	2.6	28.9	10320	2.5	27.0	11634	2.7	31.0
Italy	5400	3.2	1.0	2590	0.4	0.5	18450	4.4	3.2	18000	4.3	3.1	9620	2.3	1.7	7281	1.7	1.0
Luxembourg	78	0.0	2.1	120	0.0	3.1	2930	0.7	68.3	590	0.1	13.4	690	0.2	15.6	1043	0.2	24.0
Netherlands	5644	3.3	3.9	20346	2.9	13.4	39286	9.3	24.9	43890	10.5	27.5	32580	7.8	20.4	18667	4.4	12.0
Portugal	70	0.0	0.1	655	0.1	0.7	310	0.1	0.3	200	0.0	0.2	190	0.0	0.2	245	0.1	0.0
Spain	2300	1.4	0.6	11712	1.7	3.0	8410	2.0	2.1	7040	1.7	1.8	9490	2.3	2.4	6179	1.5	2.0
Sweden	14500	8.5	17.4	84018	12.1	97.2	11771	2.8	13.3	16370	3.9	18.4	23520	5.6	26.5	33016	7.8	37.0
United Kingdom	6200	3.7	1.1	32300	4.6	5.6	70410	16.7	11.9	97860	23.4	16.3	88300	21.0	14.8	110700	26.0	19.0
EFTA 4	10530	6.2	9.7	23210	3.3	20.3	69800	16.5	58.8	27990	6.7	23.3	35410	8.4	30.2	43905	10.3	36.3
Iceland	-	-	-	15	0.0	0.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	117	0.0	4.0
Liechtenstein	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	0.0	3.0	-	-	-	91	0.0	28.0
Norway	829	0.5	2.0	5238	0.8	12.3	9100	2.2	20.5	10320	2.5	22.9	14780	3.5	32.8	17480	4.1	39.0
Switzerland	9703	5.7	15.0	17960	2.6	26.2	60700	14.4	85.2	17660	4.2	24.5	20630	4.9	28.6	26217	6.2	37.0
EEA (EU + (EFTA - Switzerland))	160010	94.3	4.4	677640	97.4	18.2	361480	85.6	9.5	399920	95.8	10.5	399310	95.1	10.4	399311	93.8	10.3
EU 15 + EFTA 4	169710	100.0	4.6	695590	100.0	18.4	422180	100.0	10.9	417580	100.0	10.7	419940	100.0	10.8	425528	100.0	10.9

Source: Eurostat, IGC, UNHCR

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

TABLE 16
TOTAL NUMBER OF ASYLUM APPLICATIONS SUBMITTED IN EUROPE, 2003

	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	1st Quarter	2nd Quarter	3rd Quarter	Total	Proportion (%)
Western Europe (2)	24639	21333	21693	20868	19691	20623	22751	22175	24979	67665	61182	69905	198752	89.3
Austria	2509	1870	2272	2420	2786	2899	3148	3186	3463	6651	8105	9797	24553	11.0
Belgium	1449	1103	1276	1188	1115	1279	1545	1394	1674	3828	3582	4613	12023	5.4
Denmark	400	415	382	345	371	368	316	421	366	1197	1084	1103	3384	1.5
Finland	281	319	183	167	148	270	185	247	243	783	585	675	2043	0.9
France	3655	4399	4419	4605	3100	4211	4429	4073	4235	12473	11916	12737	37126	16.7
Germany	6124	4486	4329	4012	3758	3653	4528	3548	4418	14939	11423	12494	38856	17.5
Greece	615	871	760	666	1047	879	390	239	1325	2246	2592	1954	6792	3.1
Ireland	979	947	892	667	604	661	646	655	611	2818	1932	1912	6662	3.0
Liechtenstein	11	5	8	5	7	17	11	7	6	24	29	24	77	0.0
Luxembourg	79	107	112	127	107	120	138	89	135	298	354	362	1014	0.5
Netherlands	1234	1042	1398	1570	1391	831	1127	989	1103	3674	3792	3219	10685	4.8
Norway	1201	1201	1303	1203	1148	1252	1381	1806	1781	3705	3603	4968	12276	5.5
Portugal	11	5	6	18	10	12	5	3	8	22	40	16	78	0.0
Spain	764	411	372	332	395	345	456	478	572	1547	1072	1506	4125	1.9
Sweden	3131	2504	2319	2005	1937	2263	2655	3141	3137	7954	6205	8933	23092	10.4
Switzerland	2196	1648	1662	1538	1767	1563	1791	1899	1902	5506	4868	5592	15966	7.2
United Kingdom	9270	5480	5880	4350	3855	4305	..	..	..	20630	12510	..	..	..
Central and Eastern Europe	2068	1983	2210	2642	2605	2685	2859	3136	3720	6261	7932	9715	23908	10.7
Bulgaria	167	137	122	69	94	93	139	57	85	426	256	281	963	0.4
Czech Republic	685	704	588	1188	965	895	926	1167	965	1977	3048	3058	8083	3.6
Hungary	228	234	183	131	153	238	239	215	283	645	522	737	1904	0.9
Poland	364	337	706	372	527	415	496	615	1220	1407	1314	2331	5052	2.3
Romania	80	63	129	170	96	118	69	95	49	272	384	213	869	0.4
Slovakia	442	386	421	636	679	810	878	895	1015	1249	2125	2788	6162	2.8
Slovenia	102	122	61	76	91	116	112	92	103	285	283	307	875	0.4
Total (2)	26707	23316	23903	23510	22296	23308	25610	25311	28699	73926	69114	79620	222660	100.0

Source: UNHCR

TABLE 17
ASYLUM APPLICATIONS SUBMITTED IN INDUSTRIALISED COUNTRIES(1), BY ORIGIN, 2003

	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Q1	Q2	Q3	Total	Proportion (%)
Russian Federation	1529	1420	1997	2306	2491	2850	2938	3306	4628	23465	4946	7647	10872	8.3
Iraq	3325	2811	2840	2512	1926	1327	1159	870	1393	18163	8976	5765	3422	6.4
Serbia and Montenegro	2035	1919	1840	1748	1802	1843	2025	2036	2410	17658	5794	5393	6471	6.2
Turkey	2099	1870	1864	1763	1492	1664	1744	1630	1793	15919	5833	4919	5167	5.6
China	1565	1274	1282	1426	1359	1508	1718	1600	1723	13455	4121	4293	5041	4.8
Nigeria	1147	1096	1181	993	1026	1012	1003	900	1023	9381	3424	3031	2926	3.3
Afghanistan	900	768	730	1024	1087	1078	1119	1012	1018	8736	2398	3189	3149	3.1
India	1090	772	884	883	962	971	1013	869	854	8298	2746	2816	2736	2.9
Pakistan	1445	1331	1053	730	588	533	570	500	626	7376	3829	1851	1696	2.6
DR Congo	809	834	792	866	682	720	746	660	757	6866	2435	2268	2163	2.4
Somalia	663	435	452	538	585	646	1040	1172	961	6492	1550	1769	3173	2.3
Iran	826	636	690	676	666	626	713	774	885	6492	2152	1968	2372	2.3
Georgia	551	508	532	596	549	617	642	702	664	5361	1591	1762	2008	1.9
Algeria	705	541	523	591	521	495	545	584	731	5236	1769	1607	1860	1.8
Colombia	627	505	681	664	551	470	569	527	560	5154	1813	1685	1656	1.8
Mexico	623	559	600	421	469	388	490	398	519	4467	1782	1278	1407	1.6
Bosnia and Herzegovina	542	431	540	416	339	389	397	446	469	3969	1513	1144	1312	1.4
Armenia	378	331	369	339	396	457	505	526	559	3860	1078	1192	1590	1.4
Cameroon	525	363	476	449	393	372	376	386	411	3751	1364	1214	1173	1.3
Ukraine	485	387	452	409	338	402	449	420	405	3747	1324	1149	1274	1.3
Haiti	410	324	337	491	353	418	362	403	456	3554	1071	1262	1221	1.3
Bangladesh	490	333	355	370	413	372	415	308	368	3424	1178	1155	1091	1.2
Moldova	260	279	253	330	333	387	481	504	591	3418	792	1050	1576	1.2
Sri Lanka	392	357	355	341	381	404	377	368	419	3394	1104	1126	1164	1.2
Indonesia	155	490	708	902	213	169	125	97	97	2956	1353	1284	319	1.0
Ivory Coast	415	402	442	352	283	281	242	224	252	2893	1259	916	718	1.0
Mauritania	308	271	313	354	217	278	303	313	291	2648	892	849	907	0.9
Azerbaijan	347	242	246	230	237	275	272	391	383	2623	835	742	1046	0.9
Guinea	304	221	270	281	312	314	321	308	290	2621	795	907	919	0.9
Albania	293	272	311	279	302	307	296	276	280	2616	876	888	852	0.9
Viet Nam	323	283	315	260	307	226	348	246	292	2600	921	793	886	0.9
Belarus	216	307	320	292	225	291	291	289	321	2552	843	808	901	0.9
Slovakia	207	273	303	208	213	240	341	490	267	2542	783	661	1098	0.9
Liberia	148	120	170	289	168	283	425	497	423	2523	438	740	1345	0.9
Angola	304	238	307	303	225	232	279	241	237	2366	849	760	757	0.8
Syria	307	254	208	216	236	205	302	260	331	2319	769	657	893	0.8
Romania	385	363	274	205	125	250	219	203	183	2207	1022	580	605	0.8
Guatemala	141	95	133	166	169	487	472	333	142	2138	369	822	947	0.8
Ethiopia	251	221	221	215	218	207	258	222	301	2114	693	640	781	0.7
Congo	246	263	301	267	197	205	193	167	193	2032	810	669	553	0.7
Other	7187	5665	5774	5413	5232	5250	5774	5320	6073	51688	18626	15895	17167	18.3
Total	34958	30064	31694	31114	28581	29449	31857	30778	34579	283074	96716	89144	97214	100.0

Source: UNHCR

Note:
All figures are provisional and subject to change.
1. EU and EFTA, Central and Eastern Europe, US and Canada, Australia and New Zealand and Japan.

TABLE 18
NUMBER OF DECISIONS MADE ON ASYLUM APPLICATIONS AND CORRESPONDING RECOGNITION RATES FOR SELECTED EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002

	1995			1996			1997			1998			1999			2000			2001			2002			Total		
	All decisions	Granted refugee status	RR (%)	All decisions	Granted refugee status	RR (%)	All decisions	Granted refugee status	RR (%)	All decisions	Granted refugee status	RR (%)	All decisions	Granted refugee status	RR (%)	All decisions	Granted refugee status	RR (%)	All decisions	Granted refugee status	RR (%)	All decisions	Granted refugee status	RR (%)	All decisions	Granted refugee status	RR (%)
Austria	7624	990	13.0	8748	716	8.2	8363	639	7.6	9500	500	5.3	18254	3434	18.8	20514	1002	4.9	26494	1152	4.3	29881	1073	3.6	129378	9506	7.3
Belgium	4202	1295	30.8	5892	1561	26.5	5952	1717	28.8	3914	1458	37.3	3120	1230	39.4	5306	1192	22.5	3384	898	26.5	7717	1322	17.1	39487	10673	27.0
Bulgaria	96	50	52.1	319	145	45.5	271	127	46.9	431	87	20.2	1507	180	11.9	1981	267	13.5	2240	385	17.2	3288	75	2.3	10133	1316	13.0
Cyprus	106	10	9.4	80	12	15.0	83	8	9.6	123	45	36.6	680	27	4.0	362	39	10.8	405	36	8.9	1160	92	7.9	2999	269	9.0
Czech Rep.	79	59	74.7	186	162	87.1	2442	96	3.9	2807	78	2.8	8235	52	0.6	5665	88	1.6	12838	75	0.6	14702	103	0.7	46954	713	1.5
Denmark	22010	4810	21.9	7100	1206	17.0	7051	858	12.2	6111	911	14.9	5514	932	16.9	7046	1202	17.1	8739	1857	21.2	12229	1267	10.4	75800	13043	17.2
Estonia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7	0	0.0	18	0	0.0	7	4	57.1	7	0	0.0	22	0	0.0	61	4	6.6
Finland	492	4	0.8	593	11	1.9	559	4	0.7	866	7	0.8	2725	29	1.1	1806	9	0.5	2165	4	0.2	3334	14	0.4	12540	82	0.7
France	29096	4742	16.3	22203	4344	19.6	24167	4112	17.0	22405	4342	19.4	24151	4659	19.3	30278	5185	17.1	43053	7323	17.0	76291	10750	14.1	271644	45457	16.7
Germany	200188	23468	11.7	194556	24100	12.4	170801	18222	10.7	101669	10260	10.1	93094	9584	10.3	79466	10894	13.7	79713	17547	22.0	130162	6509	5.0	1049649	120584	11.5
Greece	1245	200	16.1	1875	163	8.7	2450	129	5.3	4191	156	3.7	2123	146	6.9	1969	222	11.3	1654	147	8.9	10153	36	0.4	25660	1199	4.7
Hungary	520	116	22.3	240	66	27.5	502	27	5.4	4534	361	8.0	11421	313	2.7	8811	197	2.2	8591	174	2.0	7755	104	1.3	42374	1358	3.2
Iceland	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	-	-	16	0	0.0	6	0	0.0	30	1	3.3	43	-	-	121	0	0.0	222	1	0.5
Ireland	58	15	25.9	68	36	52.9	513	209	40.7	1330	128	9.6	4896	160	3.3	8954	211	2.4	12252	456	3.7	20874	1990	9.5	48945	3205	6.5
Italy	1718	285	16.6	694	172	24.8	1654	348	21.0	3465	1026	29.6	8331	809	9.7	25000	1649	6.6	13219	2102	15.9	-	-	-	54081	6391	11.8
Latvia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	43	0	0.0	32	4	12.5	5	1	20.0	15	1	6.7	20	0	0.0	115	6	5.2
Liechtenstein	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	219	0	0.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	58	0	0.0	-	-	-	277	0	0.0
Lithuania	-	-	-	-	-	-	59	5	8.5	253	9	3.6	180	1	0.6	275	3	1.1	238	0	0.0	160	1	0.6	1165	19	1.6
Luxembourg	403	0	0.0	-	6	-	-	1	-	174	43	24.7	-	-	-	1942	17	0.9	2046	89	4.3	-	-	-	4565	156	3.4
Malta	192	137	71.4	139	85	61.2	93	32	34.4	132	50	37.9	146	51	34.9	73	28	38.4	94	39	41.5	339	20	5.9	1208	442	36.6
Netherlands	57405	7980	13.9	31237	3133	10.0	26200	3441	13.1	31030	1067	3.4	41202	628	1.5	53468	896	1.7	37076	244	0.7	69246	816	1.2	346864	18205	5.2
Norway	2356	29	1.2	2026	6	0.3	1992	14	0.7	3863	66	1.7	6090	181	3.0	7852	97	1.2	13304	292	2.2	17853	332	1.9	55336	1017	1.8
Poland	692	105	15.2	1952	120	6.1	3875	139	3.6	2975	51	1.7	3110	45	1.4	3777	52	1.4	4937	271	5.5	5477	280	5.1	26795	1063	4.0
Portugal	556	12	2.2	263	5	1.9	249	4	1.6	248	4	1.6	468	16	3.4	253	16	6.3	178	7	3.9	188	14	7.4	2403	78	3.2
Romania	-	-	-	692	78	11.3	371	80	21.6	2638	175	6.6	2353	253	10.8	1503	85	5.7	2418	83	3.4	1080	36	3.3	11055	790	7.1
Slovakia	313	66	21.1	383	128	33.4	688	65	9.4	309	49	15.9	1237	27	2.2	1499	10	0.7	5395	18	0.3	8358	20	0.2	18182	383	2.1
Slovenia	2	2	100.0	32	0	0.0	70	0	0.0	180	1	0.6	676	0	0.0	1024	0	0.0	10040	1	0.0	812	1	0.1	12836	5	0.0
Spain	6503	464	7.1	4975	243	4.9	5189	156	3.0	5443	208	3.8	7434	294	4.0	7861	381	4.8	9399	314	3.3	6579	165	2.5	53383	2225	4.2
Sweden	8189	148	1.8	6779	128	1.9	10767	1310	12.2	11446	1099	9.6	9308	326	3.5	17049	343	2.0	16707	165	1.0	39740	482	1.2	119985	4001	3.3
Switzerland	19252	2650	13.8	20710	2267	10.9	23612	2636	11.2	24579	2032	8.3	47264	2050	4.3	38307	2061	5.4	21963	2253	10.3	42149	2987	7.1	237836	18936	8.0
Turkey	5168	1951	37.8	4232	1636	38.7	4725	1522	32.2	5437	2229	41.0	5042	1907	37.8	5610	2716	48.4	6074	2869	47.2	5380	2885	53.6	41668	17715	42.5
United Kingdom	35200	2200	6.3	49350	3660	7.4	48535	6210	12.8	42905	8245	19.2	45845	25600	55.8	132939	26189	19.7	153410	14410	9.4	147115	21985	14.9	655299	108499	16.6
Total	403665	51788	12.8	365324	44189	12.1	351239	42111	12.0	293243	34687	11.8	354462	52938	14.9	470632	55057	11.7	498149	53212	10.7	662185	53359	8.1	3398899	387341	11.4

Source: UNHCR

Notes:
RR refers to Recognition Rate, the percentage of substantive decisions granting 1951 Geneva Convention refugee status.
All data refer to first instance decisions.

TABLE 19
REGULARISATION DATA, VARIOUS YEARS, EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, THOUSANDS.

France	1981-82	1997-98
(a) applications for regularisation	150	152
(b) total recorded foreign population	3714	3597
ratio a/b (per cent)	4.0	4.2

Belgium	2000
(a) applications for regularisation	60
(b) total recorded foreign population	862
ratio a/b (per cent)	7.0

Greece (1)	1997-98	2001
(a) applications for regularisation	397	205
(b) total recorded foreign population	165	797.1
ratio a/b (per cent)	224.0	25.7

Italy	1987-88	1990	1996	1998
(a) applications for regularisation	119	235	259	308
(b) total recorded foreign population	645	781	1096	1250
ratio a/b (per cent)	18.4	30.1	23.6	25.6

Portugal	1992-93	1996
(a) applications for regularisation	39	22
(b) total recorded foreign population	171	168
ratio a/b (per cent)	22.8	13.1

Spain	1985-86	1991	1996	2000	2001
(a) applications for regularisation	44	135	21	127	314
(b) total recorded foreign population	293	361	539	896	896
ratio a/b (per cent)	15.0	37.4	3.9	14.2	35.0

Source: National sources

Note:
1. 2001 data refer to January to September.

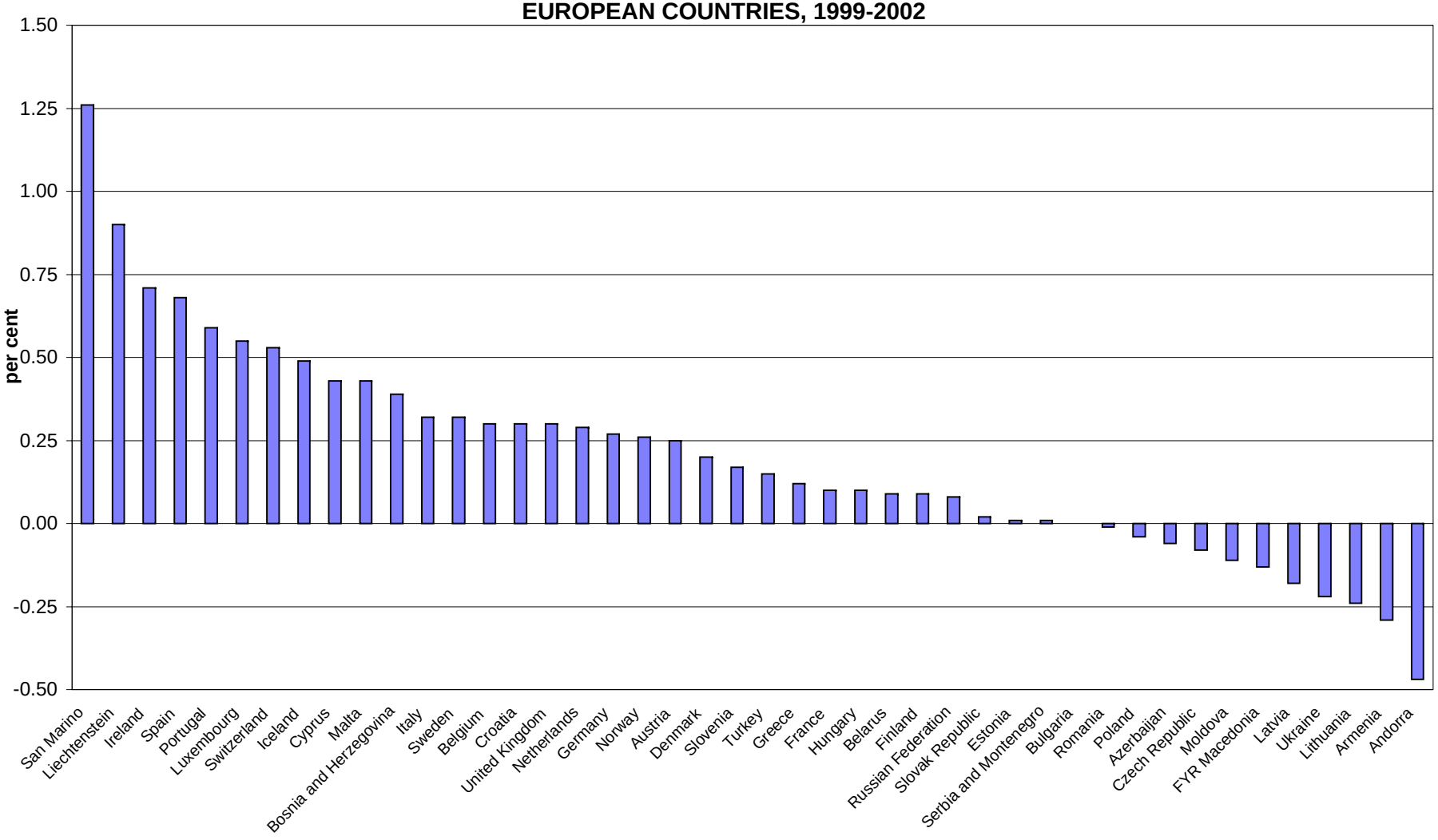
TABLE 20
ESTIMATES OF HUMAN TRAFFICKING AND SMUGGLING, BY REGION, 1994-2001

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)

Compiled by the Migration Research Unit, 2001

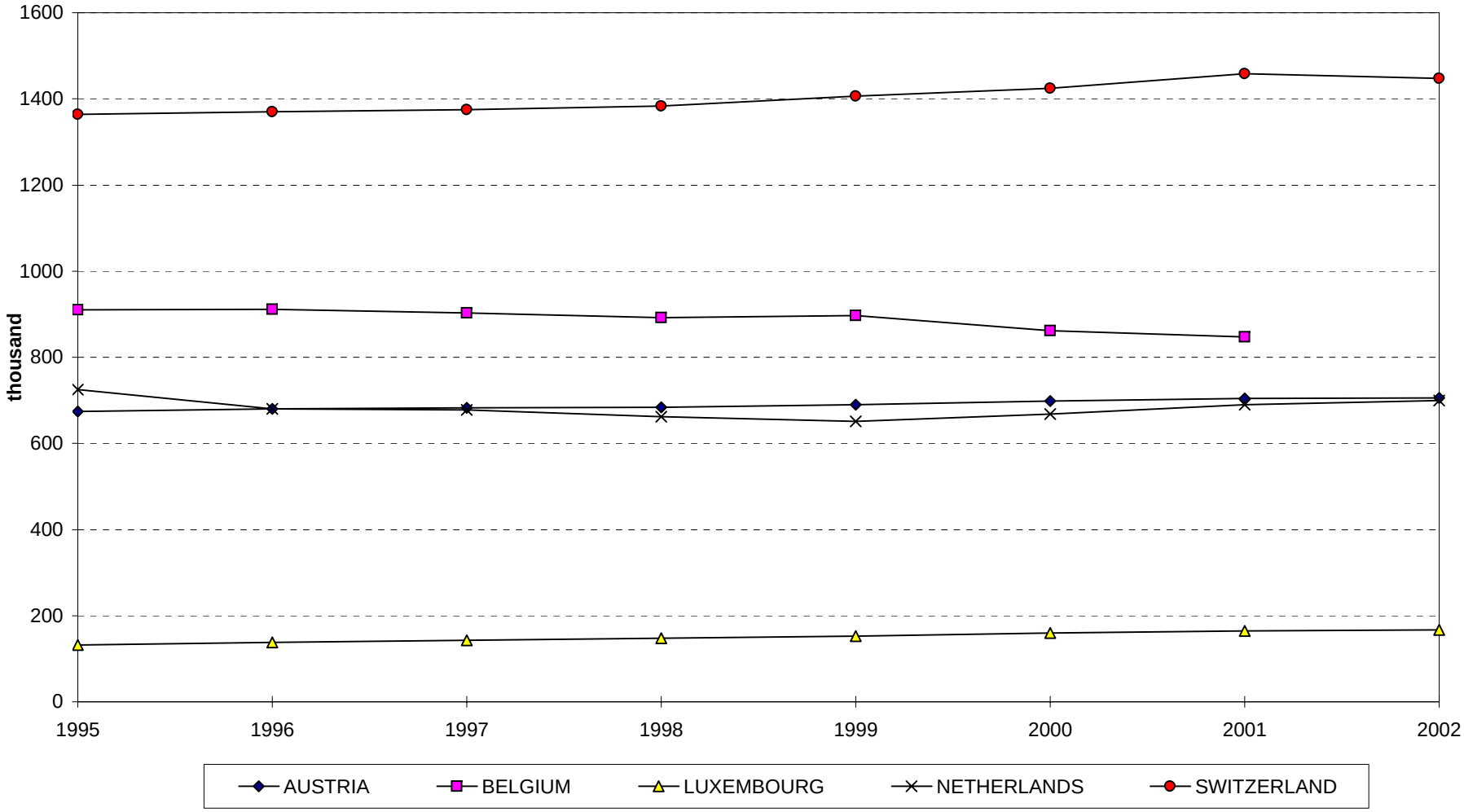
GRAPHS

FIGURE 1 - NET MIGRATION AS A COMPONENT OF AVERAGE ANNUAL POPULATION GROWTH I
EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1999-2002



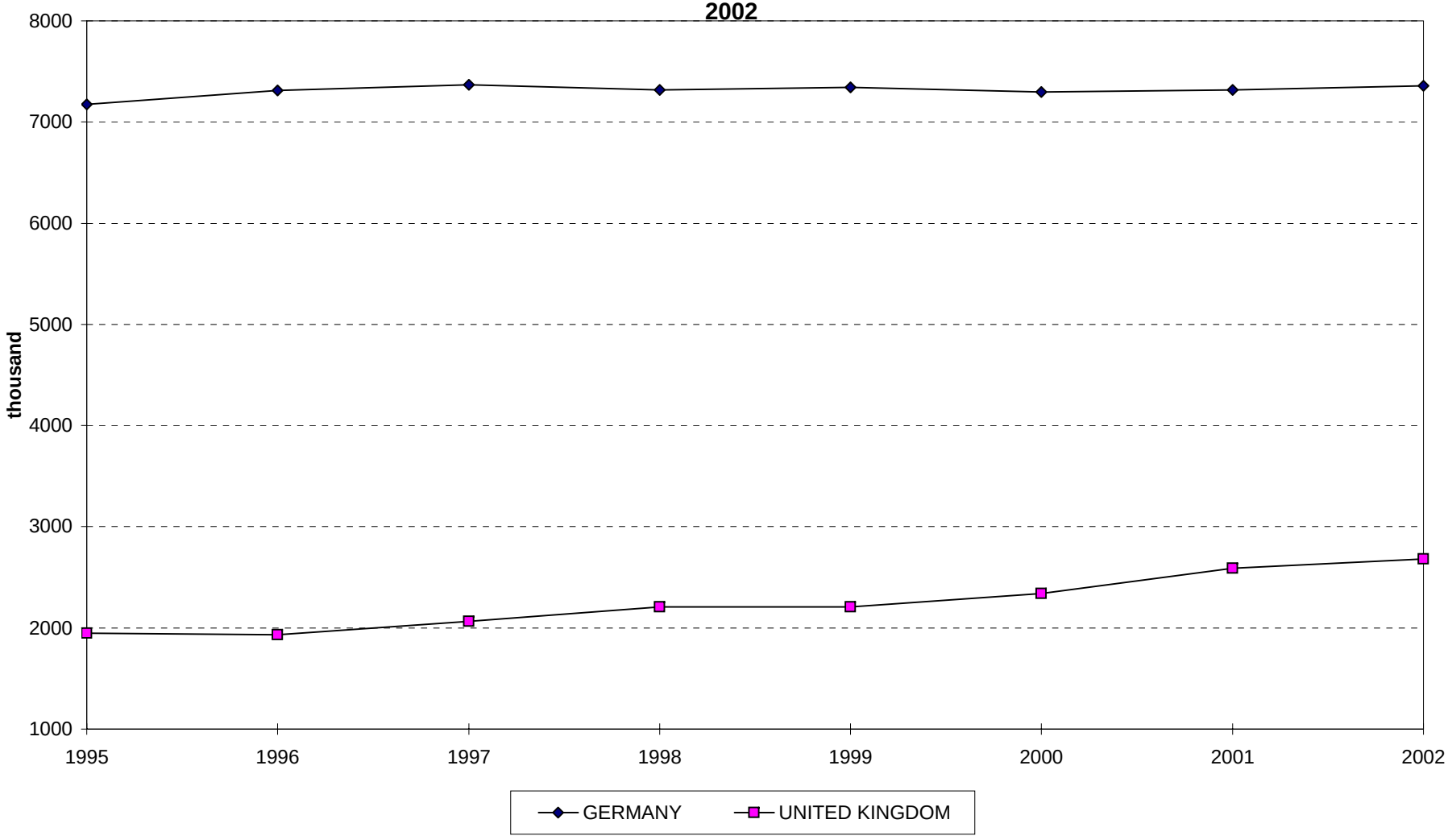
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 2a - STOCK OF FOREIGN POPULATION IN SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



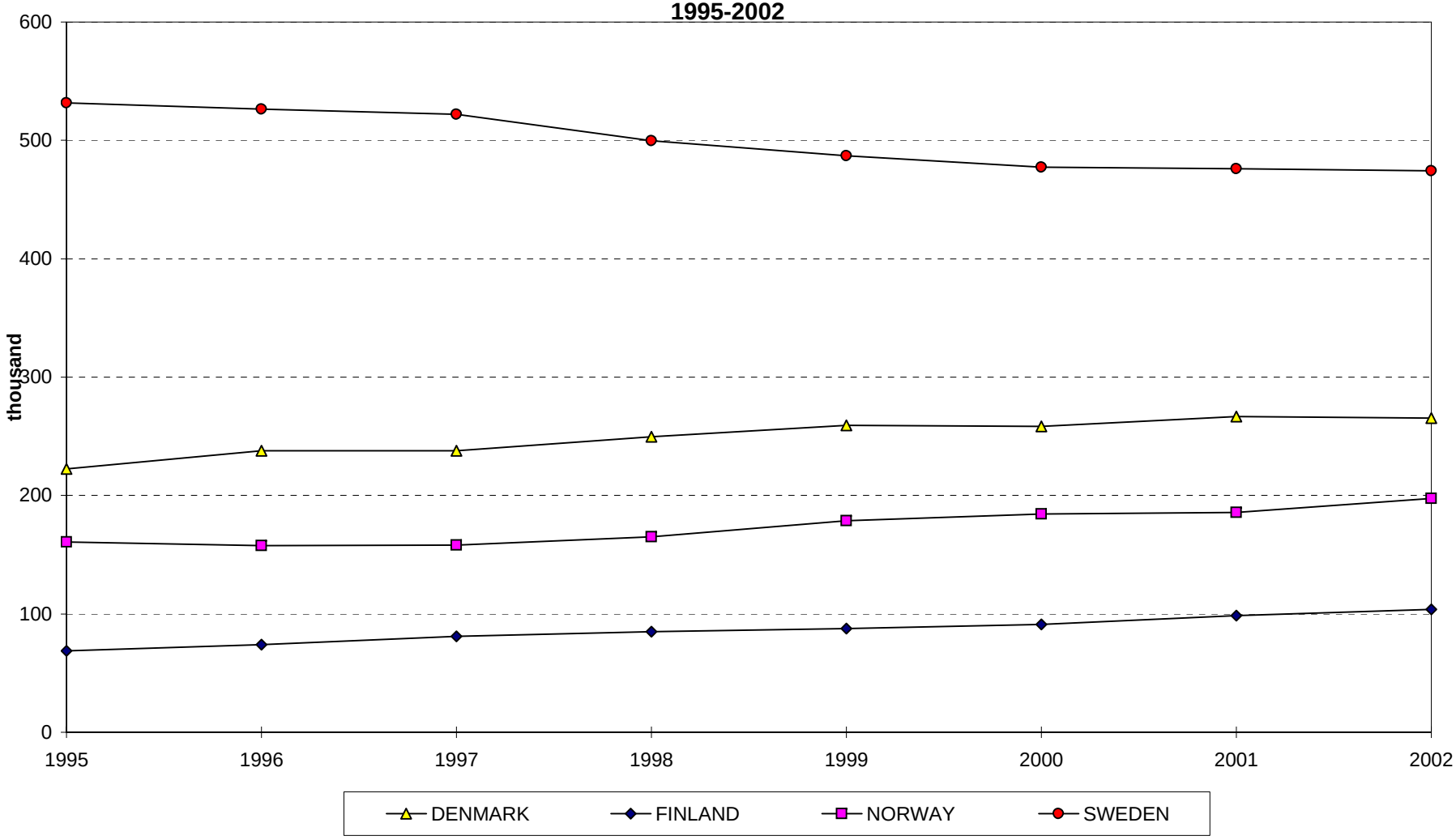
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 2b - STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION IN GERMANY AND THE UNITED KINGDOM, 1995-2002



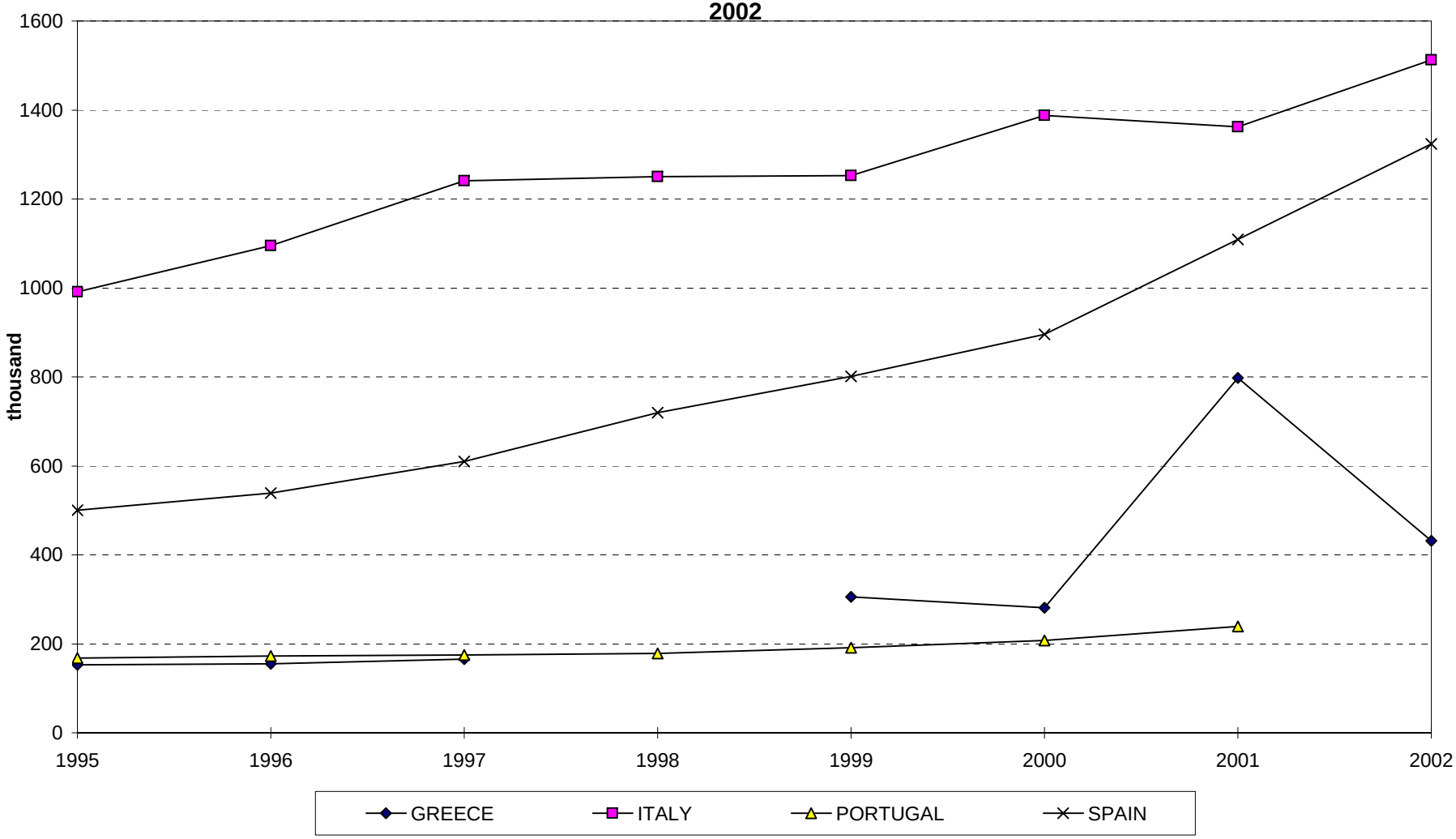
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 2c - STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION IN SELECTED SCANDINAVIAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



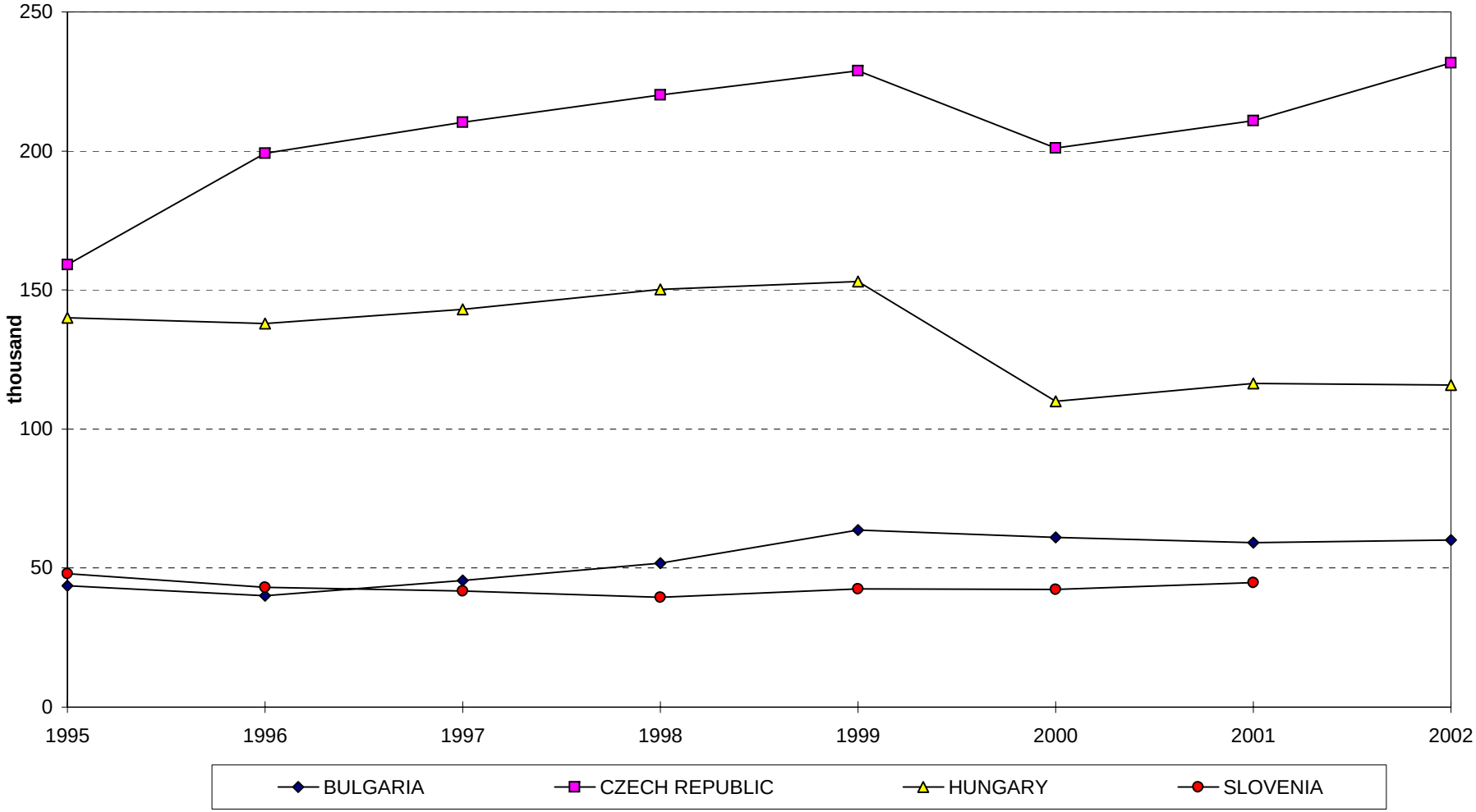
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 2d - STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION IN SELECTED MEDITERRANEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



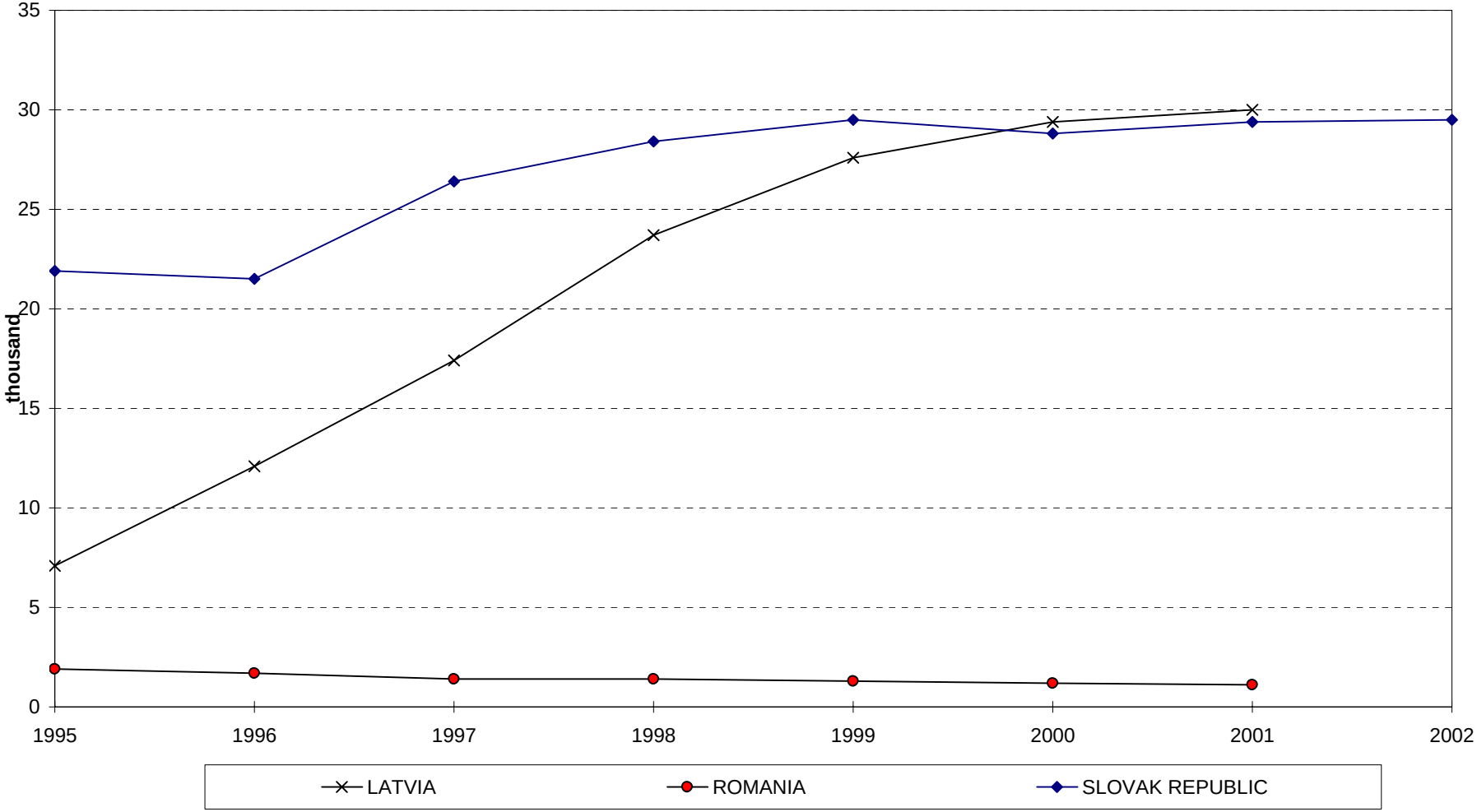
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 2e - STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION IN SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



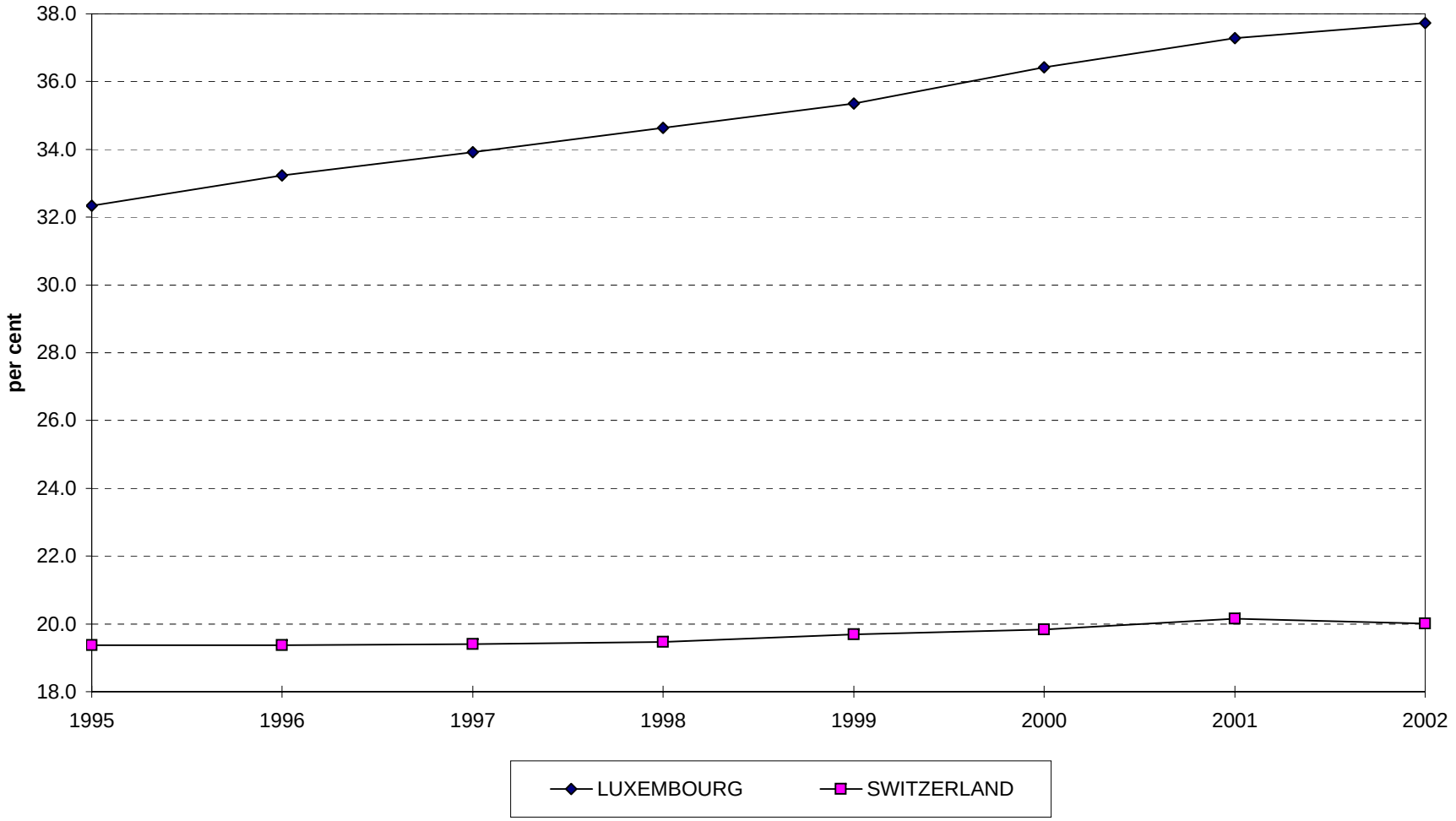
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 2f - STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION IN SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



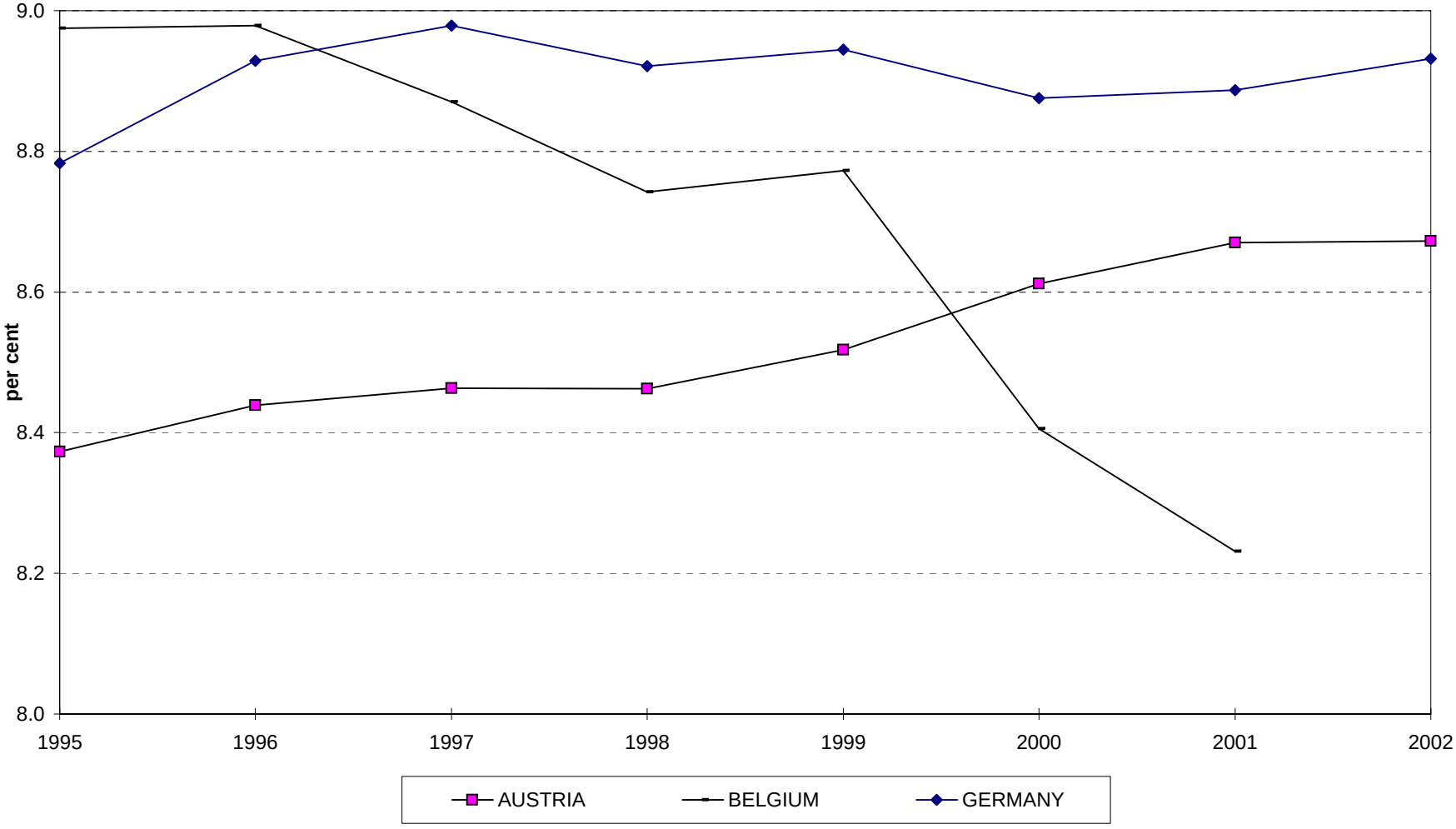
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 3a - STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL POPULATION IN SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



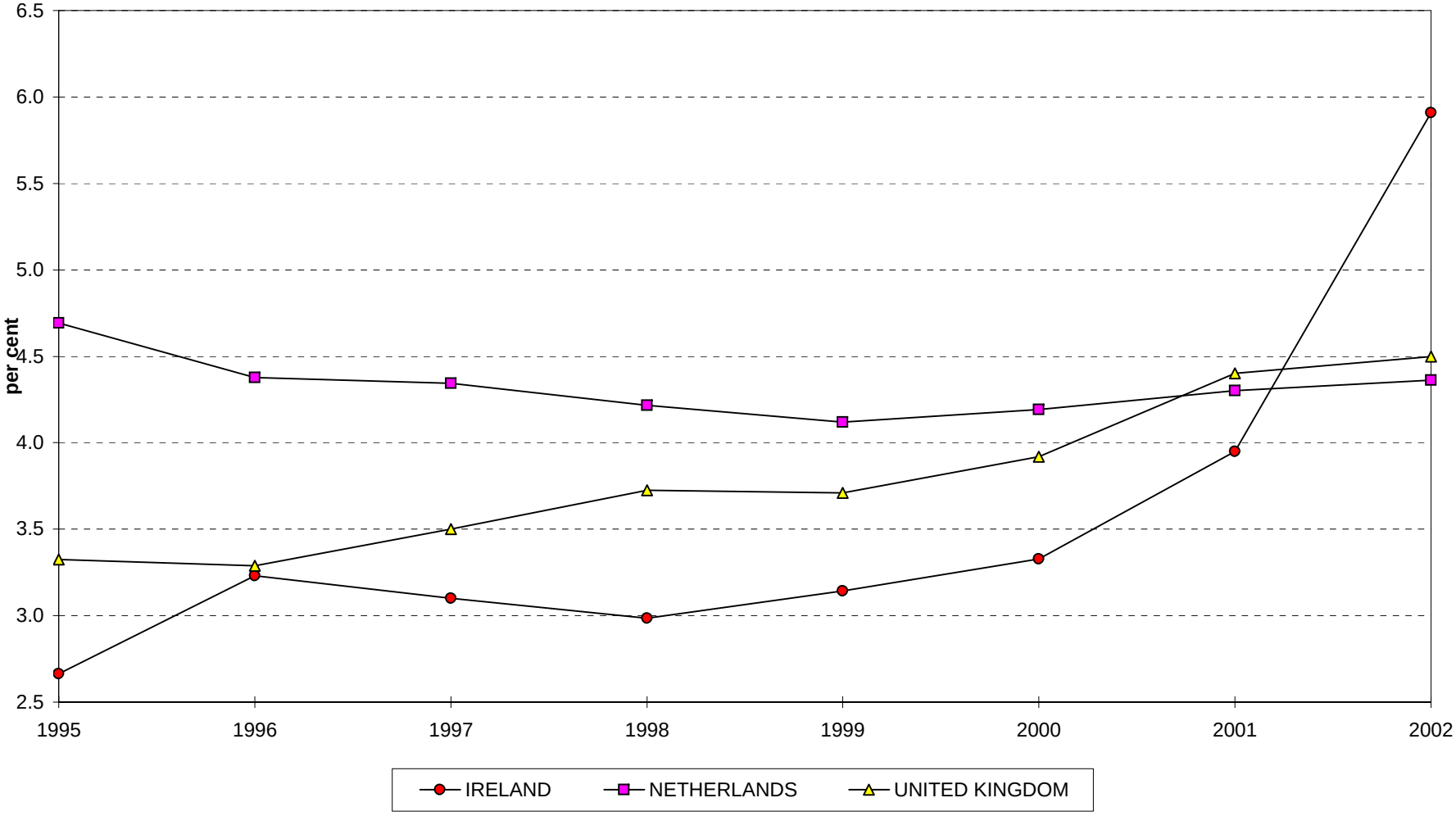
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 3b - STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL POPULATION IN SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



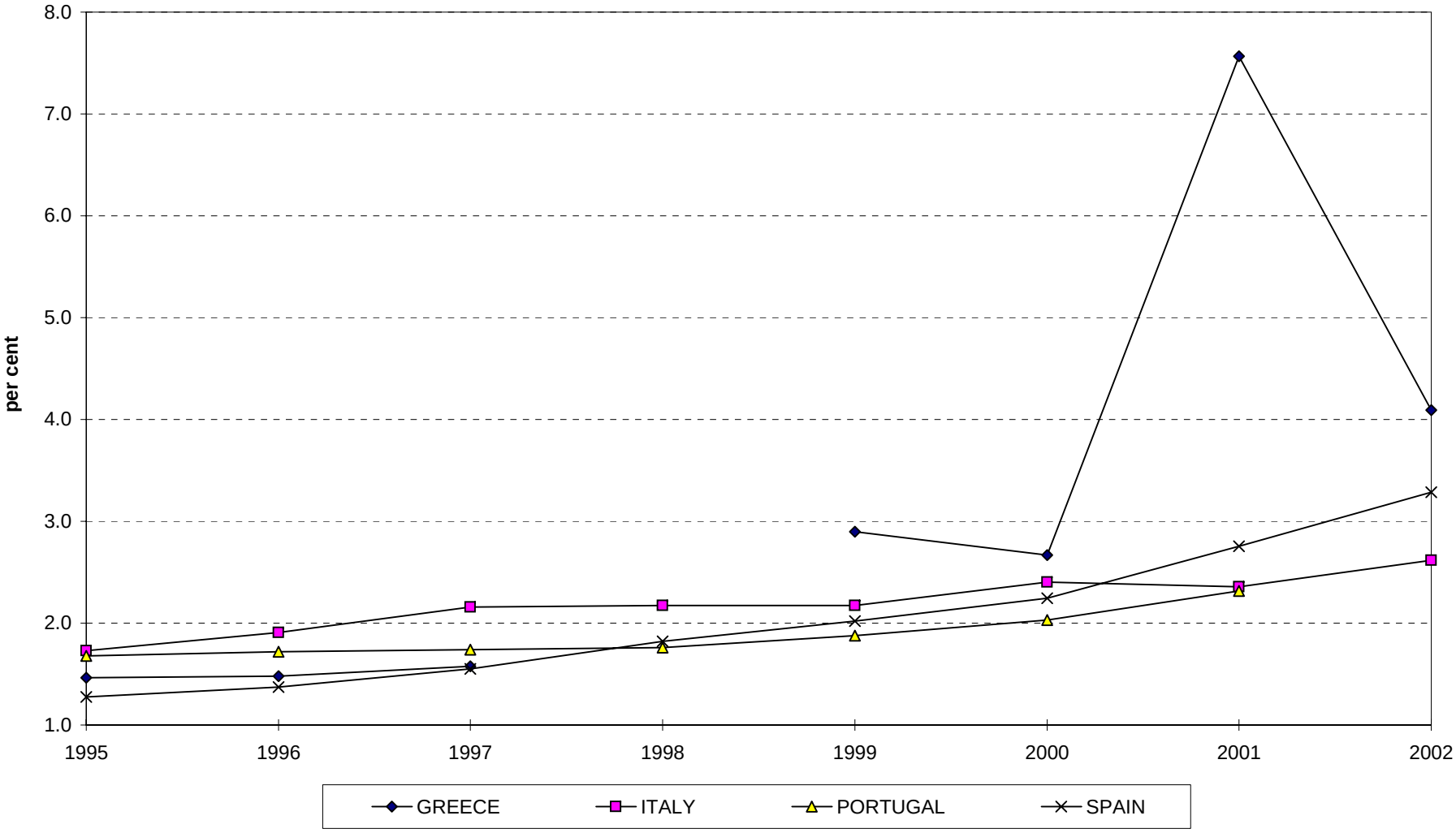
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 3c - STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL POPULATION IN SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



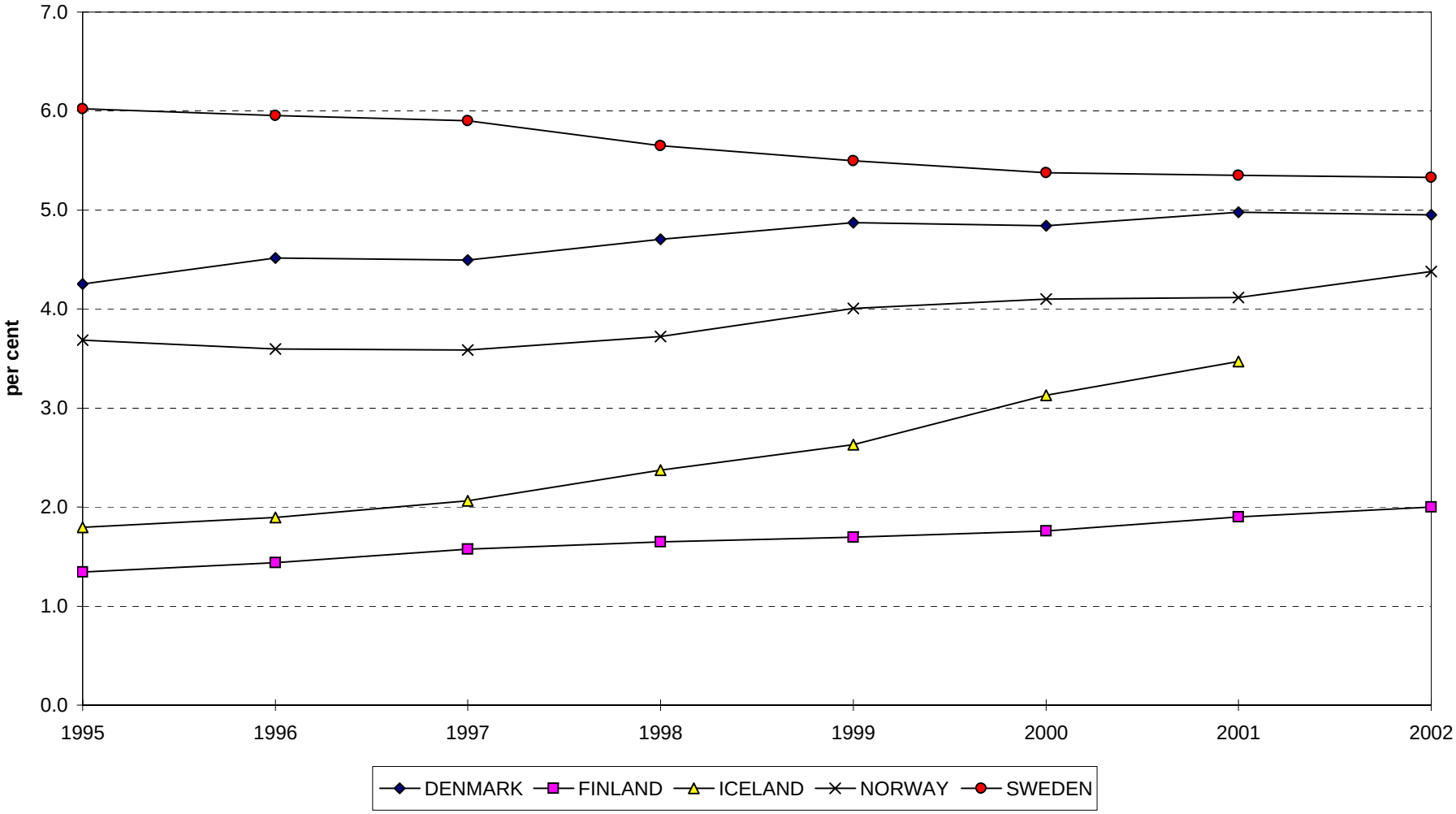
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 3d - STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL POPULATION IN SELECTED MEDITERRANEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



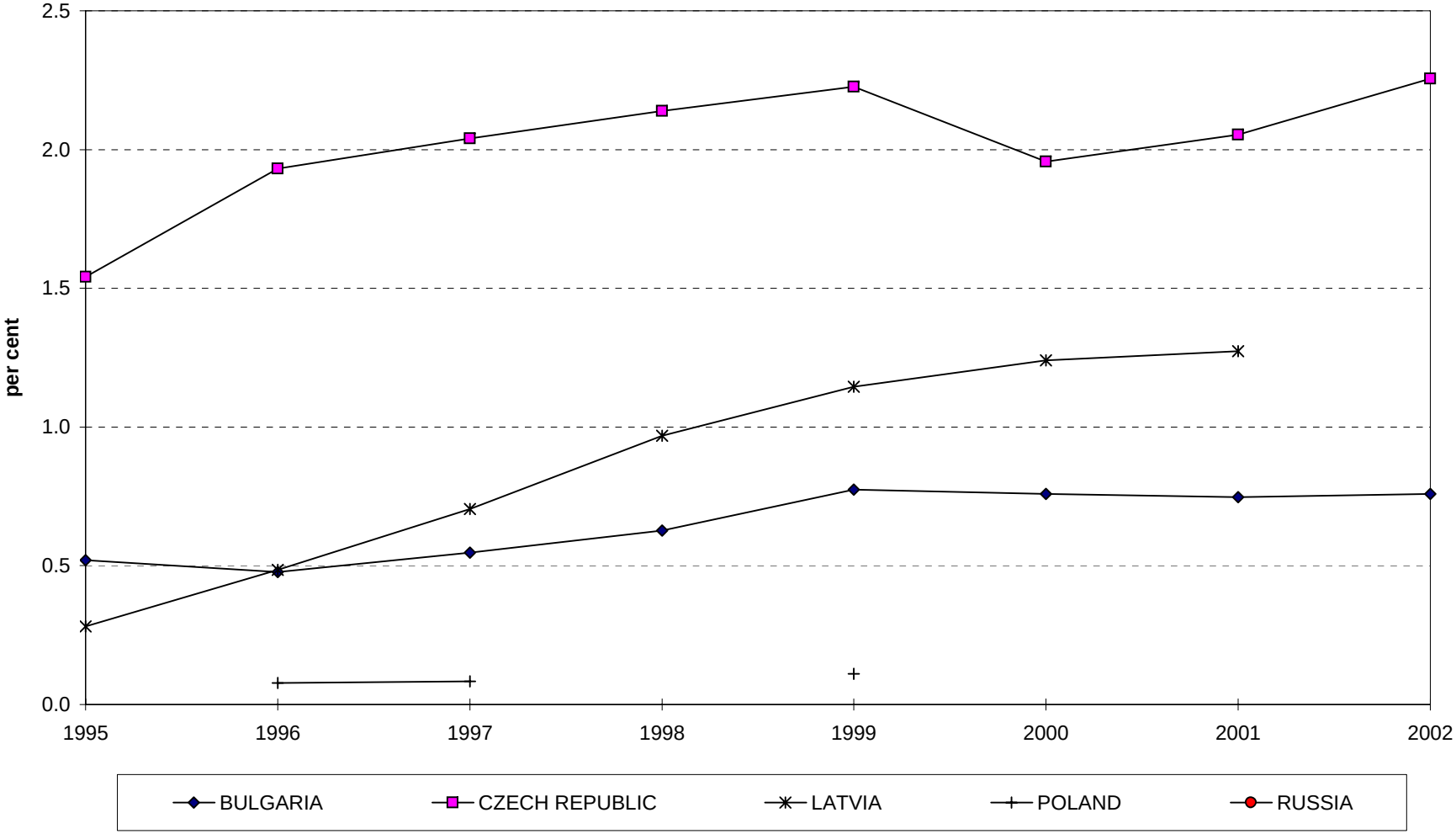
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 3e - STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL POPULATION IN SELECTED NORTHERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



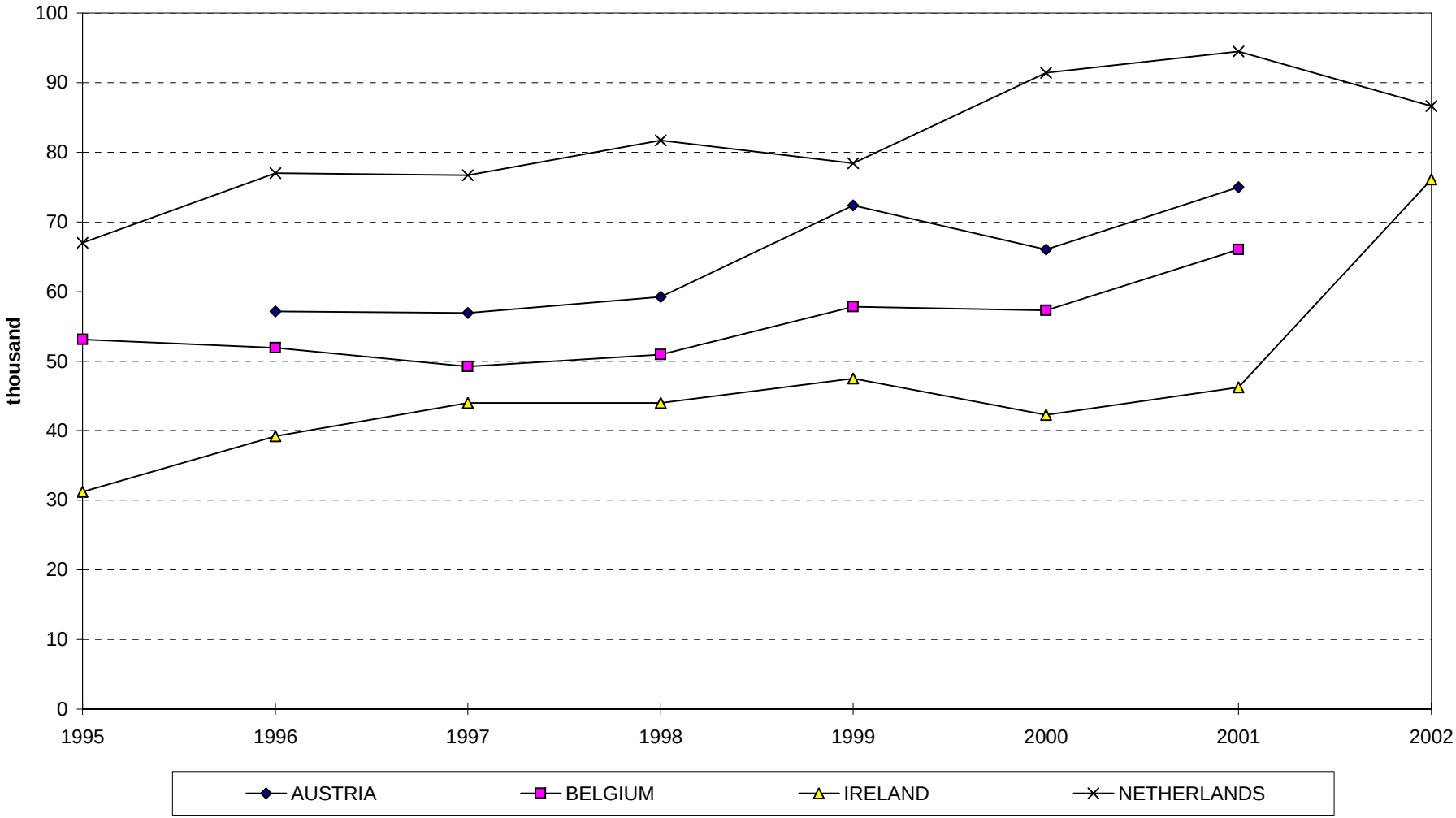
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 3f - STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL POPULATION IN SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



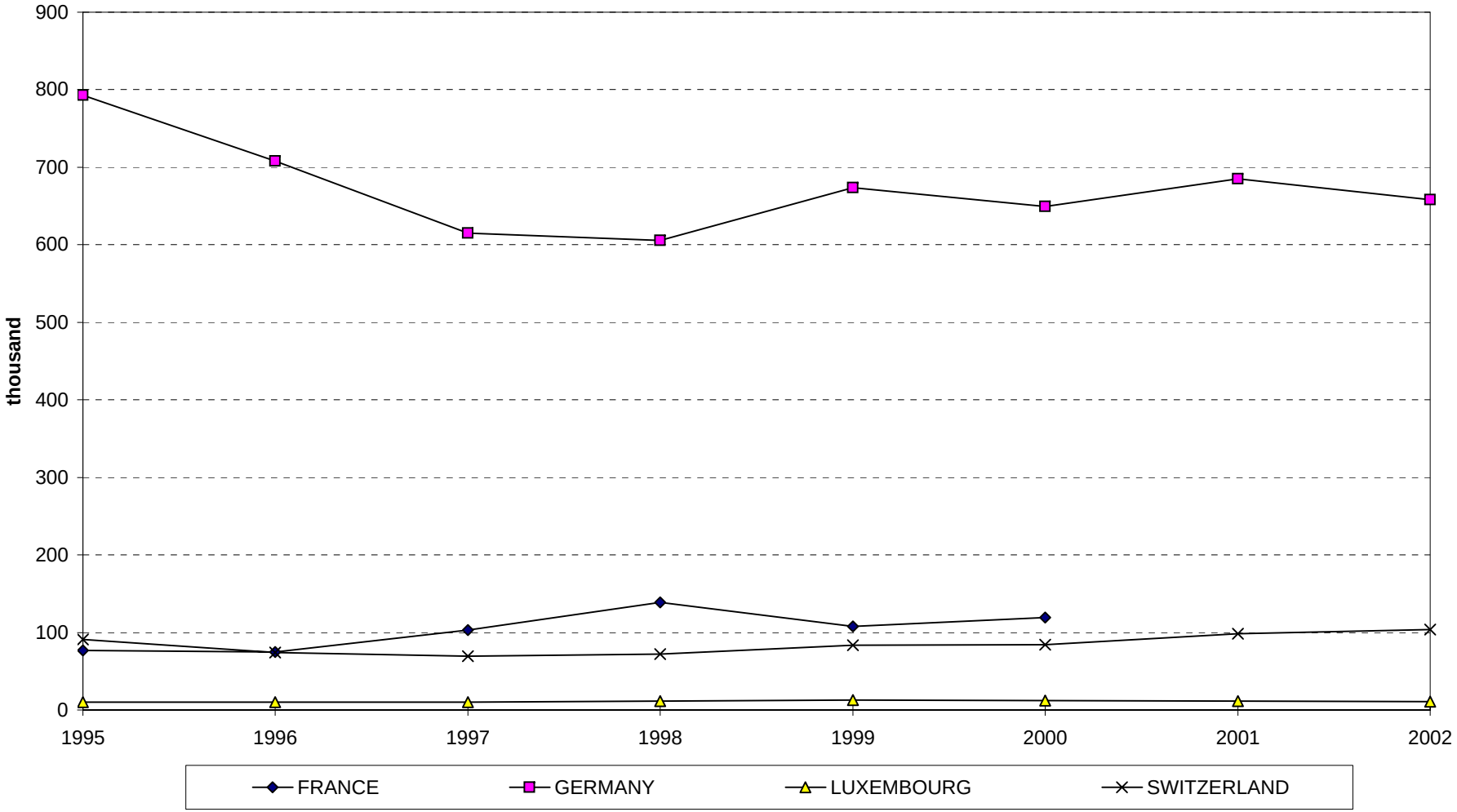
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 4a - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



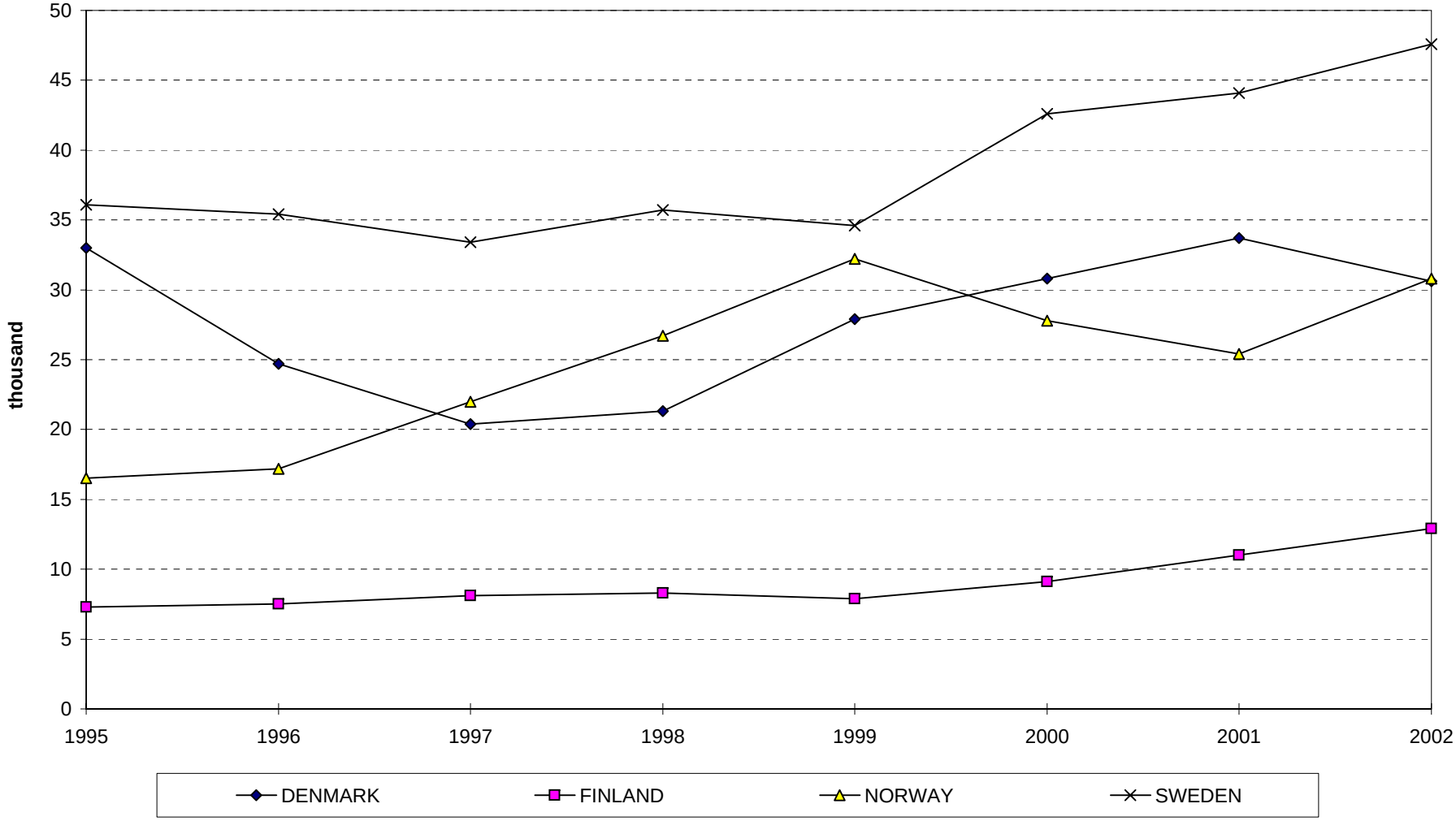
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 4b - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



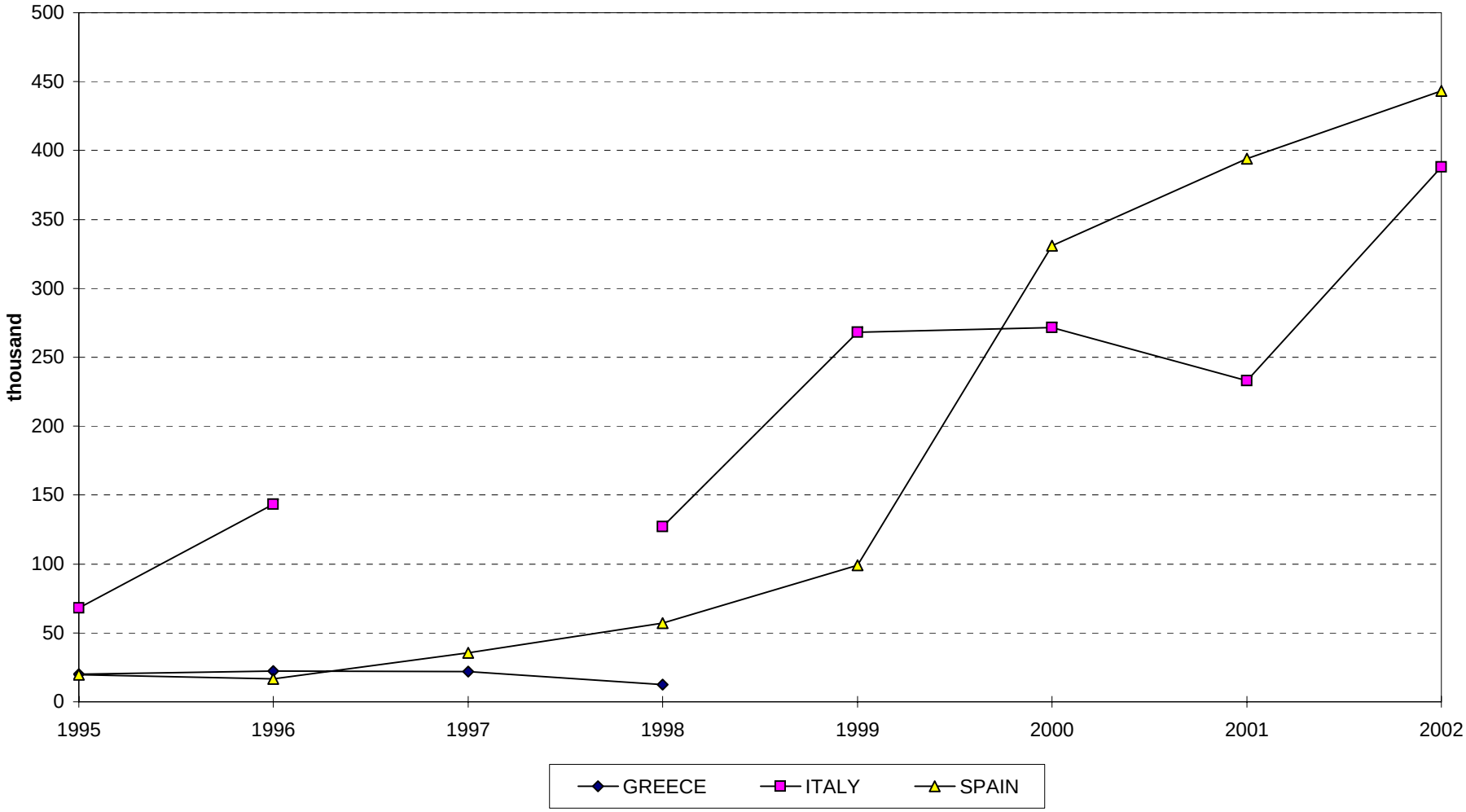
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 4c - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO SELECTED SCANDINAVIAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



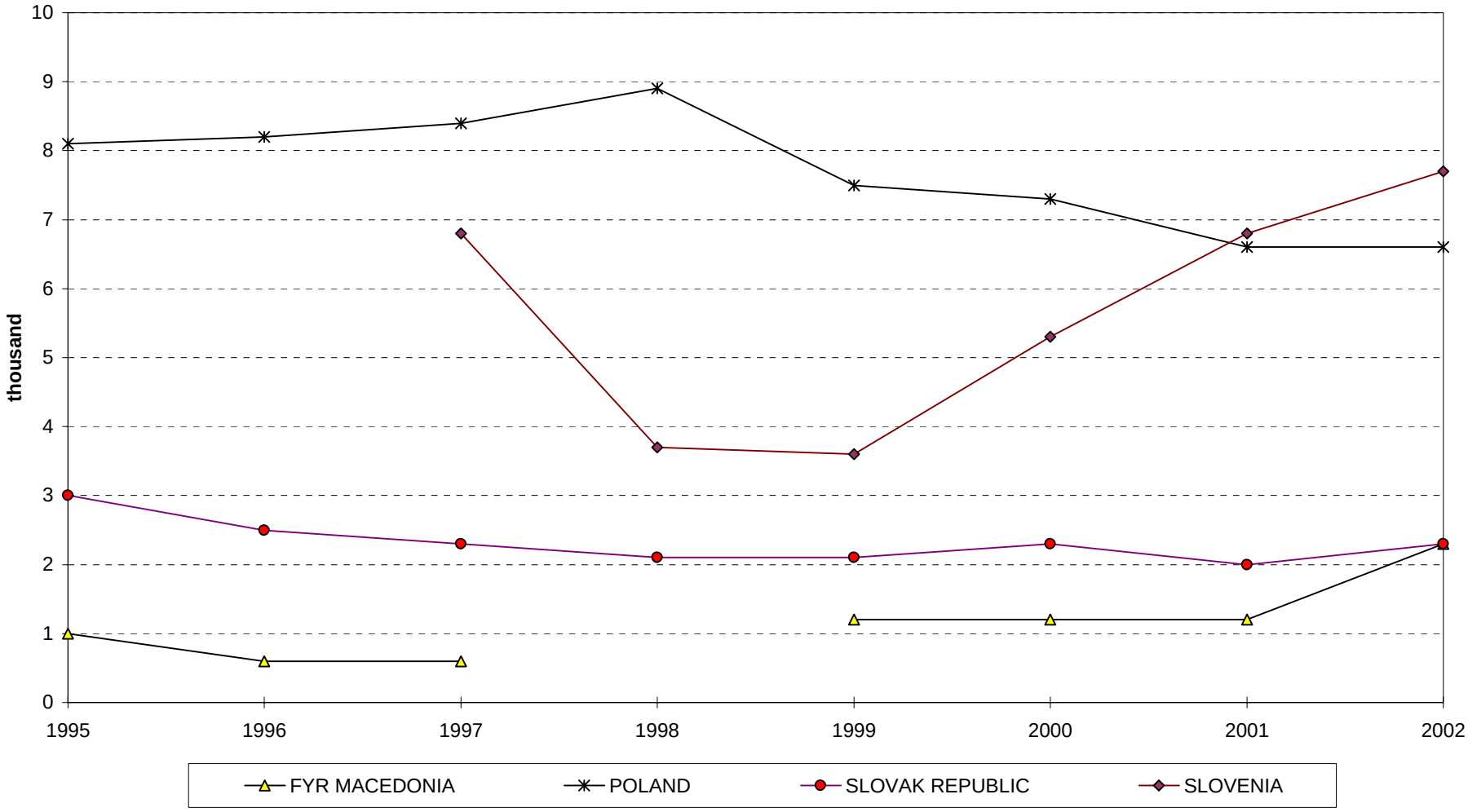
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 4d - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO SELECTED MEDITERRANEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



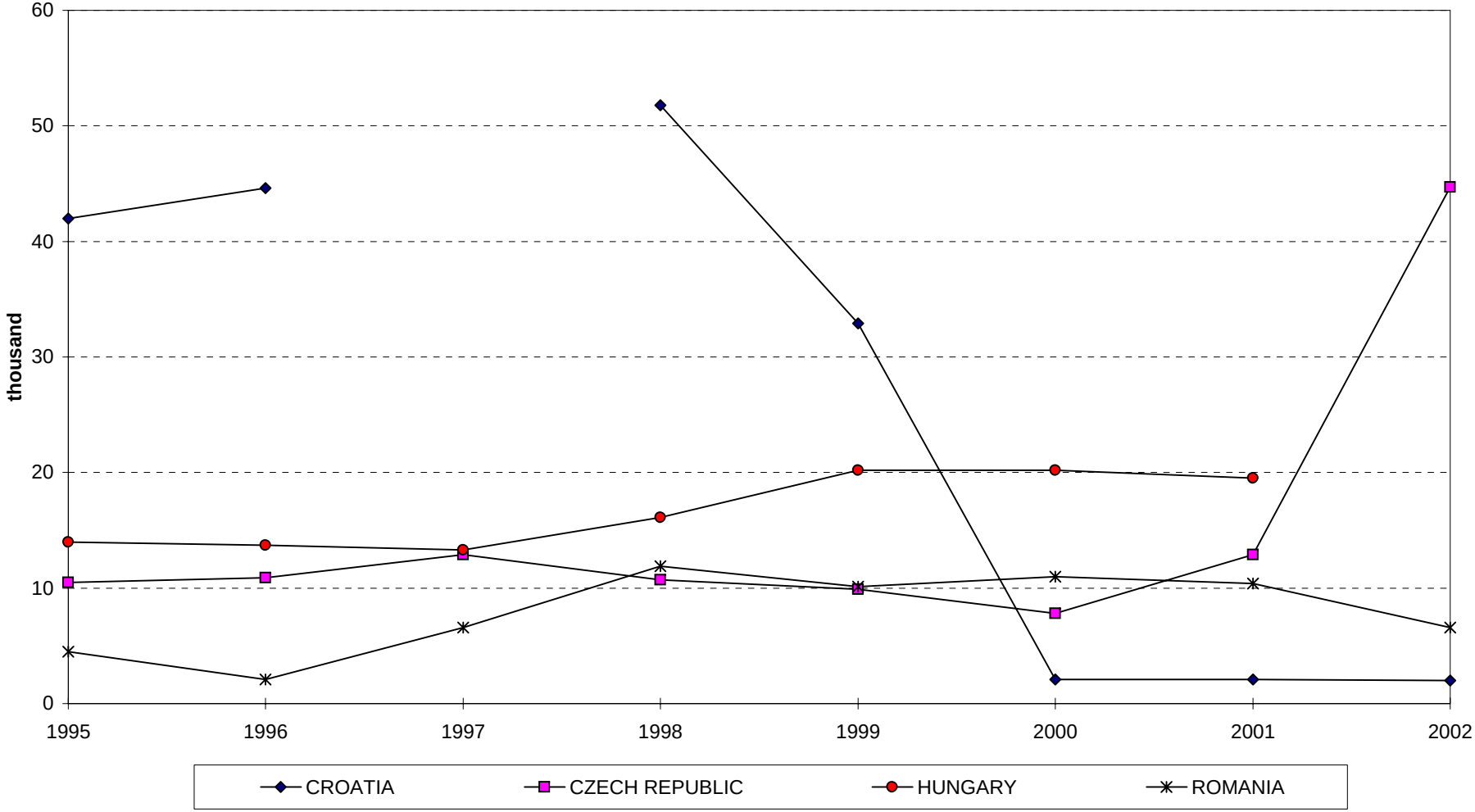
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 4e - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



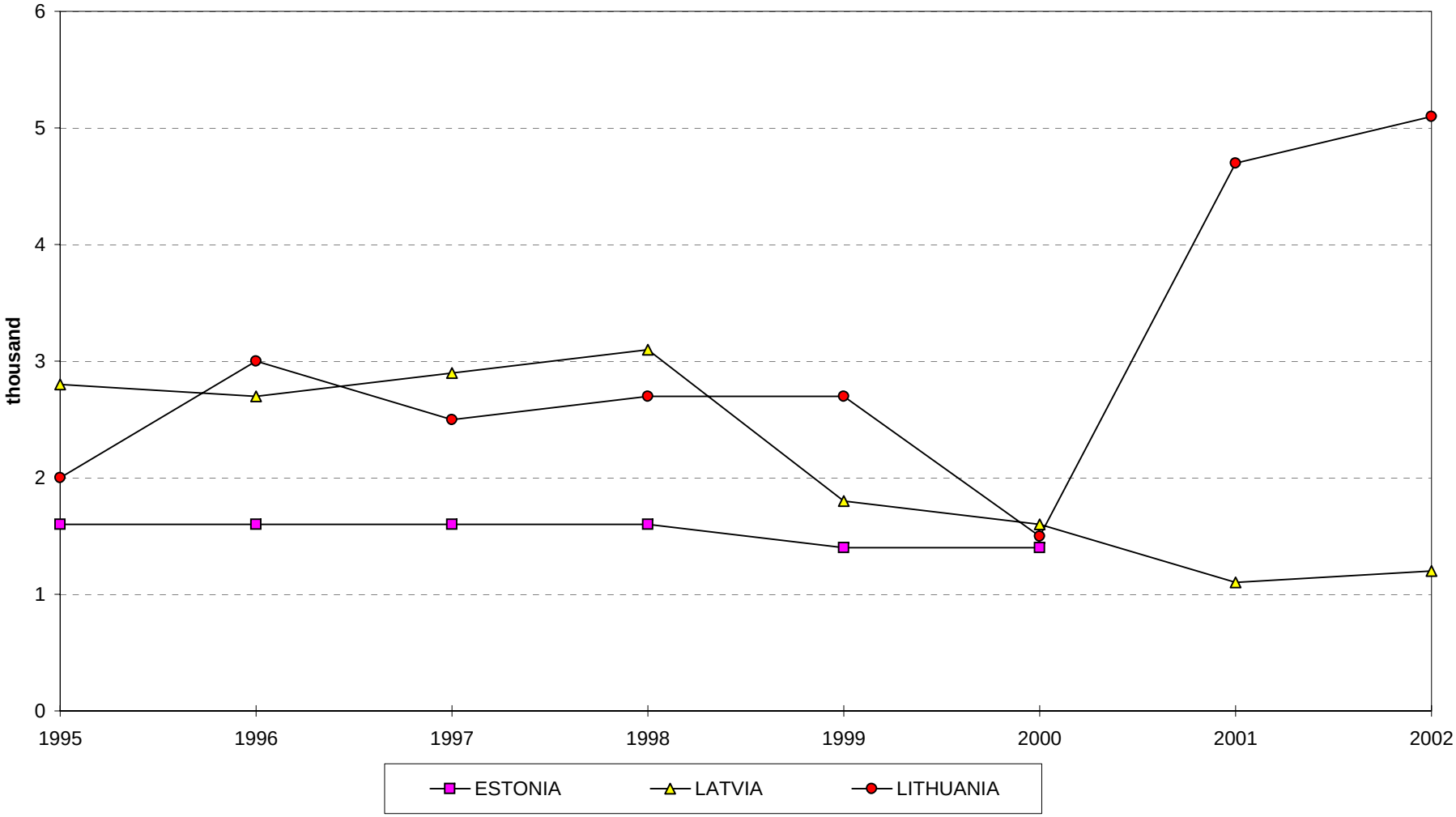
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 4f - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



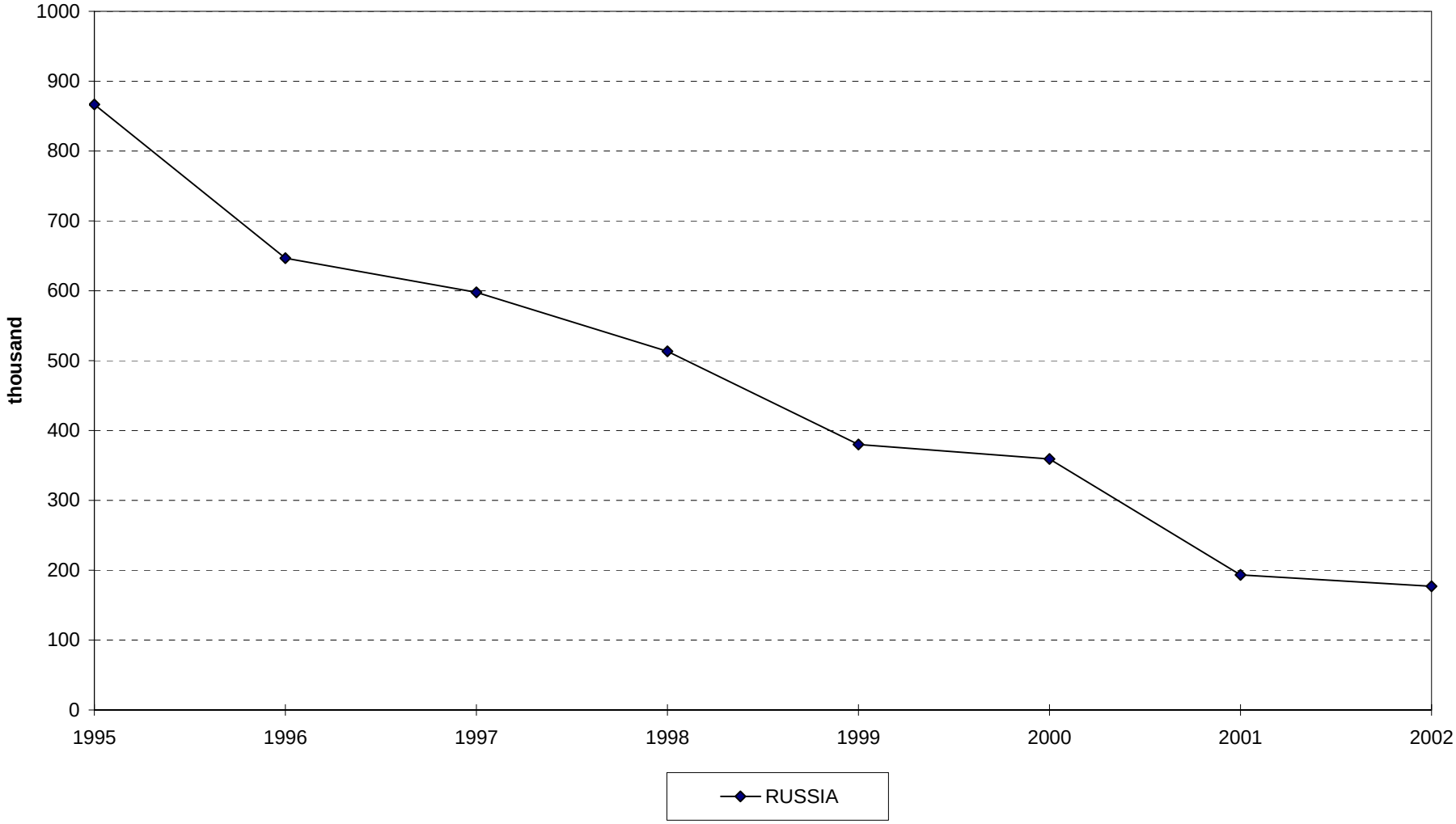
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 4g - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO THE BALTIC STATES, 1995-2002



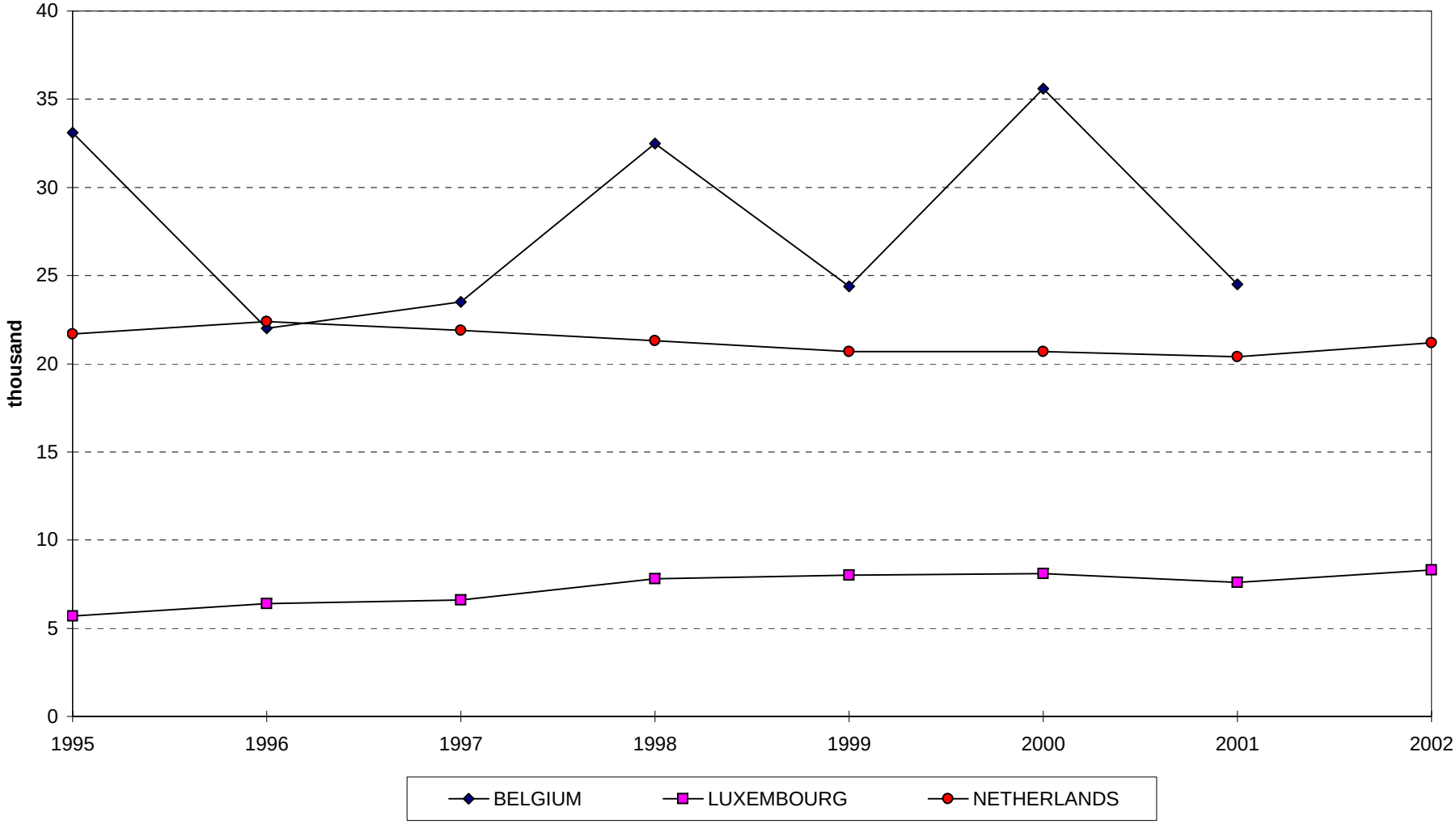
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 4h - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO RUSSIA, 1995-2002



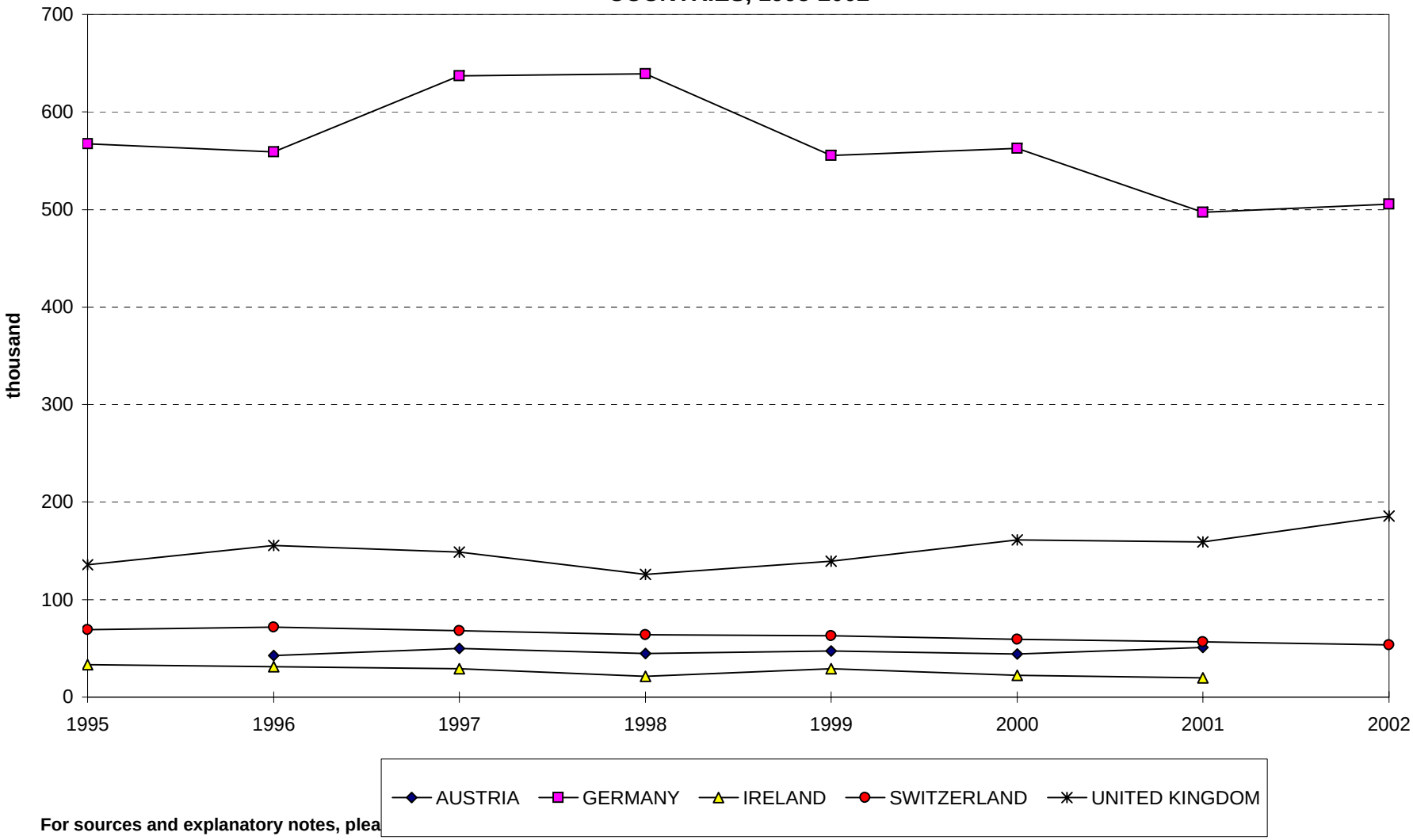
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 5a - OUTFLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION FROM THE BENELUX COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



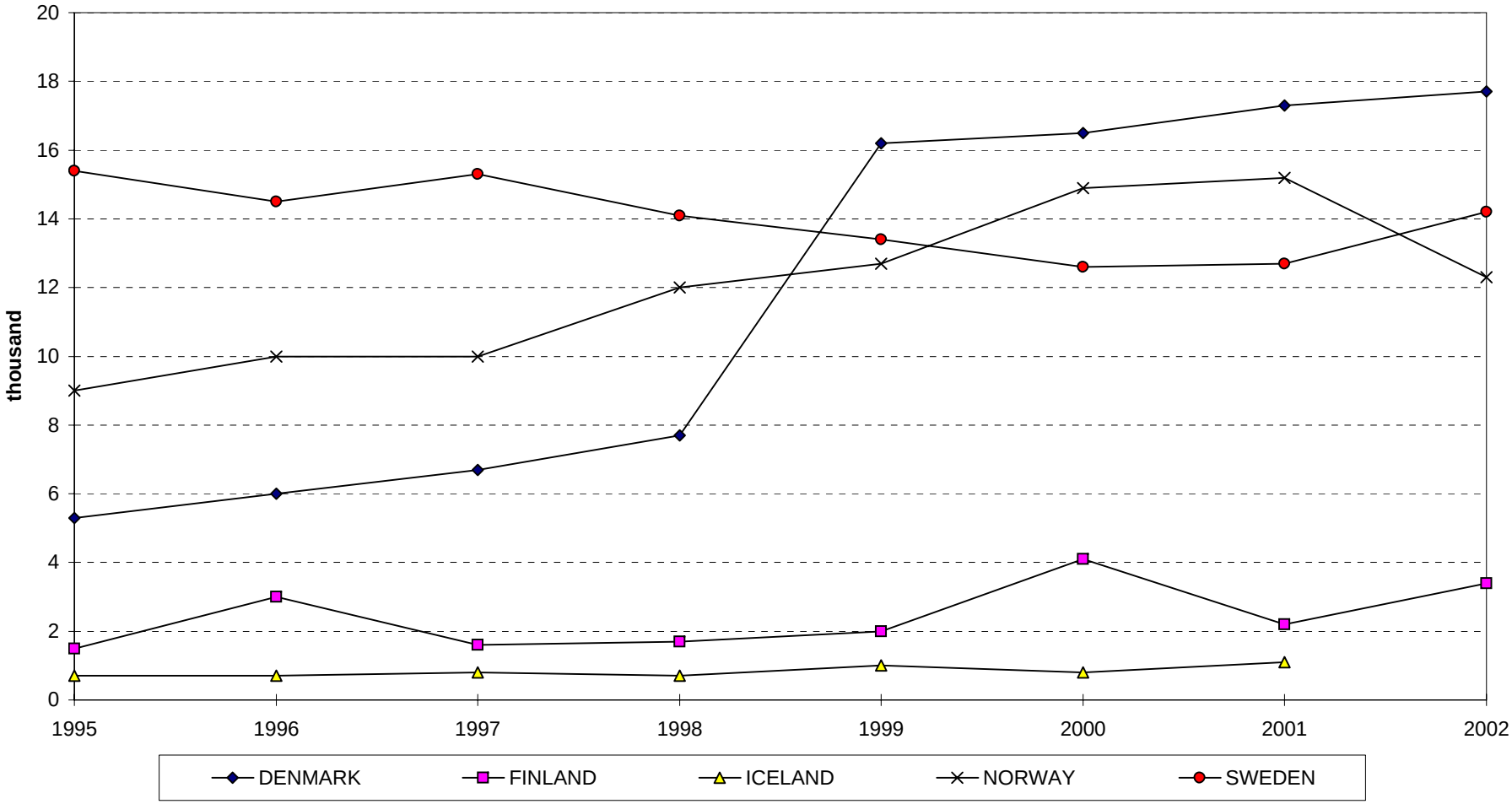
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 5b - OUTFLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION FROM SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



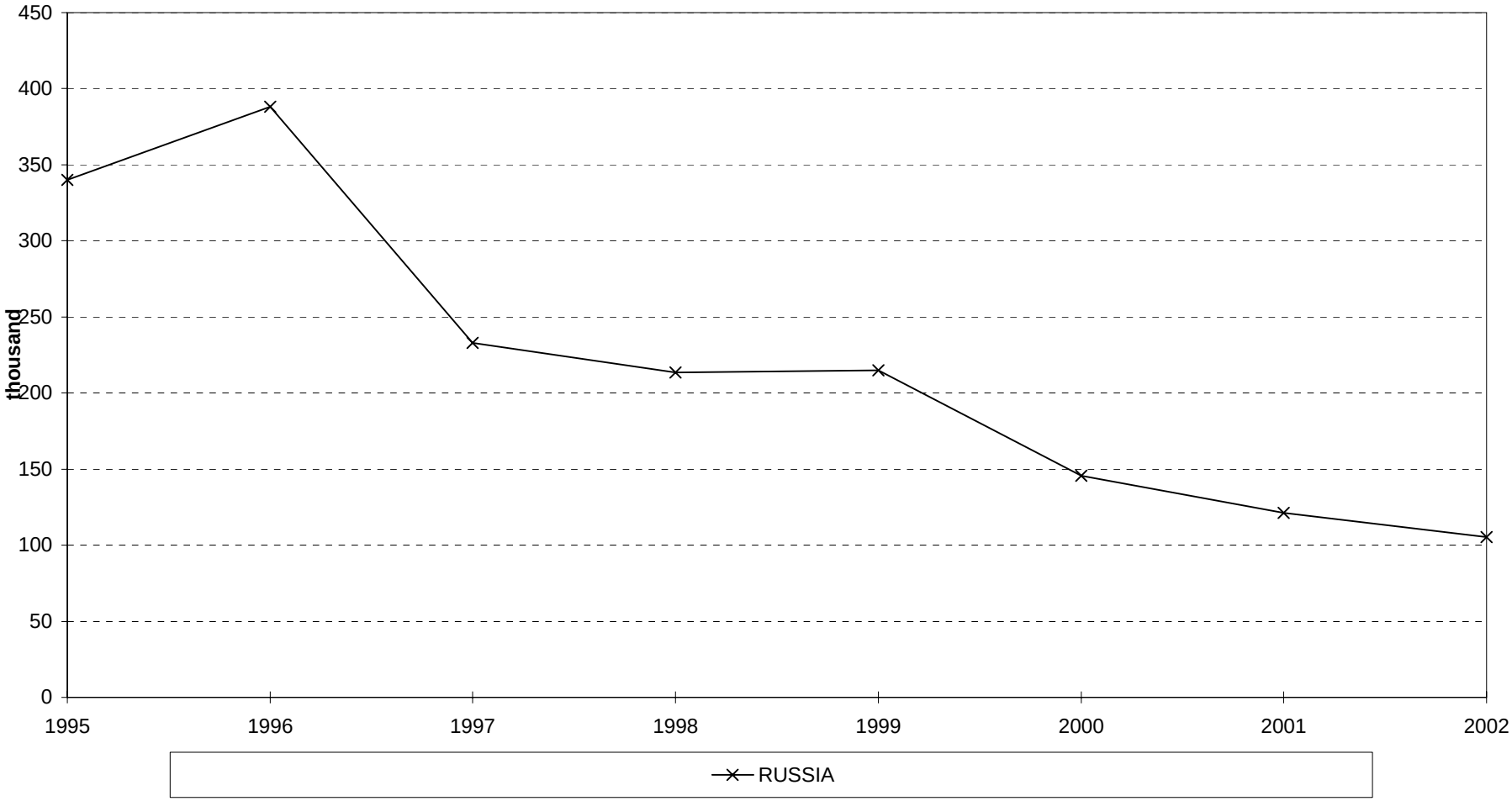
For sources and explanatory notes, plea

FIGURE 5c - OUTFLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION FROM SELECTED NORTHERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



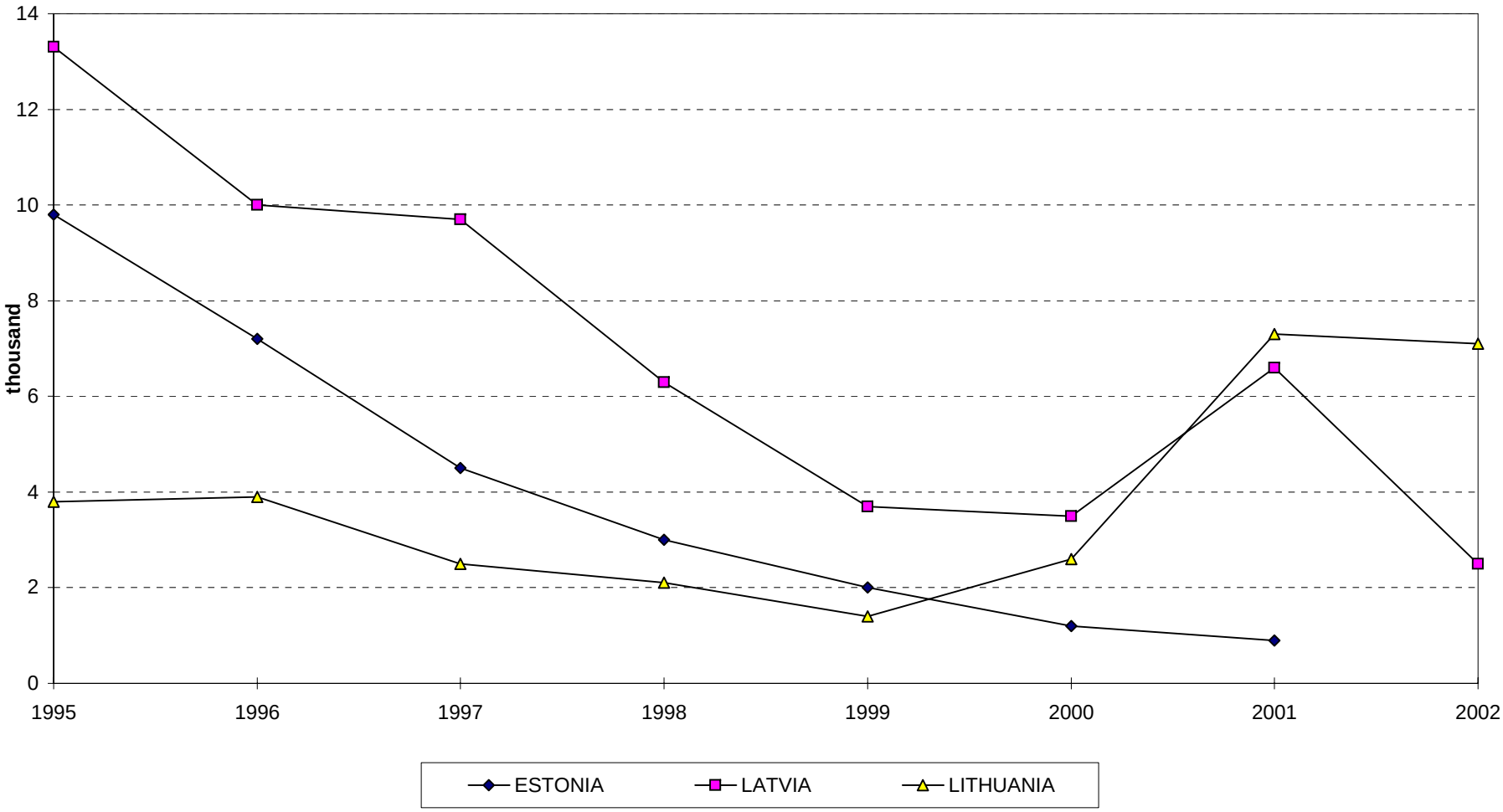
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 5d - PERMANENT EMIGRATION FROM SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



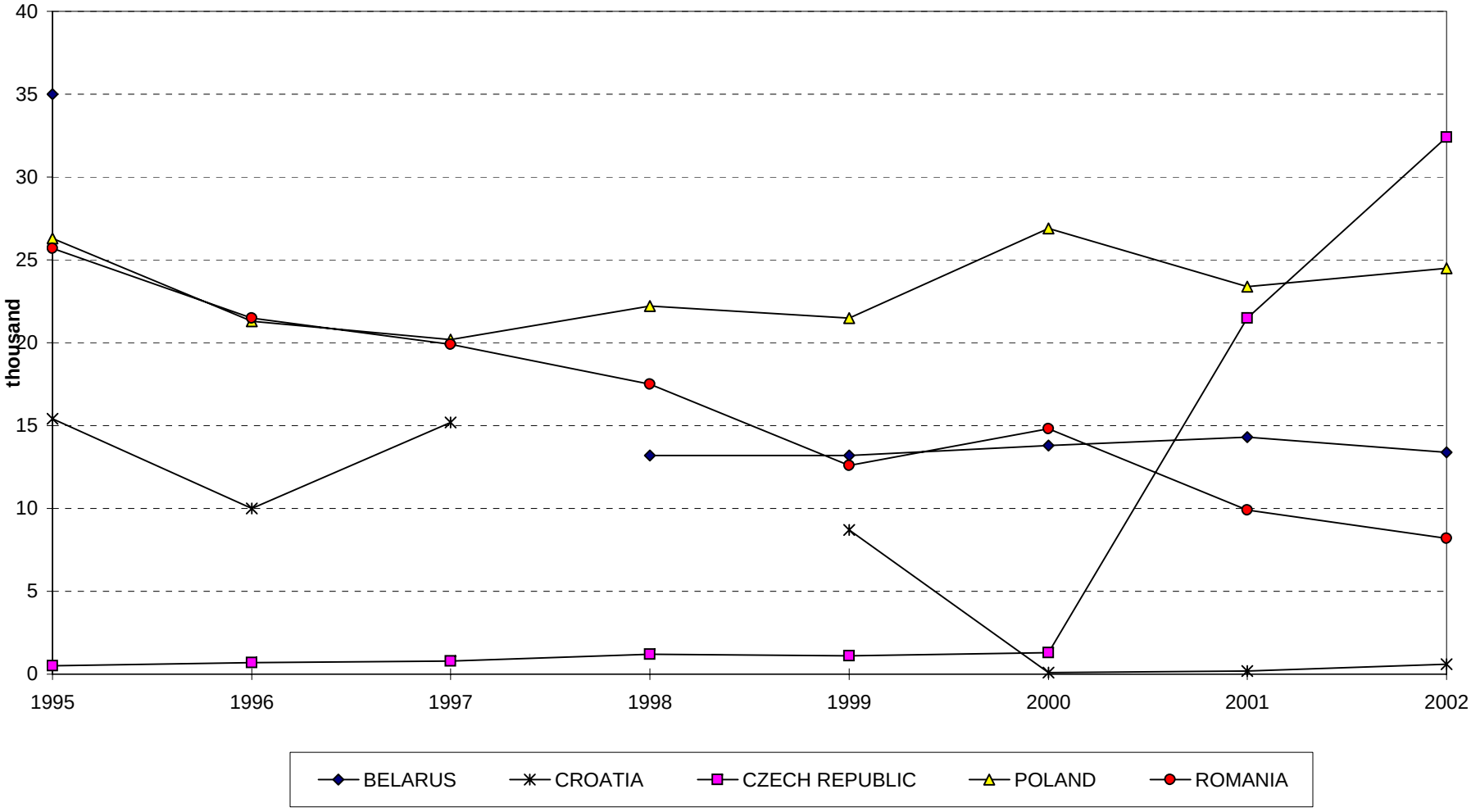
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 5e - PERMANENT EMIGRATION FROM THE BALTIC STATES, 1995-2002



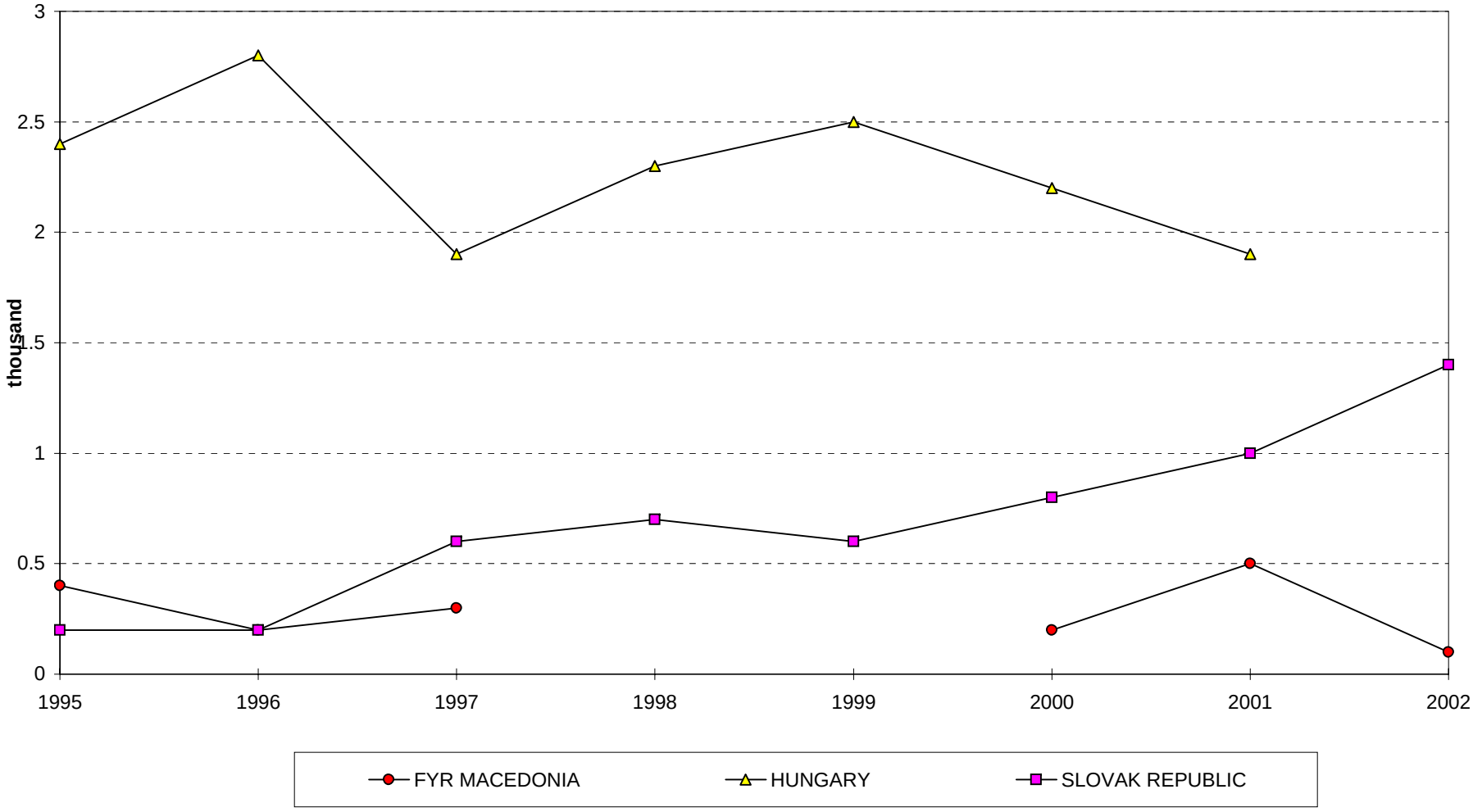
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 5f - PERMANENT EMIGRATION FROM SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



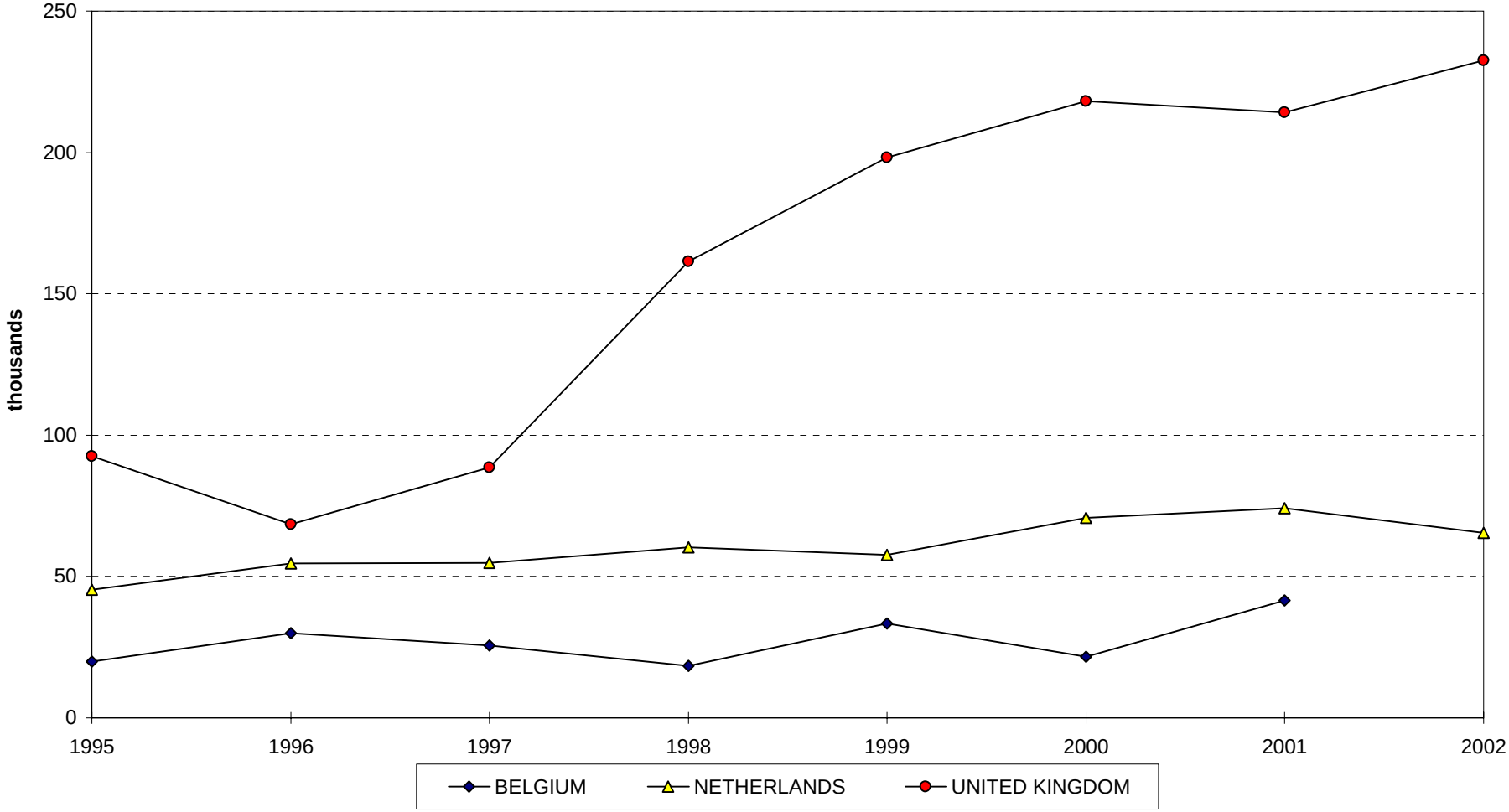
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 5g - PERMANENT EMIGRATION FROM SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



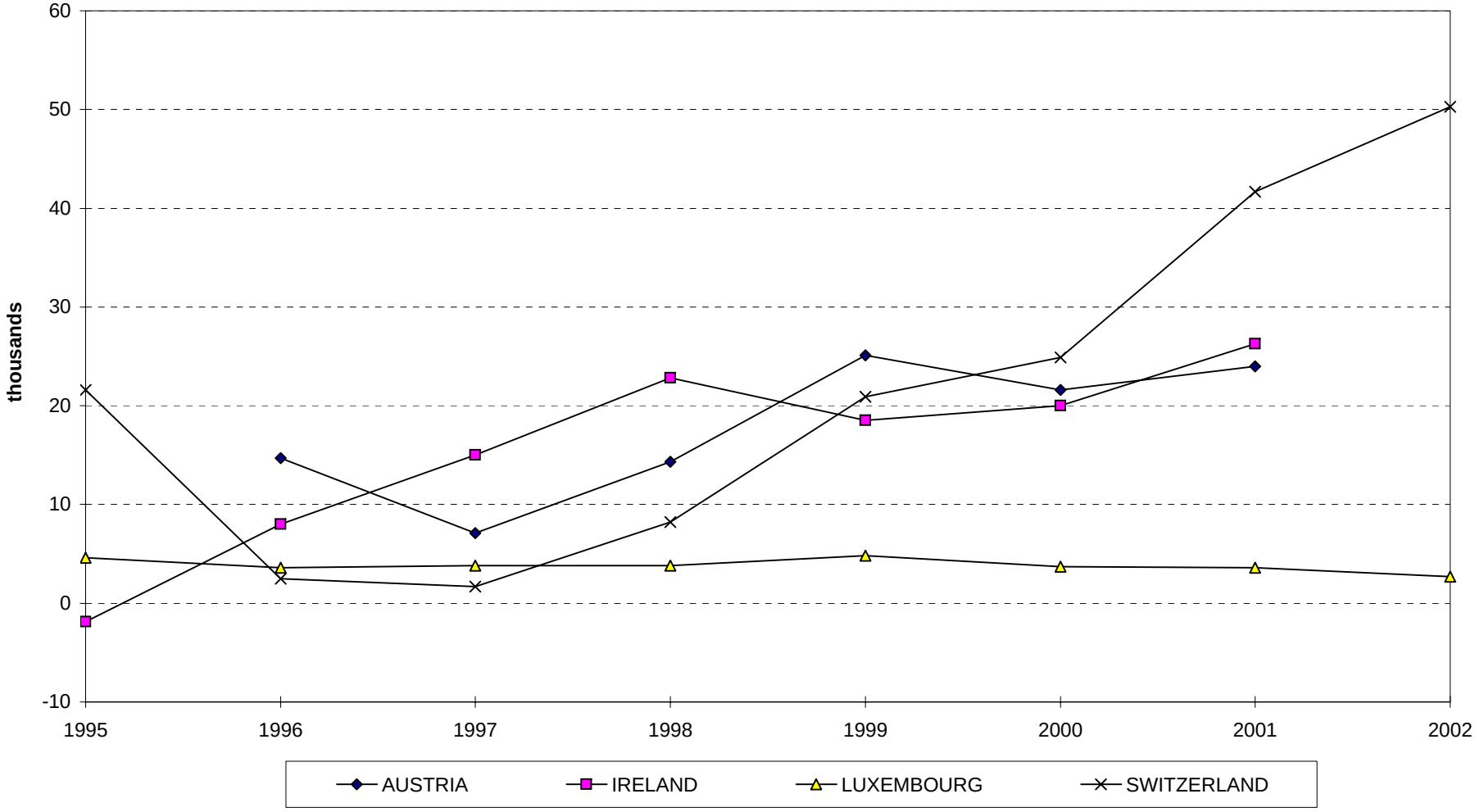
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 6a - NET FLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO/FROM SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



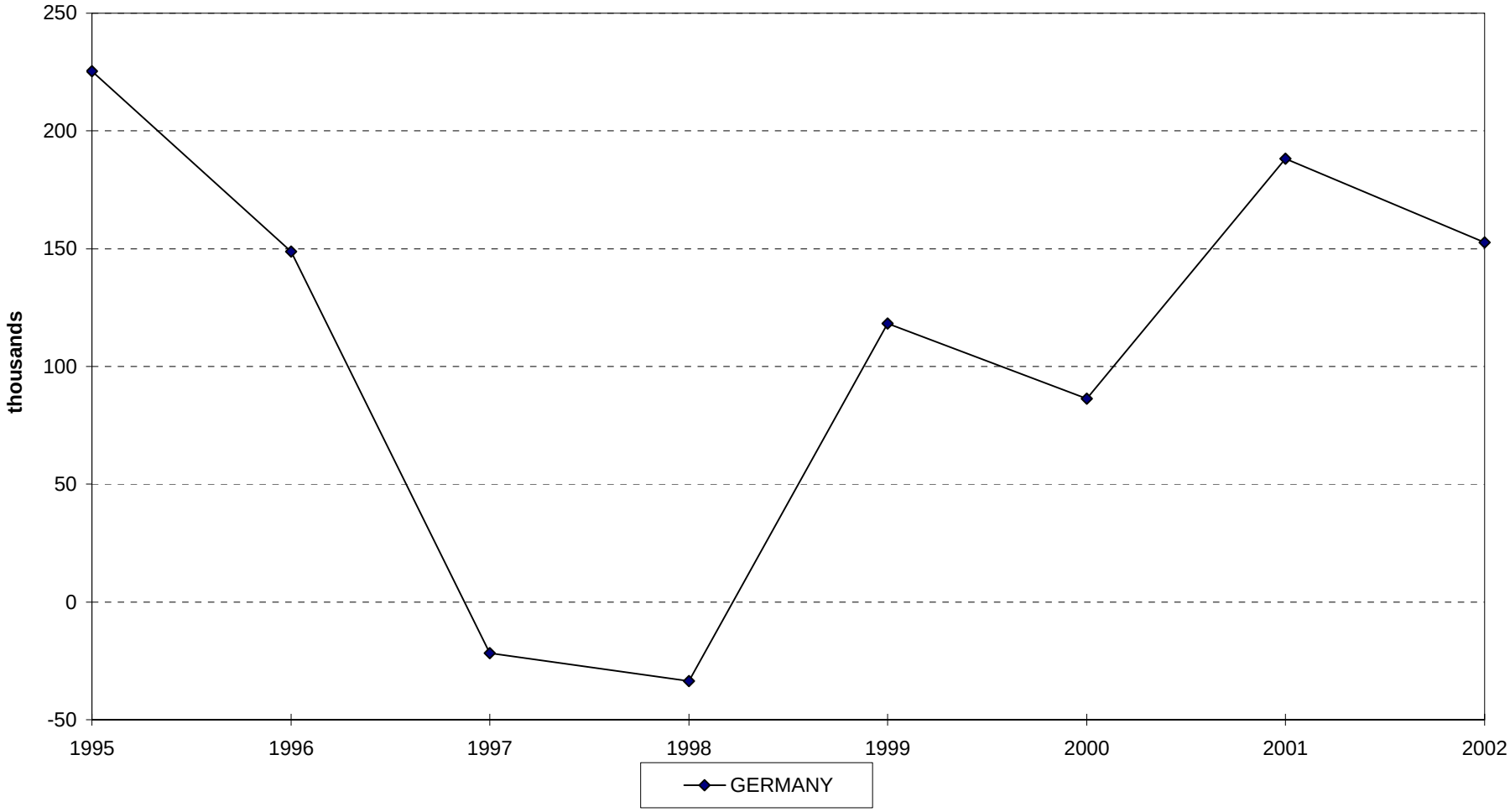
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 6b - NET FLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO/FROM SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



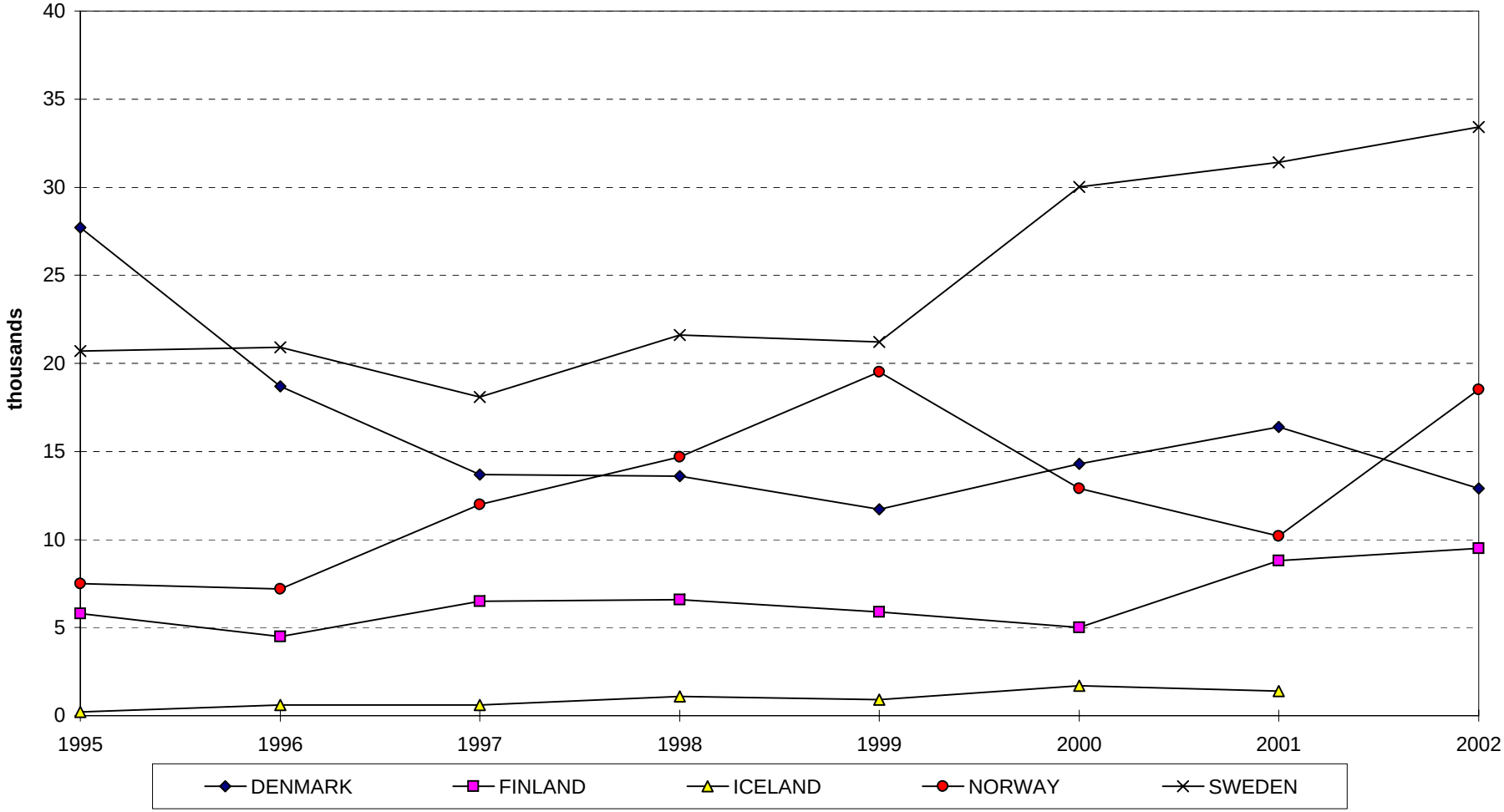
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 6c - NET FLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO/FROM GERMANY, 1995-2002



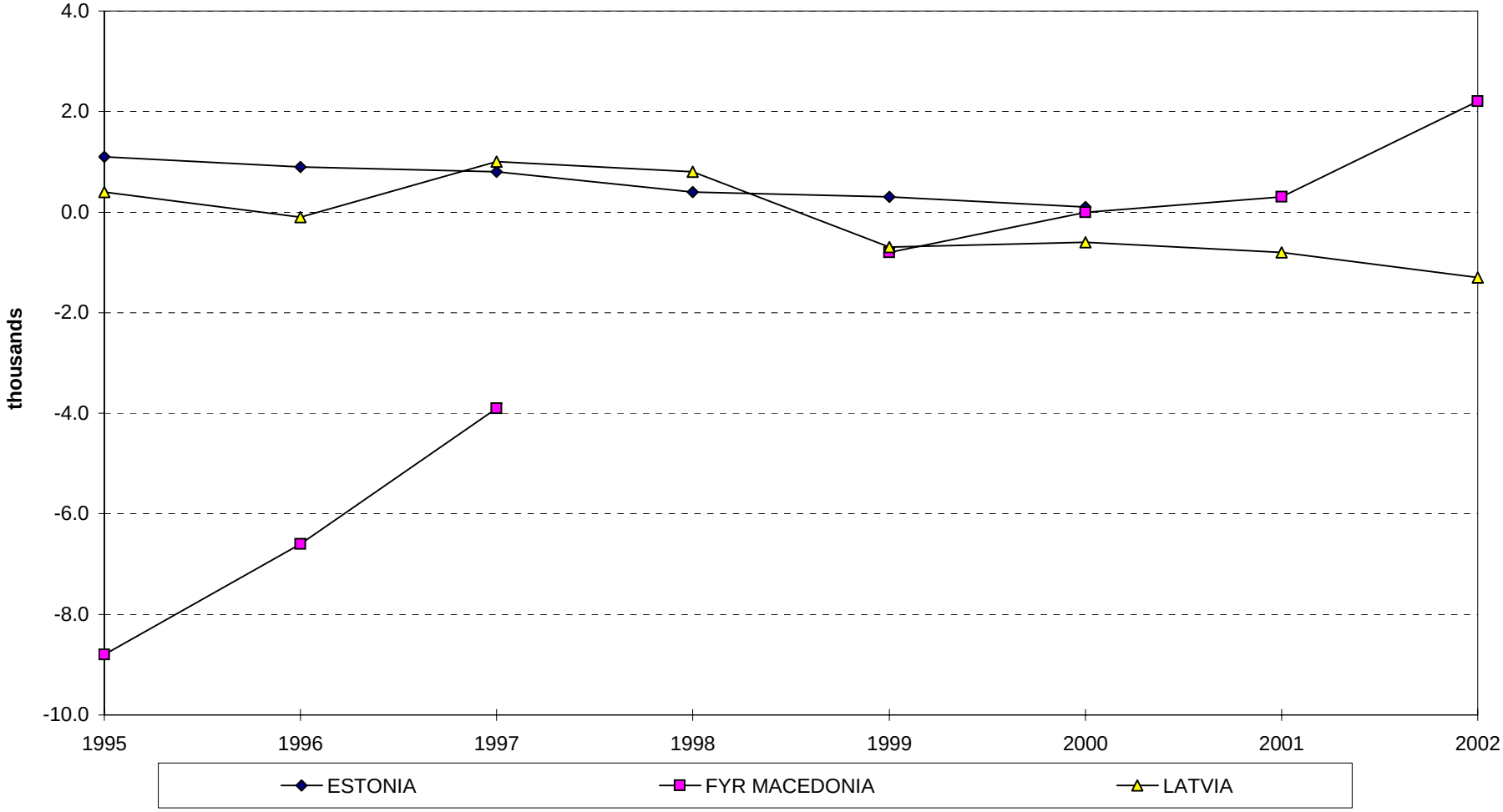
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 6d - NET FLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO/FROM SELECTED NORTHERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



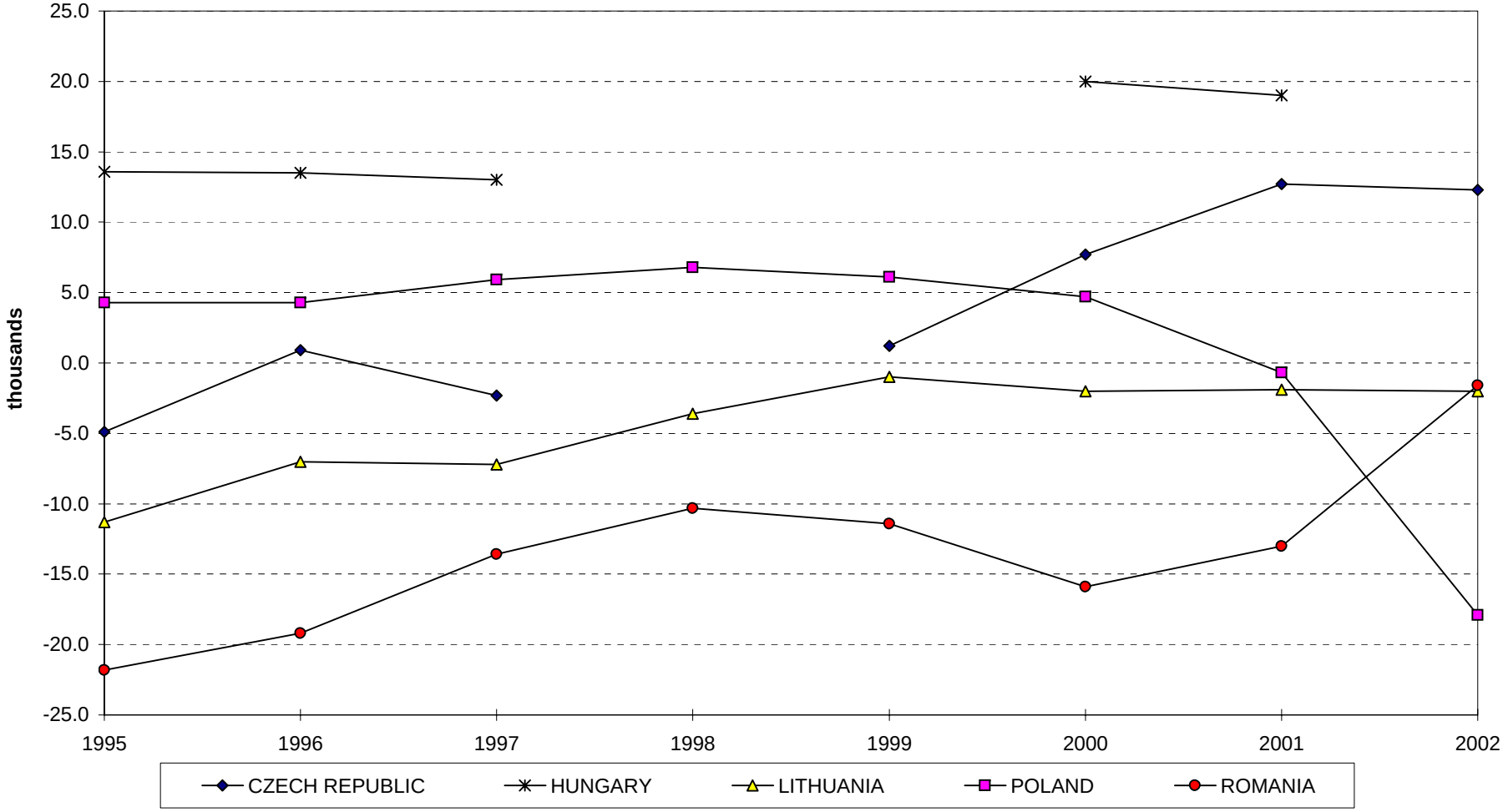
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 6e - NET FLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO/FROM SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



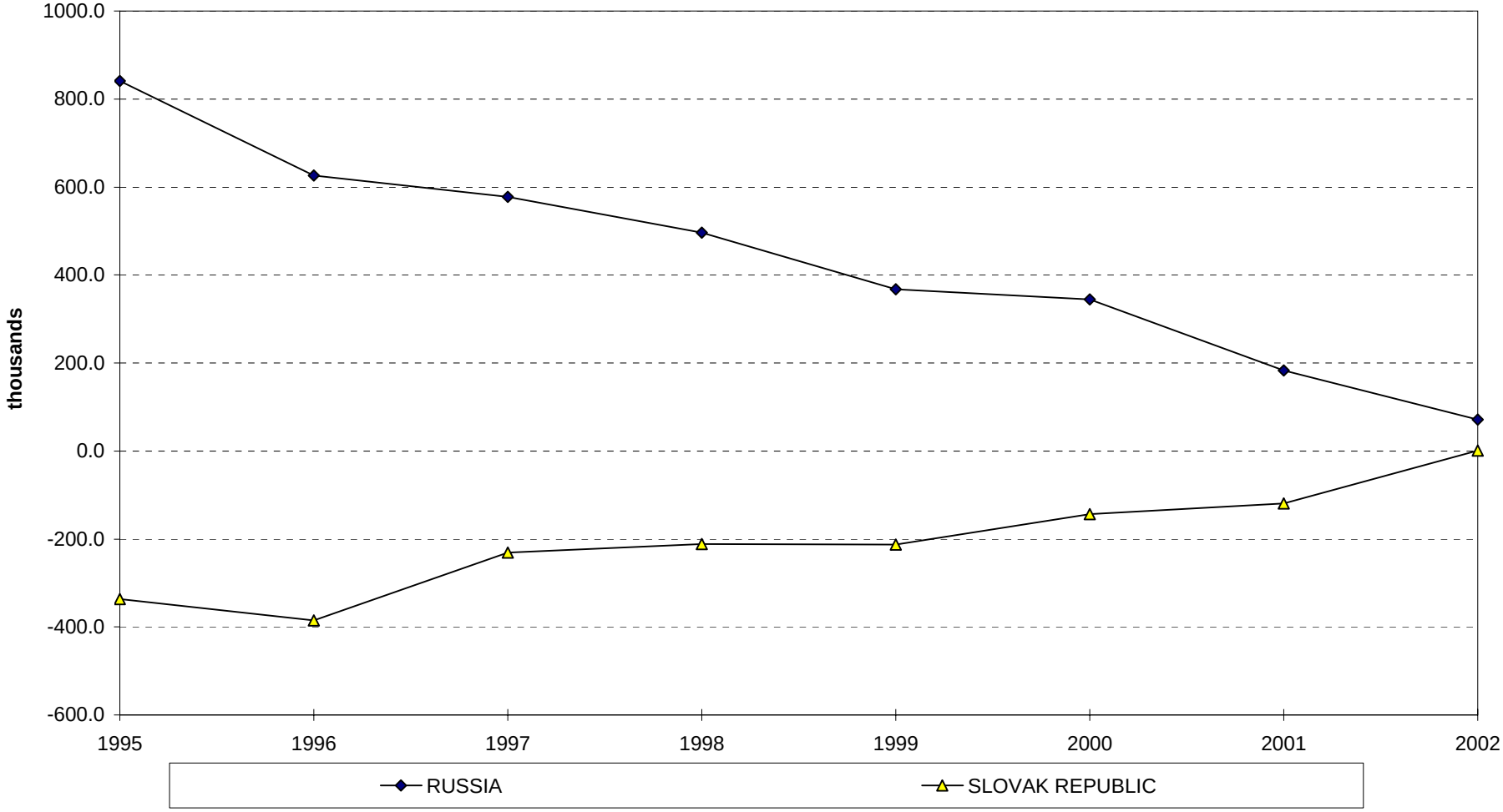
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 6f - NET FLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO/FROM SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



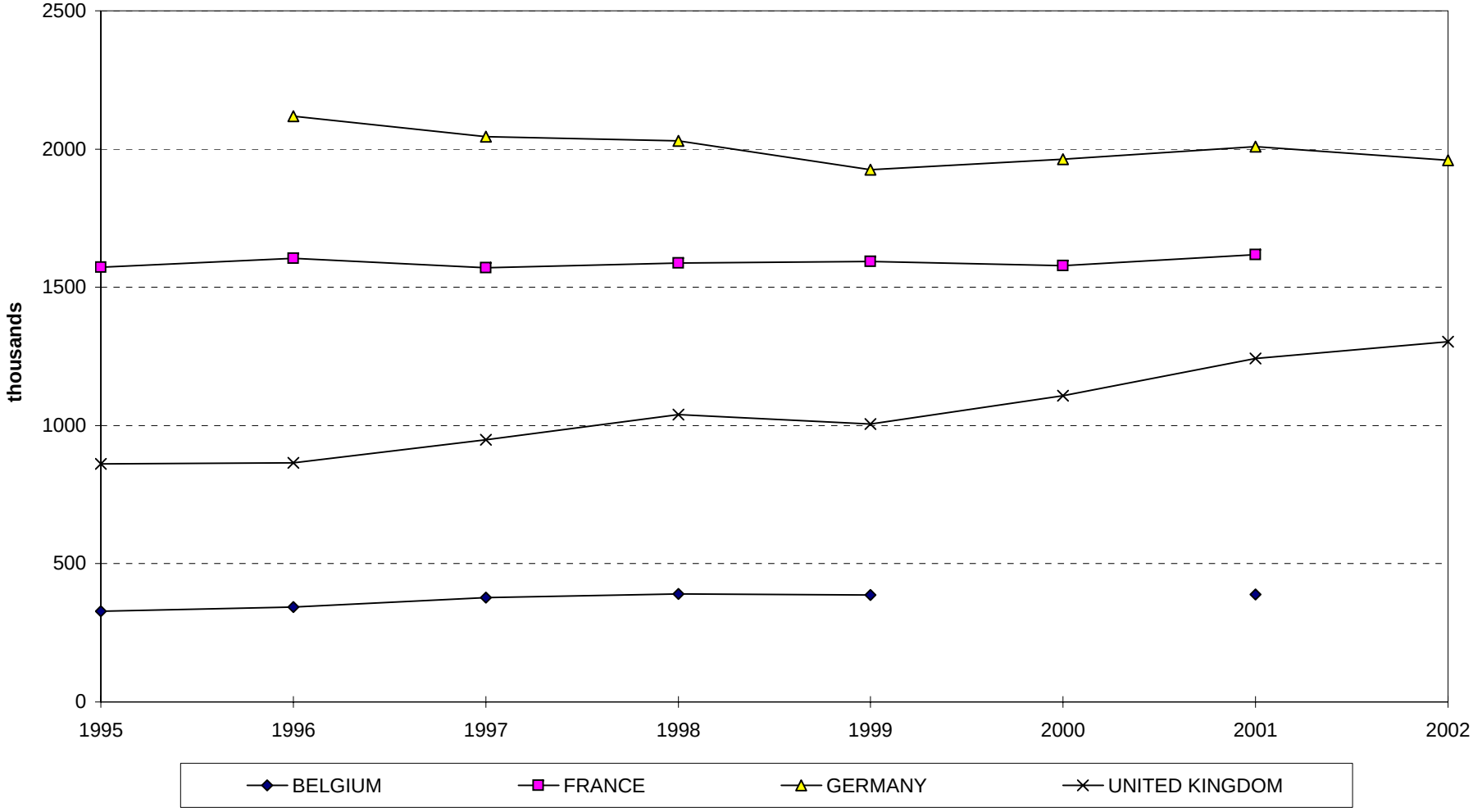
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 6g - NET FLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO/FROM SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



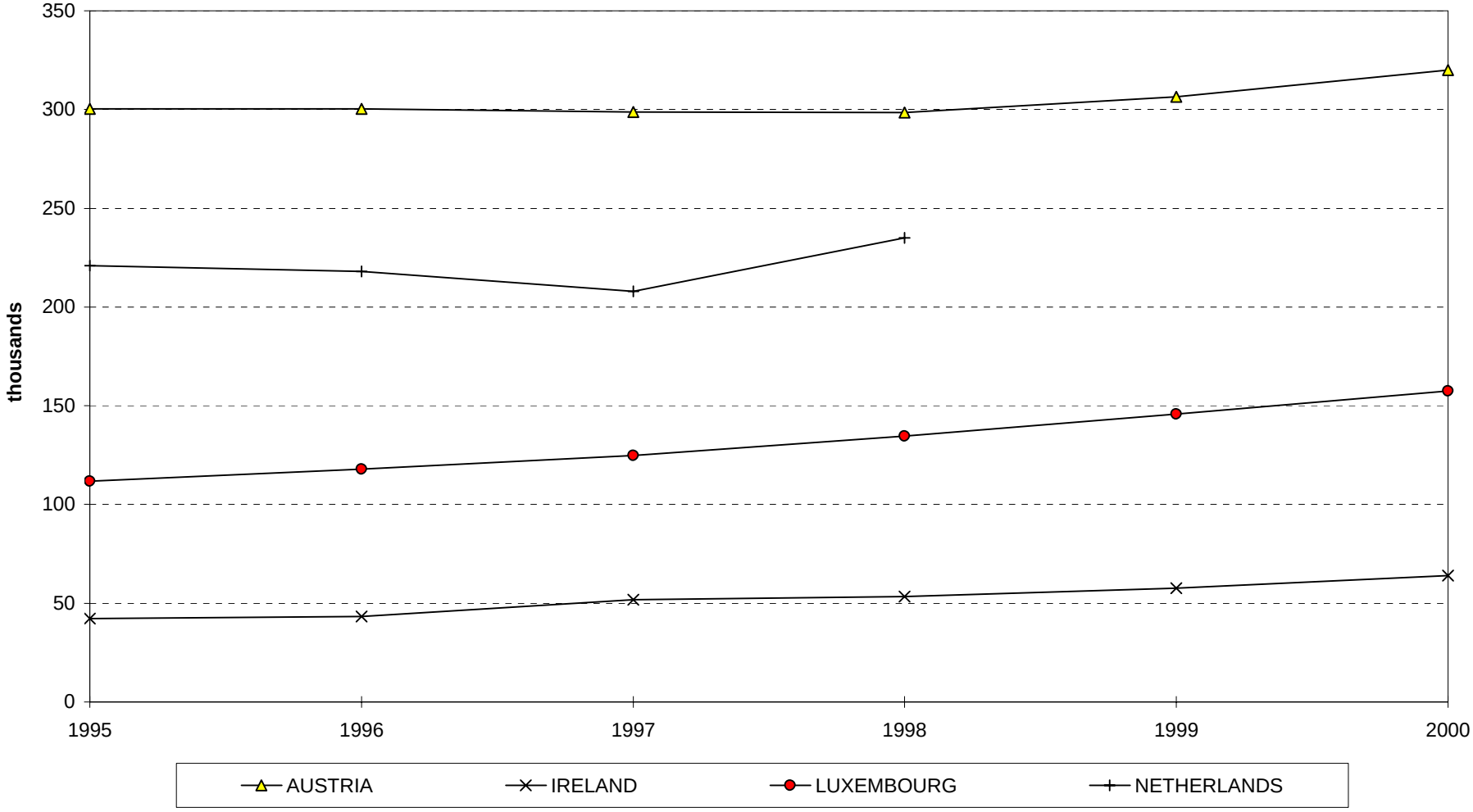
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 7a - STOCK OF FOREIGN LABOUR IN SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



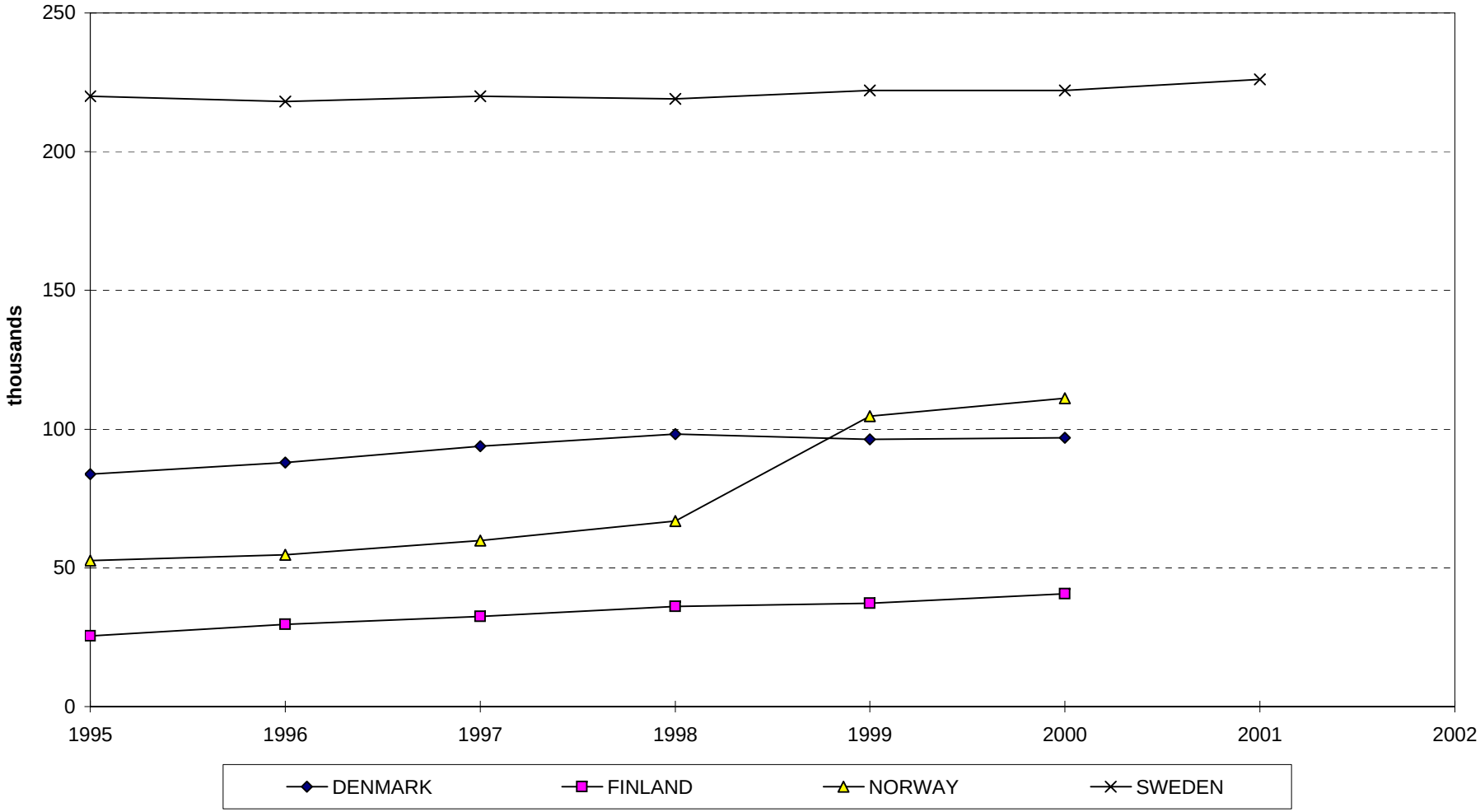
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 7b - STOCK OF FOREIGN LABOUR IN SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



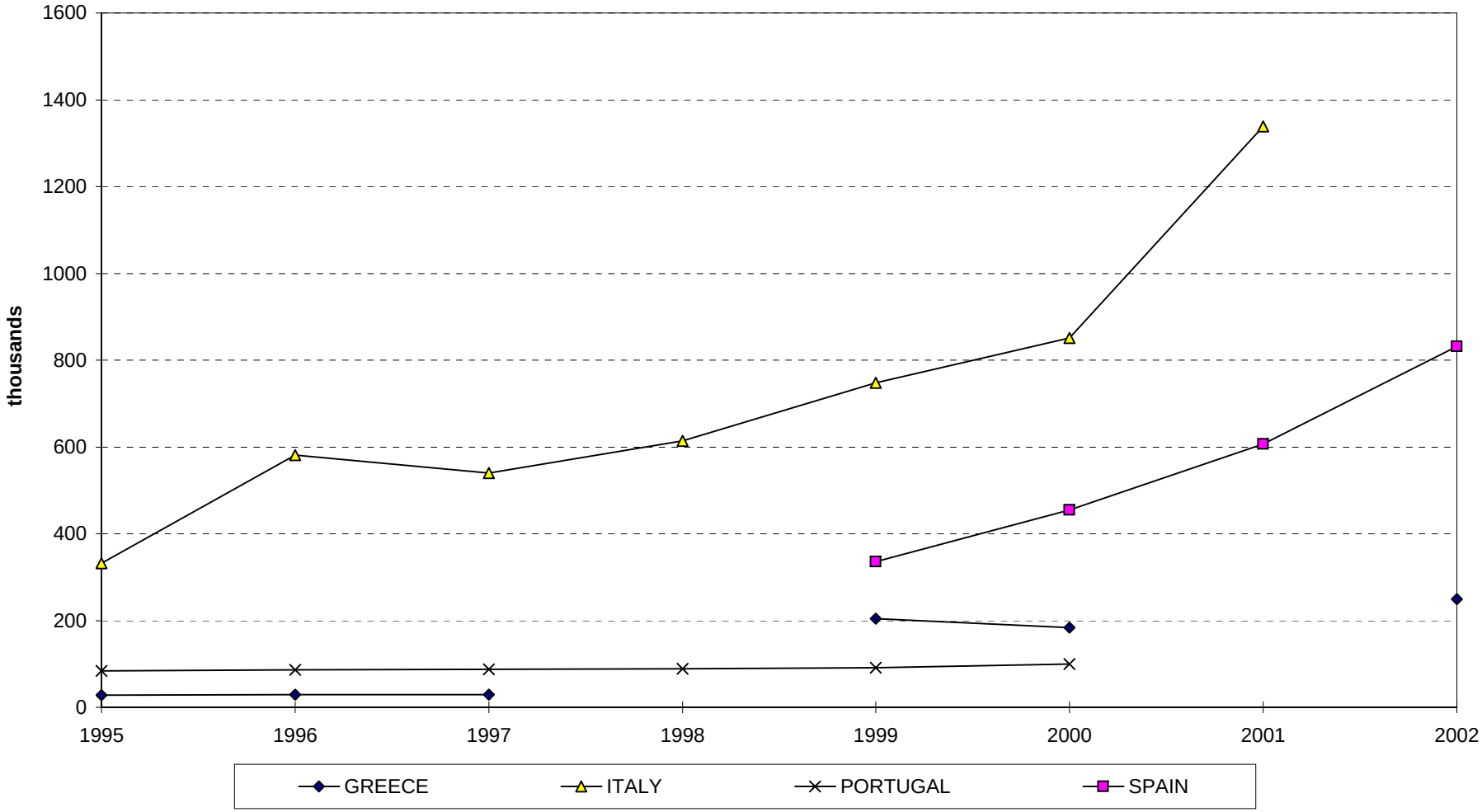
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 7c - STOCK OF FOREIGN LABOUR IN SELECTED SCANDINAVIAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 7d - STOCK OF FOREIGN LABOUR IN SELECTED MEDITERRANEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-20011



For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

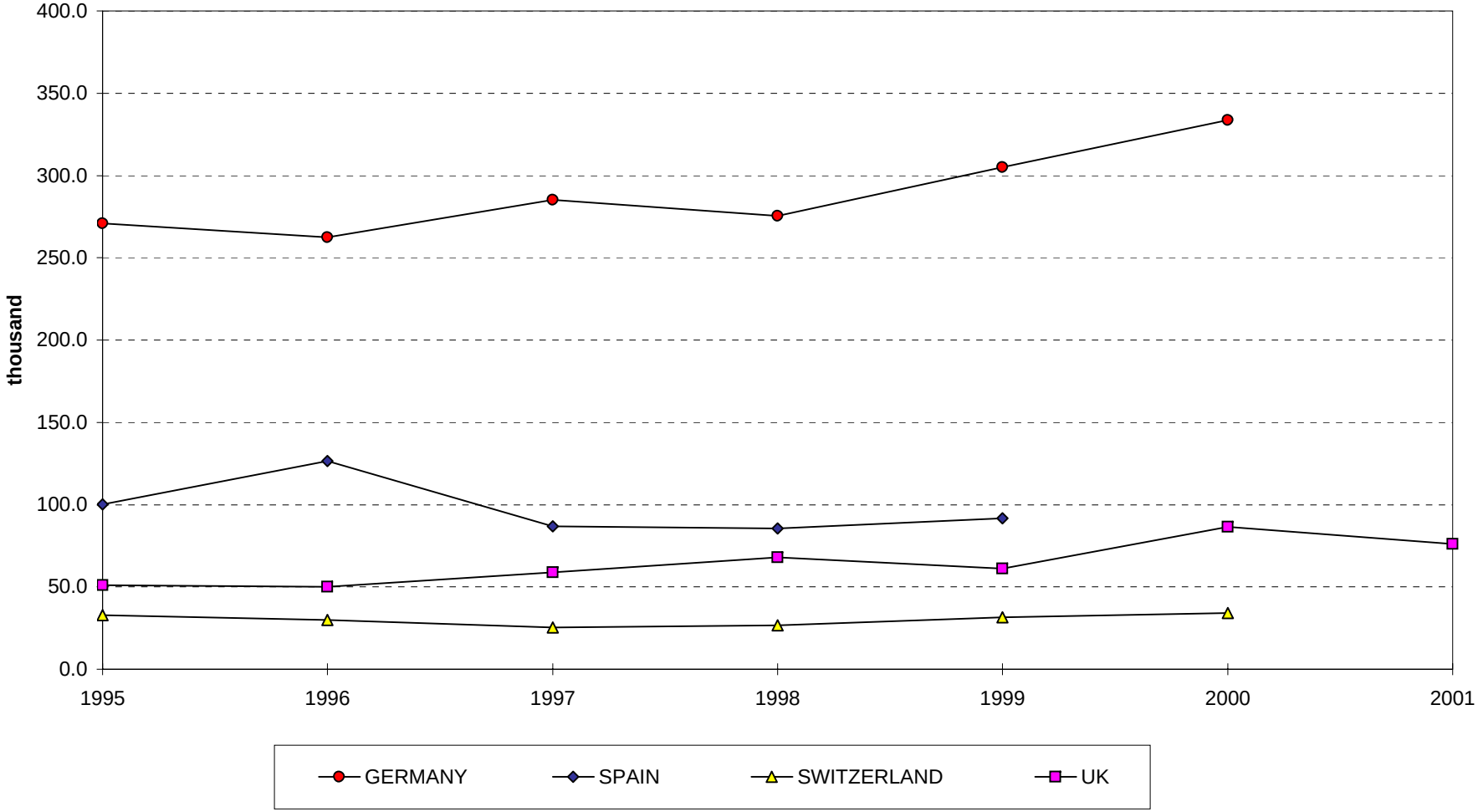
FIGURE 7e - STOCK OF FOREIGN LABOUR IN SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002

For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 7f - STOCK OF FOREIGN LABOUR IN SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002

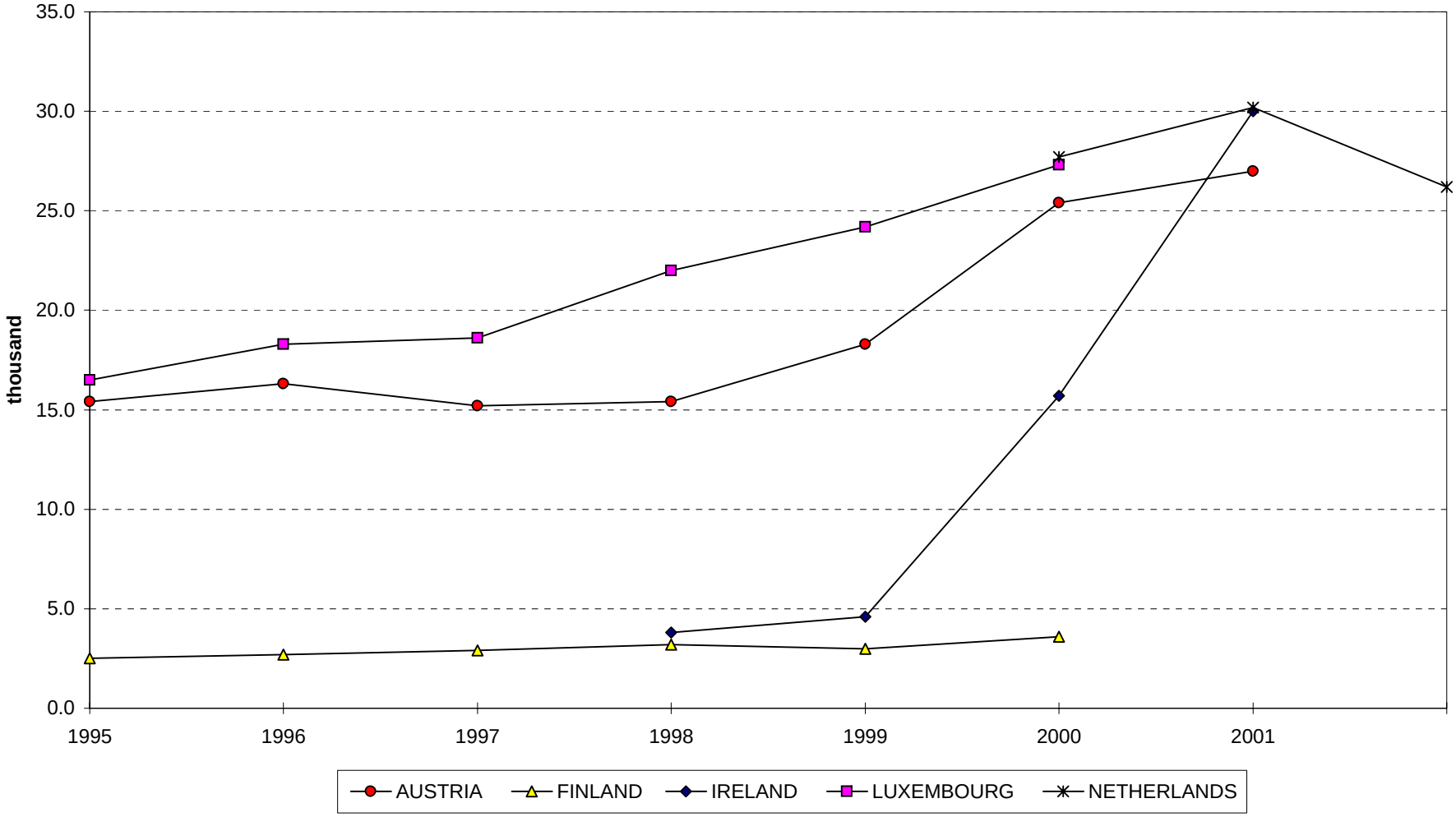
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 8a - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN LABOUR TO SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



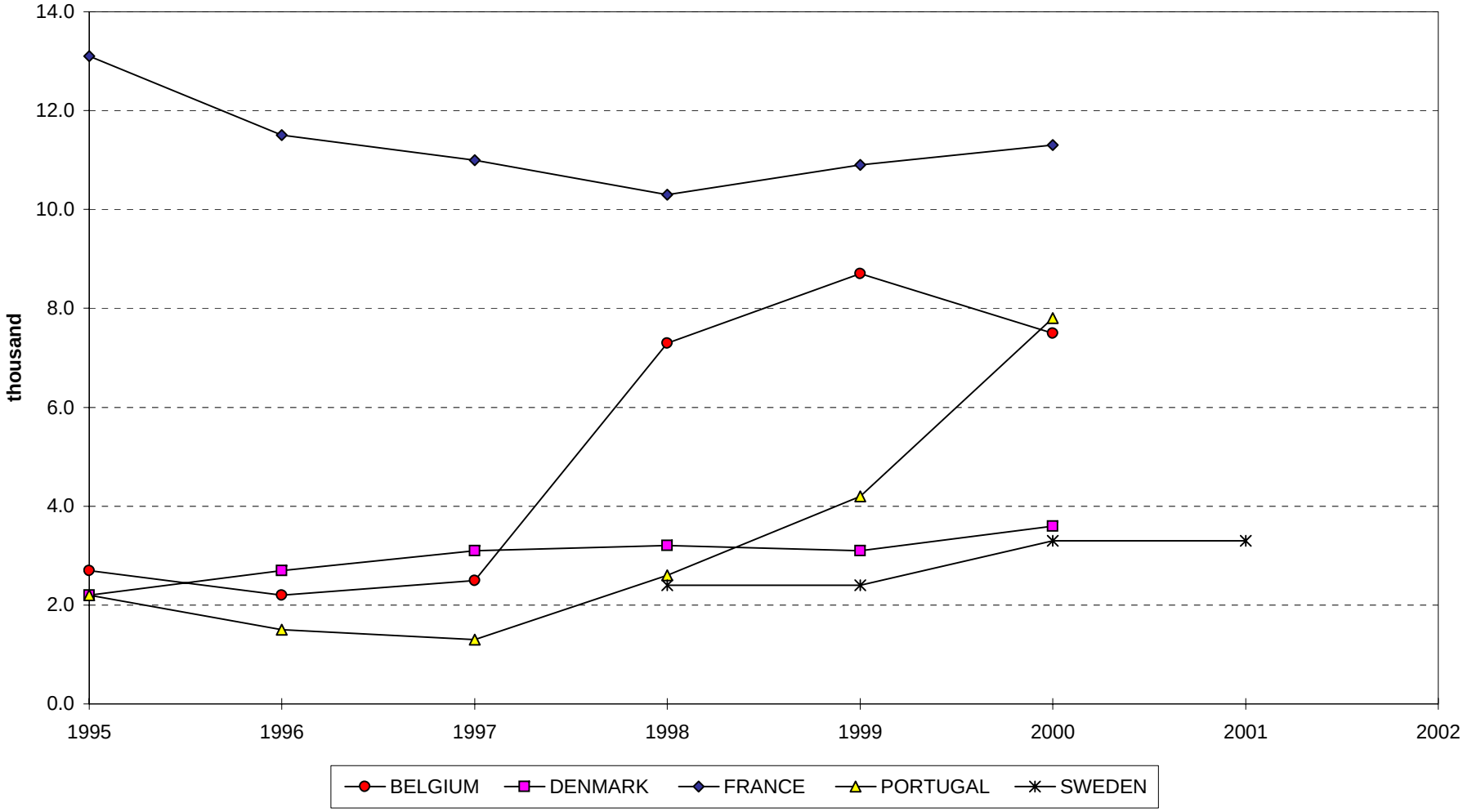
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 8b - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN LABOUR TO SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



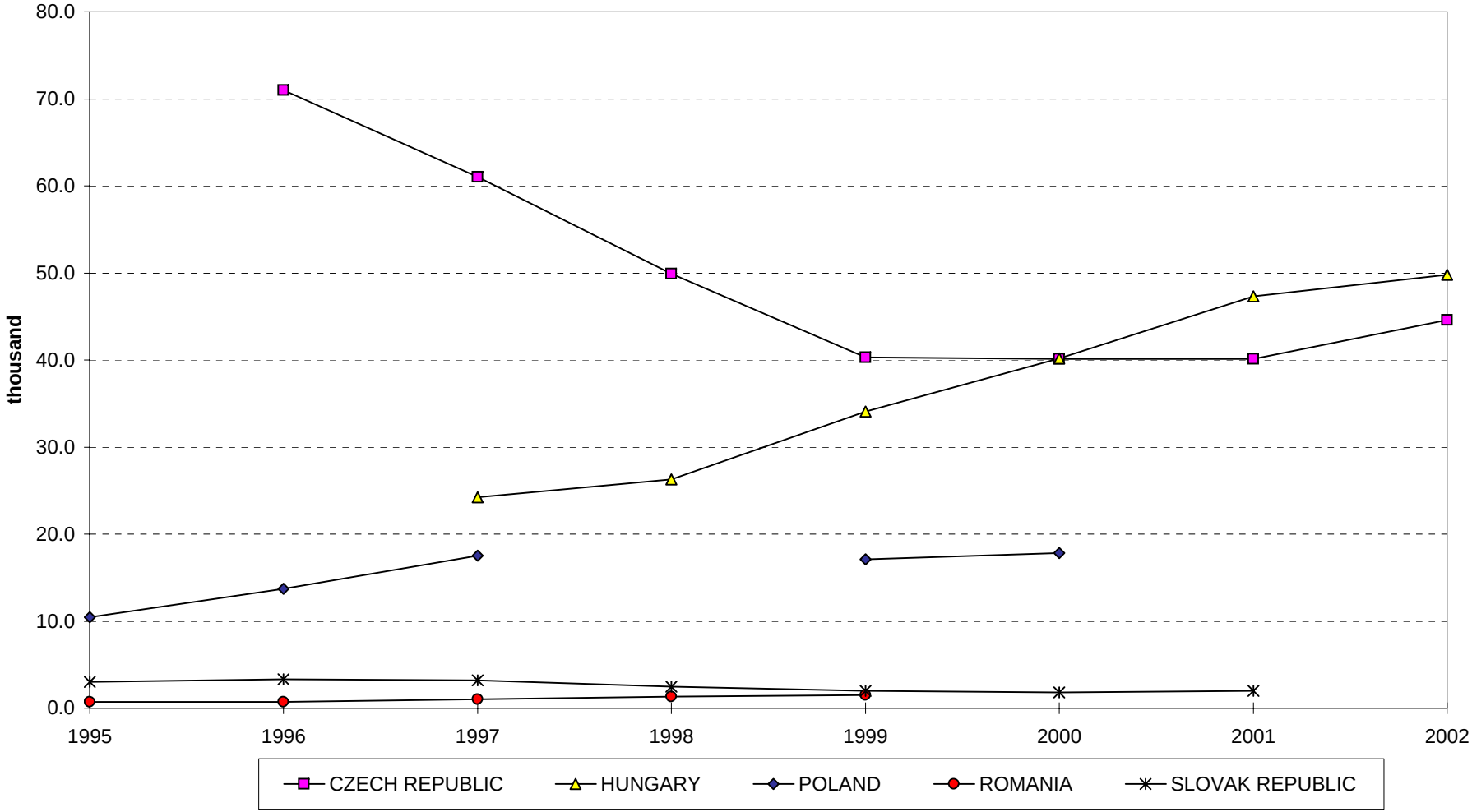
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 8c - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN LABOUR TO SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



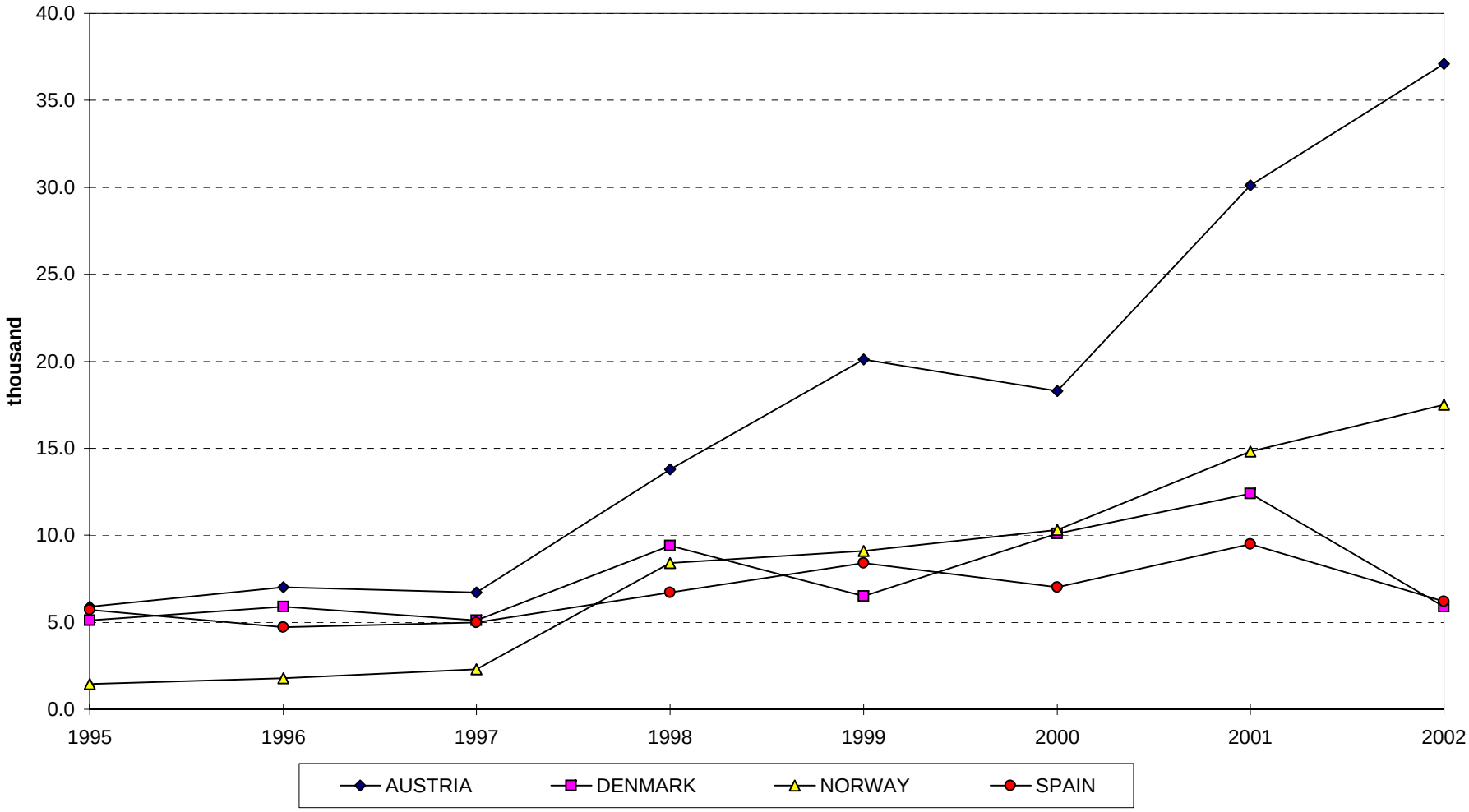
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 8d - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN LABOUR TO SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



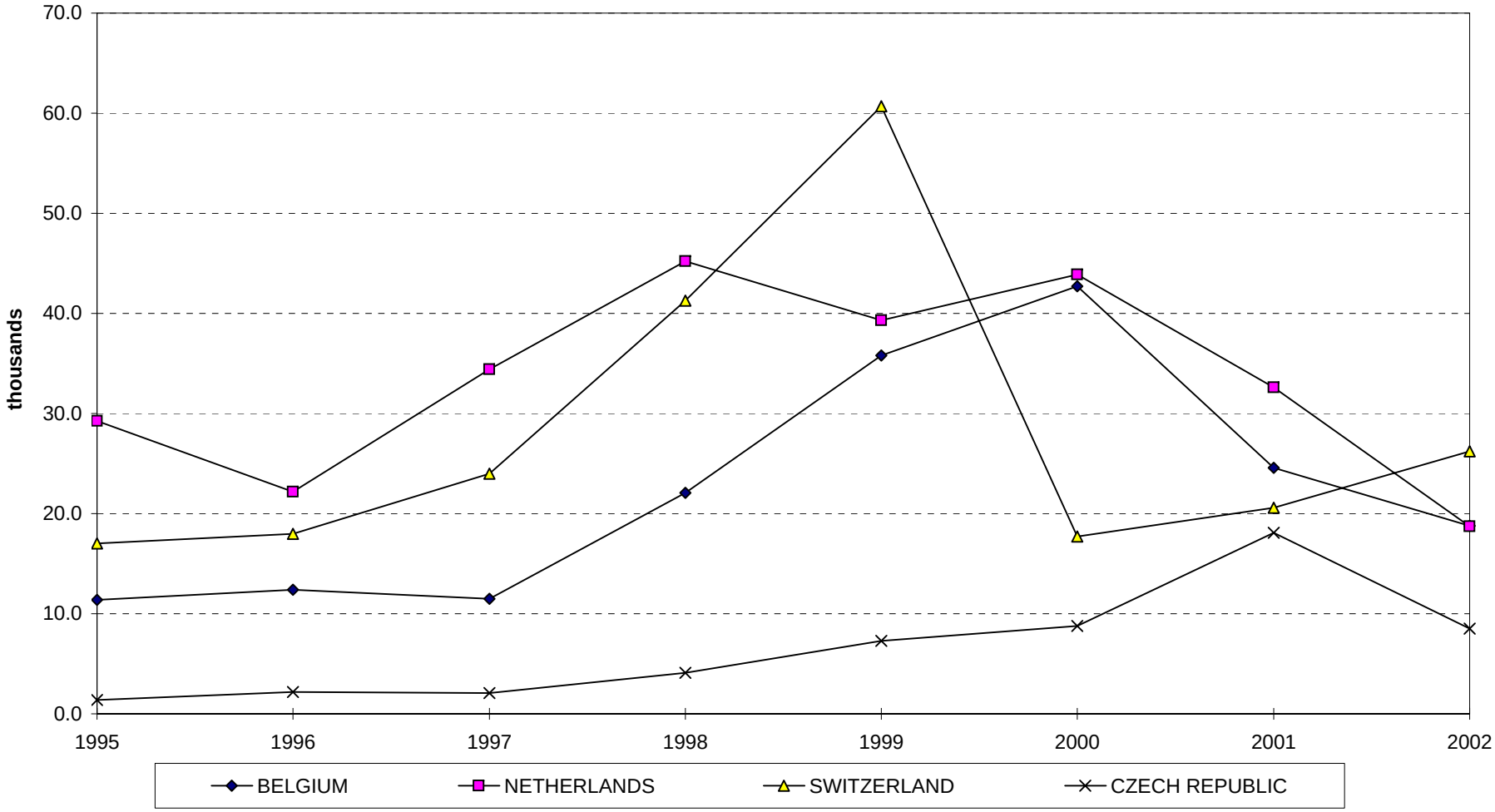
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 9a - ASYLUM APPLICATIONS IN SELECTED EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



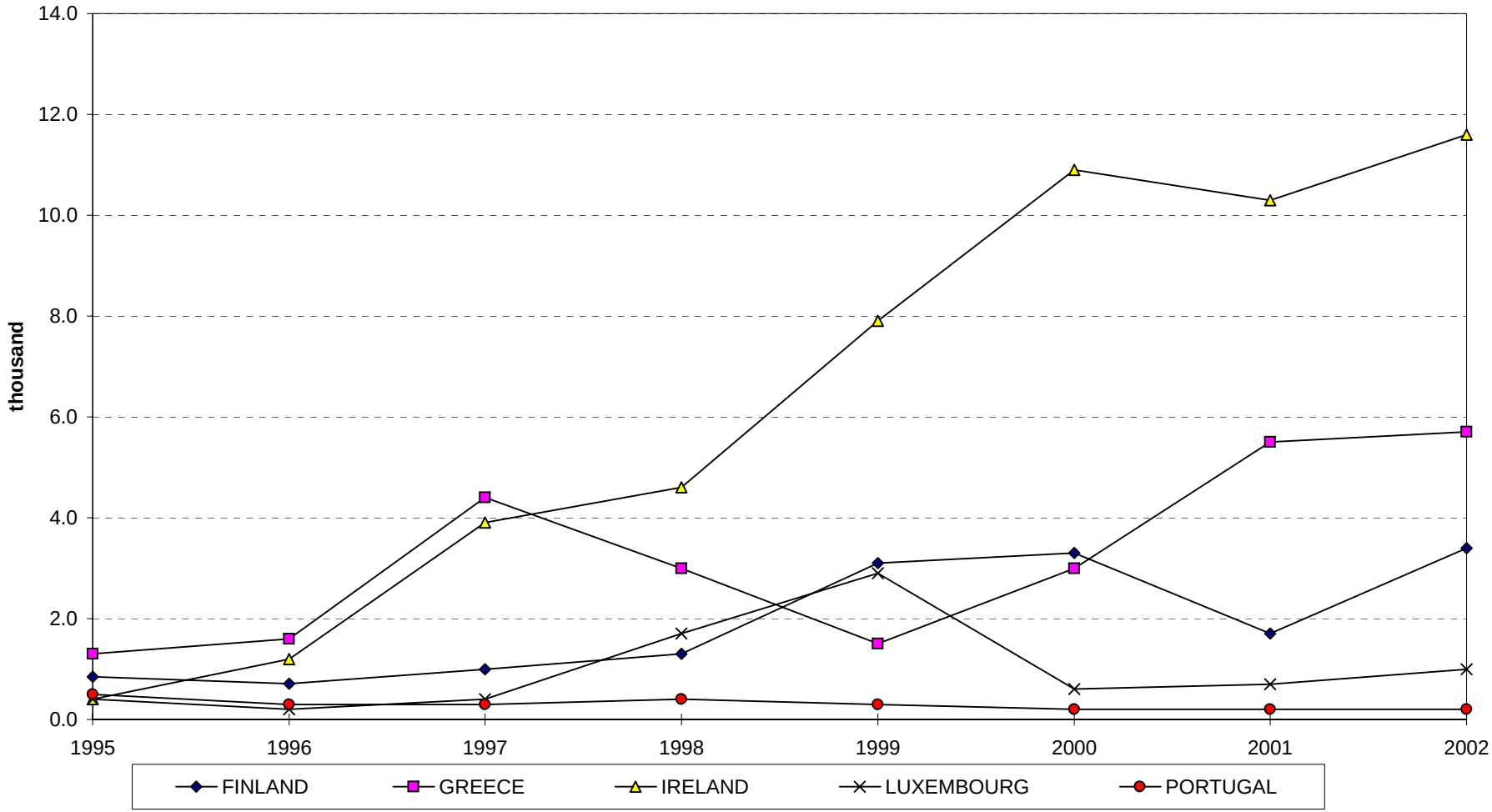
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 9b - ASYLUM APPLICATIONS IN SELECTED EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



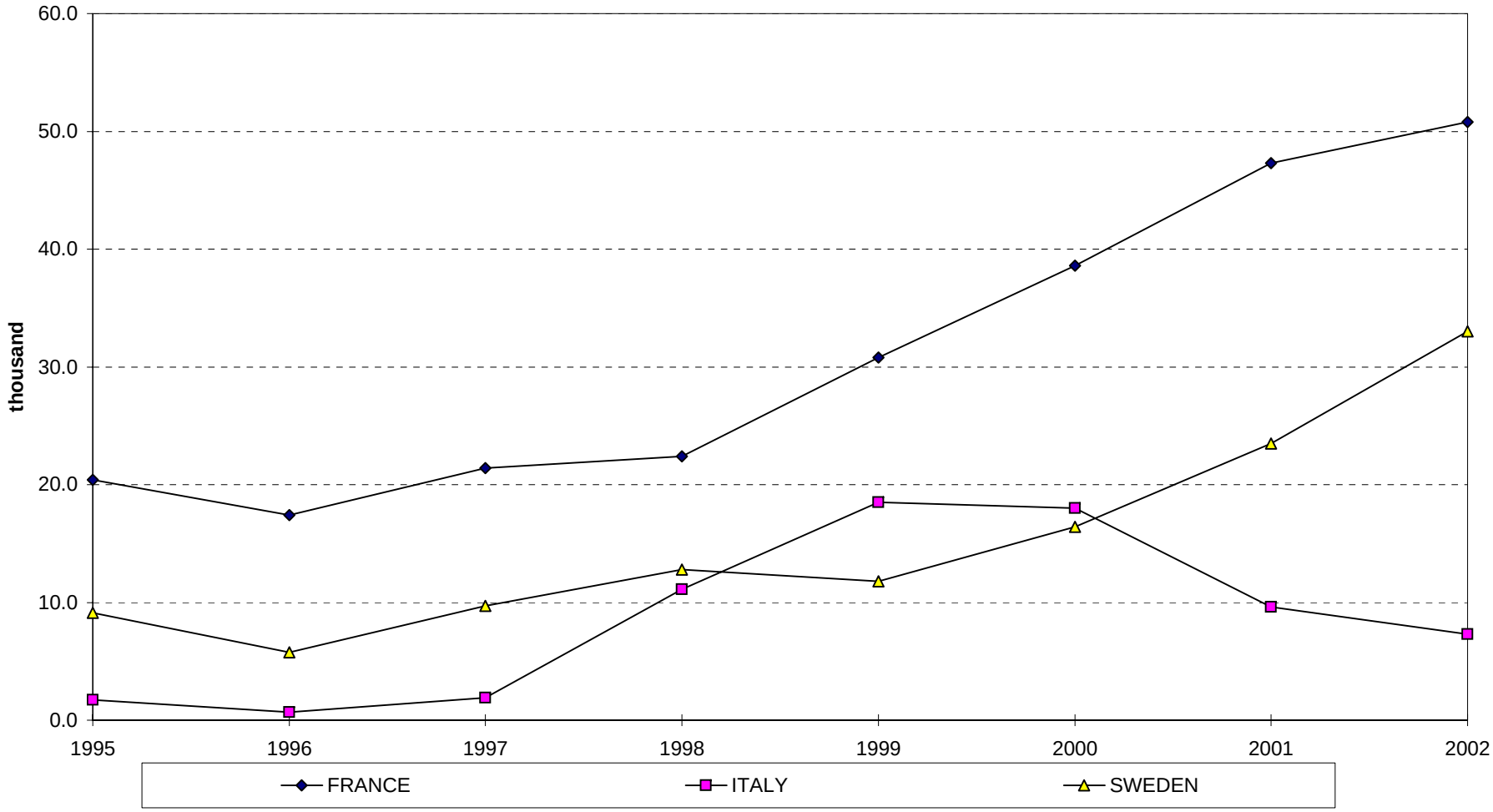
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 9c - ASYLUM APPLICATIONS IN SELECTED EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



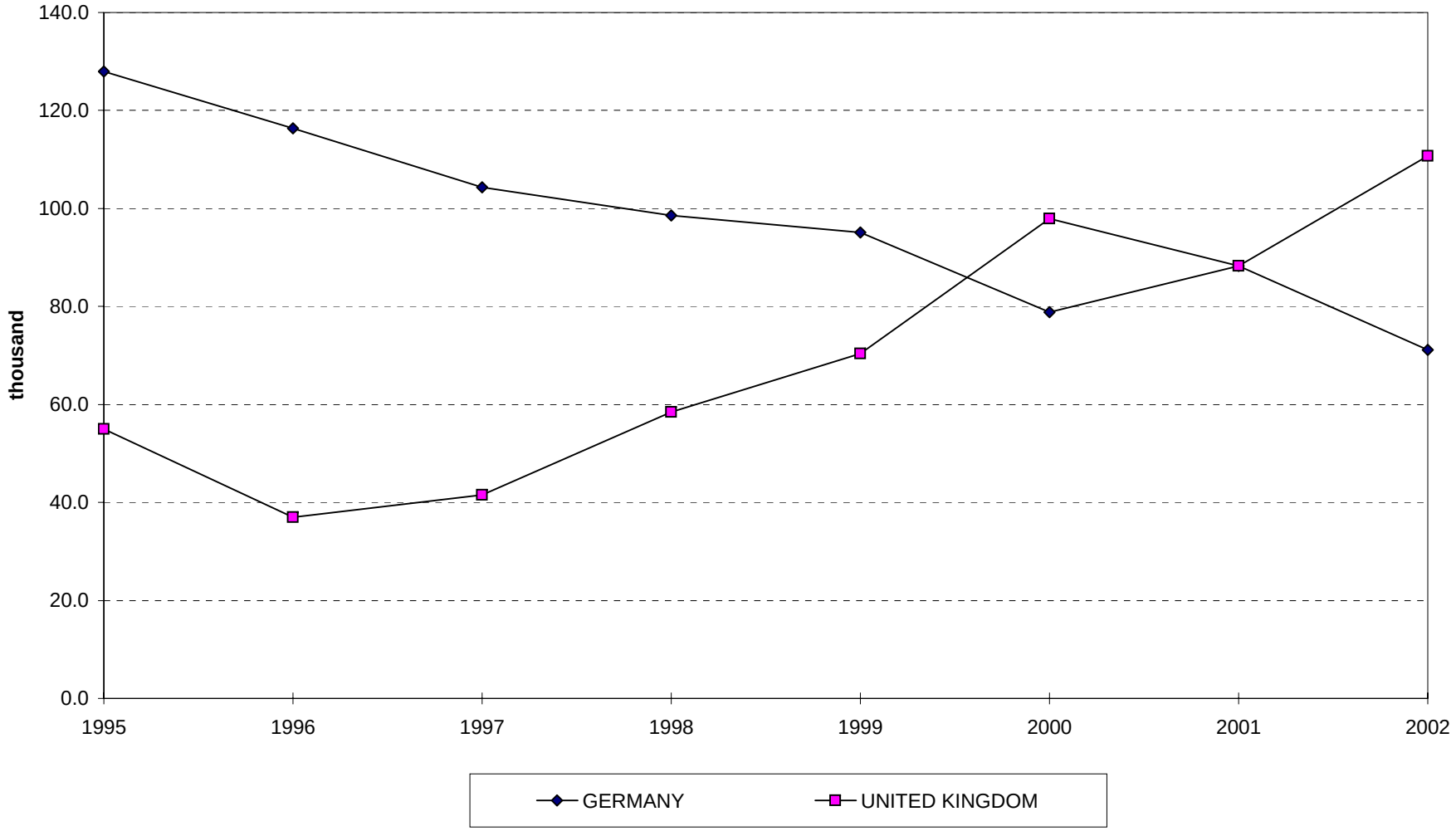
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 9d - ASYLUM APPLICATIONS IN SELECTED EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



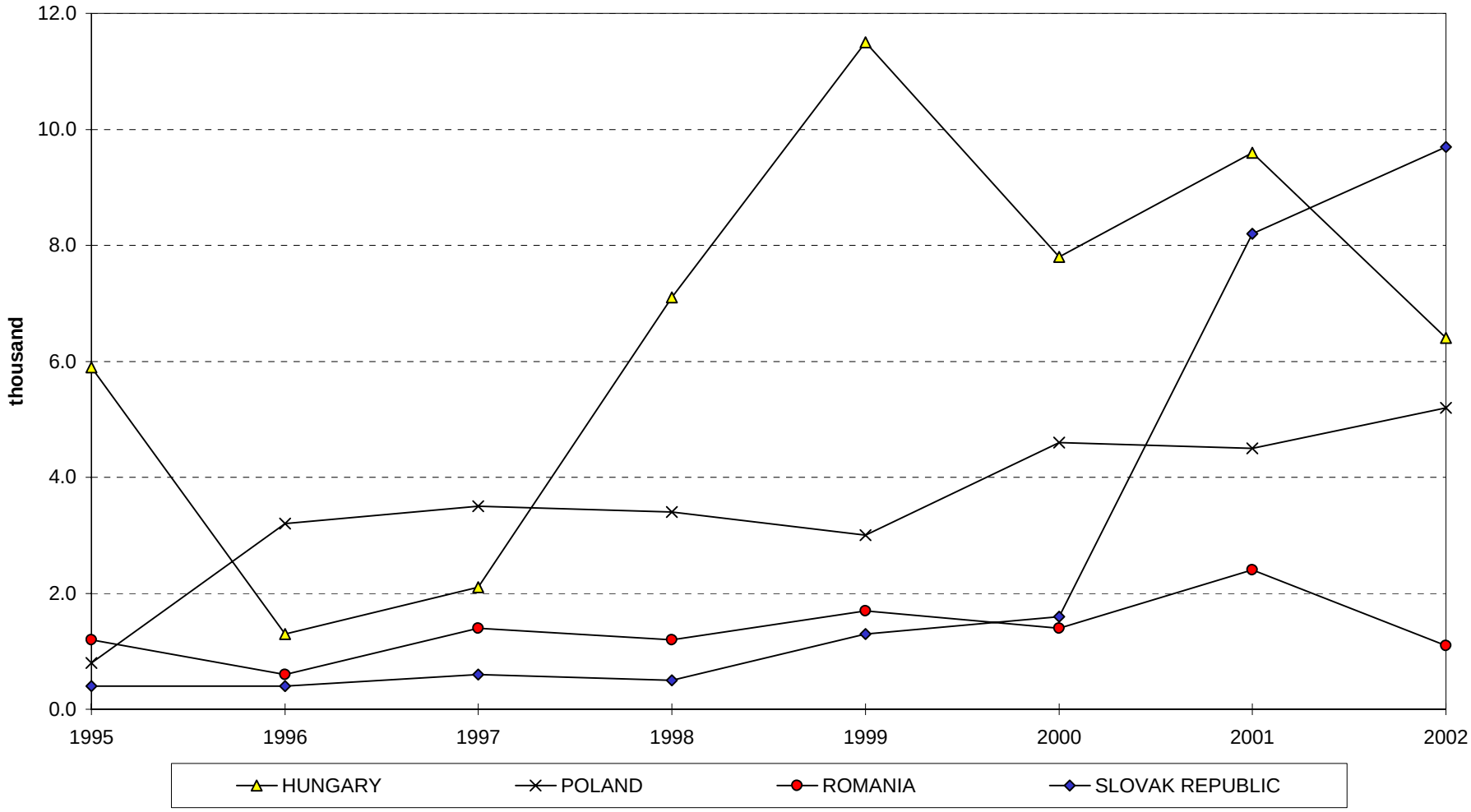
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 9e - ASYLUM APPLICATIONS IN GERMANY AND THE UNITED KINGDOM, 1995-2002



For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 9f - ASYLUM APPLICATIONS IN SELECTED EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2002



For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table