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**CURRENT TRENDS IN INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION IN EUROPE<sup>1</sup>**

**Consultant's Report to the Council of Europe  
March 2006**

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## Table of Contents

<b>1. INTRODUCTION.....</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>2. MIGRATION AND POPULATION CHANGE IN EUROPE .....</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>3. MIGRATION STATISTICS.....</b>	<b>9</b>
3.1 STATISTICAL DATA PROBLEMS .....	9
3.2 JOINT DATA COLLECTION .....	10
3.3 DATA FOR THE CIS STATES.....	10
3.4 DATA ON IRREGULAR MIGRATION .....	11
3.5 COVERAGE .....	12
3.6 DATA GATHERING FOR THIS REPORT .....	12
<b>4. STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION .....</b>	<b>13</b>
4.1 STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION .....	13
4.2 RATE AND DIRECTION OF CHANGE IN STOCKS.....	14
4.3 FOREIGN STOCKS AS PROPORTION OF TOTAL POPULATION .....	15
4.4 NATIONALITIES OF THE FOREIGN POPULATION IN EUROPE .....	16
4.5 THE FOREIGN-BORN POPULATION OF EUROPE .....	18
<b>5. FLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION .....</b>	<b>19</b>
5.1 FLOWS OF MIGRANTS INTO AND WITHIN EUROPE .....	19
5.2 RECENT TRENDS IN MIGRATION FLOWS .....	20
5.3 THE MIGRATION OF THE FORMER SOVIET UNION .....	22
5.4 EUROPE'S MIGRATION FIELDS .....	23
<b>6. LABOUR MIGRATION .....</b>	<b>25</b>
6.1 STOCKS OF FOREIGN LABOUR .....	25
6.1.1 <i>Western Europe</i> .....	25
6.1.2 <i>Central and Eastern Europe</i> .....	25
6.2 FLOWS OF LABOUR .....	25
6.3 LABOUR MIGRATION IN AN ENLARGED EUROPE .....	27
<b>7. ASYLUM .....</b>	<b>29</b>
7.1 TRENDS IN NUMBERS OF ASYLUM APPLICATIONS .....	29
7.2 THE DESTINATION PERSPECTIVE IN WESTERN EUROPE 1995-2004 .....	29
7.3 ASYLUM APPLICATIONS IN CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPE 1995-2004 .....	30
7.4 TRENDS IN ASYLUM DECISIONS 1995-2004 .....	31
<b>8. TRENDS IN STUDENT MIGRATION.....</b>	<b>33</b>
<b>9. IRREGULAR MIGRATION.....</b>	<b>34</b>
9.1 TRENDS IN FLOWS OF IRREGULAR MIGRANTS .....	34
9.2 CHARACTERISTICS OF IRREGULAR MIGRANTS .....	35
<b>REFERENCES.....</b>	<b>36</b>



## 1. INTRODUCTION

This is the 15<sup>th</sup> 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 lush lands of Western Europe. Growing flows from the countries of the South were creating a new 'migration frontier' along the northern shores of the Mediterranean. Italy, Greece, Spain and Portugal, traditionally countries of emigration, faced the fact that they were now ones of net immigration. A new asylum regime came into being as the problems stemming from the break-up of Yugoslavia led to widespread use of temporary protection. In Central and Eastern Europe, ethnically-based migrations were common, frequently continuations of those that had begun in the aftermath of the Second World War but had ceased with the descent of the Iron Curtain. Other ethnic moves were of co-nationals 'returning' to a motherland; some were of populations displaced in communist times. New economic flows developed, between East and West and within Central and Eastern Europe. Some were permanent, many were short-term and a new lexicon grew up to describe them – labour tourism, pendular migration, petty trading and transit migration.

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

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

What does seem to be emerging is a more integrated European economic and space, characterised by both new and older forms of mobility. However, distinctive spatial migration fields in Western, Central and Eastern Europe and the CIS are still clearly identifiable. There is now widespread circulation of people in informal and short-term movements, but there are also some remarkable parallels with the guestworker phase in the decades after World War II.

In the medium term the biggest issue will be the effects of the new round of EU enlargement, which has brought ten countries and 75 million people into the Union. Past experience and several studies of the prospective enlargement for the most part failed to indicate that further large scale movements from the new to the existing member states would occur, although there is bound to be some redistribution of population as the economies of the Union become more integrated. Already there is evidence from the UK and Ireland of substantial westward labour movement from the new members where policies have allowed. What may confidently be anticipated is that the attraction of the European theatre as a whole will increase.

## 2. MIGRATION AND POPULATION CHANGE IN EUROPE

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

Past Council of Europe reports have indicated that in recent years the importance of migration as an arbiter of population change has fluctuated. Table 2 (also see Figure 1) presents the components of population change averaged for the period 2002-04, indicating that migration was the most important component in 27 (60 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:* Latvia, Lithuania, Moldova, Poland, Romania, Ukraine.
2. *Population loss owing to natural decrease more than offsetting migration gain:* Belarus, Bulgaria, Croatia, Estonia, Hungary, Russia, Serbia and Montenegro.
3. *Population loss owing to net emigration offsetting natural increase:* Armenia, Georgia, FYROM.
4. *Population gain owing to both natural increase and net immigration:* Andorra, Austria, Belgium, Cyprus, Denmark, Finland, France, Greece, Ireland, Liechtenstein, Luxembourg, Malta, Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, San Marino, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey and the UK.
5. *Population gain owing to natural increase more than offsetting migration loss:* Albania, Azerbaijan, Iceland.
6. *Population gain owing to net immigration more than offsetting natural decrease:* Czech Republic, Germany, Italy, Slovakia, Slovenia.

Several observations stem from this classification. All of the countries with population loss are in Central and Eastern Europe or the former USSR. In all but two (Poland and Romania), natural decrease was the more important component, even when there was net emigration as well. The largest group of countries gained population through a combination of natural increase and net immigration. This was a geographically varied group, encompassing countries of different sizes, all from Western and Mediterranean Europe. In 17 of the 21 countries in this group, migration was the main component of change. Only three countries gained population through natural increase while experiencing net emigration and, with the exception of Iceland, they were located in the Balkans and Caucasus. Growing entirely because of migration were five countries, two in Western Europe and three in the East.

The data on components of change illustrate very clearly the demographic diversity of Europe. A salient feature is the geographical division, with countries in the east generally losing population while those to the west are still gaining. However, gains are increasingly being sustained by net immigration. The role of migration in European population change has come under increasing scrutiny in recent years as a result of growing concerns about a cocktail of prospective changes to labour supply and demand. Issues raised include demographic ageing, shortages of working age populations, dependency ratios and payment of pensions, and possible shortages of both skilled and less-skilled labour (see, for example, Punch and Pearce, 2000). The United Nations Population Division has suggested that Europe might need replacement migration to cope with these potential problems ranging from around a million to 13 million new migrants per year between 2000 and 2050 (UN, 2000). Others have contested such a scale of migration as being unnecessary or impractical (Feld, 2000; Coleman, 2000; Coleman and Rowthorne, 2004). The general consensus among demographers and migration scholars is that replacement migration is not of itself a solution to population, although it might have a relatively minor role to play.



### **3. MIGRATION STATISTICS**

#### **3.1 Statistical data problems**

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

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

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

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

### 3.2 Joint Data Collection

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

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

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

### 3.3 Data for the CIS States

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

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

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

### **3.4 Data on Irregular Migration**

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

Irregular migration flows data that are collected by national governments and international organisations include refusals of entry, illegal border crossings, apprehensions, deportations/expulsions and trafficking data. They are flows data that are recorded throughout the year both at the border and in-country. Refusals of entry data reflect numbers of migrants turned away at 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 EU countries and some 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. There are difficulties in comparing amnesty numbers from one country to another because the processes and procedures of regularisation vary. Some countries allow permanent stay for those amnestied while others allow only temporary sojourn, with the prospect of a further move into illegality at a later stage.

Ultimately, best estimates of the numbers of people living illegally in a country are likely to come from the application of several methods to establish the likely range.

### **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. On occasions, such data are ‘one-off’; they are not routinely collected but are the product of specific surveys.

### **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 the common questionnaire, 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. However, no separate data request to national statistical offices or government bodies has been circulated either by the Council of Europe or the author.

## 4. STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION

### 4.1 Stocks of foreign population

The data in this report represent as reasonably complete a picture of international migration in Europe as it is currently possible to produce from available data, although gaps and errors may still exist. However, the estimations of migrant stocks and changes over time recorded below must be treated with caution. First, the data reflect what the national collecting organisations are able to make available. Hence, for some countries statistics from the same source are available annually but for others not for all years. In the case of France, for example, the only stock source is the periodic census and there are no statistics for inter-census years. There are no data for Russia since 1997, while the first stock figures for Ukraine appeared in 2004. Second, sources of data may change. Statistics for Spain in Table 3 for 2003 and 2004 are from the municipal registers while those for earlier year are from residence permits, the numbers of which are lower. Third, statistics may be revised. This is particularly pertinent for Germany where the lower stock figure for 2004 compared with earlier years is the result of administrative procedures involving cross-checking different registers to produce a revised figure. Stock data for the UK have also been revised, resulting in lower figures than had previously been reported.

The total recorded stock of foreign national population living in European countries in 2004 or latest year available (listed in Table 3) stood at around 25.5 million people. Foreign citizens thus appear to constitute some 4.5 per cent of the aggregate population of Europe. The greater part of this foreign stock was resident in Western Europe. Table 3 and Figures 2a-f set out data on those European states from which the estimate of total numbers is derived.

Past reports have demonstrated that in Western Europe as a whole, stocks of foreign population have been rising. Table 3 suggests that in 2004 or thereabouts (using the latest date for which statistics are available) there were around 24.2 million foreign nationals resident in Western Europe, representing over 5.5 per cent of the total population of that area. In 1995 the figure for foreign nationals was 19.05 million. Hence, in the period since then, the total foreign national stocks in Western European increased by 27 per cent. However, a major difficulty in estimating the size and trend in the number of foreigners is that data for France are available only for 1999 (Census year). In the trend calculation above the same number for France was included in the estimate for both 1995 and 2004. If France is excluded, the percentage change for Western Europe is 32.4 per cent.

By contrast, although most countries in Central and Eastern Europe have also experienced some permanent immigration, some of it return migration, flows have been modest and stocks of foreign population remain relatively small. Table 3 indicates that in 2004 or latest year there were some 1.35 million foreigners recorded as resident in the countries of that region listed, representing about 0.6 per cent of a total population of over 242 million. However, information on stocks of foreign population is only slowly becoming available for East European countries and the data in Table 3 are less than comprehensive, derived from a variety of sources, concepts and definitions. In so far as they are based on official sources, they almost certainly underestimate the real total of

foreign population currently living in the countries listed. Transit and other temporary migrants, for example, are excluded.

The foreign population of Western Europe is spread unevenly. Germany has about 27.8 per cent of the total, France about 13.5 per cent, the UK 11.8 per cent, Spain 11.5 per cent and Italy has risen to 9.9 per cent. Several other countries have significant numbers. Switzerland has around a million and a half, Austria and Belgium over three quarters of a million. In Central and Eastern Europe numbers of recorded migrants are much smaller. Ukraine records the highest total, just short of 300,000. Estonia comes next with 270,000, closely followed by the Czech Republic with just over a quarter of a million, and then Hungary with around 144,000. Numbers of foreigners in Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania are difficult to assess because of definitional problems.

#### **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.

Since 2000 the annual increase has been about 3.7 per cent per annum, based on the countries in Table 3. Most of the increase was in Western Europe and most was accounted for by the four Mediterranean countries of Greece, Italy, Portugal and Spain. Their share of the Western European total more than doubled to about 25 per cent, an absolute increase of over three million. However, the bald statistics are misleading. Much of this rise can be attributed to regularisation programmes which have had the effect of converting unrecorded migrant stocks into recorded ones. As such, they do not reflect such a large rise in new stocks as might otherwise be surmised. Furthermore, the more than doubling of the Spanish total because of the change in statistical source referred to above exaggerates the change.

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

For most Western European countries the current picture is one of relative stability, with either little change or small rises in the most recent statistics. Where there are data, changes 2003-04 show increases in Austria, Finland, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland and the UK; only the Netherlands had a decrease and then only slightly. Italy and Spain particularly, with Austria and the UK, had substantial increases. The slow decline in numbers in the Netherlands continued a trend, while that in Sweden seems to have reversed. There are different reasons for these trends in the longer term, some more general, others specific to individual countries. Regularisation has been the most important factor in continuing the rise in Greece, Italy and Spain. In the case of the UK a combination of increased labour flows and asylum seeking raised numbers, while in Austria family reunion has been important as well as

labour migration. Ireland's rapid economic growth sucked in foreign workers after 2000 but the process has now slowed. Changes in foreign national stocks do not only reflect the balance of flows and changes of status that result in their incorporation in the statistics. Important also are rates of naturalisation which have greater or lesser effects, depending on destination country policies.

The situation in Central and Eastern Europe is more varied and more difficult to call because of the inadequacy of the data sources in many cases. Over the period as a whole, the fall in Romania has reversed, with more recently a modest rise, although the overall numbers recorded are small anyway. In the case of the Czech Republic, both 1999-2000 and 2000-01 saw substantial falls after several years of gain but since 2001 there has been a recovery. Hungarian numbers have fluctuated, falling at the beginning of the period then again after 1999, but rising in 2003 and again in 2004.

It is difficult to generalise from the above but several observations may be made. First, it is probably true to say that foreign national stocks are continuing to rise: in most countries the trend in the most recent year is upward but for the most part gains are modest. Except for the amnesty countries, there is no evidence of large and sustained increases, although preliminary data in 2005 for the UK and Ireland suggest a substantial A8 increase effect. Second, there are temporal variations between countries in their growth peaks. Third, there are distinctive geographical variations at work. Countries differ in the rate, direction and timing of change in their foreign populations.

### **4.3 Foreign stocks as proportion of total population**

The importance of foreigners in the total population varies considerably from country to country (Table 4 and Figures 3a-f). In 2004 (or the latest available date) the largest proportions of foreigners, relative to the total population, were in Luxembourg (38.6 per cent of the total population) and Switzerland (22 per cent). In Austria the proportion was over nine per cent, with Germany and Belgium slightly behind, then Ireland and Spain. In another group of countries – Denmark, France, Netherlands, Norway and the United Kingdom – it was around 4-5 per cent. In all other countries of Western Europe listed in Table 4, foreign citizens constituted under 4 per cent. With the major exception of Estonia, all countries in Central and Eastern Europe recorded around 2 per cent or less.

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

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. Hence, while the foreign populations in these countries are lower than in most Western European states, they may be underrepresented in the statistics presented here.

#### **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, based on statistics from the common questionnaire, looks first at the situation in Western Europe and then separately at that in Central and Eastern Europe. EU statistics are those of EU(15), not EU(25).

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 years since 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 21.38 million foreigners of whom 12.45 million (58.2 per cent) were Europeans. Africans numbered 3.66 million (17.1 per cent) and Asians 2.51 million (11.8 per cent). Of the 21.16 million foreign nationals resident in EU states, about 5.51 million of them (26.1 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 three previous years being 5.7, 5.6 and 5.7 million (31.9, 31.7 and 30.5 per cent). The inclusion of the EFTA states brings this total to 6.18 million, 29.2 per cent of all foreigners in the EU.

Because of the different dates for which data are available, it is not easy to derive firm trends for the origin citizenships of EEA states. However, comparison with data for around 2000 in last year's report (Table 5) indicates a smaller proportion from other EEA states now (26.1 compared with 30.5 per cent) and a smaller proportion from Europe as a whole (58.2 and 64 per cent). Thus the Western European migration space seems to be extending further afield.



There is considerable diversity of foreign migrant origins in Western European states (Table 5). In Luxembourg, Ireland, and Belgium, over half of the foreign population is from other EEA countries; for Spain, UK, France and Sweden between a third and a half. Around 55 per cent of Switzerland's foreign nationals are EU citizens. For most countries, however, the bulk of their foreign national population comes from outside the EEA. However, only Spain, France, Italy, Portugal and the UK have more than half their foreign population from countries beyond Europe.

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, Portugal and also Italy, reflecting earlier colonial ventures, and the same is true for Belgium to a lesser extent. The Americas are important for Portugal and especially Spain (mainly South America), and also for Greece, Italy and the UK (here especially the Caribbean). Asia is a major source for the UK, Greece and Italy and the Scandinavian countries 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, while asylum seekers have boosted Asian numbers in Scandinavia.

The dominance of Germany as a destination for foreign nationals from non-EU European countries is also clear: it received over a third of EU foreigners, over half of those from Central and Eastern Europe and more than three-quarters from Other Europe (which includes Turkey). Germany's Asian numbers are enhanced by Vietnamese recruited to the former GDR; African nationals in Germany are comparatively few. The UK receives about three-quarters of those from Australasia and Oceania.

Analysis of the data in Table 5 with earlier years demonstrates, not unexpectedly, a relatively 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. However, the old patterns seem to be changing: for example, the UK has been overtaken as proportionately the largest recipient of citizens from the Americas by Spain.

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 2005, the foreign population of 142,153 was dominated by those from Central and Eastern Europe and the former USSR. Romanians comprised the largest foreign group, 47.5 per cent of the total, followed by those from former Yugoslavia; Ukrainians were 9.8 per cent, those from Yugoslavia 9.6 per cent. EU nationals totalled

6.8 per cent (Zsótér, 2005). The eastern dominance is also to be seen in Slovakia and Czech Republic. Among foreigners residing in Slovakia with either temporary or permanent residence permits the traditional leading countries of origin are the Czech Republic, Ukraine, Poland and Hungary. In Czech data for 2004 on foreign residents, Central and Eastern European countries, plus Russia and Ukraine accounted for 171,500 people, 67.4 per cent of the total. The largest group had been traditionally composed by Slovak nationals. But in 2004 there was a significant drop in the numbers of Slovak residents to 47,352 people (down to 18.6 per cent). Ukrainians became the largest group with 30.8 per cent. 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 (Maresová, 2005). Romanian data for 2004 list 49,895 temporarily resident foreigners (Gheorghiu, 2005). The main national groups were Moldovans (18.1 per cent), Turks (11.9 per cent) Chinese (9 per cent) and Italians (8.5 per cent). In Poland, in 2004, there were 44,733 temporary immigrants, an increase of 6 per cent in relation to 2003 (Kepinska, 2005). The increasing numbers of immigrants originating from Asia greatly contributed to this. Nationals from Ukraine (33 per cent), Germany (9 per cent), Belarus (8 per cent), the Russian Federation (5 per cent), Vietnam (5 per cent) and Armenia (4 per cent) were the main groups.

#### **4.5 The foreign-born population of Europe**

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

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

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

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

## 5. FLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION

The data problems discussed earlier 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 difficult to monitor migration flows involving the countries of Central and Eastern Europe, although the situation is improving. The recording systems developed during Communist times were designed to record only certain types of flows, mainly those regarded as “permanent”, and have proved grossly inadequate for assessing most of the flows that have occurred in the region since 1989. Indeed, many of the categories of movement seen there defy most collection systems regarded as “normal”.

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

### 5.1 Flows of migrants into and within Europe

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

Because statistics for all countries are not available for every year it is impossible to produce an accurate set of annual inflows of foreign population for the whole of Europe. Some countries have no usable data, others have only a partial record. Table 7 and Figures 4a-h show big differences between countries in available data and in the scale of inflow. By aggregating the flows for the latest year for the countries in Table 7, a best estimate of the current annual recorded flow may be produced. On this basis, the annual flow into Western Europe is about 3.03 million, that into the CEE area 286,000, giving an overall total of around 3.31 million.

The largest inflow is still to Germany, 780,200 in 2004. Spain was in second place, followed by the UK. Of the other countries, only Italy (2002) and France had an inflow in excess of 100,000. Switzerland’s inflow in 2004 remained below 100,000 for the second time since 2000. Inflows in Central and Eastern Europe were much lower, Russia being the main recipient. The Czech Republic’s inflow has recently risen rapidly, reaching 60,000 in 2003 but fell back to 53,500 in 2004. However, there is little doubt that inflows in CEE countries are significantly under-recorded.

Of those countries in Western Europe with inflow data for both 2003 and 2004, eight had a rising trend, three one that fell. Of the nine CEE countries with data for both years, the trend in five was upward, down in the other four. Hence, rising inflows characterised a majority of countries, although in most countries (Germany and UK the main exceptions) additional numbers were relatively low. In a significant minority of countries the trend was downward but the numerical change was comparatively small.

There are fewer data on outflows than inflows. In Western Europe in 2004 or thereabouts, Germany lost almost 700,000 to emigration; the UK was in second place with 310,400. No other country came near to matching this absolute scale of outflow (Table 8 and Figures 5a-g). Data for Central and Eastern Europe mostly record permanent emigration. Russia continued to be the main source of emigration, 79,800 in 2004, followed by Ukraine with 46,200. Losses elsewhere were relatively low, although in recent years they have been rising for the Czech Republic.

The combination of these in- and outflows resulted in a net gain in Western Europe in 2004 (or nearest year) of around 1.56 million and a further 48,300 in CEE countries, giving a net overall gain of 1.61 million (Table 9 and Figures 6a-g). Spain had the largest net gain of 590,700, largely as a result of regularisation. Italy was in second place, with 380,400, followed by the UK with 207,700. 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. For the most part, recorded net gains were modest, while three countries recorded net losses in their emigration data in 2004.

## **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 1995-2004 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. Germany was an exception because of the return to former Yugoslavia of people who had been granted temporary protection. In several cases, notably Denmark, Germany and the Netherlands, the most recent fall follows a longer term trend. In other cases, 2004 saw a sharp upturn following a period of steady increase, cases in point being Ireland, Spain, and the UK. In a few cases the trend from the mid-1990s has been fairly flat, the latest year being one of minor fluctuation, examples being Finland and Luxembourg.

Central and Eastern Europe presents a more varied picture, with several countries showing marked fluctuations. There was evidence of increase in 2003 in the Czech and Slovak Republics, Poland and Slovenia, falls in Lithuania and Romania, while Croatia and Latvia show no discernible trend. By 2004, inflow to the Czech Republic seems to have gone down, in contrast to the Slovak Republic and Slovenia.

In Western Europe since the mid-1990s there has been an increasing trend in emigration from Denmark, Luxembourg Norway and the UK, with the reverse in Ireland, Sweden and Switzerland. The other countries listed displayed no particular trend in either direction, though all had some annual fluctuation. With the notable exceptions of Germany and the UK, 'flatlining' is probably the best description of the current trend.

The outflow data for Central and Eastern Europe are difficult to interpret because of the small numbers of permanent emigrants. In general, outflows fluctuated after the mid-1990s, Poland, for example, increasing its emigration between 1995 and 1998, then experiencing falls. In most cases, however, changes have occurred in quite small recorded annual flows. This situation broadly applies to the recent change between 2003 and 2004. Outflows from Lithuania, Slovenia and the Czech Republic have risen slightly, those from Russia and Ukraine have done the reverse.

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

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

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

The trends described here are complex and indicate considerable variations from country to country and at different time periods. In the circumstances, explanations will also be complex, related to general economic conditions, stage of economic development reached in the CEE countries, the effects of Balkan wars, individual national policy initiatives, regularisation programmes, levels of asylum seeking and the efforts of smugglers and traffickers, as well as other factors. Even so, it should nevertheless be

noted that the trends identified underestimate total flows, since for the most part they exclude asylum seekers and some categories of temporary immigrants, many of whom it is known stay illegally.

### 5.3 The migration of the former Soviet Union

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

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

Table 10(a) shows recorded migration flows for the countries of the CIS in 2000. The information comes from a study compiled by the International Organisation for Migration (IOM, 2002). The data are of uneven quantity and quality and in some cases should be regarded at best as indicative, as was pointed out in section 3. Flows are divided into those within the CIS region and between it and other countries. What the data in Table 9 show is that most of the CIS countries were 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 were largely within the region. Outflows were 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 were falling in the late 1990s as its own economy improved while Russia experienced economic downturn.

Table 10(b) shows more recent information for several countries in the region. Armenia, Azerbaijan, Kyrgyzstan, Moldova and Ukraine all had negative net flows both within and outside the region. Of this group, only Ukraine had a larger net loss outside the region. In contrast, Russia had a net inflow overall, the result of a substantial net gain from within the region more than countering a net loss to the outside.

Comparison of 2000 and 2004 suggests there have been some shifts in the balance of the two types of regional flow. In Moldova and Russia the proportion of gross flows within the region rose, though modestly, but in the other four countries it fell. Ukraine experienced a particularly significant shift, the proportion of gross movement outside the region almost doubling. With the exceptions of Russia and Moldova, it seems that in the last few years there has been a shift towards greater migration interaction with countries outside the region. This point is picked up again in section 5.4.

#### **5.4 Europe's migration fields**

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

Most countries receive the majority of their immigrants from within Europe, the exceptions being Luxembourg, Slovenia, Spain and the UK. Below, countries are grouped according to whether they receive more than 40 per cent of their immigrants from particular regional sources:

- Receiving predominantly from EEA states: Cyprus, Denmark, Finland, Lithuania, Poland
- Receiving predominantly from Central and Eastern Europe: Belarus, Czech Republic, Latvia, Slovenia, Ukraine (plus Germany)
- Receiving predominantly from Other Europe: Croatia, FYROM
- Receiving predominantly from the Rest of the World: Luxembourg, Moldova, Netherlands, Norway, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, UK (plus Austria)

The regions to which countries send their emigrants may be grouped in a similar way (note that Slovakia has two flows of over 40 per cent):

- Sending predominantly to EEA states: Denmark, Finland, Lithuania, Luxembourg, FYROM, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Slovakia, Sweden
- Sending predominantly to Central and Eastern Europe: Belarus, Czech Republic, Latvia, Moldova, Slovakia, Ukraine

- Sending predominantly to Other Europe: Croatia
- Sending predominantly to the Rest of the World: Austria, Cyprus, Luxembourg, Slovenia, Spain, UK

For the most part, the pattern of inflows and outflows for individual countries is similar. The major differences are that the EEA is a more important destination than origin for certain CEE (FYROM, Slovakia) and EEA (Luxembourg, Netherlands, Norway, Sweden) countries. In contrast, for most CEE countries the main flows of both immigrants and emigrants are still within the region.

Comparison of the situation around 1997 and in 2004 shows some shifts in the migration fields. Figures 7 and 8 show change in the proportions of immigrants and emigrants for those countries with statistics at the two dates. The order of the countries in the graphs is that of the proportions going to or coming from EEA states. For the purposes of this exercise, CEE and Other European countries have been amalgamated. The objective is to determine if and to what extent Europe's migration fields have changed during the period. In the case of certain countries, at both ends of the graphs, shifts have been substantial. For example: both Latvia and Lithuania have greatly increased their interaction with the EEA while reducing it with the CEE countries; Spain's immigration field has shifted away from EEA states to include a higher proportion of inflows from CEE and the Rest of the World; Slovenia has dramatically increased its inflow from the Rest of the World. In contrast, most EEA countries record little geographical change over the period. Thus, it appears that any trend towards a more integrated European migration space as a whole affects some but by no means all countries.

It is difficult to generalise from Table 11 and Figures 7 and 8 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. Further, while this regional self-containment has weakened in some cases since 1997, it does not appear substantially to have broken down. 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 and also illustrate that the European migration system continues to interact strongly with the rest of the world..



## **6. LABOUR MIGRATION**

### **6.1 Stocks of foreign labour**

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 is no central source and for individual countries there are problems of knowing who is included, and which specific 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.

#### **6.1.1 Western Europe**

The evidence from Table 12 (and Figures 9a-f) suggests that in Western Europe around 2003/2004 (using the latest data for each country) there were about 10.17 million recorded foreign workers, an increase of 38.4 per cent on the 1995 figure of about 7.29 million. However, this increase does not represent such a large increment to the foreign workforce as it appears. In some countries, notably Ireland, Switzerland and the UK, there have been significant rises in stocks owing to the entry of new foreign workers. The bulk of the increase tabulated is the result of amnesties for illegal workers in some countries, notable Italy, Spain, Portugal and Greece. Indeed, it would appear that if these groups are omitted, over the last few years stocks of recorded foreign labour have changed little. Elsewhere, stocks of recorded foreign labour have gone down (Germany) or remained relatively static (e.g. France). Germany, France, Italy and the UK between them contained 5.7 million, 56 per cent of the Western European total. However, gaps in data availability mean that summary calculations can only be approximate. Among those countries with 2004 data, Austria, Denmark, Greece, Luxembourg, Norway, Spain, Switzerland and the UK recorded increases on the year before, Germany saw a reduction while foreign labour stocks in Turkey were about the same as in 2000. With the exceptions of Spain and the UK, annual changes were modest.

#### **6.1.2 Central and Eastern Europe**

Data for Central and Eastern Europe are limited but have improved. Recording of foreign labour is still patchy and the relative incidence of irregular or informal working probably higher than in Western Europe. For the countries listed in Table 12, but excluding Russia, the total was around 391,000. Both the Czech Republic and Hungary increased their recorded foreign labour stocks over the period, while the situation in Slovenia and Slovakia has been fairly stable. The figure for Estonia includes Russians and others who formerly had Soviet Union passports.

### **6.2 Flows of labour**

There are major difficulties in estimating inflows of foreign labour to individual countries and in aggregate. Across Europe as a whole there is a multiplicity of (usually) administrative sources which are frequently partial in coverage. For example, work permits are a common source but they exclude EEA nationals for member states, for which other sources have to be used. Only non-Nordic citizens are included in the figures in Nordic states. There are also severe problems in relation to the recording of seasonal, frontier and other short-term workers: they are included in the data for some countries but not for others. In the UK, for example, in 2002 the figure from the Labour Force Survey (used here) was 99,000 but when all types of foreign workers are included

(such as short-term entrants under a range of special schemes as well as EEA nationals) the figure is almost a quarter of a million. Flows of irregular migrants are an added source of uncertainty. The statistics presented here are thus at best indicative.

Recorded inflows of foreign labour have been modest in most countries in recent years, the biggest recipient being Germany (Table 13 and Figures 10a-d). In a majority of the countries of Western Europe for which data are available the numbers recorded 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, although the former's numbers peaked in 2001.

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

Across Europe, patterns of foreign labour recruitment and use provide echoes of the 1960s. Several examples demonstrate this, including the UK Worker Registration Scheme (see below) where almost all registrations have been for low skilled work.

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

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

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

### 6.3 Labour migration in an enlarged Europe

Since accession to the EU of eight CEE countries (A8) in May 2004, most existing Western European states have instituted a transition period before allowing free movement of A8 nationals into their labour markets, the exceptions being the UK, Ireland and Sweden. The transitional arrangements are valid until 1<sup>st</sup> May 2006, at which time countries will need to decide whether to extend them for 3-5 years or repeal them, opening up their labour markets. At the time of writing this report it is not clear how individual countries will react. Germany and Austria seem likely to prolong the arrangements; Spain, Portugal and Finland have announced that they are considering repealing them. A Communication from the European Commission to the Council (CEC, 2006), reporting on the transitional arrangements, adopted an upbeat note, welcoming “the positive experiences of the Member States that have reaped major benefits from successfully opening their labour markets fully to EU-8 nationals already during the first phase of the transitional arrangements” (*ibid*, 15).

The experiences of individual countries since May 2004 have varied (Dolvik and Eldring, 2006). France, with strict transitional arrangements, has granted only 1,600 work permits to Polish workers since enlargement. In the Nordic countries, almost 34,000 first-time permits were issued to new EU citizens during 2005, as well as 19,000 renewals. However, measurement problems prevent direct comparisons between the Nordic states, data for Norway including those working for less than three months – a group excluded from the Swedish data. In all the Nordic countries, A8 nationals (55 per cent of whom are Poles) work especially in seasonal activities, notably agriculture, horticulture and forestry as well as hotels/catering, cleaning and domestic service. Most occupations filled are low skilled. Numbers going to Sweden seem to have been modest, despite its labour market being open from the outset. From May 2004 to September 2005, 7,326 citizens from new Member States applied for a residence permit for labour market reasons (Hagos, 2005). A major gain from opening up the Swedish labour market is perceived to be the legalisation of formerly illegal working.

Data for Ireland paint a picture of substantial increases in work permits to A8 citizens in the run-up to May 2004 (Hughes, 2005). The inflow seems to have continued. In the year following accession about 26,000 people from the new Member States (38 per cent of the total) were recorded as immigrants. However, the issue of Personal Public Service (national insurance) numbers to A8 citizens during this period was around 80,000. The reasons for the discrepancy are not known, but in so far as the PPS numbers included people who came prior to May 2004 there is a suggestion that some of them may have been working illegally prior to accession.

The UK government decided to introduce a new Worker Registration Scheme for A8 workers which came into operation in the spring of 2004. During the period May 2004-December 2005 there were 345,000 applications to the WRS, most of which were approved. Poles were the main group (59 per cent), followed by Lithuanians (13 per cent) and Slovaks (11 per cent). Most were young, 83 per cent aged 18-34, with a male:female ratio of 57:43. The largest occupation group was process operatives (in factories), with 36 per cent, followed by kitchen and catering assistants (10 per cent).

Comparison with non-EEA nationals entering through the work permit system is revealing: around 80 per cent of this group were in highly skilled occupations, a similar proportion of WRS applicants were in low-skilled occupations. Hence, the two groups were complementary (Salt, 2005). On the whole, the effect of the new A8 labour force on the UK economy seems to have been broadly positive, if modest, with little evidence so far that it has contributed to a rise in claimant unemployment (Gilpin, *et al.*, 2006).

## **7. ASYLUM**

### **7.1 Trends in numbers of asylum applications**

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

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

### **7.2 The destination perspective in Western Europe 1995-2004**

Inflows of asylum seekers to Western Europe have fluctuated in total and between destination countries since the mid-1980s. In 1985 the region received 169,710 asylum seekers and reached a peak of 695,580 in 1992. By 1995 the number had fallen to 293,500 but rose again in 1998-99, mainly because of trouble in the Balkans, before falling back to around 420,000 in the three years 2000-02. However, the number rose slightly to 424,000 in 2001 falling to 420,700 in 2002, 325,600 in 2003 and 266,500 in 2004 (Table 14 and Figures 9a-f). Overall, Western Europe experienced an increase in asylum seeker numbers of 43 per cent between 1995 and 2002. In 2003 the trend changed, total numbers being down by 22 per cent on the year before (Italy is excluded from this calculation because there are no data for 2003). In 2004, the number fell another 18 per cent to reach the lowest total since 1996. Some countries had particularly large falls during 2003 and 2004, notably Germany (-50 per cent), Ireland (-59 per cent) and the UK (-61 per cent). Twelve of the 19 countries listed in Table 14 with data for 2004 had fewer asylum seekers than the year before, four showed little change and only three had more. Explanation of these patterns is complex and the falls reflect a changing situation within Europe and globally. The perturbations in the Balkans had largely subsided, cease fires had occurred in some troubled parts of the world (e.g. Sri Lanka) and other countries were deemed now to

be safe (Afghanistan, Iraq). Several destination countries have also put into operation asylum reduction models designed to interdict flows, curtail administrative processes and reduce benefits to asylum seekers

A more even spread of asylum requests across Western Europe appears to be happening (Tables 14 and 15). A major feature is the changing situation in Germany. In 1985 it accounted for 43.5 per cent of requests, almost two-thirds in 1992 but fell to 15.2 per cent in 2003 and 13.4 per cent in 2004. Its asylum seeker numbers fell every year between 1995 and 2004, with the exception of 2001. In contrast, France experienced a sharp rise in numbers of requests for asylum after 1998; its share of the Western European total had risen to 15.2 per cent in 2003 and to 23.1 per cent in 2004, almost double the share of Germany, . The UK's situation has changed radically, from only 3.7 per cent of the total in 1985 to 24.5 per cent in 2002. Despite a fall in 2003 and 2004, it became the second major destination behind France which has taken from Germany its traditional role of leading destination. Other countries with increases in their numbers since 2000 are Austria, Finland, Greece, Luxembourg and Sweden. During the period since 1995 the five countries with the major proportionate changes (sometimes, as with Finland, from a low base) are Ireland, Italy, Norway, Finland and Austria.

There have also been significant changes in asylum pressure, measured in terms of number of asylum requests per 10,000 population (Table 15). For the EU and EFTA states as a whole, pressure increased from 4.6 in 1985 to a peak of 18.4 in 1992 caused mainly by conflict in former Yugoslavia. There was then a fall to just under 11 in the years 2000-02, then down further to 8.5 in 2003 and to 6.8 in 2004. The countries experiencing the greatest pressure in 2004 were small in population, Austria, Luxembourg, Liechtenstein and Sweden. In the case of Ireland, asylum requests have risen from very small numbers since the early 1990s, partly in response to the strength of its economy, partly to its citizenship law. At the other end of the scale, Portugal, Iceland, and Spain have low asylum pressure, reflecting their geographical position, their relative popularity as destinations and their asylum laws. The countries with the largest numbers of applications, France, Germany and the UK, have relatively modest levels of pressure. What is not clear from Table 15, however, is how far these numbers are affected by registration of asylum flows.

### **7.3 Asylum applications in Central and Eastern Europe 1995-2004**

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

Data on asylum seeking in Central and Eastern Europe are still very partial, and for the most part the numbers recorded are low (Table 14). In 2004 there was a total of 29,700 applications for asylum in the ten countries listed, a significant fall from the peak of 47,000 in 2001 but a substantial increase on 1995 when the aggregate was only 3,200.

The trend in 2003-04 varied. In some countries the numbers were too small to identify a trend; among the rest, three experienced falling numbers, two rising. Slovakia, Poland and the Czech Republic were the most attractive destinations, between them accounting for around 84 per cent of the region's applications, their numbers now exceeding those in several Western European countries.

#### **7.4 Trends in asylum decisions 1995-2004**

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

During the period 2000-2004 there were 1.76 million decisions. Numbers rose in 2001 and 2002 but fell by 10 per cent in 2003 to 346,000 and by a further 15 per cent in 2004 to 292,700. In 2004, Western European countries made the bulk of decisions (88.3 per cent); the proportions for Southern and Central and Eastern Europe were 7.5 and 4.2 per cent respectively, indicating clearly where the main asylum pressure falls. France was the leading country, making around 73,000 decisions; the UK made 48,000 and Germany about 40,000 decisions.

Recognition rates vary considerably, across countries and over time for both full Convention and other humanitarian status. In the five years 2000-2004 the proportion granted Convention status fell from 15.7 to 10.2 per cent. Recognition on other humanitarian grounds also went down, from 14.7 to 8.7 per cent. In contrast, refusal rates rose from 69.6 to 81.2 per cent, the proportion being highest in the CEE region (82.3) and lowest in Southern Europe (72.8).

There were considerable variations in full Convention recognition rate between countries, with Turkey, Austria and Belgium having the highest rates. In most countries, fewer than one in ten were recognised as deserving full asylum status. In the most recent year, 2004, Turkey had the highest recognition rate. The three countries making the most decisions – France, UK and Germany - had only modest recognition rates, 15.5 and 4.5 and 4.4 per cent respectively.

Full asylum is not the only protection status, although appropriate statistics are less systematically available. Most countries have some form of humanitarian ("B") status, granting asylum on humanitarian grounds but without full refugee rights. In those that do, the proportions are generally higher than of those granted full Convention status; this seems to be the case across Europe as a whole. In a few countries in 2004, including some making only a small number of decisions, humanitarian status was given in approaching half of all decisions.

Refusal rates of over 90 per cent were not uncommon. Countries with such high refusal rates were Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Germany, Iceland, Latvia Liechtenstein, Slovakia and Sweden,. It should be pointed out, however, that these

figures are for initial decisions only and in some countries the final refusal rate is lower as individual applications are granted after appeal.

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



## 8. TRENDS IN STUDENT MIGRATION

Students have become an important component of migration in many countries. They may have substantial local impacts in the areas in which they settle, they make major financial contributions to the institutions in which they study and they help set up networks and paths for further movement. Numbers of students vary by country of origin and destination (Table 20). Country size and geographical proximity once gain show the efficacy of the gravity model, but numerous other factors play a role, including EU policies on freedom of movement, recognition of degrees (currently under discussion in the Bologna process), exchange and network programmes such as Erasmus/Socrates. OECD calculations (2001) indicate that certain countries, notably UK, Austria, Denmark, France and Germany host large numbers of foreign students relative to their size. The existence of former student networks through institutional channels encourages chain movements.

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

Despite these caveats, Table 20 is instructive. Overall, the total in 2002-03 for the countries listed was 1.135 million. The UK is the clear market leader but Germany and France are not far behind. Outside Western Europe, Russia had the largest number (2001-02). There has been a clear upward trend in numbers, with only a few countries, mainly in Central and Other Europe, experiencing declines. For Europe as a whole the number rose by 27.9 per cent over the five-year period, a rate of increase exceeded by many countries, albeit in some case on small absolute numbers.

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

## 9. IRREGULAR MIGRATION

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

As the issues raised by irregular migration, especially migrant trafficking and human smuggling, have risen on the political agenda, so the enormous complexities inherent in them have become more apparent. In a very real sense, however, the rhetoric has run ahead of the research. There is a fundamental lack of hard evidence relating to most aspects of the problem. Methodologies for studying both traffickers/smugglers and their clientele are barely developed, the theoretical basis for analysis is weak and, most importantly, substantial empirical surveys are few and far between. Slowly, these deficiencies are being met. For example, two recent IOM studies have thrown light on the geographically pivotal role of Turkey with respect to irregular migration (Içduygu, 2003) and trafficking in women (Erder and Kaska, 2003). The ICMPD now carries out an annual survey and analysis of border management and apprehension data (ICMPD, 2005).

### 9.1 Trends in flows of irregular migrants

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

In 2004 about 116,100 apprehensions were recorded at the borders of the CEE countries surveyed by the ICMPD and listed in Table 21 (ICMPD, 2004). This represents a considerable reduction on the figures for 2001 and 2002. Based on only those 13 countries for which there were data in 2004 the downward trend has been slowing, from 218,900 in 2001, 154,100 in 2002, 119,000 in 2003 and 116,100 in 2004. Relatively high numbers of apprehensions in 2004 occurred at the borders of Turkey, and the Czech Republic. In most cases the trend since 2001 has been downward, although a few countries did show small increases.

Similar systematic data are available in published form for only some Western European countries. Those in Table 22 have been compiled from several sources rather than one survey and they record different sorts of border action against irregular

migration. The numbers vary from country to country. They fluctuate from one year to another but the most recent data generally show declines from the peaks of earlier years.

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

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

## **9.2 Characteristics of irregular migrants**

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

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

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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	8919	100.0
Africa	221	8.8	794	13.1	1803	20.2
Asia	1399	55.5	3672	60.6	5222	58.5
Europe	548	21.8	727	12.0	632	7.1
Latin America and the Caribbean	167	6.6	519	8.6	768	8.6
North America	172	6.8	314	5.2	448	5.0
Oceania	13	0.5	31	0.5	46	0.5

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

Notes:

The 2050 data are based upon medium fertility variants

Table 2  
Components of population change in Europe, 2002-04 average (unless stated)

Country	Growth Rate	Natural Increase	Net Migration
Albania	0.82	1.20	-0.38 (3)
Andorra	4.46	0.74	3.44
Armenia	-0.01	0.26	-0.27
Austria	0.46	0.01	0.38
Azerbaijan	0.76	0.78	-0.03
Belarus	-0.52	-0.57	0.06
Belgium	0.42	0.05	0.37 p
Bulgaria	-0.58	-0.58	0.00
Croatia	-0.04	-0.26	0.23
Cyprus	1.57	0.39	1.17
Czech Republic	0.02	-0.16	0.19
Denmark	0.27	0.12	0.14
Estonia	-0.39	-0.38	0.01 p
Finland	0.24	0.13	0.11
France	0.47	0.37	0.10
Georgia	-0.65	0.01	-0.66
Germany	0.05	-0.16	0.22
Greece	0.34	0.00	0.35
Hungary	-0.28	-0.38	0.09
Iceland	0.72	0.79	-0.07
Ireland	1.62	0.79	0.80
Italy	0.78	-0.05	0.83
Latvia	-0.57	-0.51	-0.06
Liechtenstein	1.13	0.46	0.68
Lithuania	-0.43	-0.31	-0.12
Luxembourg	0.84	0.32	0.53
Malta	0.66	0.20	0.28
Moldova	-0.28	-0.18	-0.09
Netherlands	0.47	0.36	0.11
Norway	0.59	0.27	0.31
Poland	-0.07	-0.03	-0.04
Portugal	0.70	0.06	0.64
Romania	-0.28	-0.26	-1.28
Russian Federation	-0.57	-0.63	0.06
San Marino	2.06	0.33	1.73
Serbia and Montenegro	-0.27	-0.27	0.00 (2) p
Slovakia	0.01	-0.01	0.02
Slovenia	0.06	-0.08	0.14
Spain	1.62	0.13	1.50
Sweden	0.37	0.04	0.33
Switzerland	0.76	0.13	0.63
FYR Macedonia	-0.74	0.48	-1.22 (1)
Turkey	1.55	1.41	0.14
Ukraine	-0.81	-0.75	-0.06
United Kingdom	0.36	0.11	0.26

Source: New Cronos database

Notes:

1. 2002 data only.

2. Does not include Kosovo.

3. 1999 data only

p - provisional data.

*italic* - data from the previous year

Table 3  
Stock of foreign population in selected European countries, 1995-2004 (thousands)

(a) Western Europe

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Austria	673.8	680.3	683.1	683.7	689.3	698.6	704.9	731.6	755.1	776.1
Belgium	909.8	911.9	903.1	892.0	897.1	861.7	846.7	850.1	—	—
Denmark	222.7	237.7	237.7	249.6	259.4	258.6	266.7	265.4	271.2	267.6
Finland	68.6	73.8	81.0	85.1	87.7	91.1	98.6	103.7	107.0	108.3
France	—	—	—	—	3263.2	—	—	—	—	3263.2
Germany	7173.9	7314.0	7365.8	7319.6	7343.6	7296.8	7318.6	7355.6	7341.8	6717.1 (13)
Greece (1)	153.0	155.0	165.4	—	305.3	281.5	797.1	431.0	433.1	537.8
Iceland	4.8	5.1	5.6	6.5	7.3	8.8	9.9	10.2	10.2	10.2
Ireland	96.1	117.5	113.9	110.9	118.0	126.5	152.2	227.7	223.1	259.4
Italy (2)	991.4	1095.6	1240.7	1250.2	1252.0	1388.2	1362.6	1512.3	2194.0	2402.2
Luxembourg	132.5	138.1	142.8	147.7	152.9	159.4	164.7	166.7	170.7	174.2
Netherlands	725.4	679.9	678.1	662.4	651.5	667.8	690.4	700.0	702.2	699.4
Norway	160.8	157.5	158.0	165.1	178.7	184.3	185.9	197.7	204.7	213.3
Portugal	168.3	172.9	175.3	178.1	190.9	207.6	238.7	—	—	251.4
Spain	499.8	539.0	609.8	719.6	801.3	895.7	1109.1	1324.0	2226.2 (14)	2772.2 (14)
Sweden (3)	531.8	526.6	522.0	499.9	487.1	477.3	476.0	474.1	476.1	481.4
Switzerland (4)	1330.6	1337.6	1340.8	1347.9	1368.7	1384.4	1419.1	1447.3	1471.0	1495.0
Turkey (5)	—	68.1	135.9	162.2	—	272.9	—	—	—	272.9
United Kingdom	1914.0	1902.0	2025.0	2170.0	2184.0	2301.0	2479.0	2584.0	2742.0	2857.0

(b) Central and Eastern Europe

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Bulgaria (6)	81.0	78.7	86.0	92.8	102.2	101.3	99.2	100.5	59.1	66.4
Czech Republic (7)	159.2	199.2	210.3	220.2	228.9	203.0	210.8	231.6	240.4	254.3
Estonia	—	—	—	323.0	291.7	287.1	273.8	269.5	—	—
Hungary (8)	140.0	142.5	148.3	150.2	153.1	110.0	116.4	115.9	130.1	143.8
Latvia	7.1	12.1	17.4	23.7	27.6	29.4	31.3	30.0	33.3	34.9
Lithuania	—	—	—	—	—	—	31.2	30.5	32.7	32.3
Poland (9)	—	29.9	32.5	—	42.8	—	—	49.2	—	—
Romania (10)	1.9	1.7	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.4	2.0	2.5
Russia (11)	171.6	158.5	138.3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Slovak Republic (12)	21.9	21.5	26.4	28.4	29.5	28.8	29.4	29.5	29.3	22.1
Slovenia	48.0	43.0	41.7	39.4	42.5	42.3	44.7	—	45.3	45.9
Ukraine	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	290.9

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

NOTES

1. 1999 and 2000 do not include 0-14 year olds
2. Figures refer to residence permits.
3. Some foreigners permits of short duration are not counted (mainly citizens of other Nordic countries).
4. Numbers of foreigners with annual residence permits (including, up to 31/12/82, holders of permits of durations below 12 months) and holders of settlement permits (permanent permits). Seasonal and frontier workers are excluded.
5. 2000 figure from the 2000 Census.
6. Stock of long-term resident foreigners, Ministry of Interior. 2001 figure is provisional.
7. Data derived from Ministries of Labour and Interior, and include only those holding permanent and long-term residence permits.
8. Temporary residence permit holders only.
9. 2002 figure from the Census.
10. Foreign nationals with permanent residence visas.
11. Only permanent resident foreigners, Ministry of Interior, 1998.
12. Number of residence permits. Source Presidium of Police Corps, in Slovak Correspondent's SOPEMI Report, 2001.
13. The substantial decrease in the number of foreign nationals is the result of the cross-checking of the residential registers and the Central Aliens Register.
14. Source: Council Of Europe 2004 demographical development

Table 4

Stock of foreign population as a percentage of total population in selected European countries, 1995-2004 (per cent)

## (a) Western Europe

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004 (1)
Austria	8.5	8.6	8.6	8.6	8.6	8.7	8.8	9.1	9.4	9.4
Belgium	9.0	9.0	8.9	8.8	8.8	8.4	8.2	8.2	–	–
Denmark	4.3	4.5	4.5	4.7	4.9	4.9	5.0	4.9	5.0	5.0
Finland	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.0
France	–	–	–	–	5.6	–	–	–	–	5.4
Germany	8.8	8.9	9.0	8.9	9.0	8.9	8.9	8.9	8.9	8.1
Greece	1.4	1.5	1.5	–	2.8	2.6	7.3	3.9	3.9	4.9
Iceland	1.8	1.9	2.1	2.4	2.6	3.2	3.5	3.6	3.5	3.5
Ireland	2.7	3.2	3.1	3.0	3.2	3.3	4.0	5.8	5.6	6.4
Italy	1.7	1.9	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.4	2.4	2.6	3.8	4.1
Luxembourg	32.7	33.6	34.3	35.0	35.8	36.8	37.5	37.5	38.9	38.6
Netherlands	4.7	4.4	4.4	4.2	4.1	4.2	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.3
Norway	3.7	3.6	3.6	3.7	4.0	4.1	4.1	4.4	4.5	4.5
Portugal	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.3	–	–	2.4
Spain	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.8	2.0	2.2	2.7	3.2	4.0	6.5
Sweden	6.0	6.0	5.9	5.7	5.5	5.4	5.4	5.3	5.3	5.3
Switzerland	19.0	18.9	18.9	19.0	19.2	19.3	19.7	19.9	20.1	22.0
Turkey	–	0.1	0.2	0.2	–	0.4	–	–	–	0.4
United Kingdom	3.3	3.3	3.5	3.7	3.7	3.9	4.3	4.5	4.8	4.7

## (a) Central and Eastern Europe

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004 (1)
Bulgaria	1.0	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	–	0.9
Czech Republic	1.5	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.0	2.1	2.3	2.4	1.9
Estonia	–	–	–	23.2	21.1	20.9	20.0	19.8	–	–
Hungary	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.3
Latvia	0.3	0.5	0.7	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.4
Lithuania	–	–	–	–	–	–	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9
Poland	–	0.1	0.1	–	0.1	–	–	0.1	–	–
Romania	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Russia	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Slovak Republic	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4
Slovenia	2.4	2.2	2.1	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.2	–	2.3	2.3
Ukraine	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	0.6

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

Notes:

see Table 3.

1. Data Source: MRU calculation based on New Cronos Database data



Table 6

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

	Foreign born thousands	proportion of total population
Total	82627.1	7.8
Austria	1002.5	12.5
Belgium	1099.2	10.7
Czech Republic	448.5	4.5
Denmark	361.1	6.8
Finland	131.4	2.5
France	5868.2	10.0
Germany	10256.1	12.5
Greece	1122.6	10.3
Hungary	292.9	2.9
Ireland	400.0	10.4
Luxembourg	142.7	32.6
Netherlands	1615.4	10.1
Norway	333.8	7.3
Poland	775.3	2.1
Portugal	651.5	6.3
Slovak Republic	119.1	2.5
Spain	2172.2	5.3
Sweden	1077.6	12.0
Switzerland	1570.8	22.4
Turkey	1259.4	1.9
United Kingdom	4865.6	8.3

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



Table 7

Inflows of foreign population to selected European countries, 1995-2004 (thousands) (1)

## (a) Western Europe

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Austria	–	57.1	56.9	59.2	72.4	66.0	75.0	92.6	97.2	–
Belgium	53.1	51.9	49.2	50.9	57.8	57.3	66.0	–	68.8	–
Denmark	39.0	31.4	27.3	28.7	26.5	29.0	31.4	29.3	27.5	27.9 (12)
Finland	7.3	7.5	8.1	8.3	7.9	9.1	11.0	10.0	9.4	11.5
France	77.0	75.5	102.4	139.5	114.9	126.8	141.0	–	–	140.1
GermanyQ	792.7	707.9	615.3	605.5	673.9	649.2	685.3	658.3	601.8	780.2
Greece	20.2	22.2	22.1	12.6	–	–	–	–	–	–
Iceland	0.9	1.3	1.4	1.8	1.9	2.5	2.5	1.9	1.4	–
Ireland (2)	13.6	21.5	23.6	21.7	22.2	27.8	32.7	39.9	33.0	70.0
Italy	68.2	143.2	–	127.1	268.0	271.5	232.8	388.1	–	–
Liechtenstein	–	–	–	–	2.7	–	–	–	–	–
Luxembourg	10.3	10.0	10.4	11.6	12.8	11.8	11.2	11.0	11.5	11.3
Netherlands	67.0	77.2	76.7	81.7	78.4	91.4	94.5	86.6	73.6	65.1
Norway (3)	16.5	17.2	22.0	26.7	32.2	27.8	25.4	30.8	26.8	27.9
Portugal	5.0	3.6	3.3	6.5	14.5	18.4	19.0	17.0	13.8	–
Spain	19.5	16.7	35.6	57.2	99.1	330.9	394.0	443.1	429.5	645.8
Sweden (4)	36.1	35.4	33.4	35.7	34.6	42.6	44.1	47.6	45.3	47.6
Switzerland (5)	91.0	74.4	69.6	74.9	85.8	87.4	101.4	101.9	94.0	96.3
United Kingdom (6)	228.0	224.2	237.2	287.3	337.4	379.3	373.3	418.2	406.8	518.1

## (b) Central and Eastern Europe

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Croatia	42.0	44.6	–	51.8	32.9	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.1	18.4
Czech Republic (7)	10.5	10.9	12.9	10.7	9.9	7.8	12.9	44.7	60.0	53.5
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	–	1.7
Hungary (8)	14.0	13.7	13.3	16.1	20.2	20.2	20.3	15.7	21.3	–
Latvia (10)	2.8	2.7	2.9	3.1	1.8	1.6	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.7
Lithuania (10)	2.0	3.0	2.5	2.7	2.7	1.5	4.7	5.1	4.7	5.6
Poland (9)	8.1	8.2	8.4	8.9	7.5	7.3	6.6	6.6	7.0	–
Romania (11)	4.5	2.1	6.6	11.9	10.1	11.0	10.4	6.6	3.3	3.0
Russia	866.3	647.0	597.7	513.6	379.7	359.3	193.4	184.6	129.0	119.2
Slovak Republic	3.0	2.5	2.3	2.1	2.1	2.3	2.0	2.3	2.6	4.4
Slovenia	–	–	6.8	3.7	3.6	5.3	6.8	7.7	8.0	10.2
Ukraine	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	39.5	38.6

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

## NOTES:

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

Table 8

Outflows of population from selected European countries, 1995-2004 (thousands)

## (a) Outflows of of foreign nationals from Western Europe

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Austria	–	42.4	49.8	44.9	47.3	44.4	51.0	38.8	46.1	–
Belgium	33.1	22.0	23.5	32.5	24.4	35.6	24.5	–	33.9	–
Denmark	11.1	13.0	14.1	15.6	16.2	16.5	17.3	17.8	18.2	19.1(10)
Finland	1.5	3.0	1.6	1.7	2.0	4.1	2.2	2.8	2.3	4.2
Germany (1)	567.4	559.1	637.1	639.0	555.6	562.8	497.0	505.6	499.1	697.6
Iceland	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.7	1.0	0.8	1.1	1.1	0.9	–
Ireland	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	18.5	16.6
Italy	8.4	8.5	–	7.9	8.6	12.4	–	7.7	–	–
Luxembourg	5.7	6.4	6.6	7.8	8.0	8.1	7.6	8.3	9.4	9.6
Netherlands	21.7	22.4	21.9	21.3	20.7	20.7	20.4	21.2	21.9	23.5
Norway	9.0	10.0	10.0	12.0	12.7	14.9	15.2	12.3	14.3	13.8
Portugal	–	0.2	–	–	0.4	–	–	10.0	–	–
Spain	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	6.9	10.0	55.1
Sweden (3)	15.4	14.5	15.3	14.1	13.4	12.6	12.7	14.2	14.6	16.0
Switzerland (4)	69.4	71.9	67.9	59.0	58.1	56.8	52.7	49.7	46.3	47.9
United Kingdom	101.0	108.0	130.6	125.7	151.6	159.6	148.5	173.7	170.6	310.4

## (b) Permanent emigration from Central and Eastern Europe

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Belarus	35.0	–	–	13.2	13.2	13.8	14.3	13.4	–	–
Bulgaria	55.0	62.0	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Croatia (9)	15.4	10.0	15.2	–	8.7	0.1	0.2	0.6	0.4	6.8
Czech Republic (5)	0.5	0.7	0.8	1.2	1.1	1.3	21.5	32.4	34.2	34.9
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	–	0.7
Hungary (8)	2.4	2.8	1.9	2.3	2.5	2.2	1.9	1.8	3.1	–
Latvia	13.3	10.0	9.7	6.3	3.7	3.5	6.6	2.5	1.6	2.7
Lithuania	3.8	3.9	2.5	2.1	1.4	2.6	7.3	7.0	11.0	15.2
Poland (6)	26.3	21.3	20.2	22.2	21.5	26.9	23.3	24.5	20.8	–
Romania (7)	–	4.8	3.1	2.3	1.3	1.3	0.9	0.7	0.8	13.1
Russia	340.0	388.0	233.0	213.4	215.0	145.7	121.2	106.7	94.0	79.8
Slovak Republic	0.2	0.2	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.8	1.0	1.4	1.2	1.6
Slovenia	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	4.6	4.0	8.3
Ukraine	2.6	–	4.6	–	110.6	110.3	88.8	–	63.7	46.2

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

## NOTES:

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

Table 9  
Net population flows of selected European countries, 1995-2004 (thousands)

(a) Western Europe

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2004 or the latest year
Austria	-	14.7	7.1	14.3	25.1	21.6	24.0	53.8	51.2	-	51.2
Belgium	20.0	29.9	25.7	18.4	33.4	21.7	41.5	-	34.9	-	34.9
Denmark	27.9	18.4	13.2	13.1	10.3	12.5	14.1	11.5	9.3	8.8	8.8
Finland	5.8	4.5	6.5	6.6	5.9	5.0	8.8	7.2	7.1	7.3	7.3
Germany	225.3	148.8	-21.8	-33.5	118.3	86.4	188.3	152.7	102.7	82.6	82.6
Iceland	0.2	0.6	0.6	1.1	0.9	1.7	1.4	0.8	0.5	-	0.5
Ireland	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	53.4	53.4
Italy	59.8	134.7	-	119.2	259.4	259.1	-	380.4	-	-	380.4
Luxembourg	4.6	3.6	3.8	3.8	4.8	3.7	3.6	2.7	2.1	1.7	1.7
Netherlands	45.3	54.8	54.8	60.4	57.7	70.7	74.1	65.4	51.7	41.6	41.6
Norway	7.5	7.2	12.0	14.7	19.5	12.9	10.2	18.5	12.5	14.0	14.0
Portugal	-	3.4	-	-	14.1	-	-	7.0	-	-	7.0
Spain	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	436.2	419.5	590.7	590.7
Sweden	20.7	20.9	18.1	21.6	21.2	30.0	31.4	33.4	30.7	31.6	31.6
Switzerland	21.6	2.5	1.7	15.9	27.7	30.6	48.7	52.2	47.7	48.4	48.4
United Kingdom	127.0	116.2	106.6	161.6	185.8	219.7	224.8	244.5	236.2	207.7	207.7
										Total	1087.8
											1561.8

(b) Central and Eastern Europe

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2004 or the latest year
Croatia	26.6	34.6	-	-	24.2	2.0	1.9	1.4	1.7	11.6	11.6
Czech Republic	10.0	10.2	12.1	9.5	8.8	6.5	-8.6	12.3	25.8	18.6	18.6
Estonia	-8.2	-5.6	-2.9	-1.4	-0.6	0.2	-	-	-	-	0.2
FYR Macedonia	0.6	0.4	0.3	-	-	1.0	0.7	2.2	-	1	1
Hungary	11.6	10.9	11.4	13.8	17.7	18.0	18.4	13.9	-	-	13.9
Latvia	-10.5	-7.3	-6.8	-3.2	-1.9	-1.9	-5.5	-1.3	-0.5	-1	-1
Lithuania	-1.8	-0.9	0.0	0.6	1.3	-1.1	-2.6	-1.9	-6.3	-9.6	-9.6
Poland	-18.2	-13.1	-11.8	-13.3	-14.0	-19.6	-16.7	-17.9	-13.8	-	-13.8
Romania	-	-2.7	3.5	9.6	8.8	9.7	9.5	5.9	2.5	-10.1	-10.1
Russia	526.3	259.0	364.7	300.2	164.7	213.6	72.2	77.9	35.0	39.4	39.4
Slovak Republic	2.8	2.3	1.7	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.0	0.9	1.4	2.8	2.8
Slovenia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.1	4.0	1.9	1.9
Ukraine	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-24.2	-7.6	-7.6
										Total	47.0

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

Notes:  
See Table 6 and 7.

Table 10

a) Migration flows for Eastern European and Central Asia countries, 2000  
 b) Migration flows for Eastern European and Central Asia countries, 2004

	Absolute figures (thousands)			Proportions (per cent)		
	Inflow	Outflow	Net Flow	In Flow	Out Flow	Gross
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

b)

	Absolute figures (thousands)			Proportions (per cent)		
	Inflow	Outflow	Net Flow	In Flow	Out Flow	Gross
Armenia (1)						
Total	1.9	9.5	-7.6	100.0	100.0	100.0
Within region	1.4	7.7	-6.3	73.7	81.1	82.9
Outside region	0.5	1.8	-1.3	26.3	18.9	17.1
Azerbaijan						
Total	2.5	3.8	-1.3	100.0	100.0	100.0
Within region	2.5	3.7	-1.2	100.0	97.4	92.3
Outside region	-	0.1	-0.1	-	2.6	7.7
Belarus						
Total	-	-	-	100.0	100.0	100.0
Within region	-	-	-	-	-	-
Outside region	-	-	-	-	-	-
Georgia						
Total	-	-	-	100.0	100.0	100.0
Within region	-	-	-	-	-	-
Outside region	-	-	-	-	-	-
Kazakhstan						
Total	-	-	-	100.0	100.0	100.0
Within region	-	-	-	-	-	-
Outside region	-	-	-	-	-	-
Kyrgyzstan						
Total	3.3	22.6	-19.3	100.0	100.0	100.0
Within region	1.9	16.5	-14.6	57.6	73.0	75.6
Outside region	1.4	6.1	-4.7	42.4	27.0	24.4
Moldova						
Total	1.9	7.2	-5.3	100.0	100.0	100.0
Within region	0.7	5.3	-4.6	36.8	73.6	86.8
Outside region	1.2	1.9	-0.7	63.2	26.4	13.2
Russia						
Total	119.0	79.8	39.2	100.0	100.0	100.0
Within region	110.0	37.0	73.0	92.4	46.4	186.2
Outside region	9.0	42.8	-33.8	7.6	53.6	-86.2
Tajikistan						
Total	-	-	-	100.0	100.0	100.0
Within region	-	-	-	-	-	-
Outside region	-	-	-	-	-	-
Turkmenista						
Total	-	-	-	100.0	100.0	100.0
Within region	-	-	-	-	-	-
Outside region	-	-	-	-	-	-
Ukraine						
Total	38.6	46.2	-7.6	100.0	100.0	100.0
Within region	25.4	28.3	-2.9	65.8	61.3	38.2
Outside region	13.2	17.9	-4.7	34.2	38.7	61.8
Uzbekistan						
Total	-	-	-	100.0	100.0	100.0
Within region	-	-	-	-	-	-
Outside region	-	-	-	-	-	-

Source for table a: IOM 2002

Source for table b: National Statistical offices; for the Kyrgyzstan and Ukraine - common questionnaires

Note

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

1. Refers to 2003

2. Refers to 2004

"region" for 2003-2004 data refers to the EECA

Table 11

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

	EU & EFTA			Immigration			Emigration			Rest of World
	EU & EFTA	Europe	Rest of World	Other Europe	C&E Europe	Rest of World	Other Europe	C&E Europe	Rest of World	
Austria	29.3	80.3	19.7	9.2	41.8	19.7	81.4	39.6	18.6	
Croatia (1)	12.5	86.6	13.4	0.0	74.1	13.4	24.8	20.9	75.2	
Czech Republic (2)	11.8	78.7	21.3	0.2	66.7	21.3	88.4	31.3	11.6	
Denmark	40.7	55.0	45.0	4.1	10.2	45.0	63.0	6.6	37.0	
Estonia (2)	15.3	90.6	9.4	0.0	75.3	9.4	88.3	47.6	11.7	
Finland	44.1	74.4	25.6	1.9	28.4	25.6	82.4	6.0	17.6	
FYR Macedonia	1.5	99.1	0.9	0.2	97.4	0.9	99.7	80.1	0.3	
Germany	19.1	66.6	33.4	6.5	41.0	33.4	73.4	38.0	26.6	
Iceland (3)	63.6	80.0	20.0	0.3	16.1	20.0	86.4	4.0	13.6	
Italy (3)	14.0	49.5	50.5	0.6	34.9	50.5	64.9	7.0	35.1	
Latvia (4)	12.3	76.9	23.1	0.1	64.5	23.1	79.9	63.3	20.1	
Liechtenstein (2)	3.4	84.8	15.2	0.0	81.4	15.2	70.1	57.9	29.9	
Lithuania (4)	13.0	79.4	20.6	0.4	66.0	20.6	78.0	57.0	22.0	
Netherlands	27.6	41.3	58.7	4.9	8.8	58.7	63.2	3.6	36.8	
Norway	44.9	57.9	42.1	2.1	10.9	42.1	72.3	8.4	27.7	
Poland	53.2	68.1	31.9	0.3	14.6	31.9	83.3	0.6	16.7	
Portugal (4)	44.0	46.4	53.6	0.1	2.3	53.6	82.2	0.0	17.8	
Romania (5)	5.5	95.0	5.0	0.3	89.2	5.0	69.2	7.9	30.8	
Slovakia	13.9	82.6	17.4	0.8	67.9	17.4	86.0	43.2	14.0	
Slovenia (4)	5.4	11.1	88.9	0.1	5.6	88.9	88.9	59.0	11.1	
Spain (4)	14.1	28.9	71.1	0.2	14.6	71.1	15.0	0.0	85.0	
Sweden	42.2	56.7	43.3	2.2	12.3	43.3	68.5	3.8	31.5	
United Kingdom (4)	22.8	27.2	72.8	2.1	2.3	72.8	36.7	2.3	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  
Percentage of total immigration/emigration by previous/next residence, 2004.

	Immigration					Emigration				
	EU & EFTA	EU15	Other Europe(2)	C&E Europe(1)	Rest of World	EU & EFTA	EU15	Other Europe(2)	C&E Europe(1)	Rest of World
Austria	18.3	17.4	22.4	24.3	34.3	14.5	13.5	15.1	16.4	53.6
Belarus	1.2	1.1	0.3	71.6	24.8	13.5	13.4	0.2	65.3	20.7
Croatia	13.6	11.4	69.7	3.1	13.6	29.4	28.8	46.0	2.7	22.0
Cyprus	51.1	50.9	1.4	21.9	24.2	16.4	16.2	1.4	15.2	65.5
Czech Rep	8.6	8.2	1.4	70.7	17.3	8.2	7.9	0.7	82.1	7.6
Denmark	45.1	34.2	2.4	10.4	39.1	51.0	40.1	1.4	6.9	38.0
Finland	43.9	37.9	3.7	22.6	29.6	64.9	58.1	1.0	11.9	22.2
Germany	17.7	16.3	10.9	39.0	32.1	27.2	24.5	12.4	28.9	31.3
Latvia	33.5	31.7	0.4	47.4	18.3	26.7	25.0	0.1	58.2	14.7
Lithuania	41.4	39.2	0.8	38.9	18.5	58.7	56.3	0.2	16.5	24.5
Luxemburg	24.2	23.9	0.1	74.4	5.2	44.6	43.3	0.2	0.8	51.0
FYR Macedonia	5.5	5.2	64.4	12.6	5.2	78.9	60.2	12.9	5.2	3.0
Moldova	5.9	5.4	15.0	36.6	42.5	7.2	7.2	0.1	73.4	19.4
Netherlands	34.8	33.5	6.0	11.0	48.0	55.6	53.5	3.9	3.2	37.2
Norway	38.9	37.6	3.8	14.1	42.9	59.1	56.6	1.4	3.5	35.7
Poland	45.8	44.9	1.2	21.2	31.2	81.7	81.0	0.1	0.5	17.6
Slovakia	22.0	20.7	10.9	46.6	20.3	42.1	36.6	0.6	45.4	11.9
Slovenia	5.5	4.9	6.1	0.4	88.0	17.5	16.0	6.2	0.6	75.7
Spain	15.8	15.0	0.1	19.9	63.6	20.2	18.1	0.1	4.7	72.9
Sweden	39.3	30.1	7.2	10.3	43.1	59.6	45.6	1.8	3.0	35.5
UK	15.1	14.4	0.7	12.4	71.7	30.3	29.4	3.5	2.3	63.1
Ukraine	1.4	1.4	0.5	57.6	30.9	16.6	16.5	0.1	62.6	19.5

1. CEE includes: Belarus, Bulgaria, Czech Rep, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, Russia, Slovak rep, Slovenia, Ukraine.

2. OE includes: Bosnia-Herzegovina, Croatia, Cyprus, Former Yug FYR Macedonia, Malta, Serbia and Montenegro, Turkey.

Percentage of total immigration/emigration by previous/next residence, 2004.

	Immigration					Emigration				
	EU & EFTA	EU25	Other Europe(4)	C&E Europe(3)	Rest of World	EU & EFTA	EU25	Other Europe(4)	C&E Europe(3)	Rest of World
Austria	31.1	30.2	6.3	27.6	34.3	23.4	22.4	3.4	19.2	53.6
Belarus	5.6	5.5	0.2	67.2	24.8	15.7	15.6	0.1	63.2	20.7
Croatia	16.1	13.9	0.0	70.2	13.6	32.0	31.5	0.0	46.0	22.0
Cyprus	62.3	62.1	0.0	12.1	24.2	17.2	17.0	0.0	15.8	65.5
Czech Rep	41.9	41.5	0.1	38.8	17.3	72.2	71.9	0.1	18.8	7.6
Denmark	52.0	41.1	1.2	4.8	39.1	55.9	45.0	0.8	2.6	38.0
Finland	55.5	49.5	2.0	12.7	29.6	74.0	67.1	3.3	3.3	22.2
Germany	42.0	40.6	5.4	20.2	32.1	48.5	45.8	5.3	14.7	31.3
Latvia	55.9	54.1	0.3	25.2	18.3	36.0	34.3	0.1	49.0	14.7
Lithuania	47.6	45.3	0.5	33.0	18.5	61.6	59.3	0.1	13.7	24.5
Luxemburg	24.5	24.2	0.0	0.3	74.4	45.2	43.9	0.0	0.4	51.0
FYR Macedonia	8.4	8.2	2.5	71.6	5.2	83.0	64.3	3.4	10.6	3.0
Moldova	7.6	7.1	14.3	35.5	42.5	7.3	7.3	0.0	73.3	19.4
Netherlands	43.0	41.7	5.0	3.8	48.0	57.9	55.8	2.7	2.2	37.2
Norway	46.4	45.2	1.5	8.8	42.9	61.4	58.9	0.6	2.0	35.7
Poland	47.8	46.9	0.3	20.1	31.2	82.0	81.3	0.0	0.3	17.6
Slovakia	51.8	50.5	0.3	27.3	20.3	86.4	80.9	0.0	1.6	11.9
Slovenia	5.7	5.1	0.0	6.3	88.0	17.9	16.4	0.0	6.4	75.7
Spain	17.5	16.6	0.0	18.3	63.6	21.0	18.8	0.0	4.0	72.9
Sweden	46.1	36.9	2.3	8.4	43.1	62.1	48.2	0.6	1.7	35.5
UK	26.2	25.5	0.3	1.8	71.7	34.4	33.5	0.8	2.3	63.1
Ukraine	2.8	2.8	0.4	56.3	30.9	19.1	19.0	0.1	60.1	19.5

3. CEE includes: Belarus, Bulgaria, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Croatia, Former Yug FYR Macedonia, Serbia and Montenegro, Romania, Russia, Ukraine.

4. OE includes: Turkey.

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

(A) Western Europe (1)

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Austria (2)	300.3	300.4	298.8	298.6	306.4	319.9	329.3	334.4	350.4	362.3
Belgium (3)	328.8	343.8	377.4	390.7	386.2	—	388.6	359.6	—	—
Denmark (4)	83.8	88.0	93.9	98.3	96.3	96.8	106.6	101.9	—	157.3
Finland	25.5	29.7	32.5	36.0	37.2	40.7	45.4	46.1	—	—
France (5)	1573.3	1604.7	1569.8	1586.7	1593.9	1577.6	1617.6	1623.8	—	—
Germany (6)	—	2119.6	2044.2	2030.3	1924.8	1963.6	2008.1	1960.0	1874.0	1805.4
Greece (7)	27.4	28.7	29.4	—	204.6	184.0	157.4	203.6	233.5	276.3
Ireland	42.1	43.4	51.7	53.3	57.7	63.9	82.1	101.7	—	—
Italy (8)	332.2	580.6	539.8	614.0	747.6	850.7	1338.2	840.8	—	—
Luxembourg (9)	111.8	117.8	124.8	134.6	145.7	157.5	170.7	177.6	182.8	187.5
Netherlands (10)	221.0	218.0	208.0	235.0	267.5	300.1	302.6	295.9	—	—
Norway (11)	52.6	54.8	59.9	66.9	104.6	111.2	133.7	138.4	92.3	95.2 (22)
Portugal (12)	84.3	86.8	87.9	88.6	91.6	99.8	233.6	285.7	—	—
Spain (13)	139.0	166.5	178.7	197.1	199.8	454.6	607.1	831.7	925.3	1076.7
Sweden	220.0	218.0	220.0	219.0	222.0	222.0	226.0	218.0	—	—
Switzerland (14)	729.0	709.1	692.8	691.1	701.2	717.3	738.8	830.0	809.0	817.0
Turkey	—	16.3	21.0	23.4	—	82.8	—	—	—	82.9 (22)
United Kingdom (15)	862.0	865.0	949.0	1039.0	1005.0	1107.5	1243.0	1303.0	1396.0	1463.6 (22)

(B) Central And Eastern Europe

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004 (22)
Albania	—	0.4	0.7	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Czech Republic(16)	148.9	188.7	194.3	156.5	151.9	165.0	167.7	161.7	168.0	173.2
Estonia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	111.0	113.3
Hungary (17)	21.0	18.8	20.4	22.4	28.5	35.0	38.6	42.7	48.7	55.1
Latvia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	7.0	5.0
Lithuania	0.4	0.5	1.0	—	1.2	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.8
Poland	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	6.0
Romania (18)	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.3	1.5	1.6	2.1	1.5	1.9	2.8
Russia (19)	—	292.2	241.5	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Slovenia (20)	—	—	36.1	33.9	40.3	37.8	34.8	35.3	32.1	31.8
Slovak Republic (21)	2.7	3.3	3.8	3.7	2.6	2.5	2.5	2.7	2.7	2.7

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

NOTES:

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

Table 13

Inflows of foreign labour into selected European countries, 1995-2004 (thousands)

## (a) Western Europe

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Austria (1)	15.4	16.3	15.2	15.4	18.3	25.4	27.0	24.6	24.1	—
Belgium	2.7	2.2	2.5	7.3	8.7	7.5	7.0	6.7	4.6	4.3
Denmark (2)	2.2	2.7	3.1	3.2	3.1	3.6	5.1	5.3	5.8	8.6
Finland	—	—	—	—	—	10.4	14.1	20.1	24.2	—
France (3)	13.1	11.5	11.0	10.3	10.9	11.3	—	—	—	—
Germany (4)	470.0	439.7	451.0	402.6	433.7	473.0	553.7	529.6	502.7	—
Ireland (5)	—	—	—	3.8	4.6	15.7	30.0	23.8	22.5	10.8
Luxembourg (6)	16.5	18.3	18.6	22.0	24.2	27.3	—	22.4	22.6	—
Netherlands (7)	—	9.2	11.1	15.2	20.8	27.7	30.2	34.6	38.0	44.1
Portugal	2.2	1.5	1.3	2.6	4.2	7.8	6.1	4.7	4.1	6.0
Spain (8)	29.6	31.0	30.1	53.7	56.1	74.1	41.6	—	—	—
Sweden	—	—	—	2.4	2.4	3.3	3.3	—	—	—
Switzerland (9)	32.9	29.8	25.4	26.8	31.5	34.0	41.9	40.1	—	40.0
United Kingdom (10)	51.0	50.0	59.0	68.0	61.2	86.5	76.2	99.0	80.0	89.4

## (b) Central and Eastern Europe

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Bulgaria (11)	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	1.0
Czech Republic (12)	—	71.0	61.0	49.9	40.3	40.1	40.1	44.6	47.7	34.4
Hungary	—	—	24.2	26.3	34.1	40.2	47.3	49.8	57.4	—
Poland (13)	10.5	13.7	17.5	—	17.1	17.8	—	22.8	18.8	—
Romania (14)	0.7	0.7	1.0	1.3	1.5	—	—	—	—	—
Slovak Republic (15)	3.0	3.3	3.2	2.5	2.0	1.8	2.0	—	—	—

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

## Notes:

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



Table 14

Asylum applications in selected European countries, 1995-2004 (thousands)

## a) Western Europe

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Austria	5.9	7.0	6.7	13.8	20.1	18.3	30.1	39.4	32.3	24.7
Belgium	11.4	12.4	11.8	22.0	35.8	42.7	24.6	18.8	16.9	15.4
Denmark	5.1	5.9	5.1	9.4	12.3	12.2	12.5	6.1	4.6	3.2
Finland	0.9	0.7	1.0	1.3	3.1	3.2	1.7	3.4	3.1	3.9
France	20.4	17.4	21.4	22.4	30.9	38.8	47.3	51.1	51.4	61.6
Germany	127.9	116.4	104.4	98.6	95.1	78.6	88.3	71.1	50.6	35.6
Greece	1.3	1.6	4.4	3.0	1.5	3.1	5.5	5.7	8.2	4.5
Iceland	0.0	–	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Ireland	0.4	1.2	3.9	4.6	7.7	11.1	10.3	11.6	7.9	4.8
Italy	1.7	0.7	1.9	11.1	33.4	15.6	9.6	7.3	–	10.0
Liechtenstein	–	–	–	0.2	0.5	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Luxembourg	0.4	0.3	0.4	1.7	2.9	0.6	0.7	1.0	1.6	1.6
Netherlands	29.3	22.2	34.4	45.2	42.7	43.9	32.6	18.7	13.4	9.8
Norway	1.5	1.8	2.3	8.4	10.2	10.8	14.8	17.5	16.0	8.0
Portugal	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.1
Spain	5.7	4.7	5.0	6.7	8.4	7.9	9.5	6.3	5.8	5.4
Sweden	9.1	5.8	9.7	12.8	11.2	16.3	23.5	33.0	31.4	23.2
Switzerland	17.0	18.0	24.0	41.3	46.1	17.6	20.6	26.1	21.1	14.3
United Kingdom	55.0	37.0	41.5	58.5	91.2	98.9	91.6	103.1	61.1	40.2
Totals (Western Europe)	293.5	253.4	278.2	361.4	453.4	419.8	423.6	420.7	325.6	266.5

## b) Central and Eastern Europe

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Bulgaria	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.8	1.3	1.8	2.4	2.9	1.6	1.1
Czech Republic	1.4	2.2	2.1	4.1	7.3	8.8	18.1	8.5	11.4	5.5
Estonia	–	–	–	0.0	0.0	–	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Hungary	0.1	0.2	0.2	7.1	11.5	7.8	9.6	6.4	2.4	1.6
Latvia	–	–	–	0.1	0.0	–	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Lithuania	–	–	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.1
Poland	0.8	3.2	3.5	3.4	3.0	4.6	4.5	5.2	6.9	8.1
Romania	–	0.6	1.4	1.2	1.7	1.4	2.4	1.2	1.1	0.7
Slovakia	0.4	0.4	0.7	0.5	1.3	1.6	8.2	9.7	10.3	11.4
Slovenia	–	0.0	0.1	0.5	0.9	9.2	1.5	0.7	1.1	1.2
Totals (Central and Eastern Europe)	3.2	6.9	8.7	17.9	27.1	35.4	47.0	34.9	35.0	29.7

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

Table 15  
Asylum applications in EU and EFTA countries, 1985, 1992, 1998-2003 (thousands)

	1985		1992		1999		2000		2001		2002		2003		2004							
	absolute figures	proportion of EU & EFTA total (per cent)	absolute figures	proportion of EU & EFTA total (per cent)	absolute figures	proportion of EU & EFTA total (per cent)	absolute figures	proportion of EU & EFTA total (per cent)	absolute figures	proportion of EU & EFTA total (per cent)	absolute figures	proportion of EU & EFTA total (per cent)	absolute figures	proportion of EU & EFTA total (per cent)	absolute figures	proportion of EU & EFTA total (per cent)						
EU 15	159.2	93.8	4.4	18.3	396.6	87.5	10.6	93.2	10.4	388.0	91.6	10.3	376.9	89.6	9.9	295.6	86.8	7.8	244.0	91.6	6.4	
Austria	6.7	4.0	8.9	16.2	20.1	4.4	25.2	4.4	22.9	30.1	7.1	37.5	39.4	9.4	49.0	32.3	9.7	40.0	24.7	9.3	30.3	
Belgium	5.4	3.2	5.5	17.6	35.8	7.9	35.0	10.2	41.7	24.6	5.8	24.0	18.8	4.5	18.2	16.9	5.1	16.3	15.4	5.8	14.7	
Denmark	8.7	5.1	17.0	13.9	12.3	2.7	23.1	2.9	22.9	12.5	3.0	23.4	6.1	1.4	11.4	4.6	1.4	8.5	3.2	1.2	5.9	
Finland	0	0.0	0.0	7.2	3.1	0.7	6.0	0.8	6.2	1.7	0.4	3.3	3.4	0.8	6.5	3.1	0.9	6.0	3.9	1.5	7.5	
France	28.9	17.0	5.2	5.0	30.9	6.8	5.3	9.2	6.6	47.3	11.2	8.0	51.1	12.1	8.6	51.4	15.4	8.6	61.6	23.1	10.3	
Germany	73.8	43.5	9.5	54.6	95.1	21.0	11.6	18.7	9.6	88.3	20.8	10.7	71.1	16.9	8.6	50.5	15.2	6.1	35.6	13.4	4.3	
Greece	1.4	0.8	1.4	2.1	0.3	0.3	1.4	0.7	2.8	5.5	1.3	5.0	5.7	1.4	5.2	8.2	2.5	7.5	4.5	1.7	4.1	
Ireland	—	—	—	0	0	0	0	2.6	29.4	10.3	2.4	26.9	11.6	2.8	29.7	7.9	2.4	19.9	4.8	1.8	11.9	
Italy	5.4	3.2	1.0	2.6	33.4	7.4	5.8	3.7	2.7	9.6	2.3	1.7	7.3	1.7	1.3	—	—	10.0	3.8	1.7	1.7	
Luxembourg	0.1	0.0	2.1	0.1	2.9	0.6	67.9	0.6	0.1	13.8	0.7	0.2	15.9	0.2	22.5	1.6	0.5	35.7	1.6	0.6	35.4	
Netherlands	5.6	3.3	3.9	20.3	42.7	9.4	27.1	43.9	10.5	27.7	32.6	7.7	20.4	18.7	11.6	13.4	4.0	8.3	9.8	3.7	6.0	
Portugal	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.7	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.0	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	
Spain	2.3	1.4	0.6	11.7	8.4	1.9	2.1	1.9	2.0	9.5	2.2	2.4	6.3	1.5	1.5	5.8	1.7	1.4	5.4	2.0	1.3	
Sweden	14.5	8.5	17.4	84	11.2	2.5	12.6	16.3	3.9	23.5	5.5	26.5	33.0	7.8	37.0	31.4	9.4	35.1	23.2	8.7	25.8	
United Kingdom	6.2	3.7	1.1	32.3	91.2	20.1	15.6	98.9	16.9	91.6	21.6	15.6	103.1	24.5	17.5	61.1	18.4	10.3	40.2	15.1	6.9	
EFTA 4	10.5	6.2	9.7	23.2	56.8	12.5	47.8	6.8	23.8	35.6	8.4	29.6	43.8	10.4	36.2	37.3	11.2	30.6	22.5	8.4	18.3	
Iceland	—	—	—	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3.4
Liechtenstein	—	—	—	—	0.5	0.1	156.3	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	30.3	0.1	0.0	29.4	0.1	0.0	29.4	0.1	0.0	29.2	
Norway	0.8	0.5	2.0	12.3	10.2	2.2	22.9	10.8	2.6	14.8	3.5	32.9	17.5	4.2	38.7	16.0	4.8	35.1	8.0	3.0	17.5	
Switzerland	9.7	5.7	15.0	26.2	46.1	10.2	64.7	17.6	24.6	20.6	4.9	28.6	26.1	6.2	35.9	21.1	6.3	28.8	14.3	5.4	19.4	
EU 15 + EFTA 4	169.7	100.0	4.6	18.4	453.4	100.0	11.7	419.8	10.8	423.6	100.0	10.9	420.7	100.0	10.8	332.9	100.0	8.5	266.5	100.0	6.8	

Source: UNHCR, Eurostat

Notes:  
EFTA: 1985, 1989 estimated  
EU15: 1985, 2003 estimated



Table 17  
Asylum applications made by unaccompanied and separated children in selected European countries, 2000-03

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

Source: UNHCR

Table 18

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

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

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

Notes:

All OECD countries, excluding Italy and Japan.

Table 19

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

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

Source: OECD

Table 20

Stock of foreign students in selected European countries, academic years 1998-99 to 2002-03 (thousands)

	1998-99	1999-00	2000-01	2001-02	2002-03	% change 1998-99 to 2002-03
Western Europe	762.6	795.1	820.2	898.2	1 046.0	37.2
Austria	29.8	30.4	31.7	28.5	31.1	4.4
Belgium	36.1	38.8	38.2	40.4	41.9	16.1
Cyprus	1.9	2.0	2.5	3.1	5.3	178.9
Denmark	12.3	12.9	12.5	14.5	18.1	47.2
Finland	4.8	5.6	6.3	6.8	7.4	54.2
France (1)	131.0	137.1	147.4	165.4	221.6	69.2
Germany	178.2	187.0	199.1	219.0	240.6	35.0
Greece	–	–	–	8.6	12.5	
Ireland (2)	7.2	7.4	8.2	9.2	10.2	41.7
Italy	23.5	24.9	29.2	28.4	36.1	53.6
Netherlands (3)	13.6	14.0	16.6	18.9	20.5	50.7
Norway	9.0	8.7	8.8	9.5	11.1	23.3
Portugal	–	11.2	–	15.7	15.5	–
Spain	33.0	40.7	39.9	44.9	53.6	62.4
Sweden	24.4	25.5	26.3	28.7	32.5	33.2
Switzerland	25.3	26.0	27.8	29.3	32.8	29.6
United Kingdom (4)	232.5	222.9	225.7	227.3	255.2	9.8
Central Europe	42.7	39.9	55.1	52.5	51.9	21.5
Bulgaria	8.4	8.1	8.1	8.0	8.0	-4.8
Czech Republic (5)	4.6	5.5	7.8	9.8	10.3	123.9
Hungary (6)	8.9	–	11.2	11.8	12.2	37.1
Latvia (7)	1.8	6.0	7.9	3.3	2.4	33.3
Poland (8)	5.7	6.1	6.7	7.4	7.6	33.3
Romania	13.3	12.6	11.7	10.6	9.7	-27.1
Slovak Republic	–	1.6	1.7	1.6	1.7	–
Other Europe	82.3	21.3	101.6	110.4	37.1	-54.9
Belarus	2.7	2.7	1.8	2.6	1.0	-63.0
Croatia	0.5	–	2.7	0.7	2.8	460.0
Moldova	–	–	2.6	2.9	2.4	–
Russian Federation	41.2	–	64.1	70.7	–	–
Serbia and Montenegro	1.3	0.9	0.8	–	–	–
Turkey (9)	18.3	17.7	16.7	16.3	12.7	-30.6
Ukraine	18.3	–	12.9	17.2	18.2	-0.5

Source: UNESCO

## Notes:

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

Table 21  
Number of border violation related apprehensions in selected Central and Eastern European countries, 2001-04

	2001	2002	2003	2004	% change 2001-02	% change 2002-03	% change 2003-04
Armenia	-	15.8	19.0	-	-	20.5	-
Azerbaijan	7.6	8.3	3.8	2.9	8.6	-53.7	-24.5
Bosnia Herzegovina	-	0.4	1.0	0.9	-	145.4	-8.6
Bulgaria	6.0	6.5	5.1	6.0	8.2	-20.4	15.9
Croatia	17.4	5.9	4.2	-	-66.3	-28.1	-
Cyprus	0.2	0.7	3.7	2.6	298.4	413.9	-31.3
Czech Republic	23.8	14.7	13.2	10.7	-38.2	-10.4	-19
Hungary	16.6	16.0	13.5	-	-4	-15.3	-
Latvia	7.8	9.7	8.6	-	24.2	-12	-
Lithuania	1.4	0.8	0.8	0.9	-41.2	0.8	17.9
Poland	5.2	4.3	5.1	5.8	-18.2	18.6	13.8
Romania	32.0	3.1	2.1	1.5	-90.4	-30.8	-29.9
Yugoslavia	1.3	0.8	0.9	1.1	-35.6	3.9	22.2
Slovak Republic	15.5	15.2	12.5	8.3	-2	-18	-33.3
Slovenia	20.9	6.9	5.0	5.7	-67	-27.2	13.2
Turkey	92.4	82.8	56.2	61.2	-10.3	-32.1	8.9
Ukraine	12.6	9.6	9.6	8.5	-23.6	0	-11.5
Total	260.7	201.5	164.4	116.1	-22.7	-18.4	-29.4

Source: ICMPD



Table 22  
Enforcement action against irregular migration in selected Western and Central European countries, 1995-2004 (thousands)

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
<i>Apprehensions at border</i>										
Germany	29.6	27.0	35.2	40.2	37.8	31.5	28.6	22.6	20.0	18.2
<i>Refusals of entry</i>										
Austria	134.7	134.0	80.7	25.5	24.7	19.1	17.6	–	22.4	26.3
Italy (1)	–	–	–	31.7	37.7	27.2	34.0	31.8	25.7	–
Switzerland	10.4	9.9	9.8	9.8	9.1	10.1	8.8	8.7	8.4	10.3
<i>Enforcement actions against illegal entry</i>										
United Kingdom	10.8	14.6	14.4	16.5	21.2	47.3	69.9	48.1	–	36.6

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

Notes:

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

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

Number	Time period	Region	Based on (assumptions)	Source
100,000 to 200,000	1993	to W. European states	All, (smuggled) calculated by 15 to 30% of immigrants entering illegally	ICMPD (in Transcrime, 1996 No.8)
100,000 to 220,000	1993	to W. European states	All ( traff ) 15-30% of illegal migrants, 20-40% of a-s without founded claims, make use of traffickers (at some point in journey)	Widgren, 1994:9-10 (prepared for IOM)
300 000	Annually	to EU and Central Europe	Women (Smug.)	Economist.com, 2000
400 000	Last Decade	out of Ukraine	Women, estimate from Ukranian Ministry of Interior	Trafficking in Migrants, No.23, IOM (2001:5)
4000	Annually	into US from NIS & E.Europe	Women & Children	CIA briefing, (1999) Global Trafficking in Women and Children (in O'Neill Richard 1999)
2,000 - 6,000	Annually	into Italy	Women, into sex industry (estimated from per cent of irregular female migrants who enter the sex industry p.a.)	Trafficking in Migrants, No.23, IOM (2001:6)
400,000+	1999	into European Union	All (smuggled into) on EU apprehension data (equation = 1 is caught, 2 pass)	Heckmann et al. (2000:5)
50,000-	1993	into European Union	All (smuggled into) on EU apprehension data (equation = 1 is caught, 2 pass)	Heckmann et al. (2000:5)
1 million+	Annually	Globally	Women & Girls (Smug.) (most ending up in US)	UN and FBI statistics, (Tehran Times, March 18, 2001)
1 million+	Annually	Globally	Women & Girls, for sexual exploitation in sex industries	Hughes, 2001 (from International Agencies and governmental 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

Table 24  
Global Costs for Human Smuggling and Trafficking

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

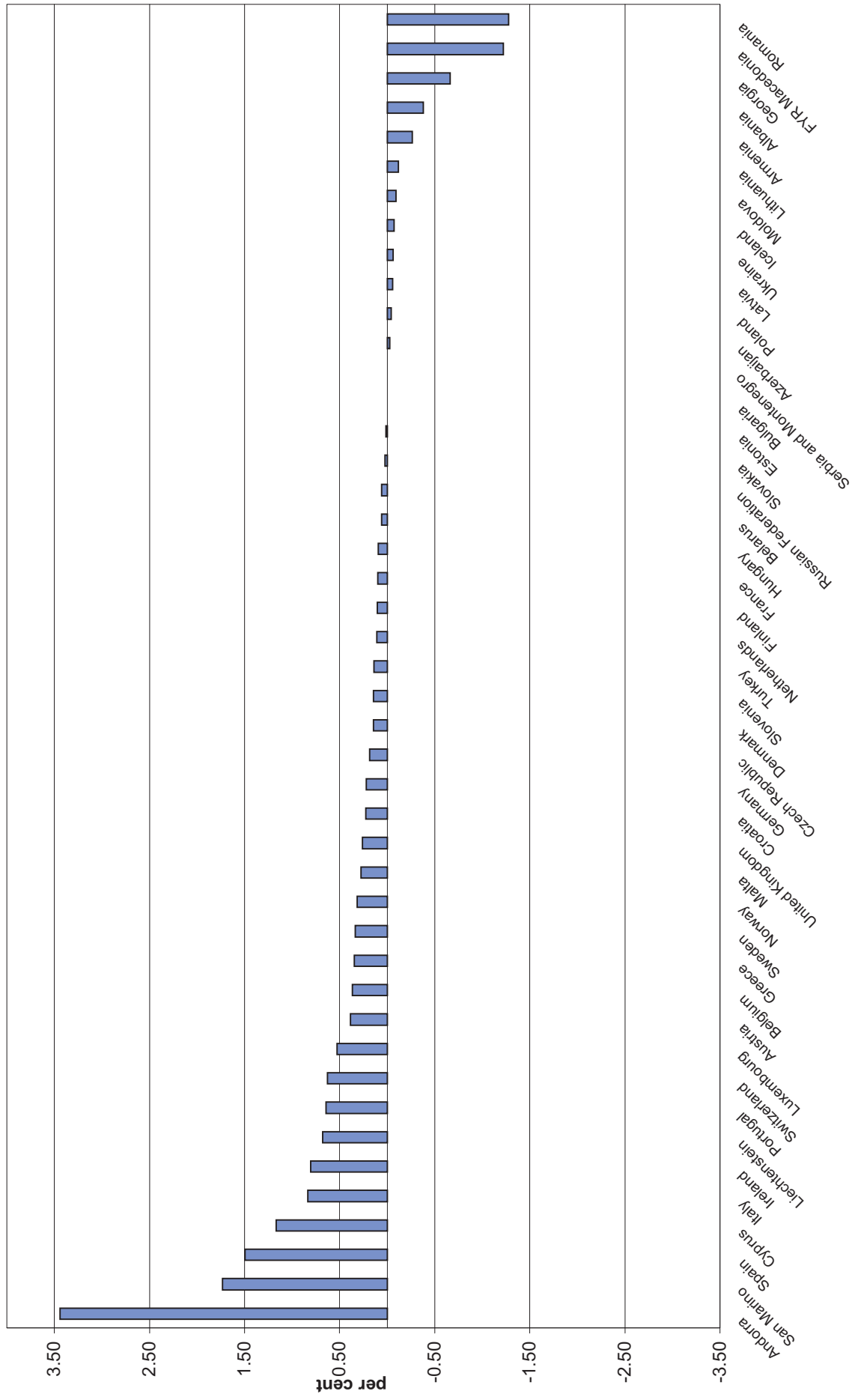
Source: Various documentary sources, compiled by the Migration Research Unit, 2004



## **GRAPHES**

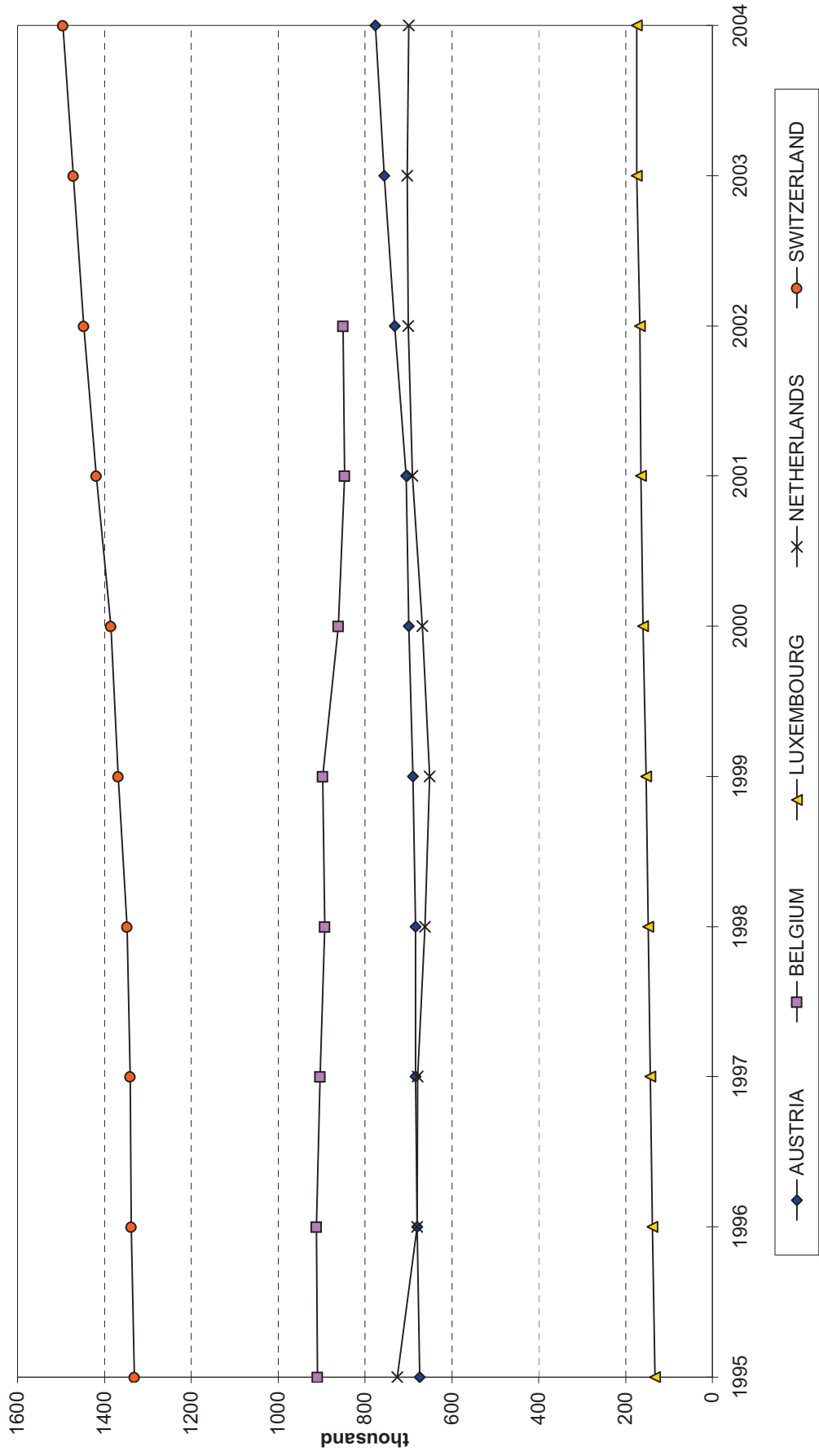


**FIGURE 1 - NET MIGRATION AS A COMPONENT OF AVERAGE ANNUAL POPULATION GROWTH IN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 2002-2004**



For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

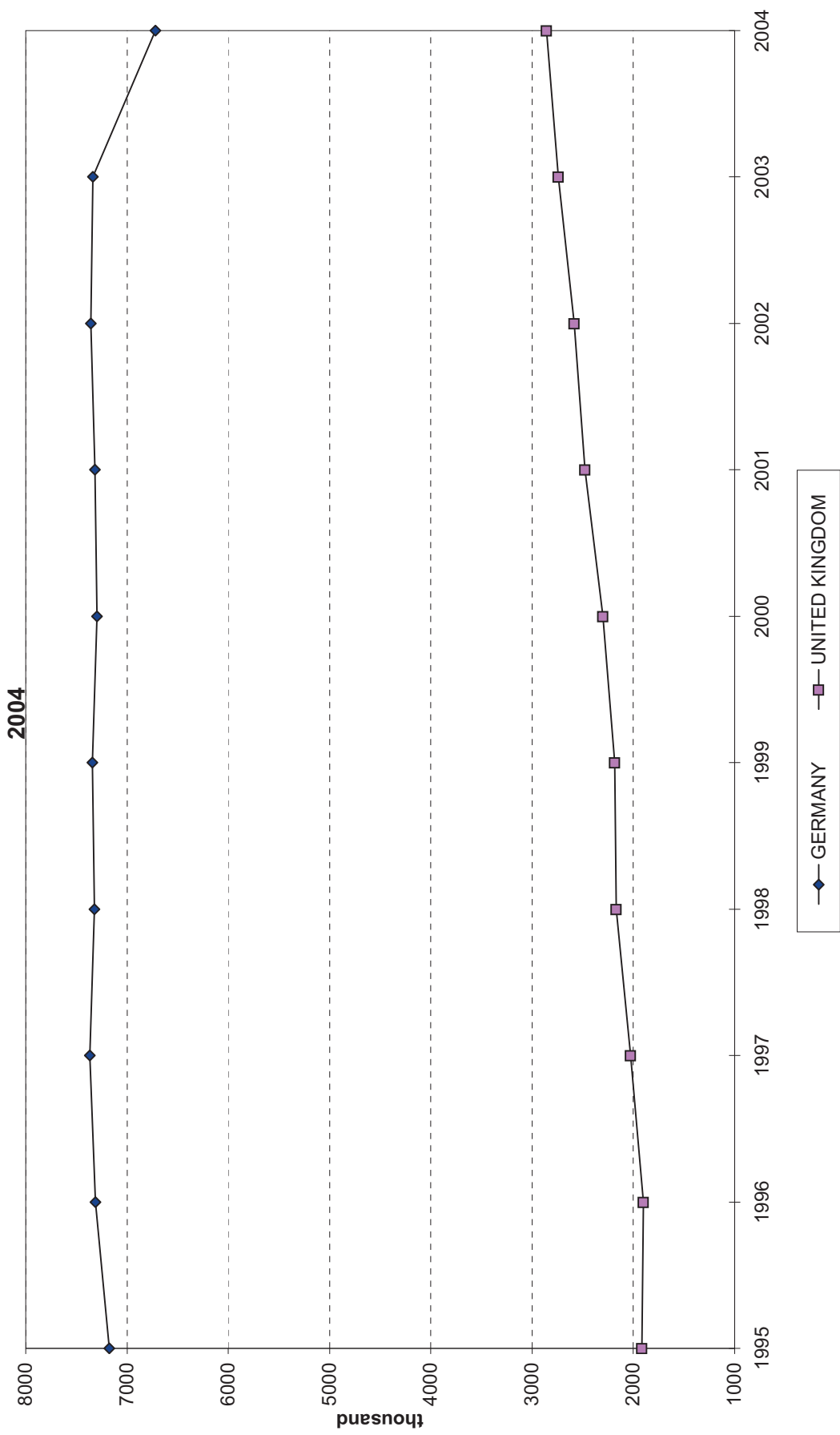
**FIGURE 2a - STOCK OF FOREIGN POPULATION IN SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2004**



For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

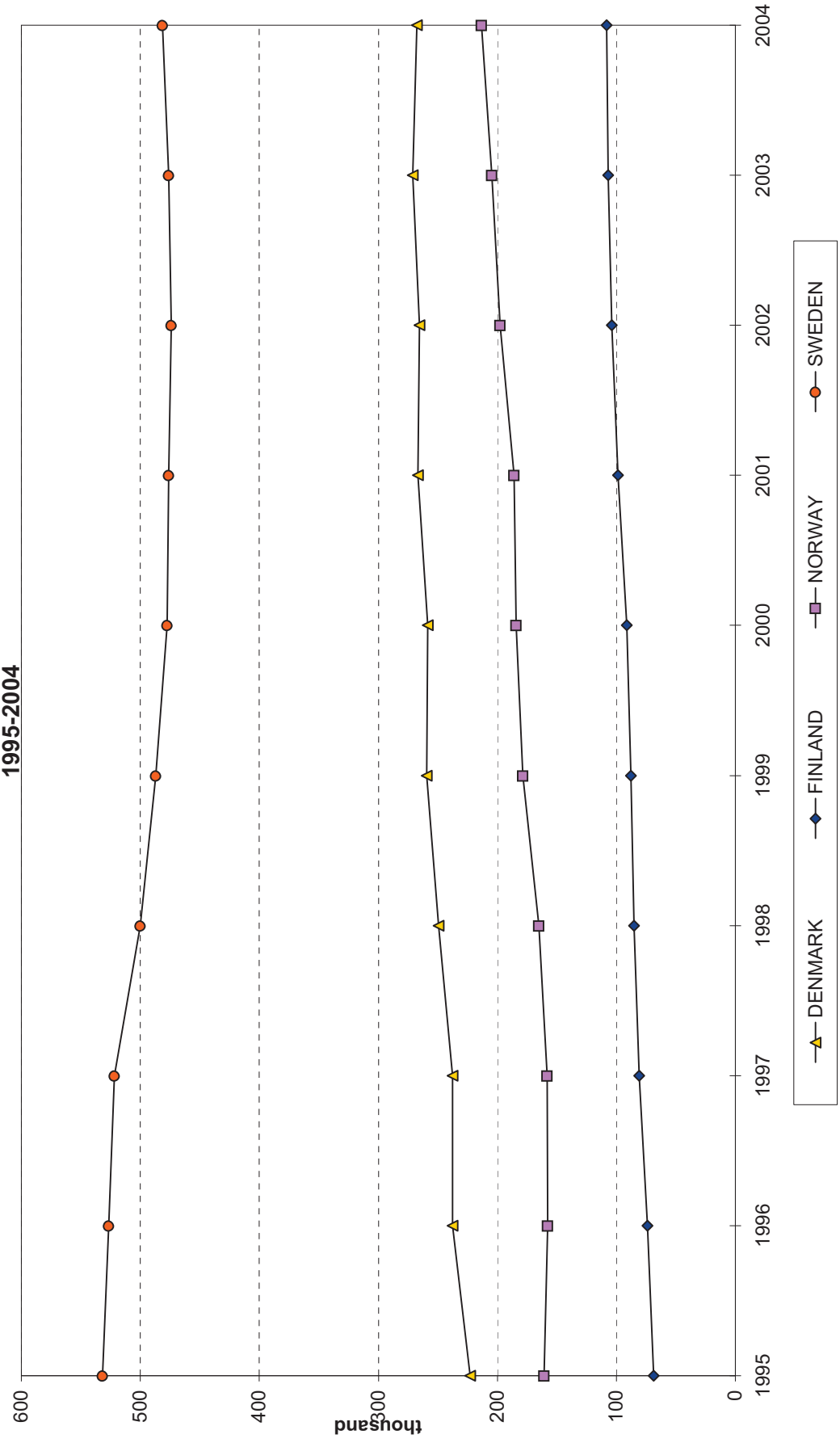


FIGURE 2b - STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION IN GERMANY AND THE UNITED KINGDOM, 1995-



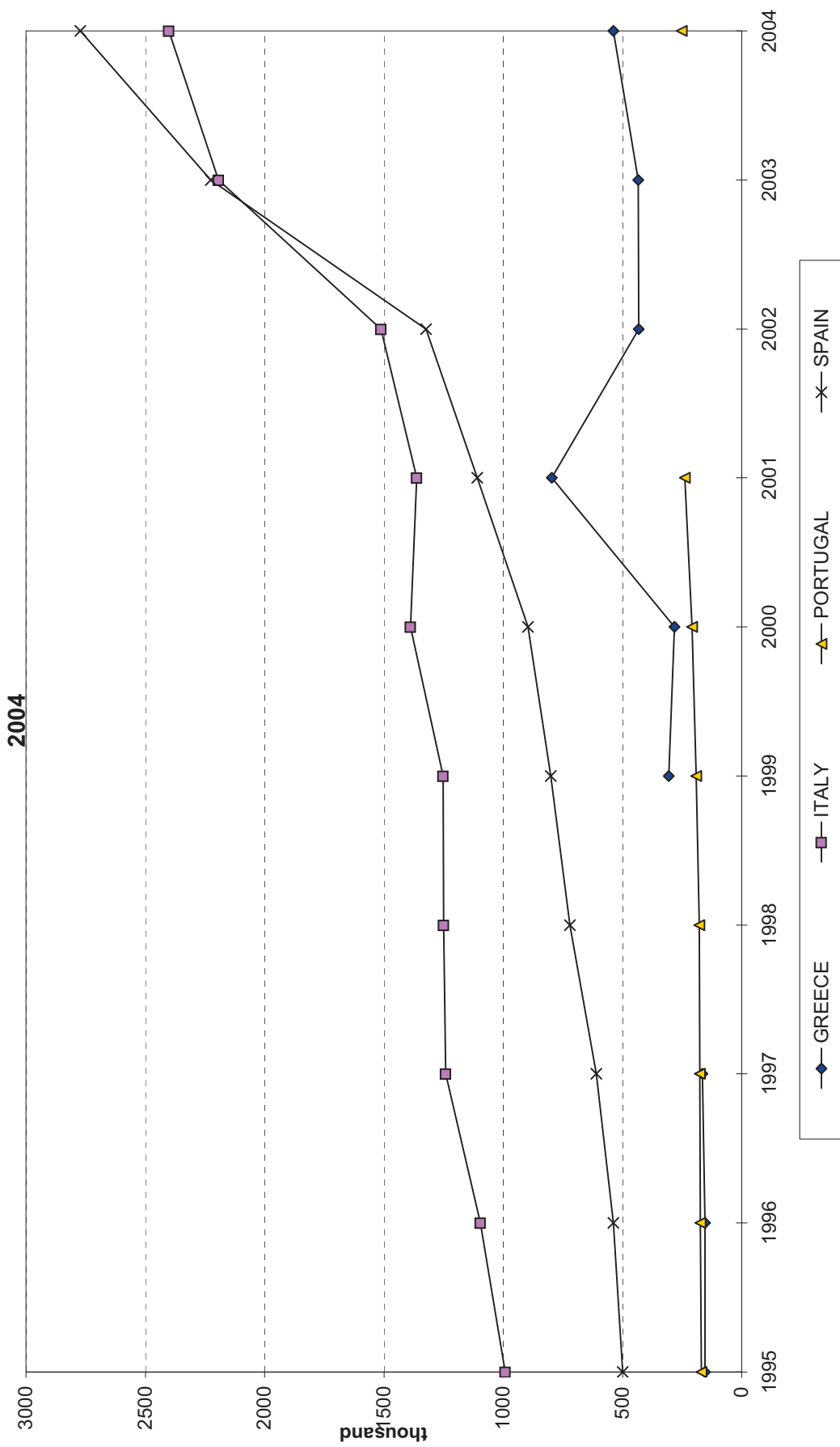
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

**FIGURE 2c - STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION IN SELECTED SCANDINAVIAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2004**



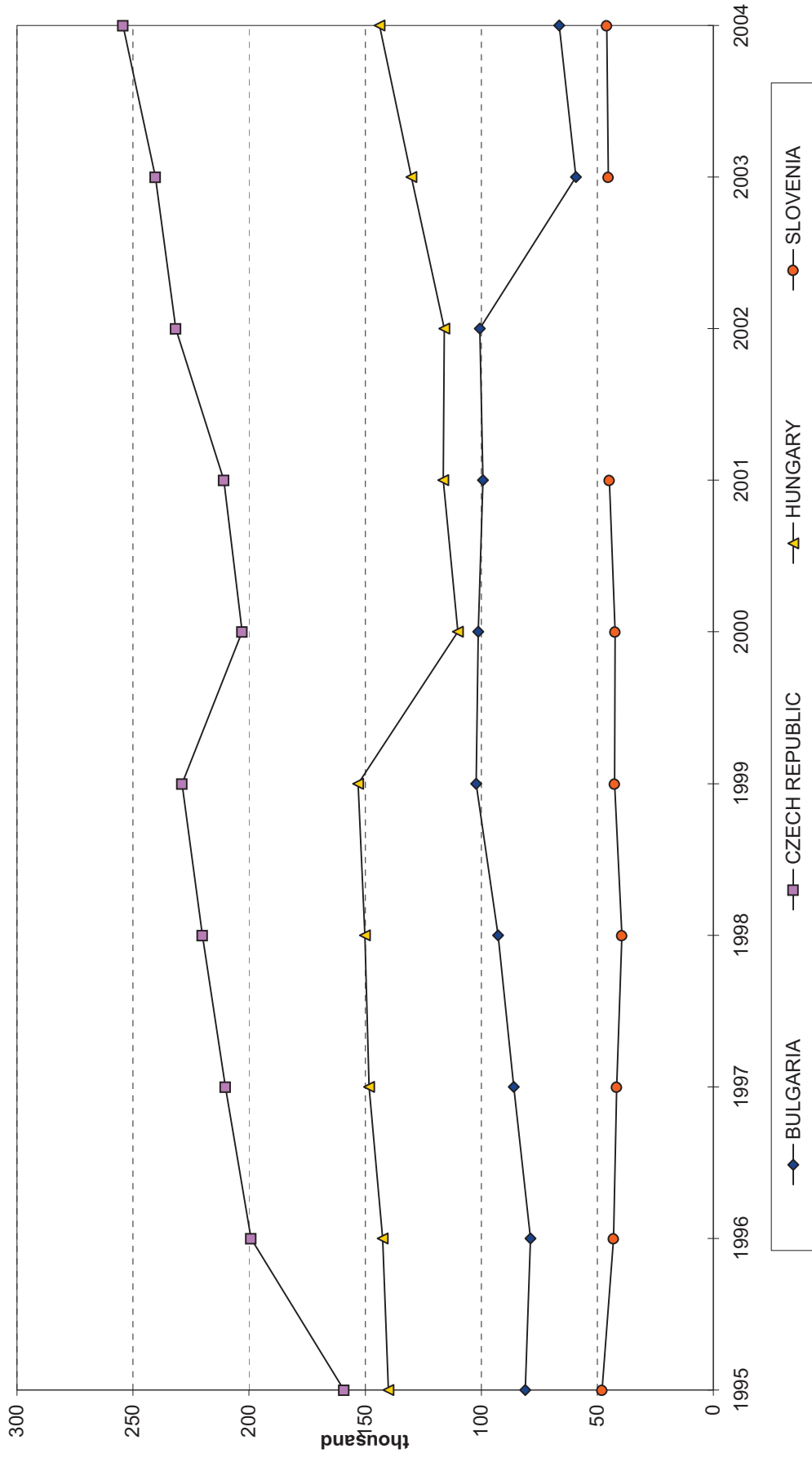
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

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



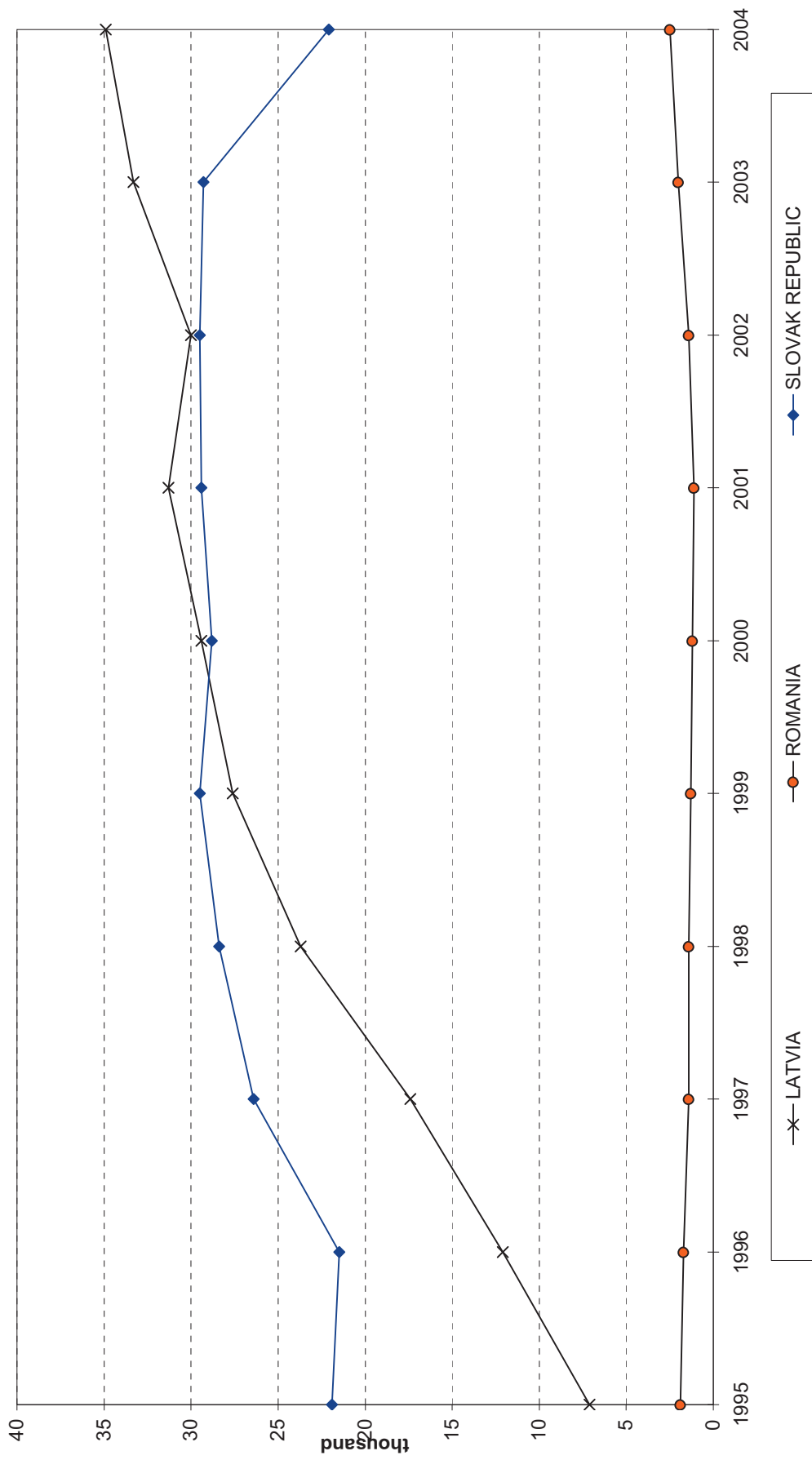
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

**FIGURE 2e - STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION IN SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2004**



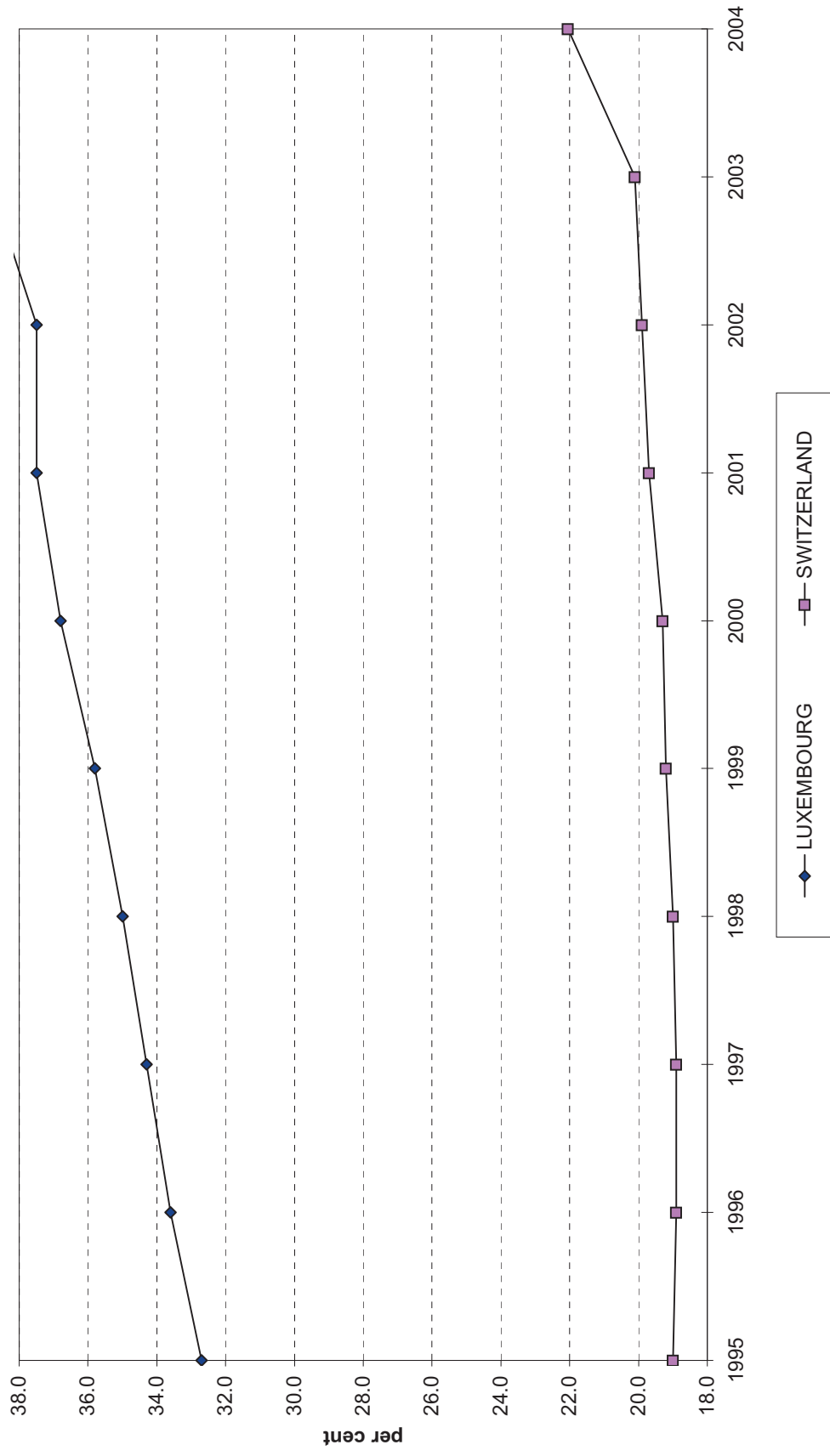
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

**FIGURE 2f - STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION IN SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2004**



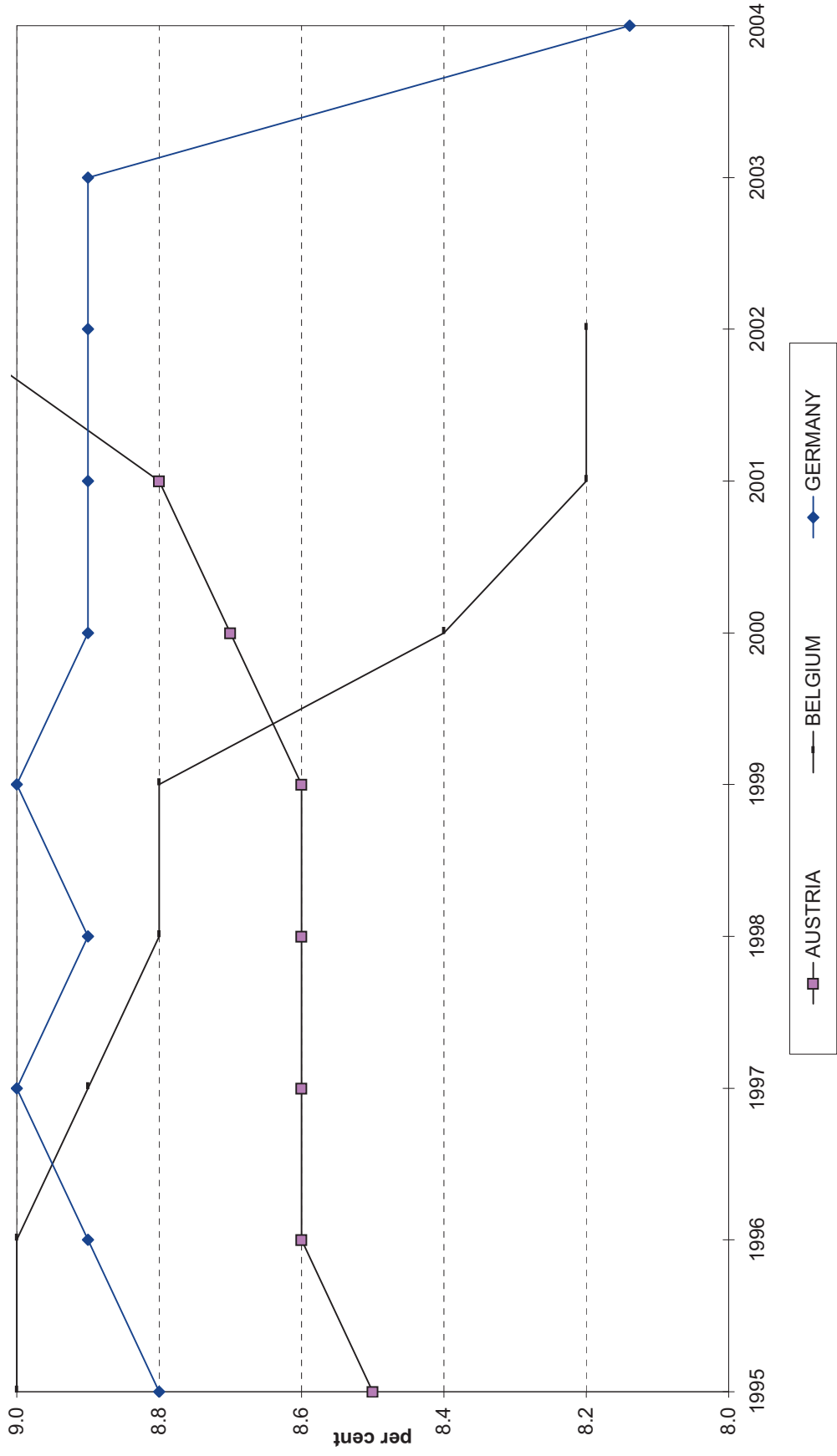
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

**FIGURE 3a - STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL POPULATION  
IN SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2004**



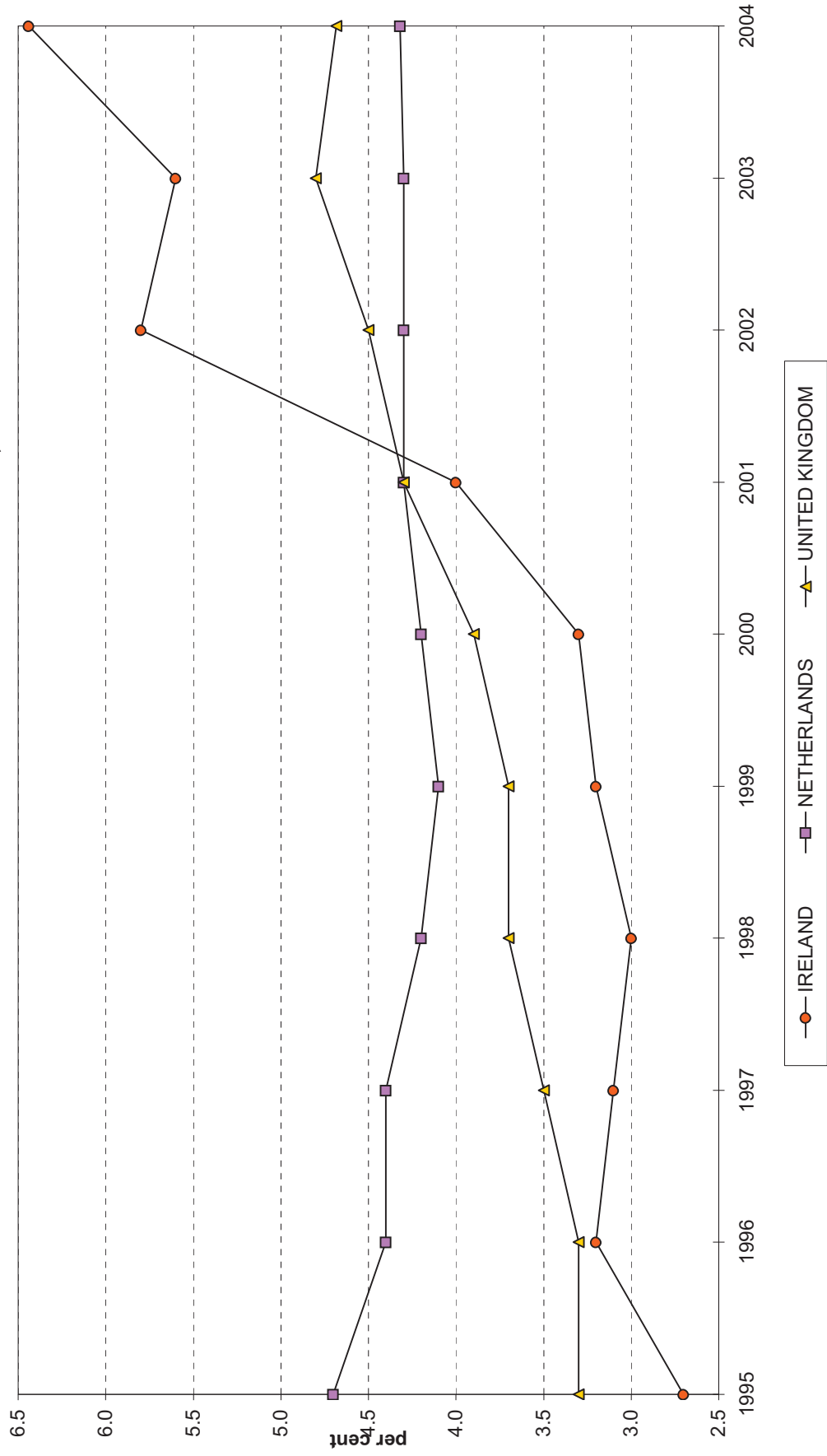
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

**FIGURE 3b - STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL POPULATION  
IN SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2004**



For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

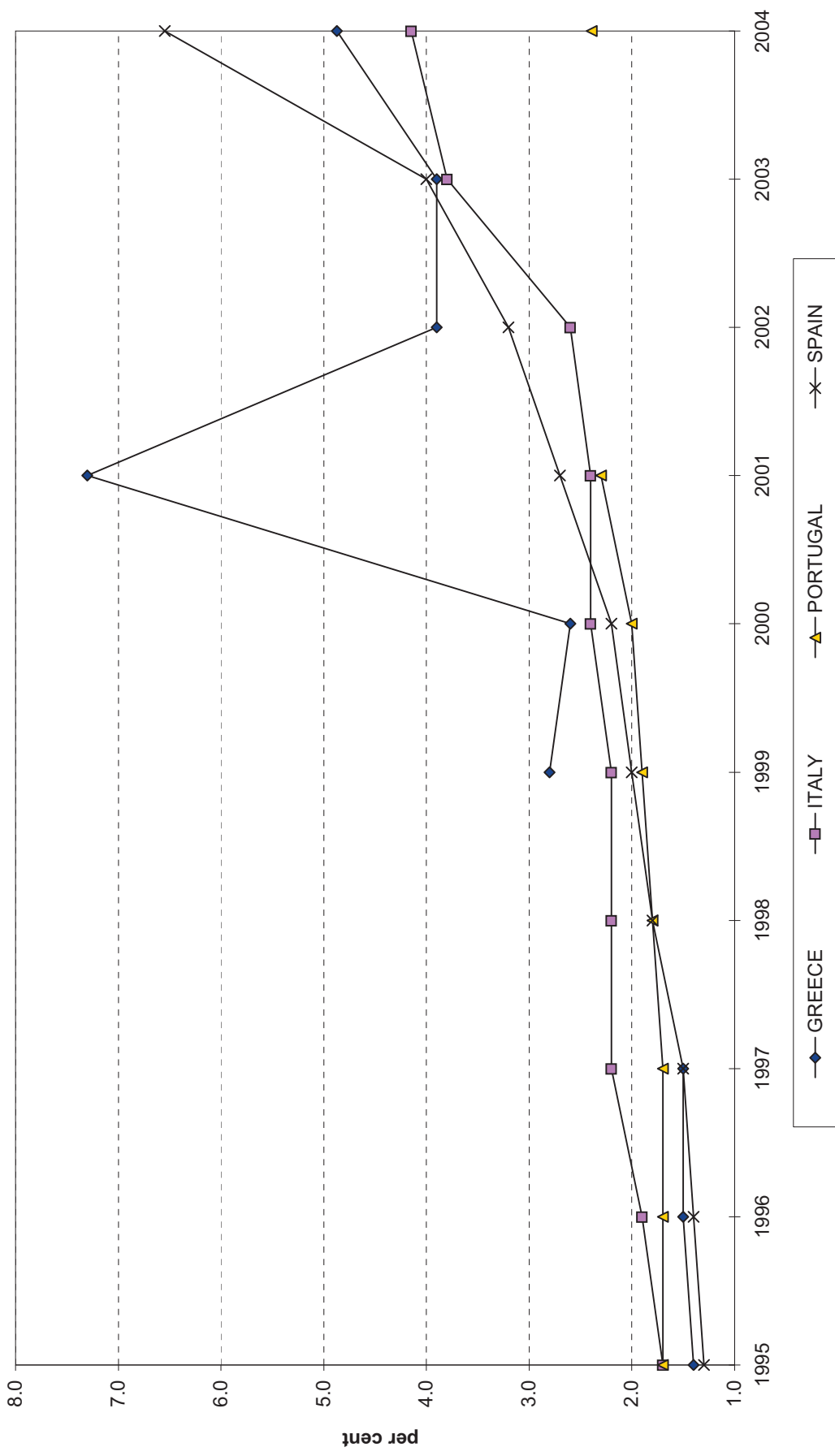
**FIGURE 3c - STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL POPULATION  
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For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

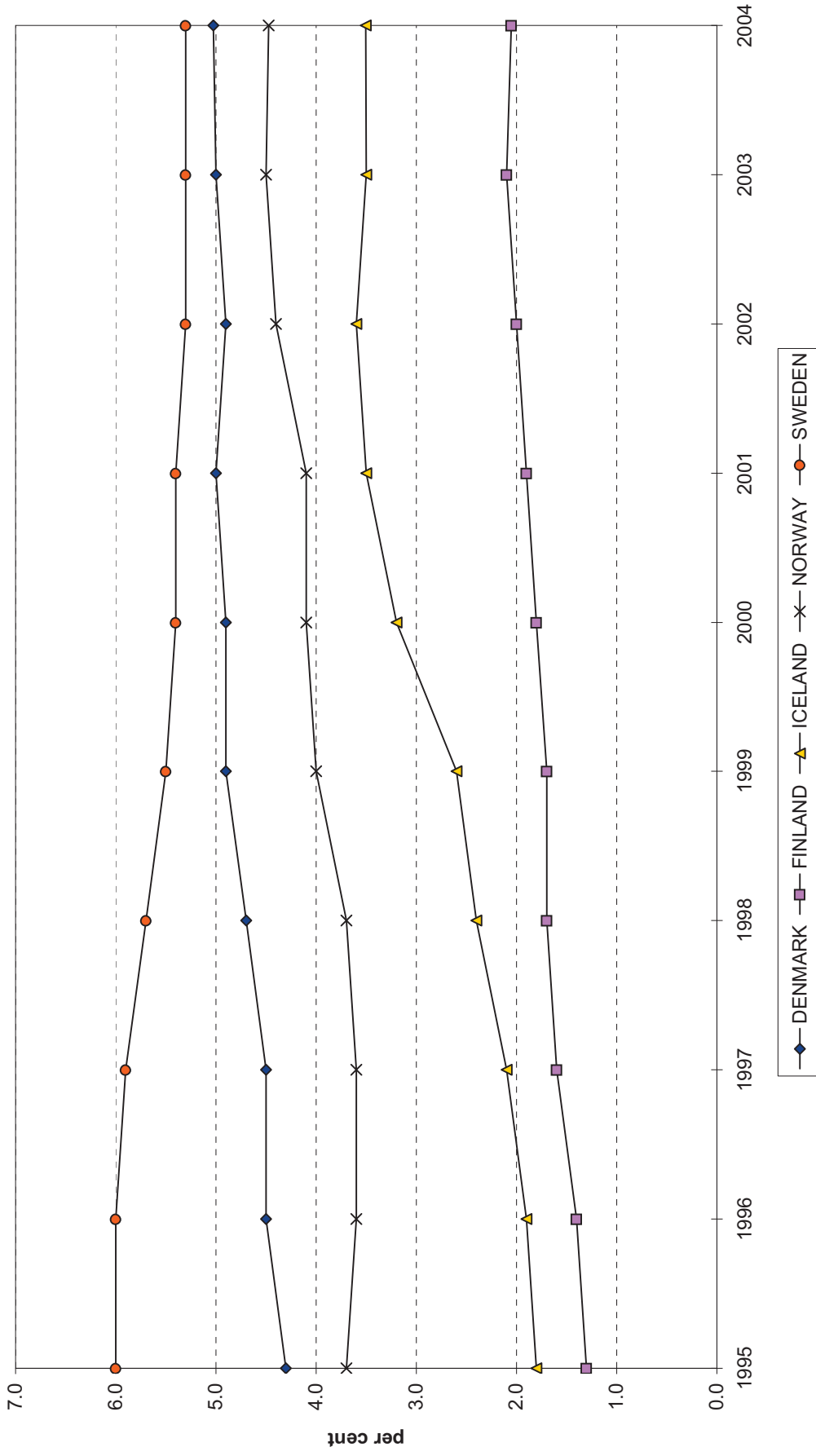


**FIGURE 3d - STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL POPULATION  
IN SELECTED MEDITERRANEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2004**



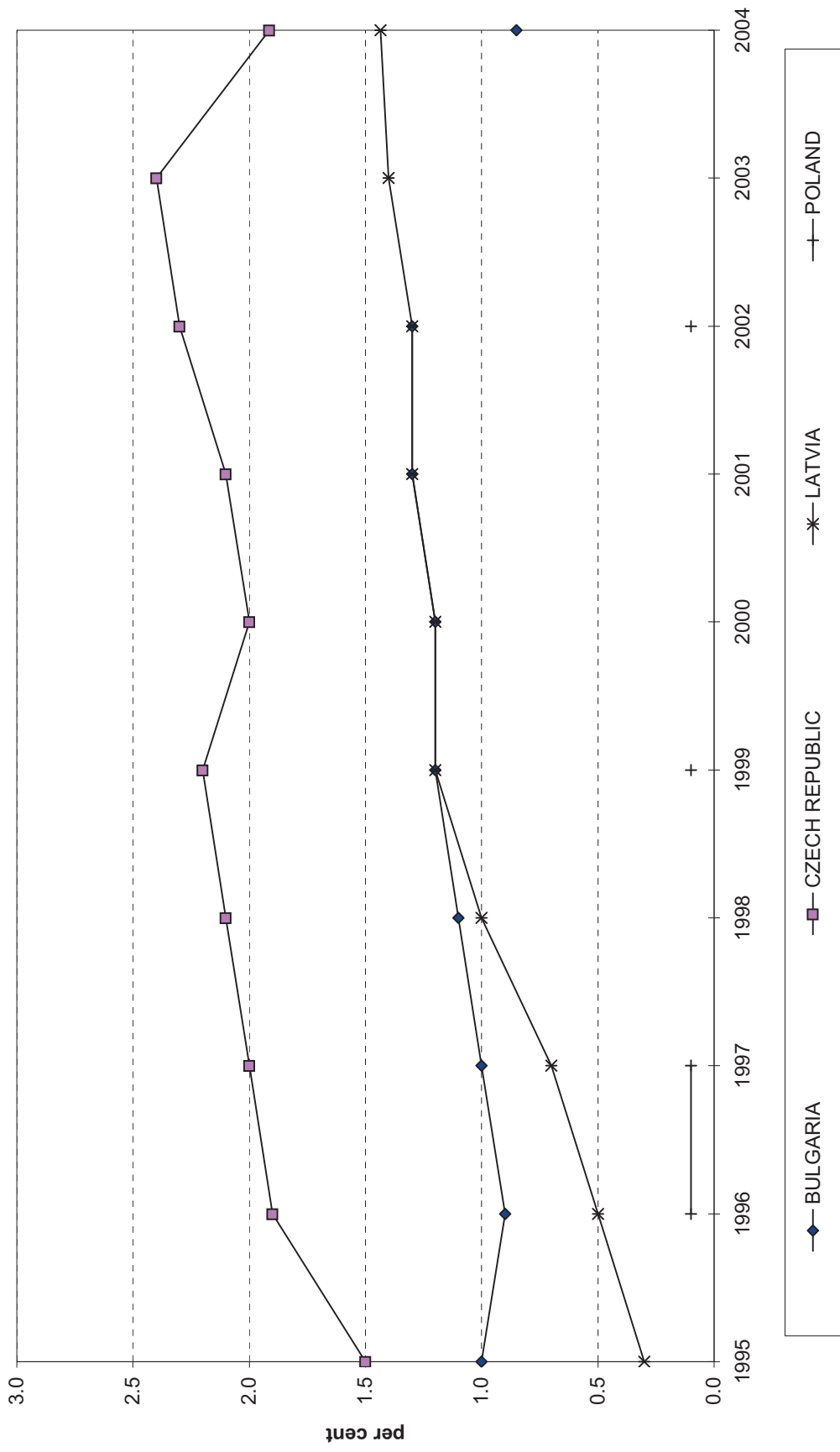
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

**FIGURE 3e - STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL POPULATION  
IN SELECTED NORTHERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2004**



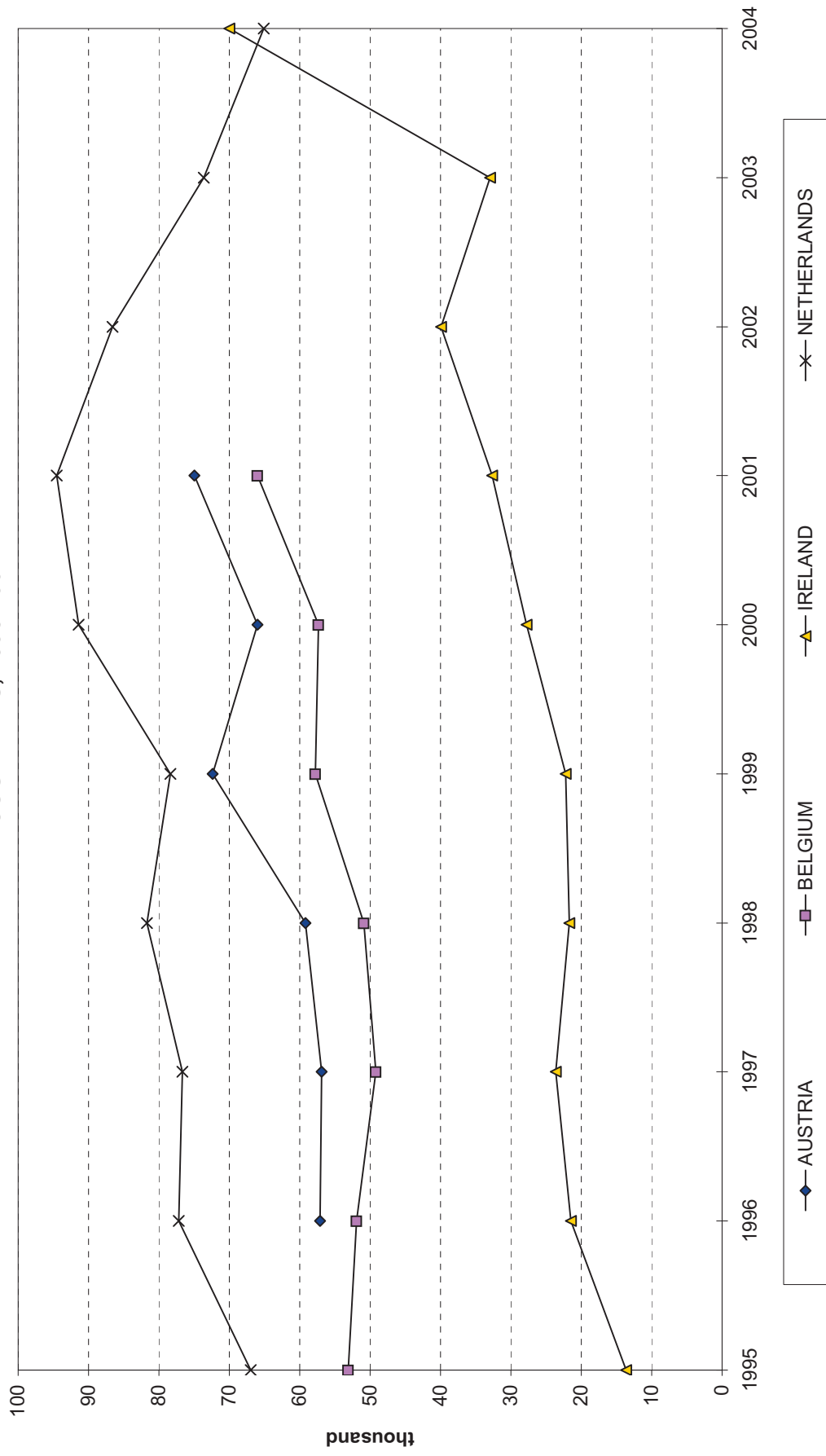
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

**FIGURE 3f - STOCKS OF FOREIGN POPULATION AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL POPULATION  
IN SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2004**



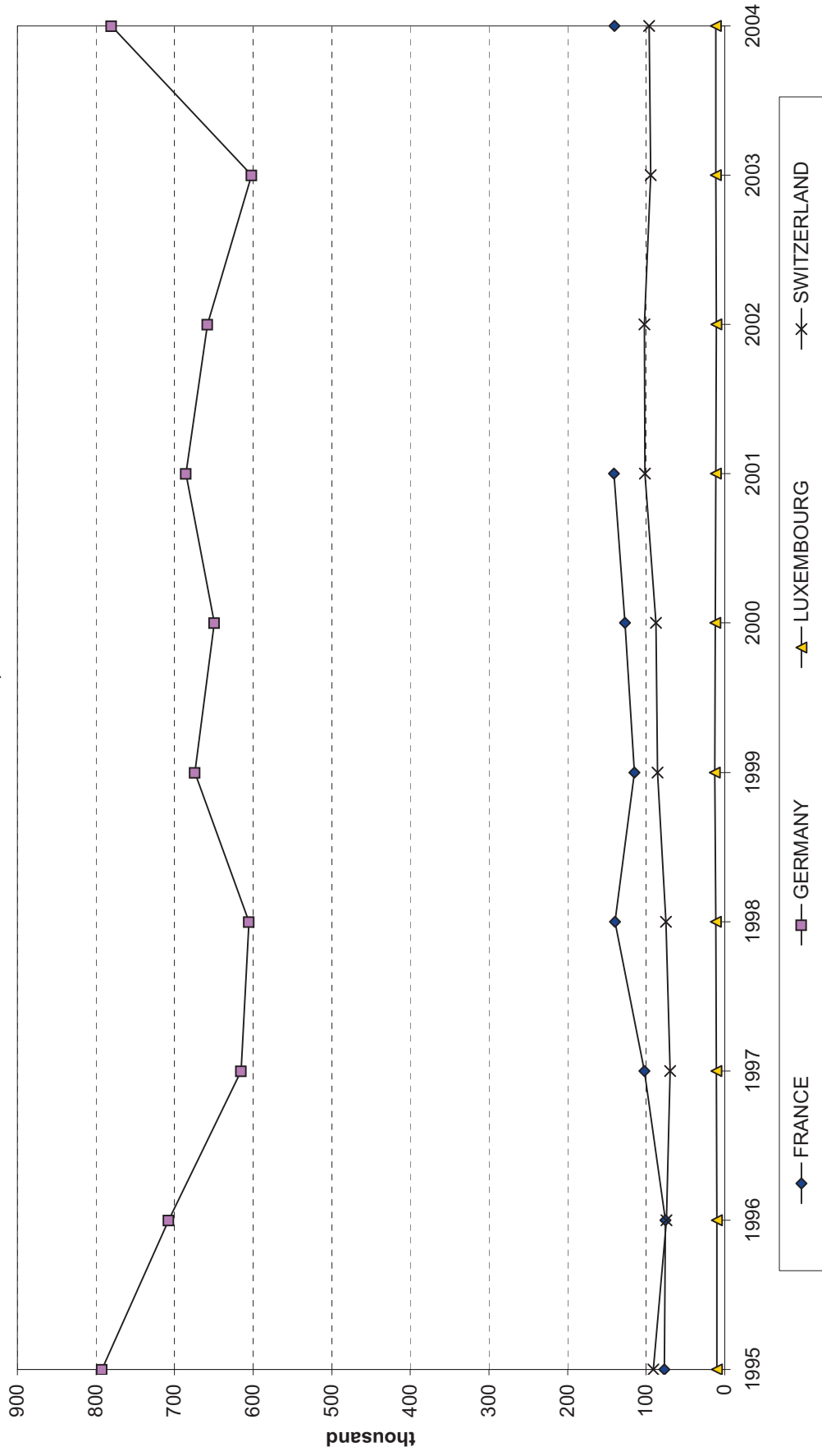
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

**FIGURE 4a - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2004**



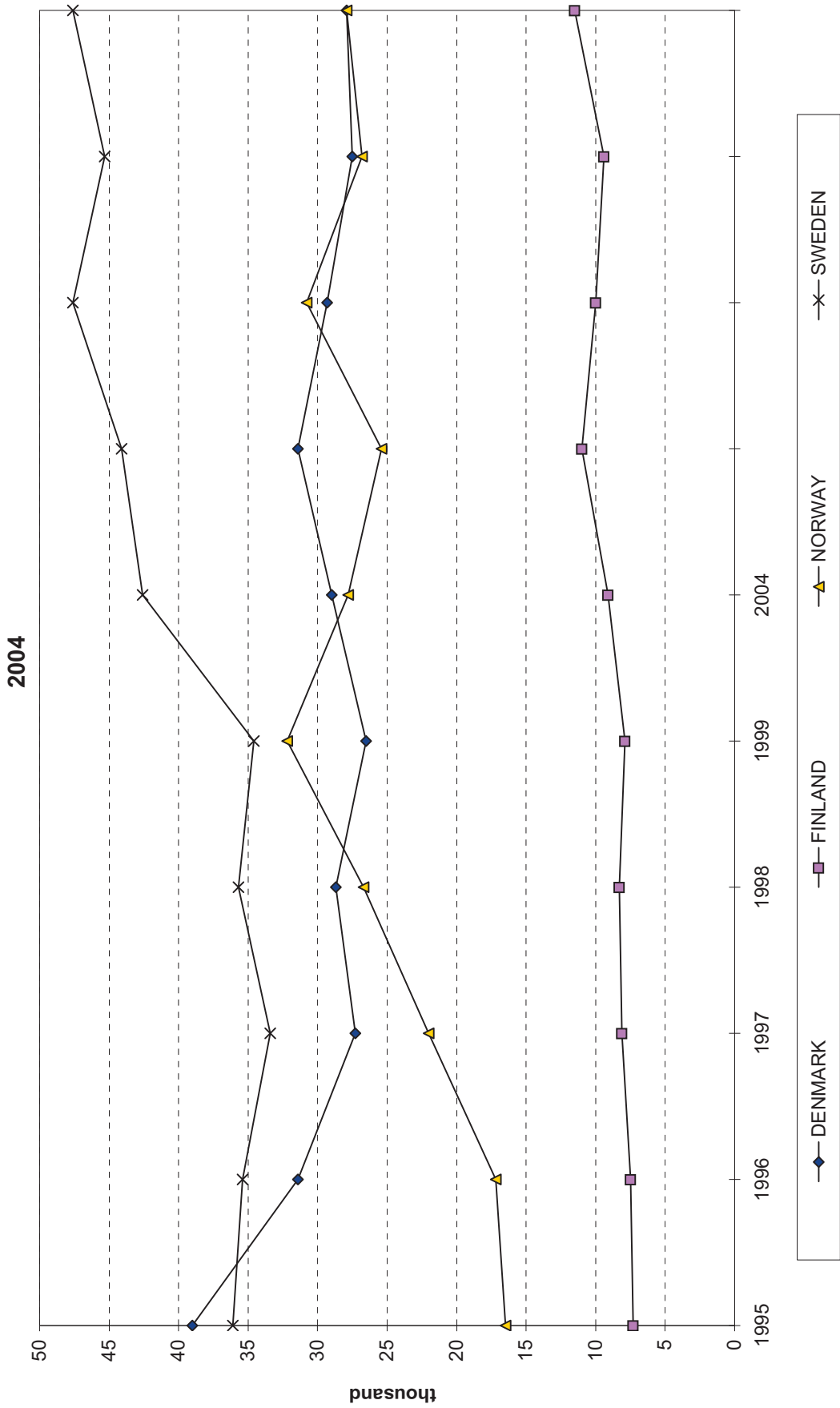
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

**FIGURE 4b - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2004**



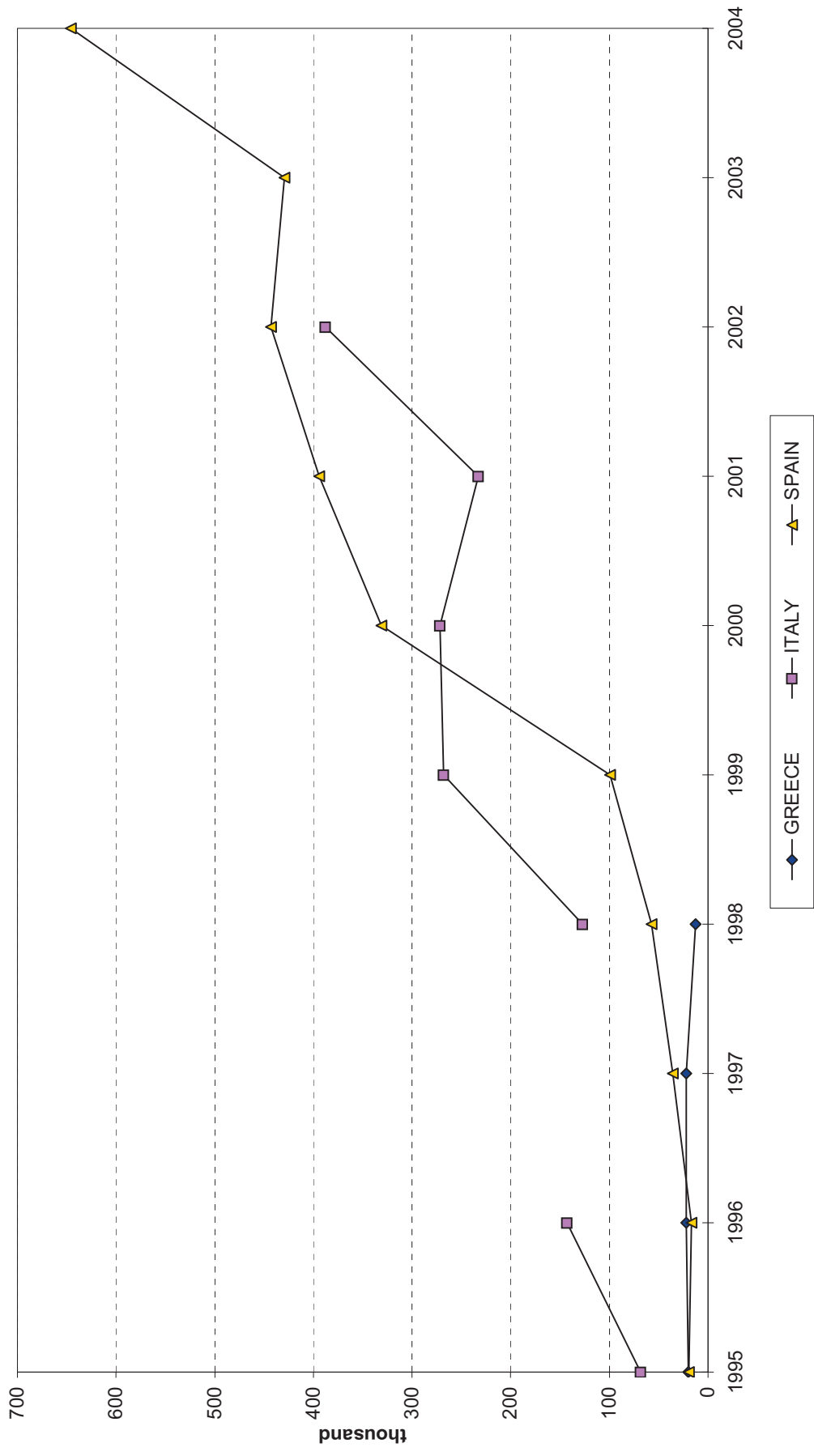
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

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



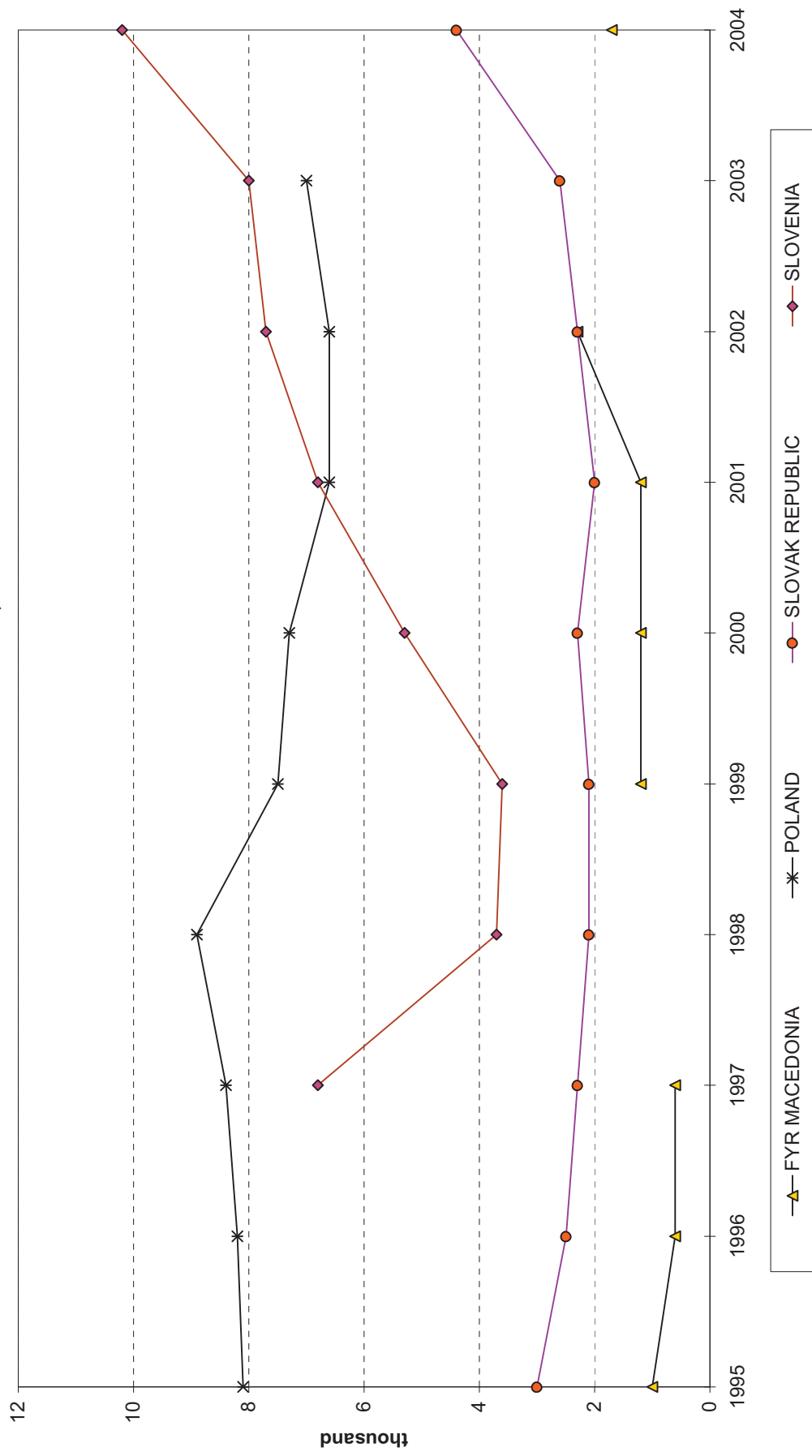
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

**FIGURE 4d - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO SELECTED MEDITERRANEAN COUNTRIES,  
1995-2004**



For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

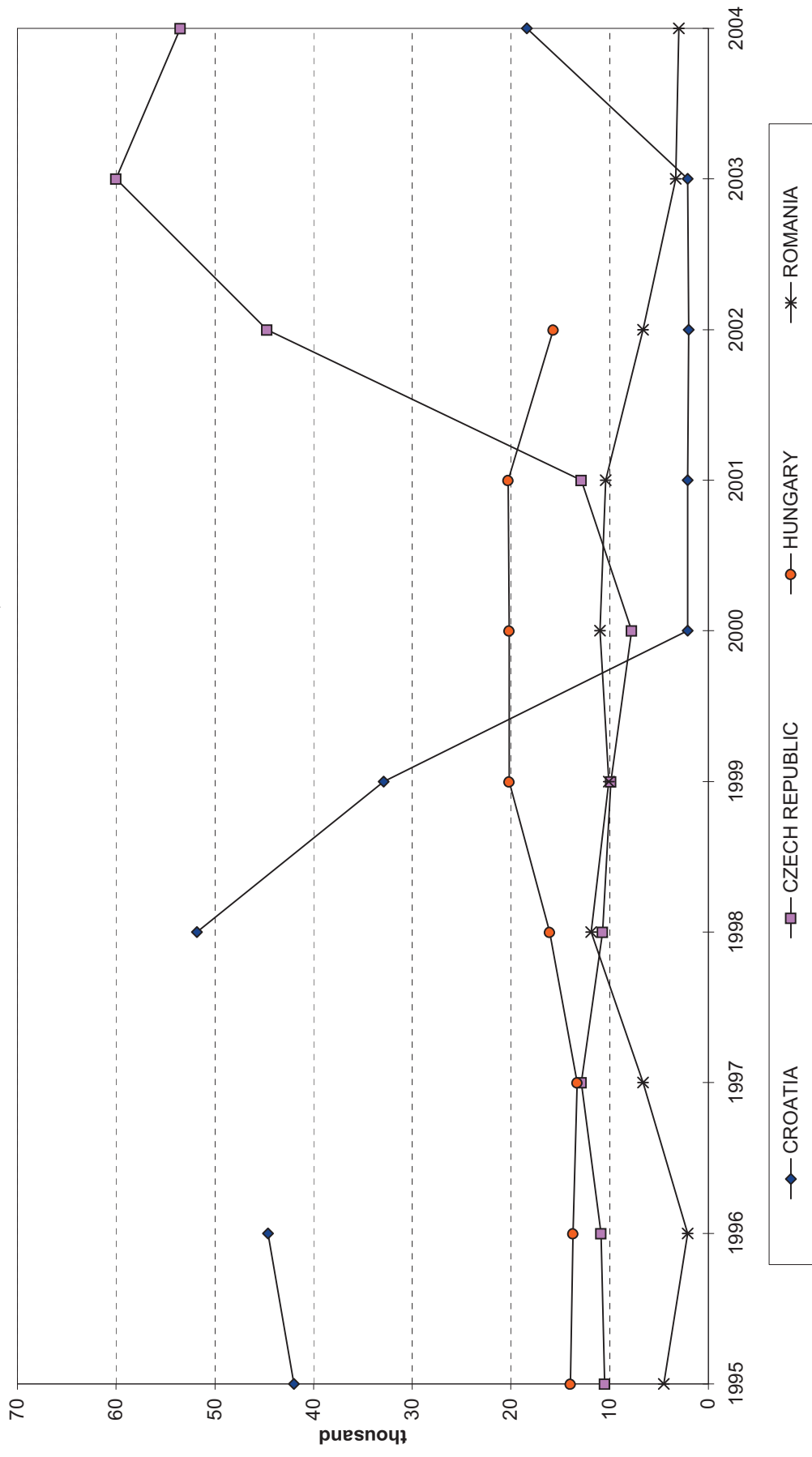
**FIGURE 4e - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2004**



For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

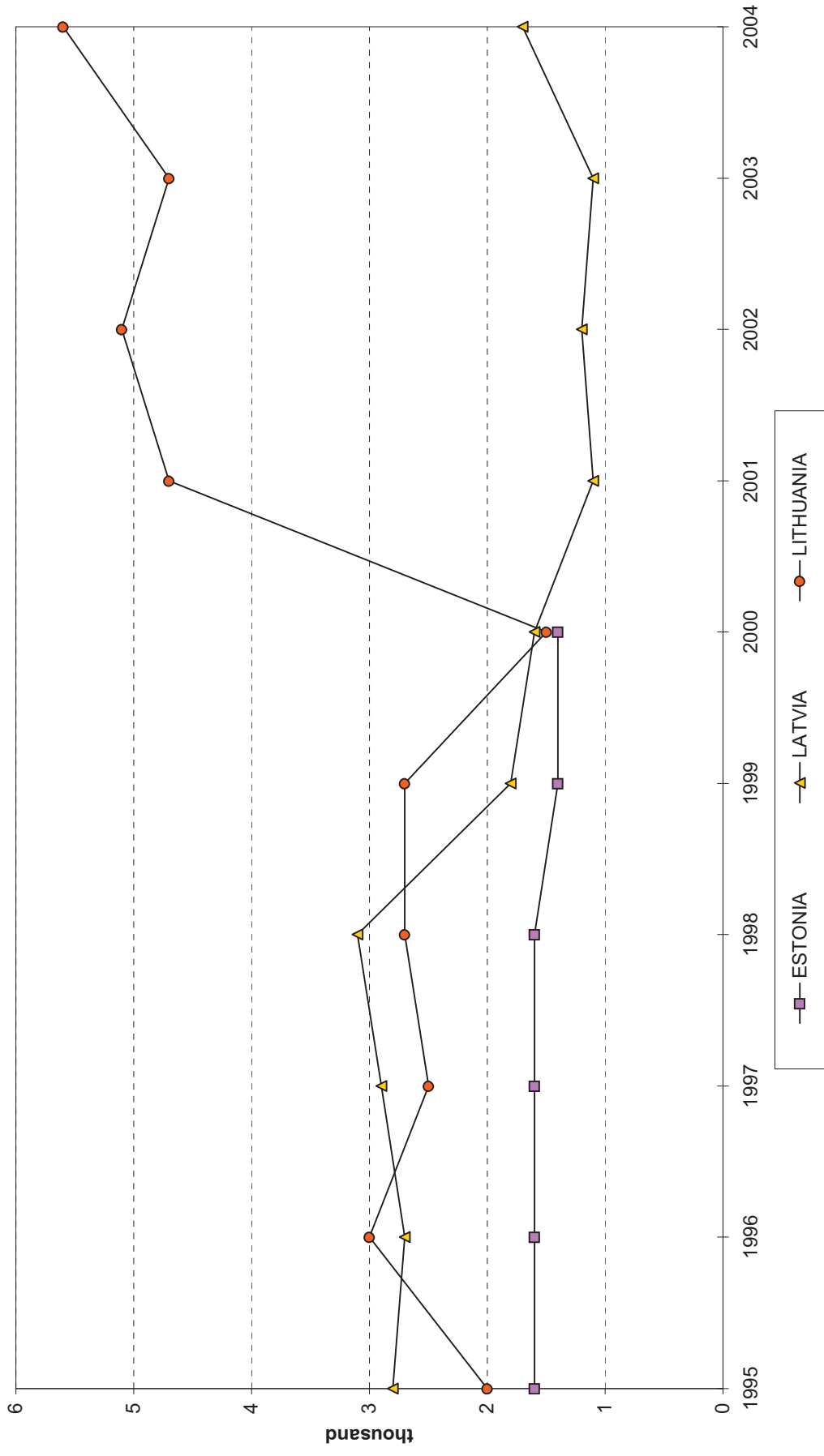


FIGURE 4f - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2004



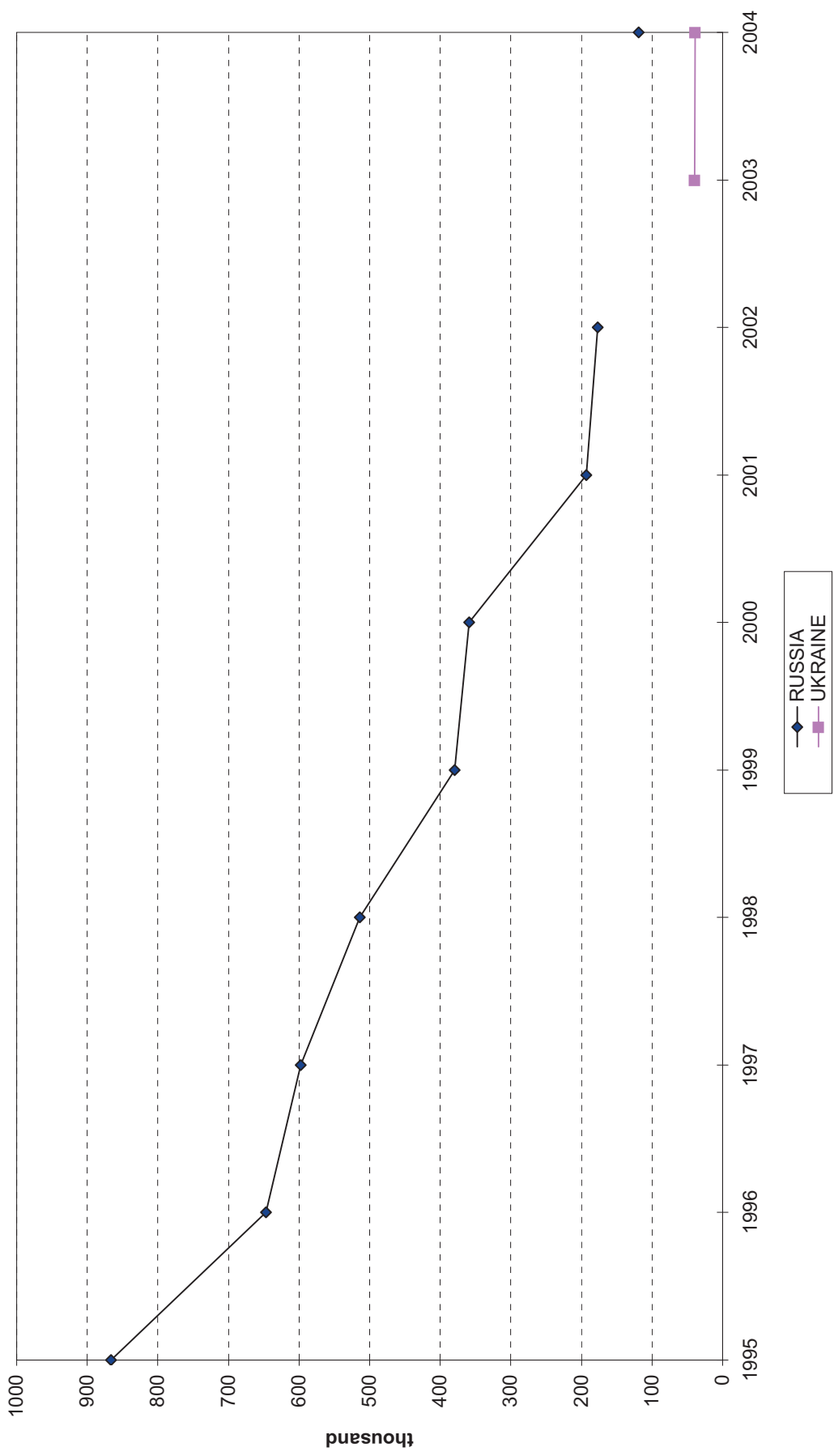
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 4g - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO THE BALTIC STATES, 1995-2004



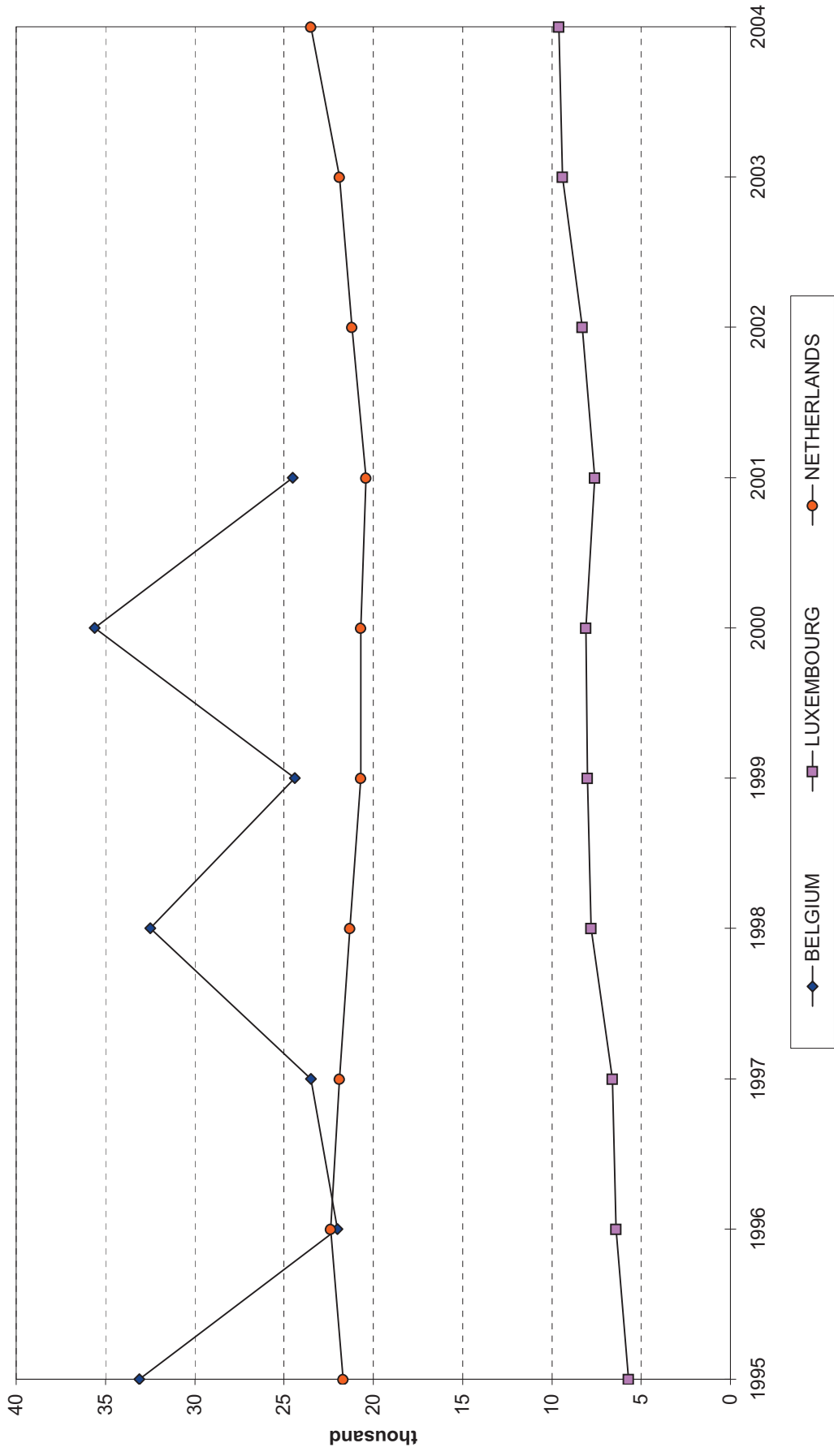
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 4h - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO RUSSIA AND UKRAINE 1995-2004



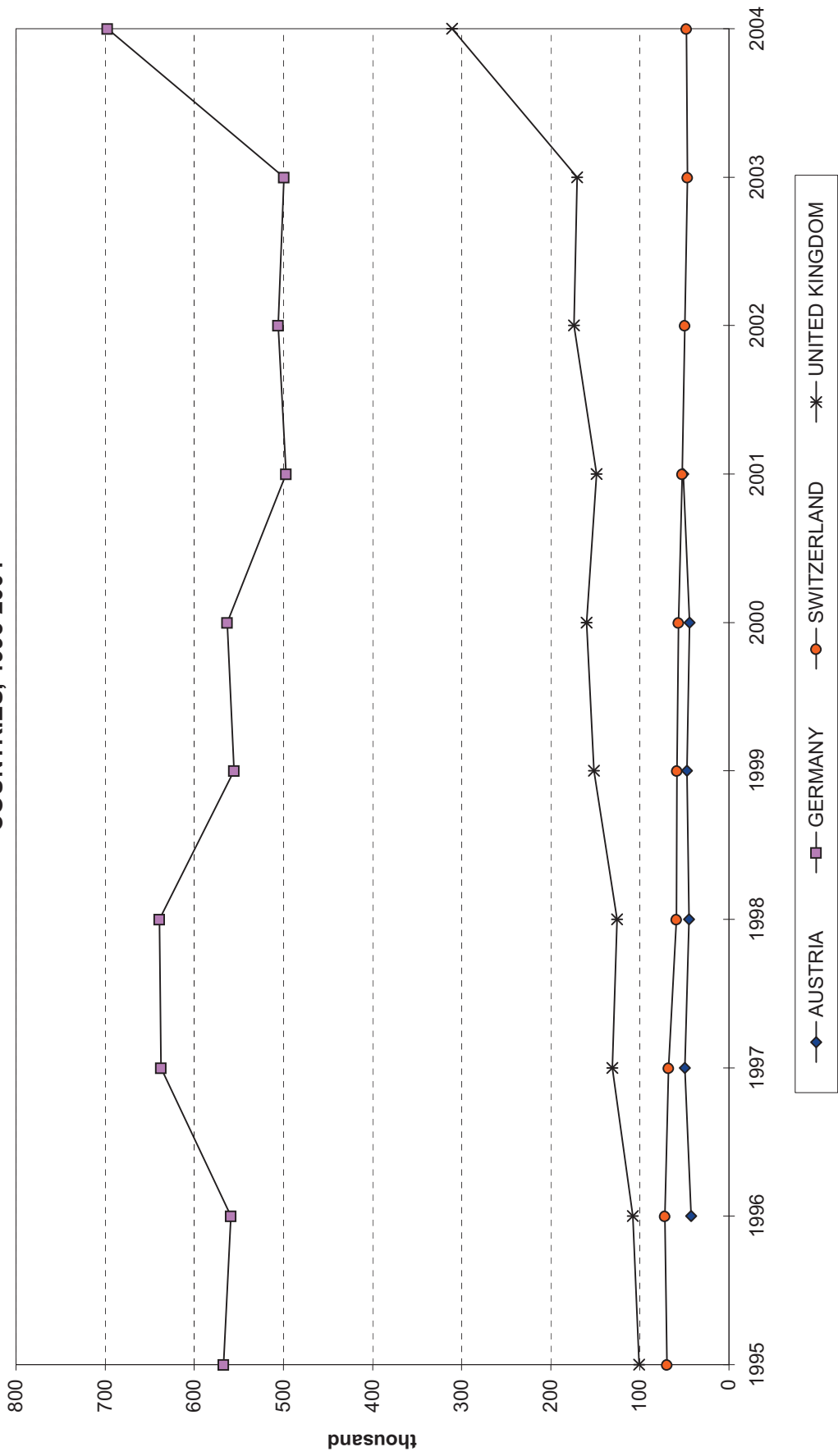
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

**FIGURE 5a - OUTFLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION FROM THE BENELUX COUNTRIES, 1995-2004**



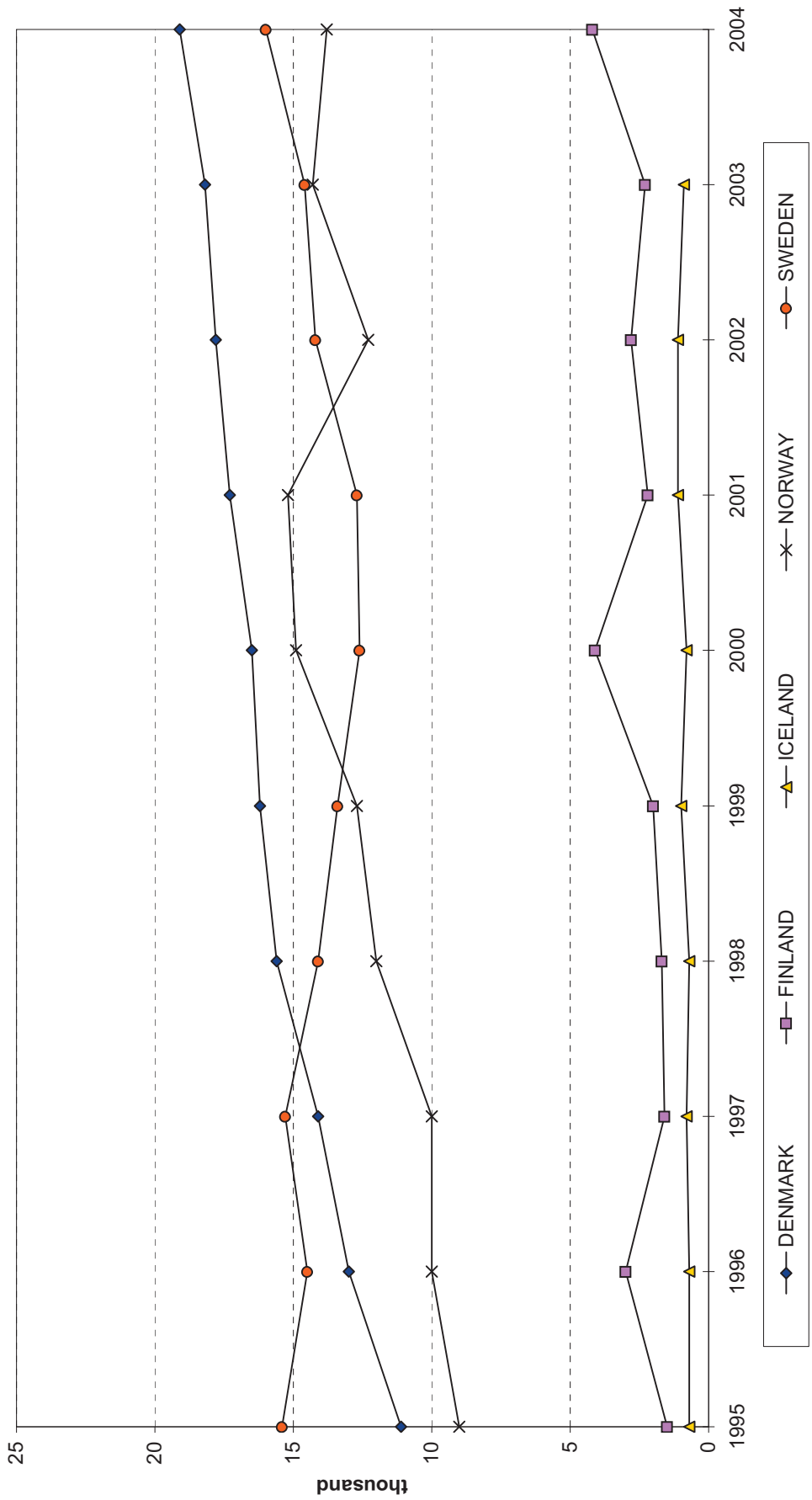
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

**FIGURE 5b - OUTFLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION FROM SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2004**



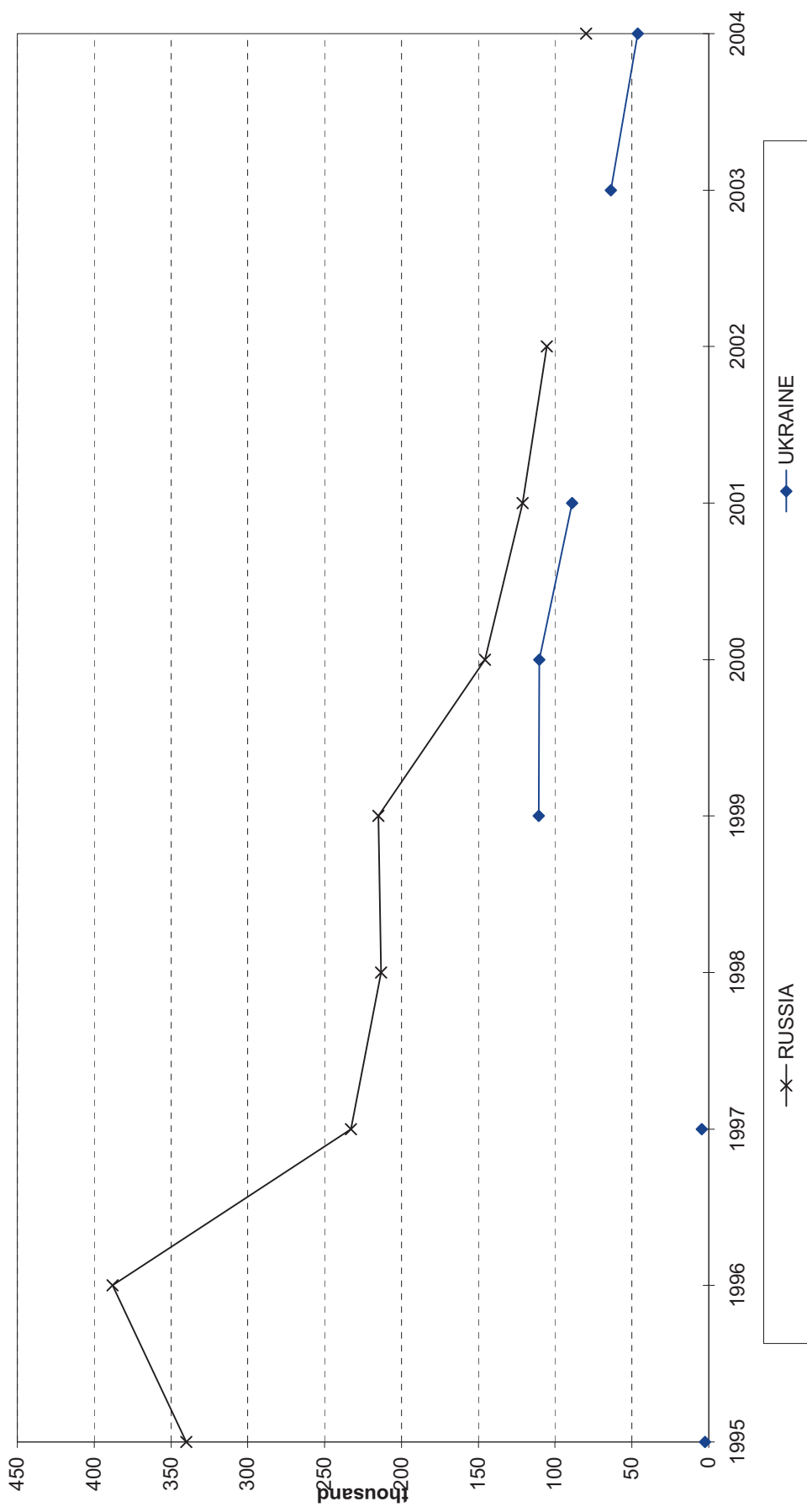
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

**FIGURE 5c - OUTFLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION FROM SELECTED NORTHERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2004**



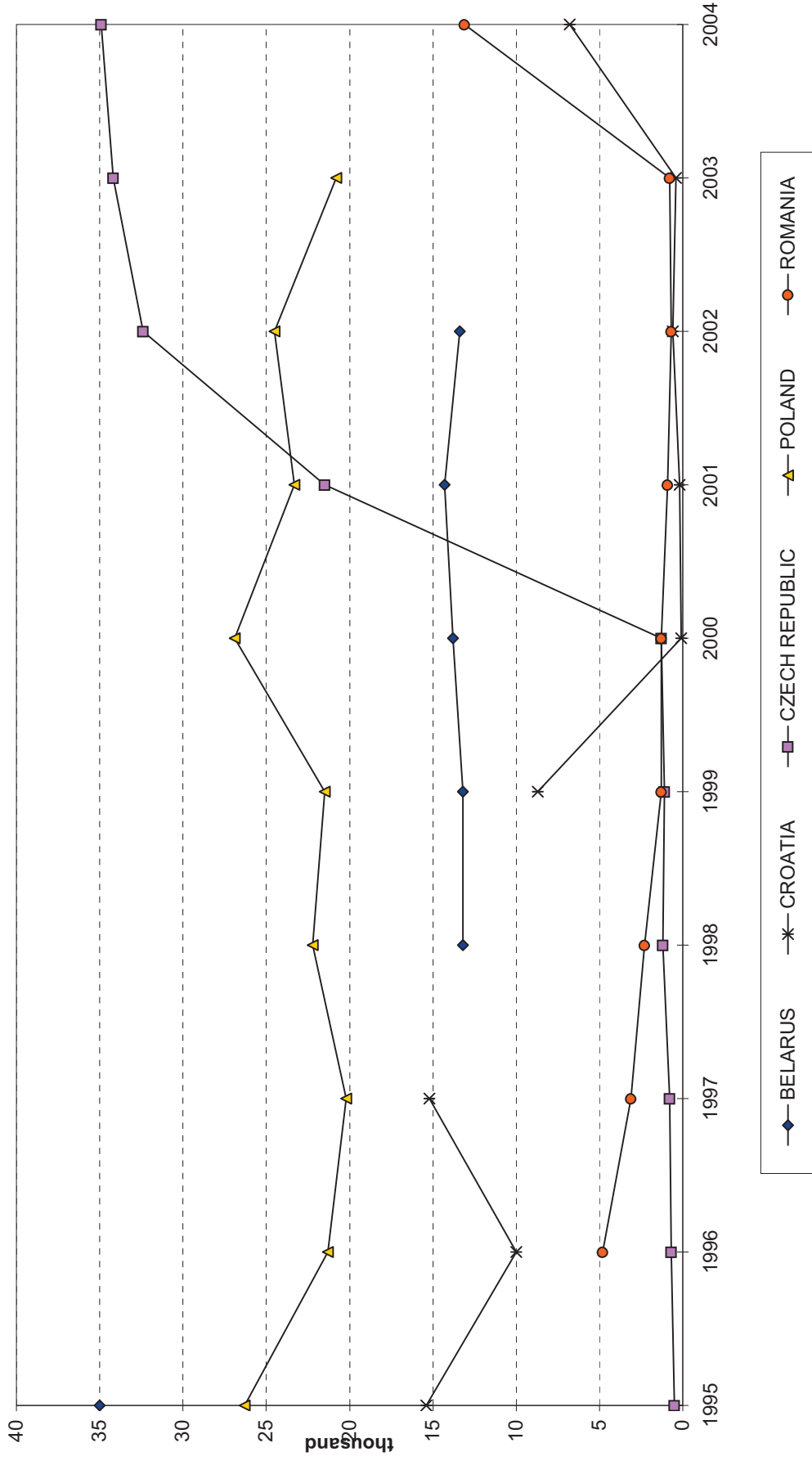
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

**FIGURE 5d - PERMANENT EMIGRATION FROM SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2004**



For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

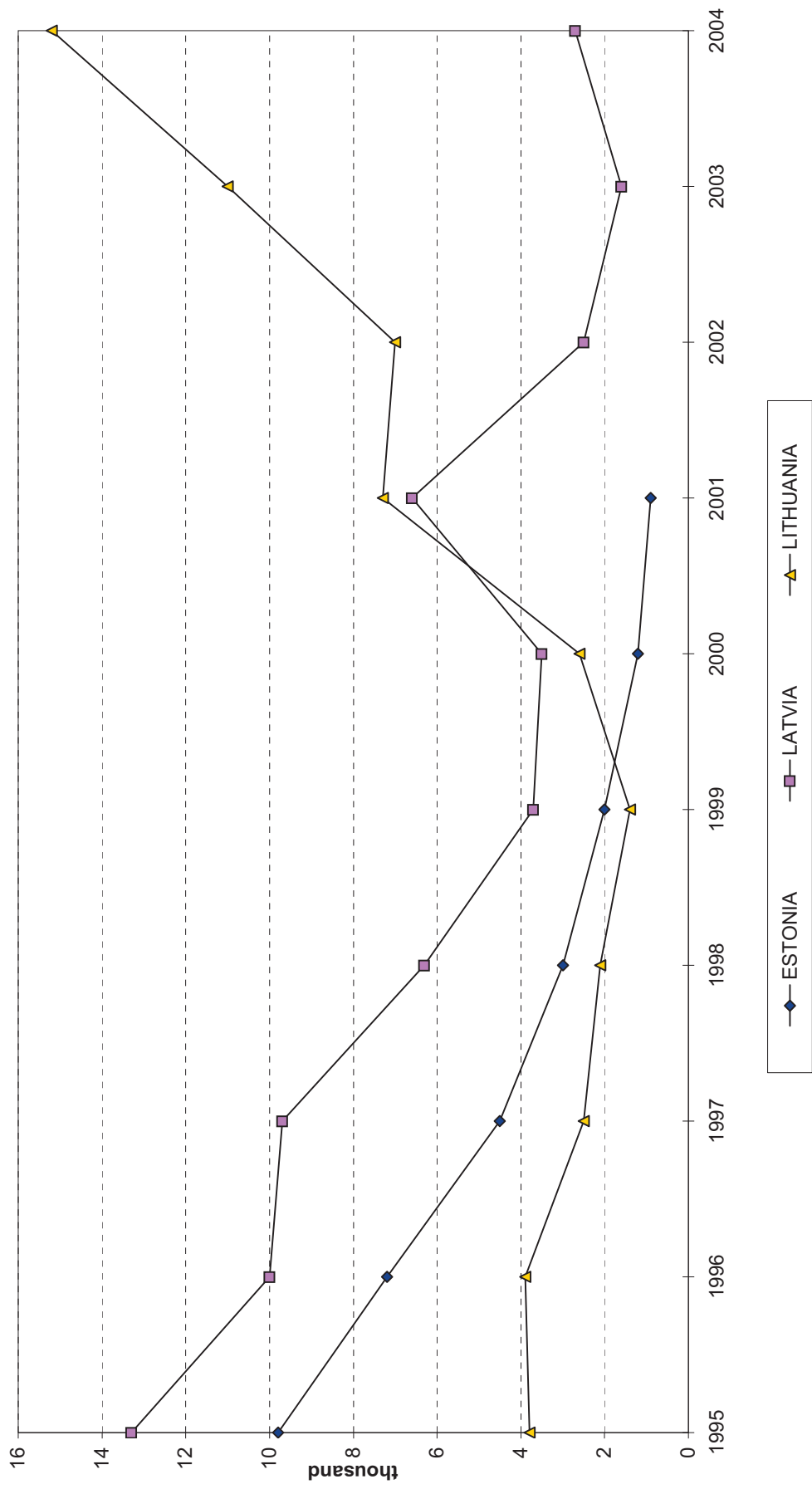
**FIGURE 5f - PERMANENT EMIGRATION FROM SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2004**



For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

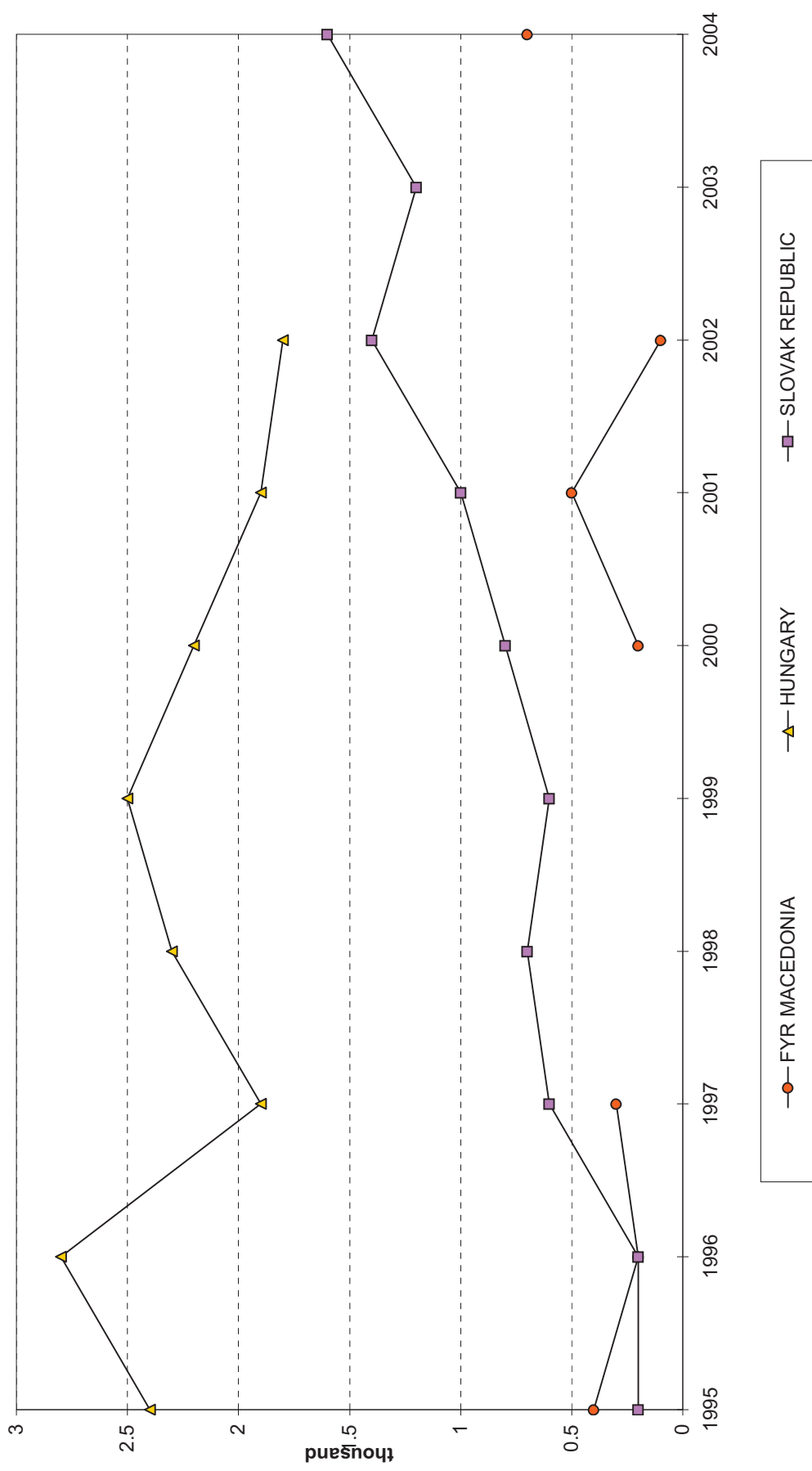


FIGURE 5e - PERMANENT EMIGRATION FROM THE BALTIC STATES, 1995-2004



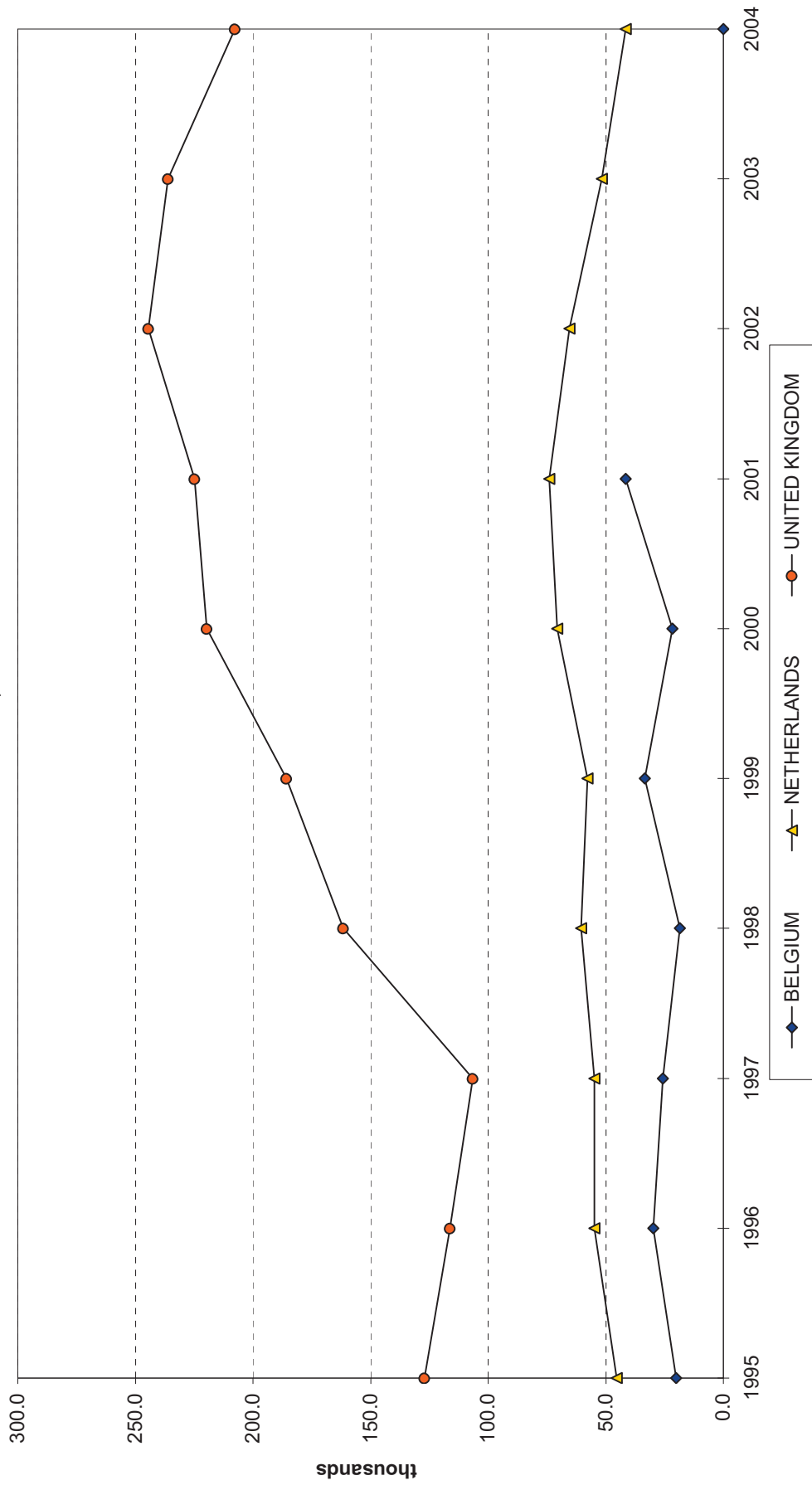
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

**FIGURE 5g - PERMANENT EMIGRATION FROM SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2004**



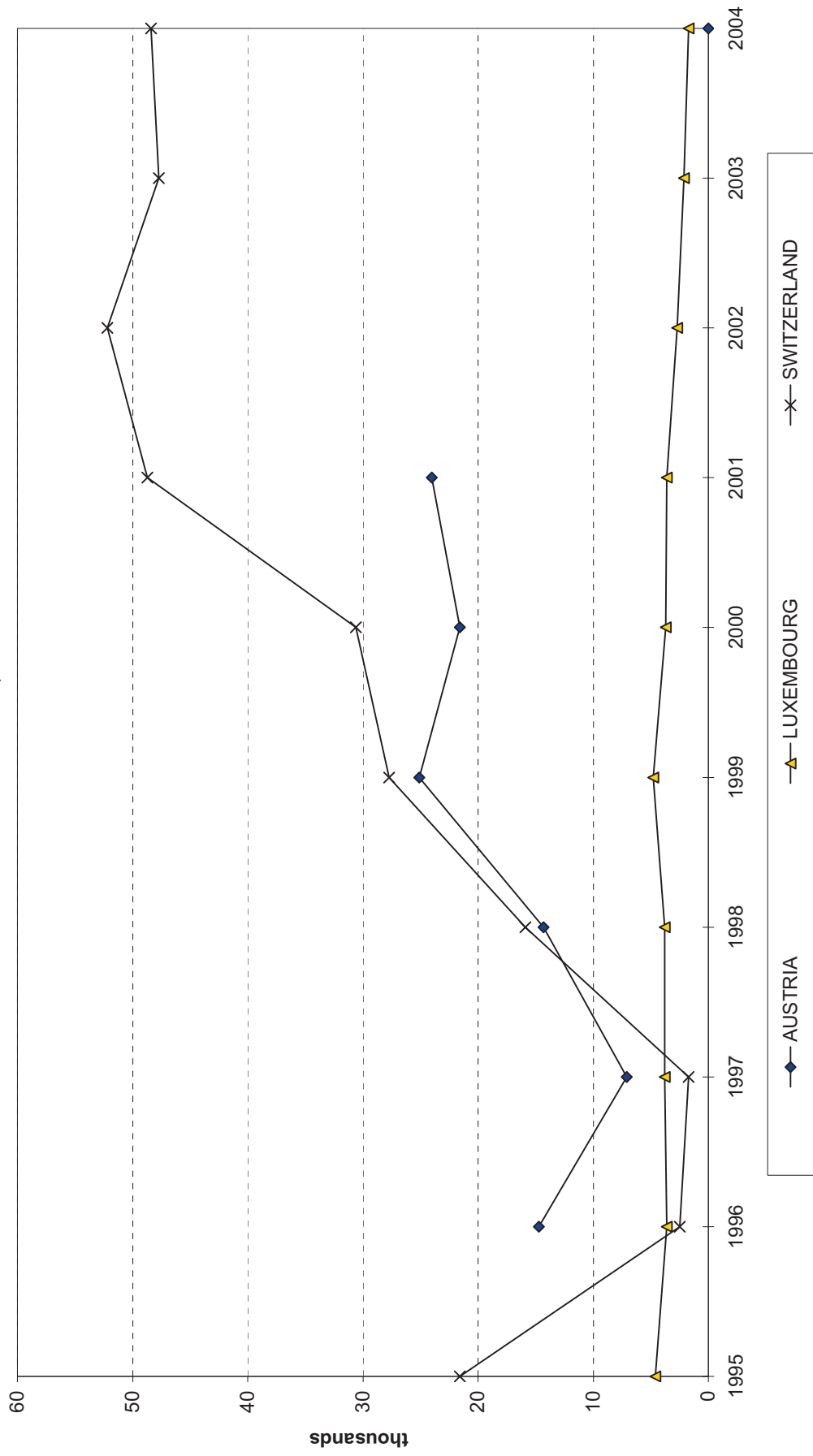
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

**FIGURE 6a - NET FLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO/FROM SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2004**



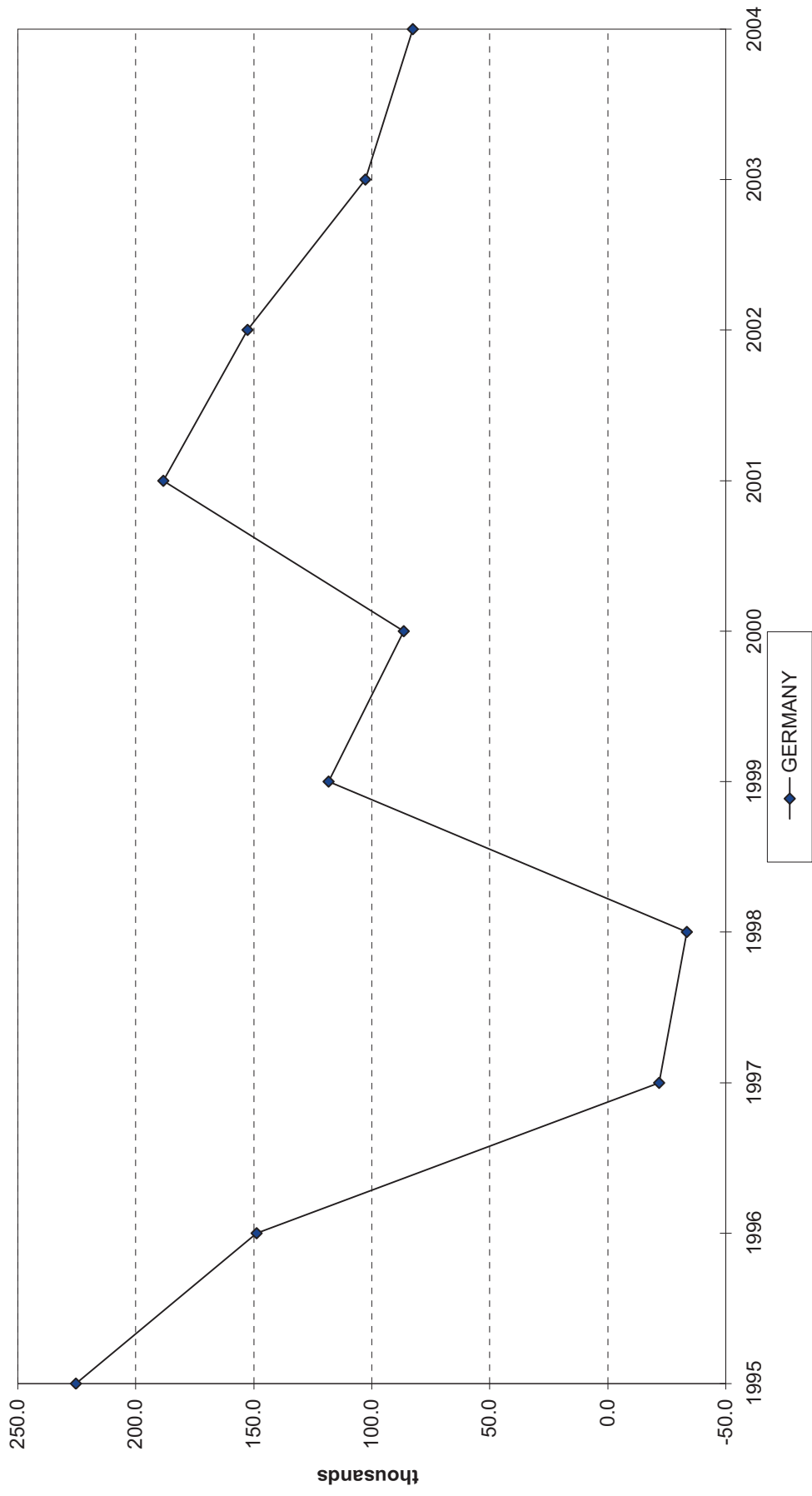
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

**FIGURE 6b - NET FLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO/FROM SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2004**



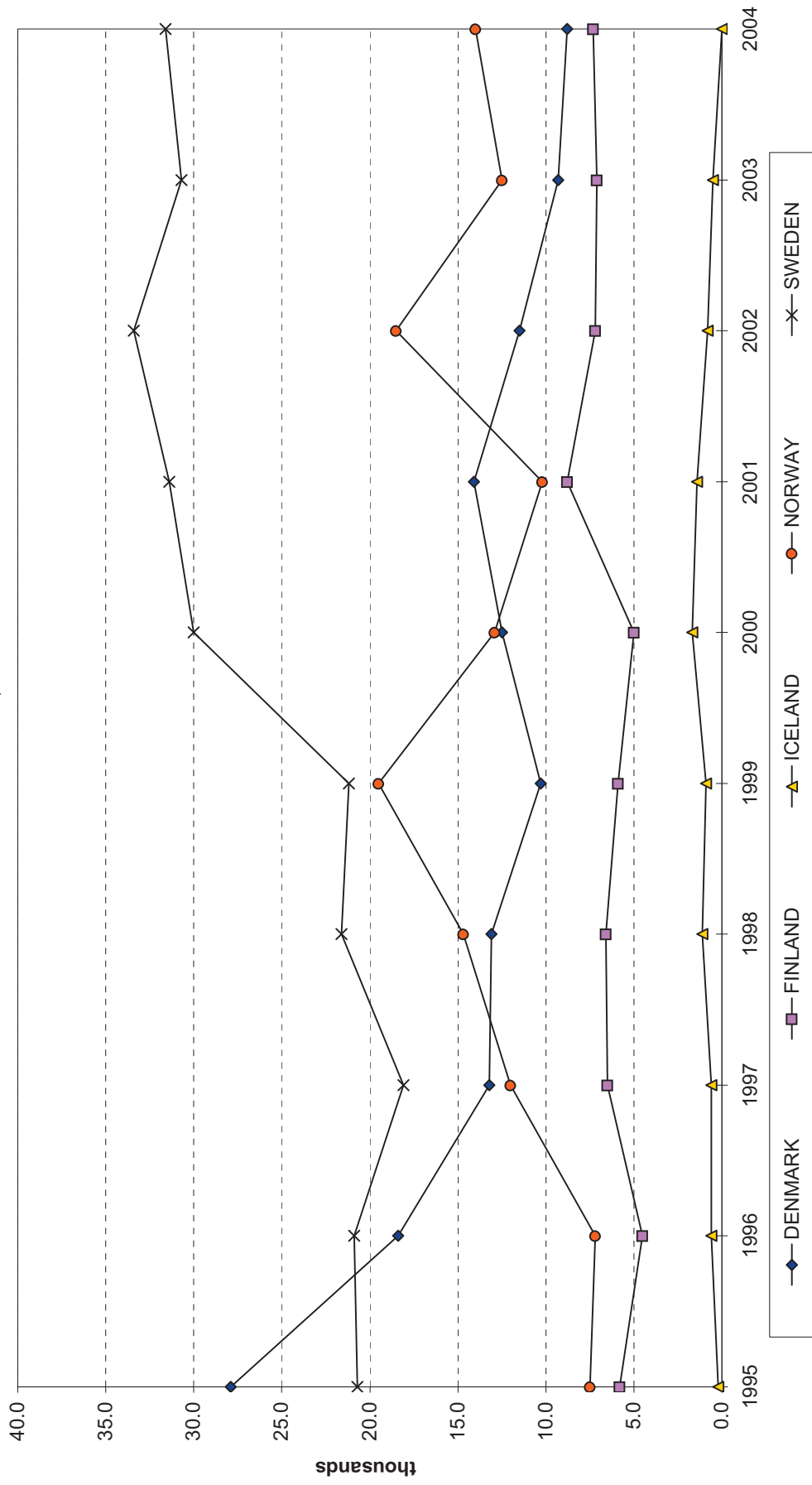
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 6c - NET FLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO/FROM GERMANY, 1995-2004



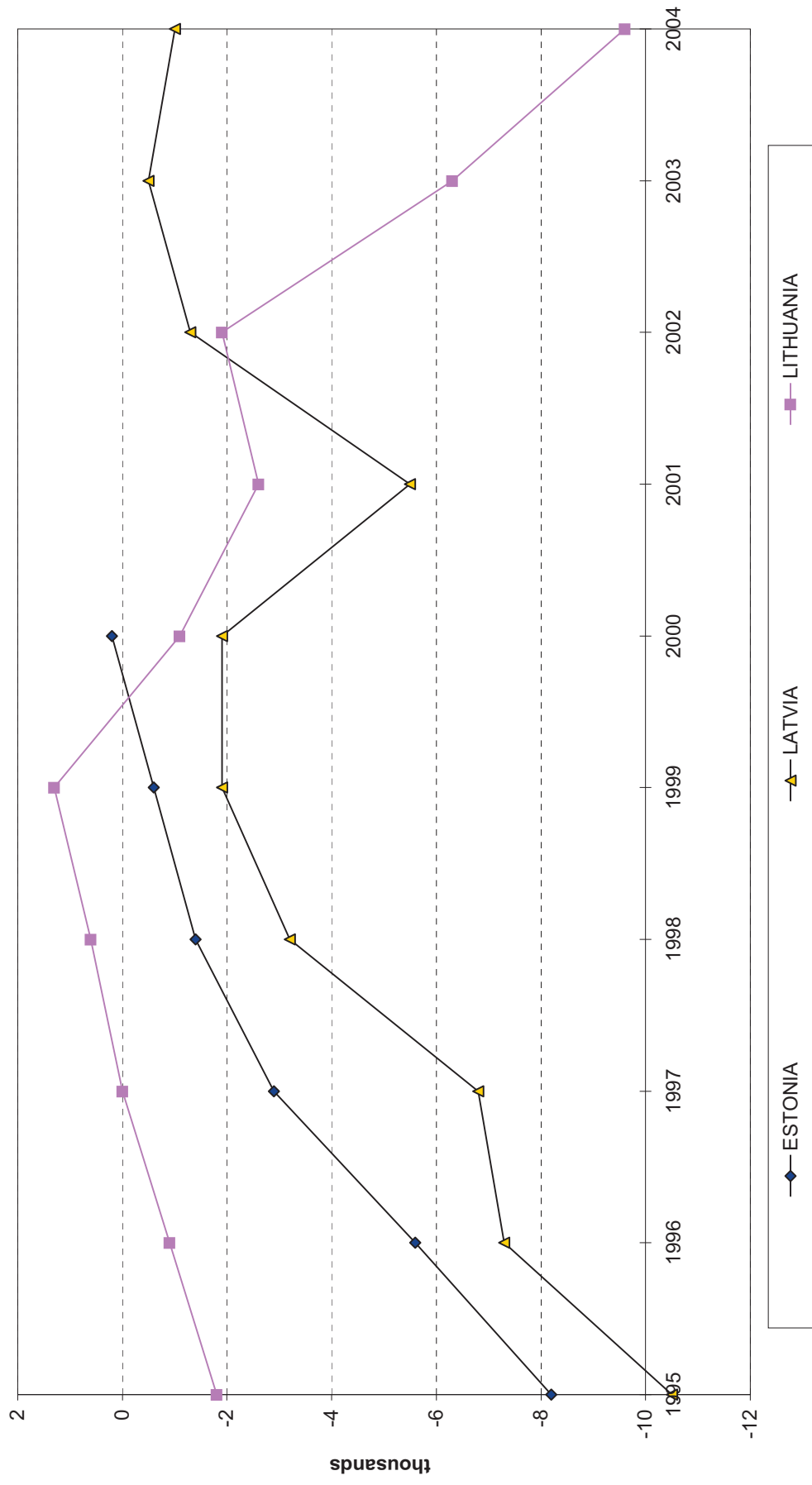
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

**FIGURE 6d - NET FLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO/FROM SELECTED NORTHERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2004**



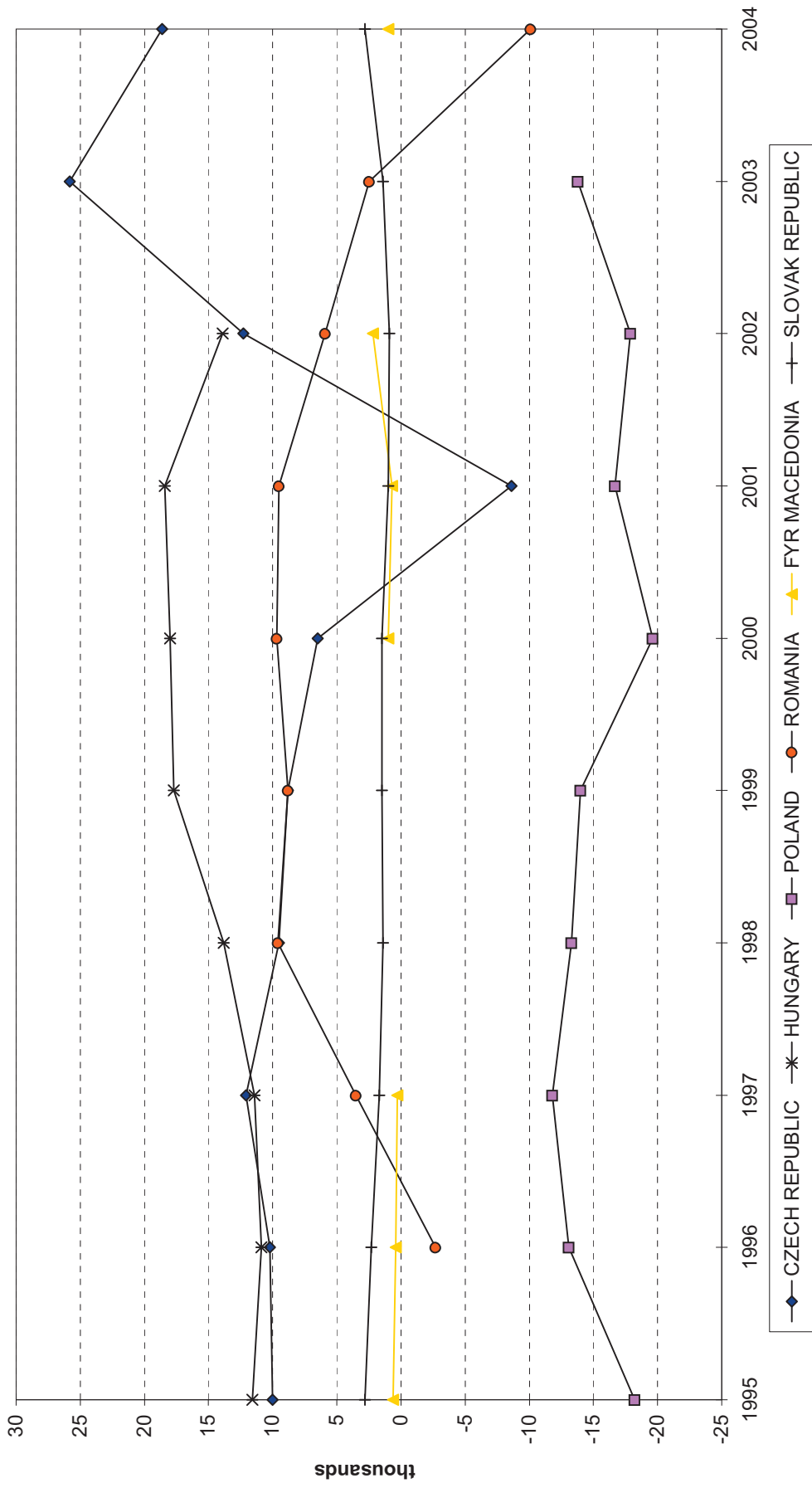
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 6e - NET FLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO/FROM THE BALTIC STATES, 1995-2004



For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

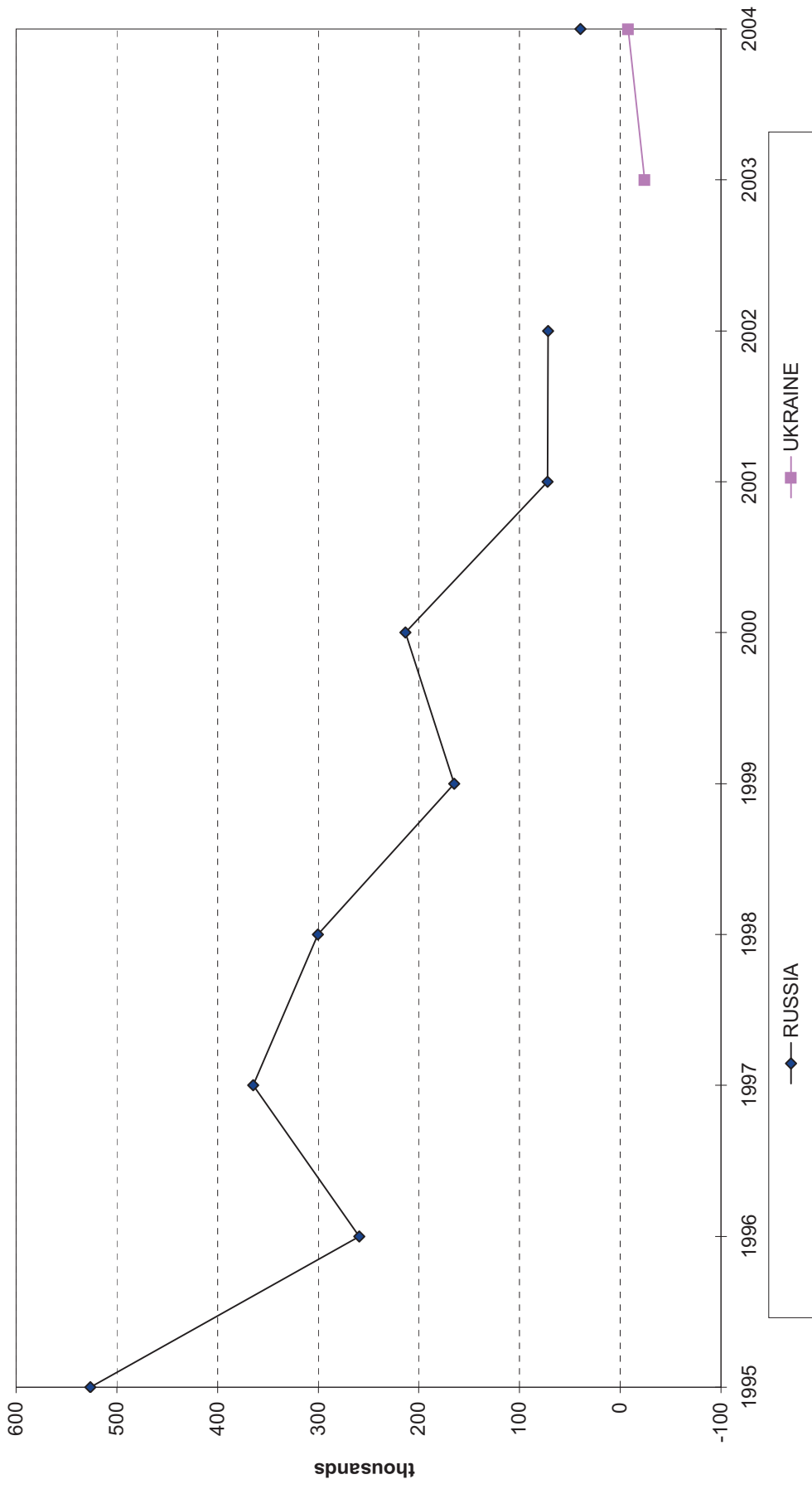
**FIGURE 6f - NET FLOWS OF FOREIGN POPULATION TO/FROM SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2004**



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, 1995-2004**



For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

Figure 7 - Difference between percentage points of total immigration by previous residence, 1997 and 2004.

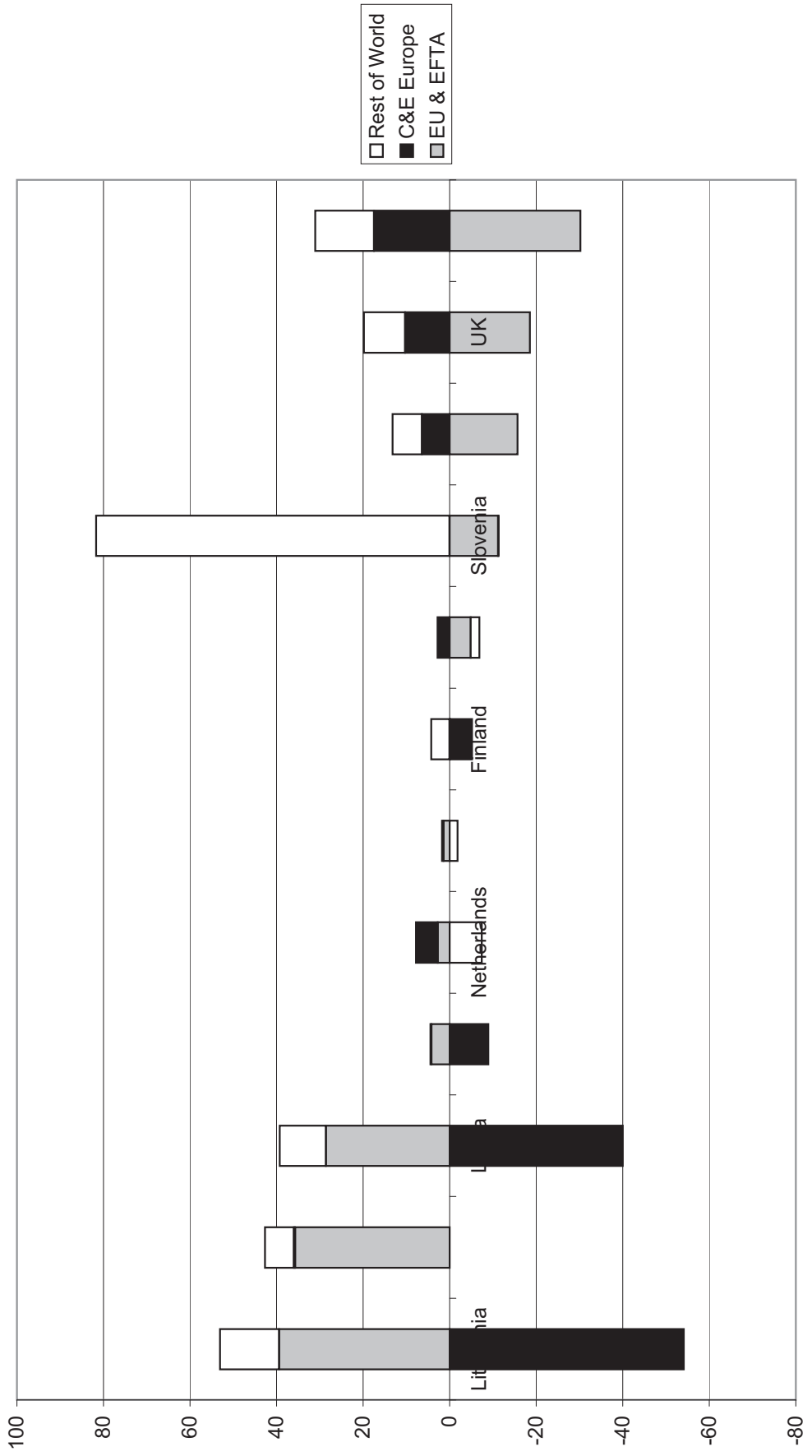
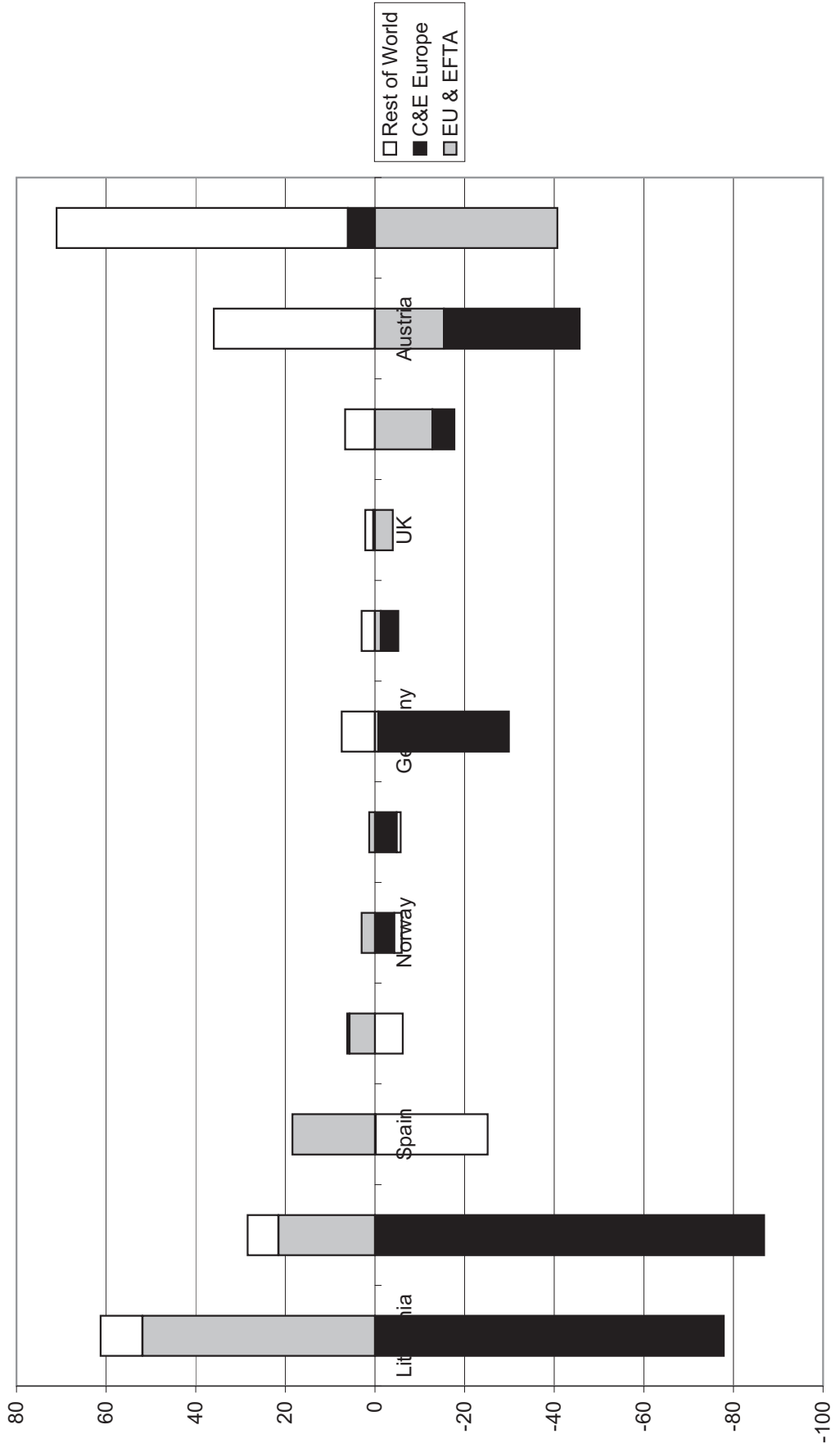
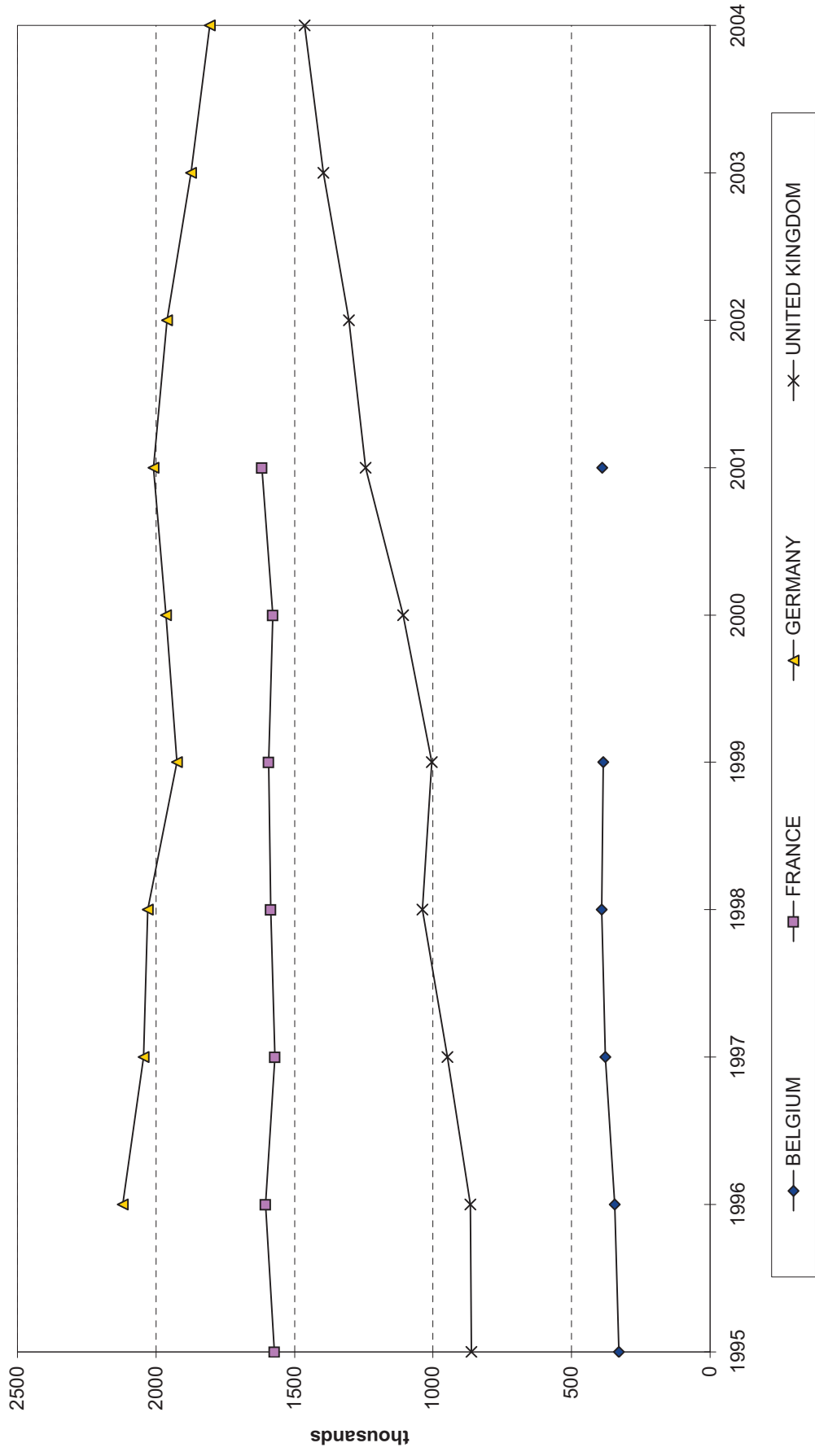


Figure 8 - Difference between percentage points of total emigration by next residence, 1997 and 2004.

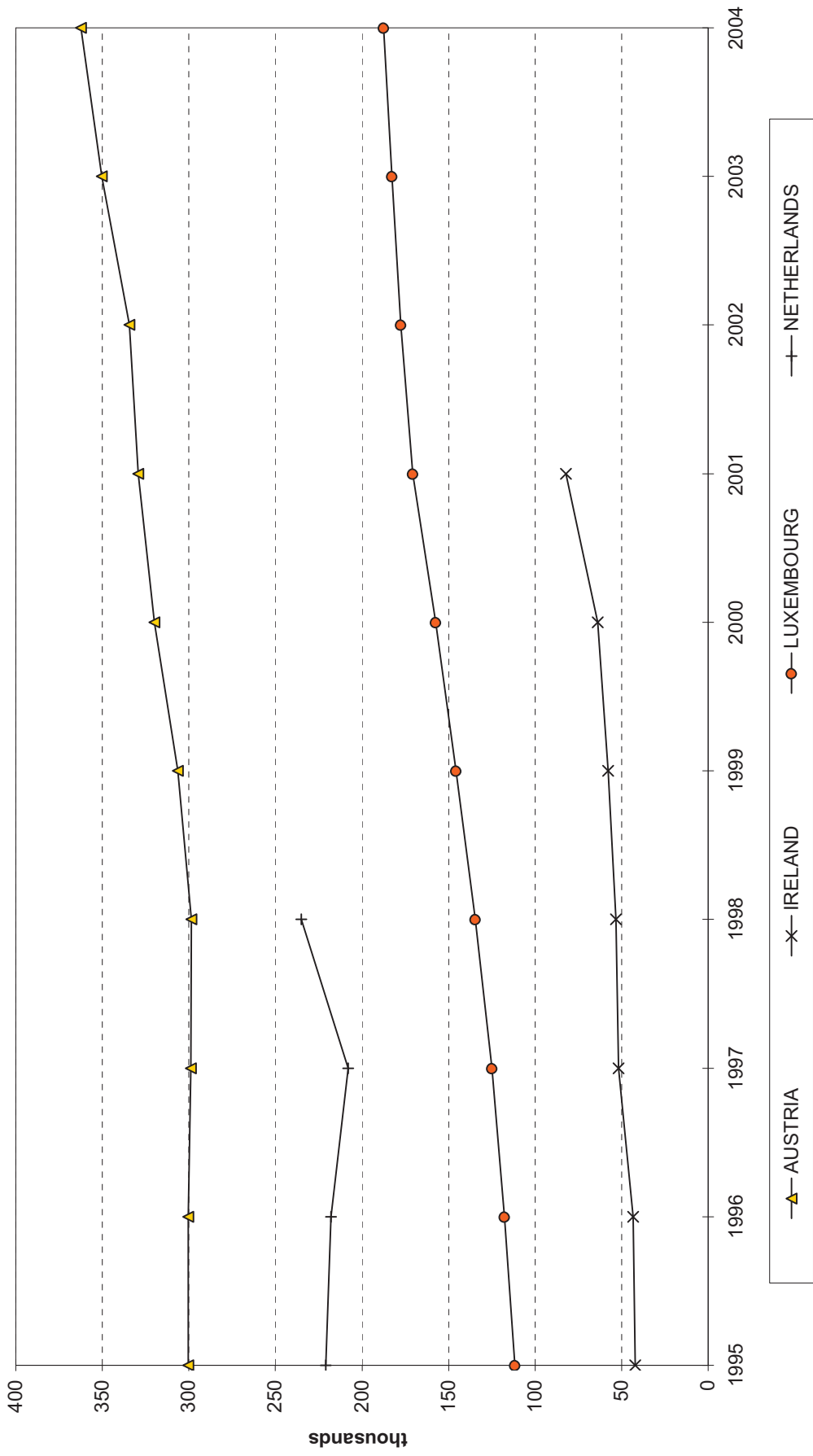


**FIGURE 9a - STOCK OF FOREIGN LABOUR IN SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2004**



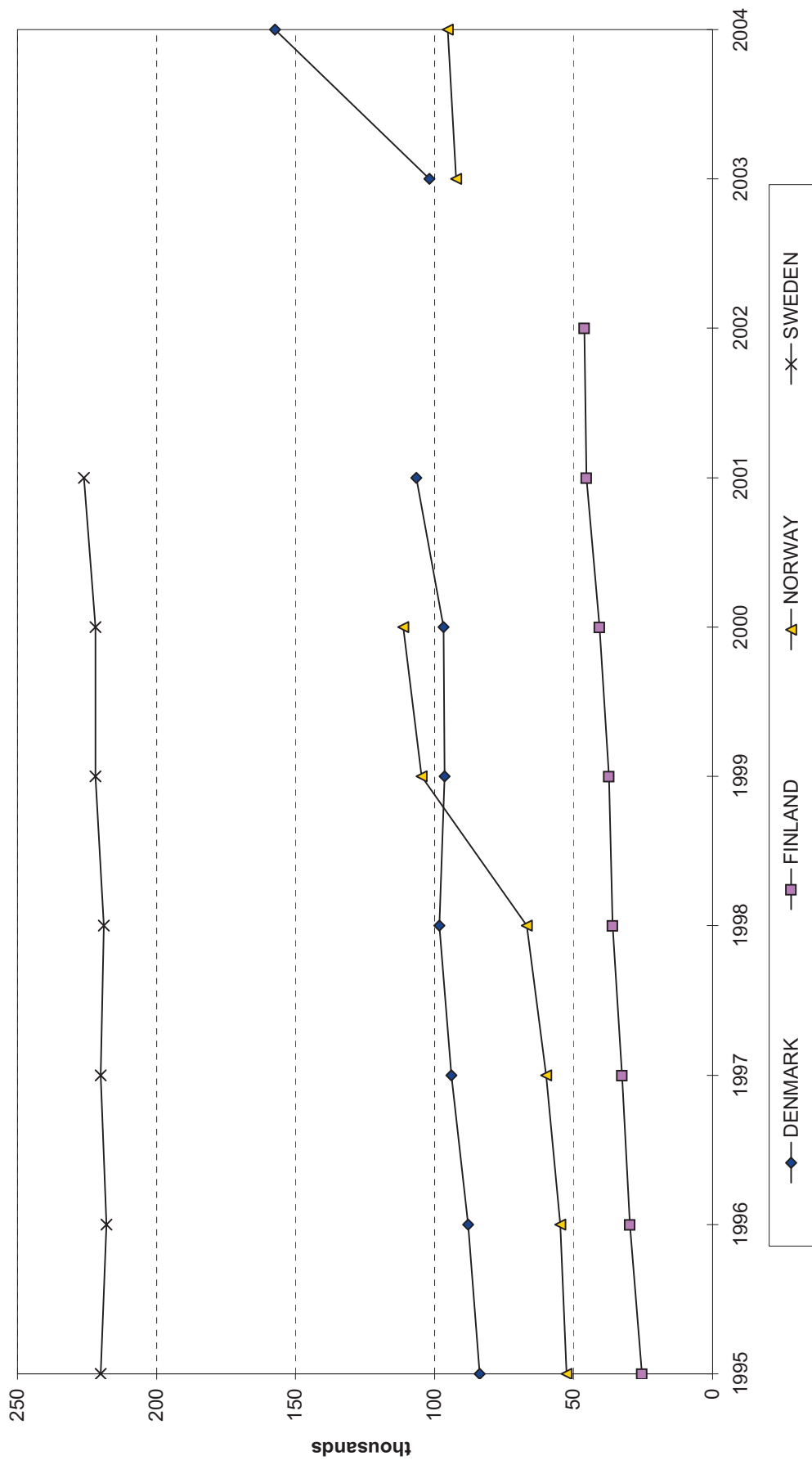
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

**FIGURE 9b - STOCK OF FOREIGN LABOUR IN SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES,  
1995-2004**



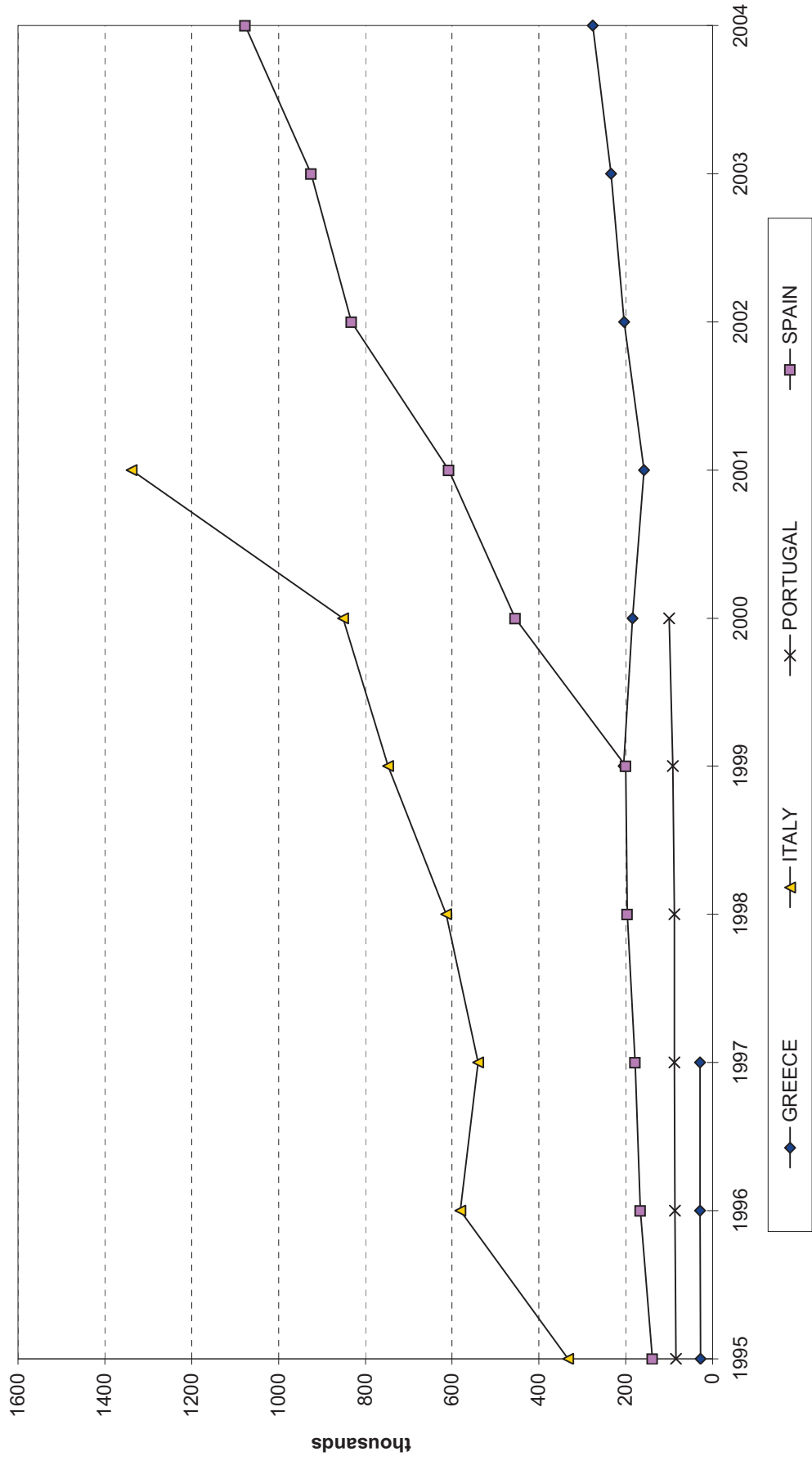
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 9c - STOCK OF FOREIGN LABOUR IN SELECTED SCANDINAVIAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2004



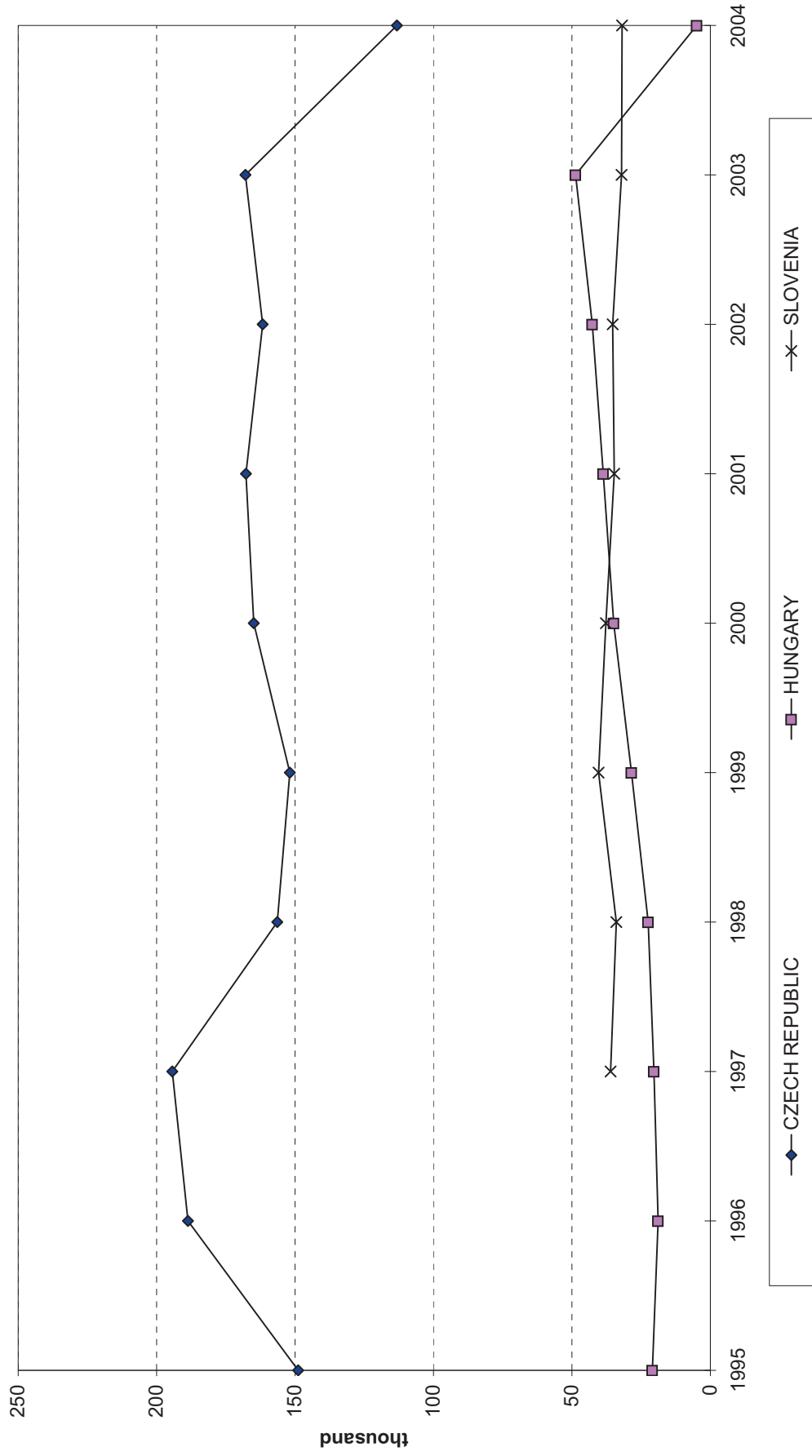
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

**FIGURE 9d - STOCK OF FOREIGN LABOUR IN SELECTED MEDITERRANEAN COUNTRIES,  
1995-2004**



For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

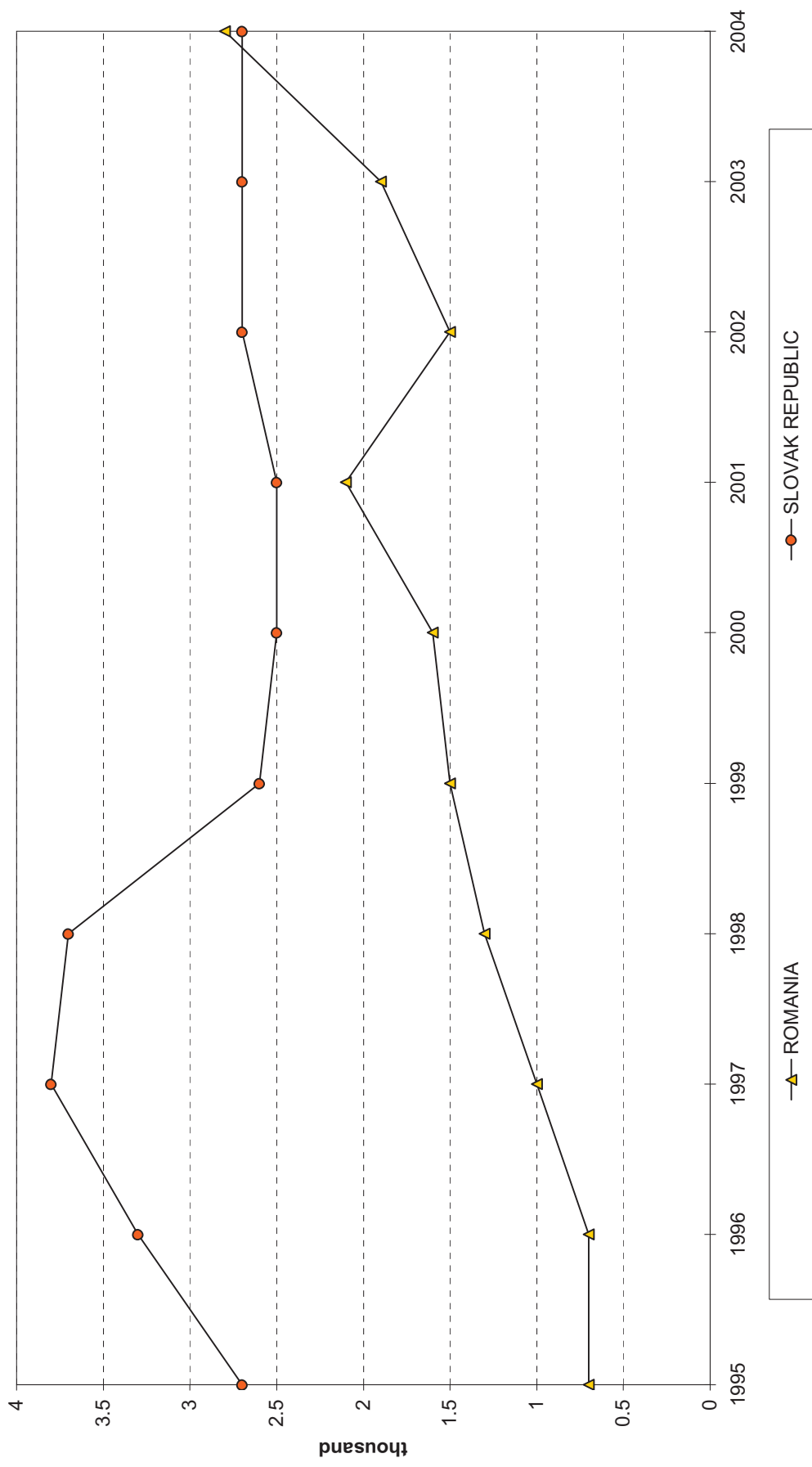
**FIGURE 9e - STOCK OF FOREIGN LABOUR IN SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2004**



For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

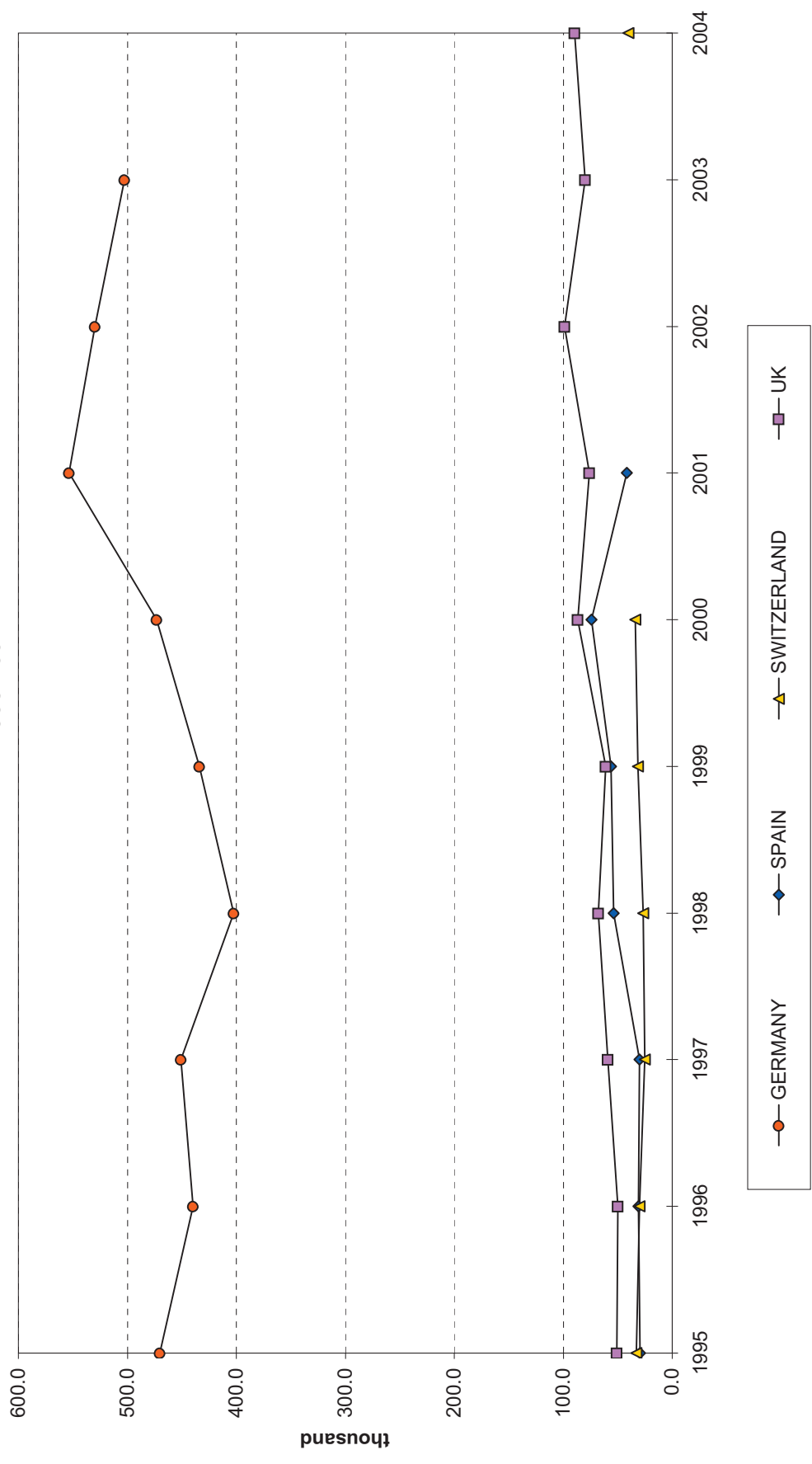


**FIGURE 9f - STOCK OF FOREIGN LABOUR IN SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2004**



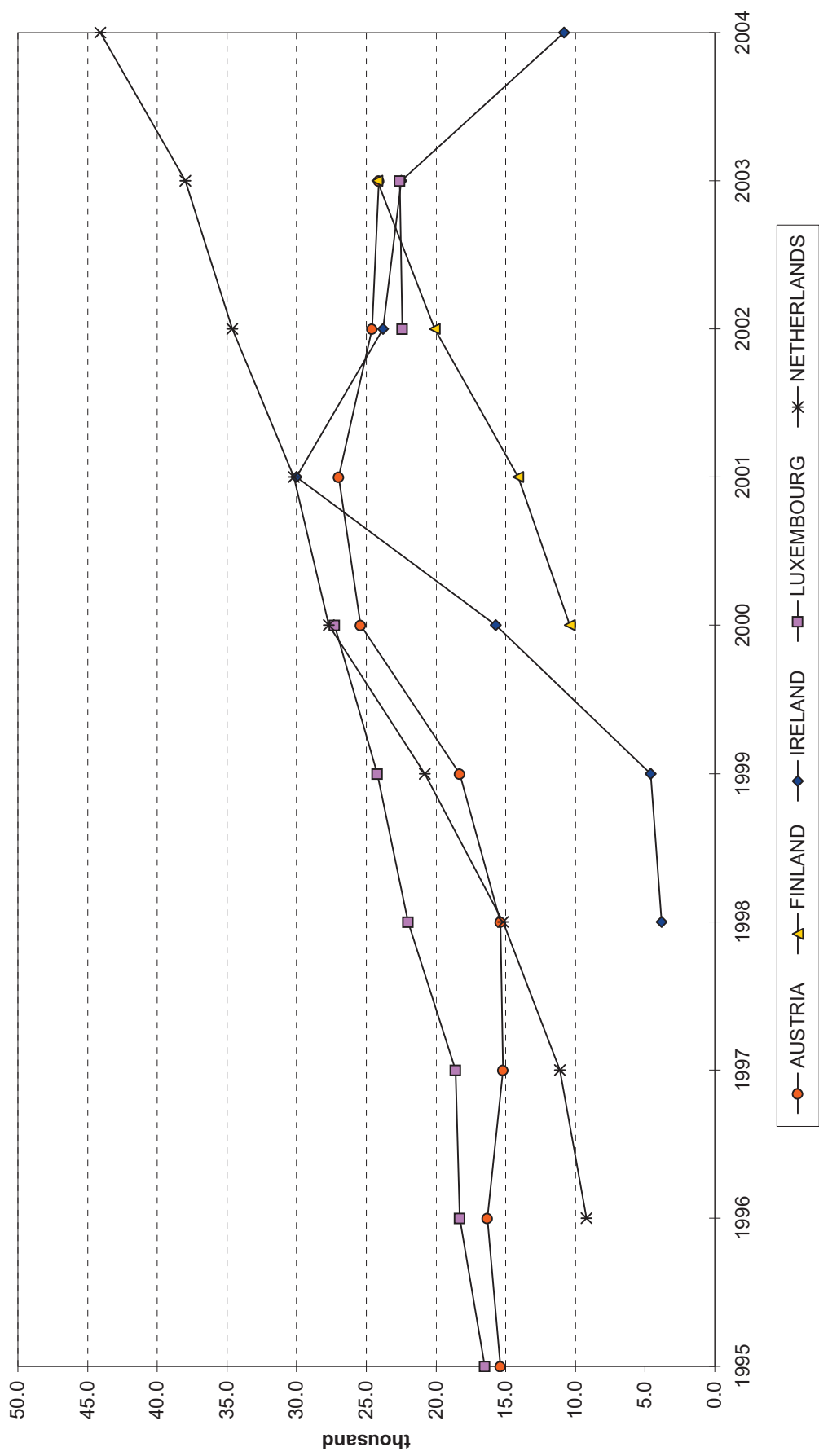
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**FIGURE 10a - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN LABOUR TO SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2004**



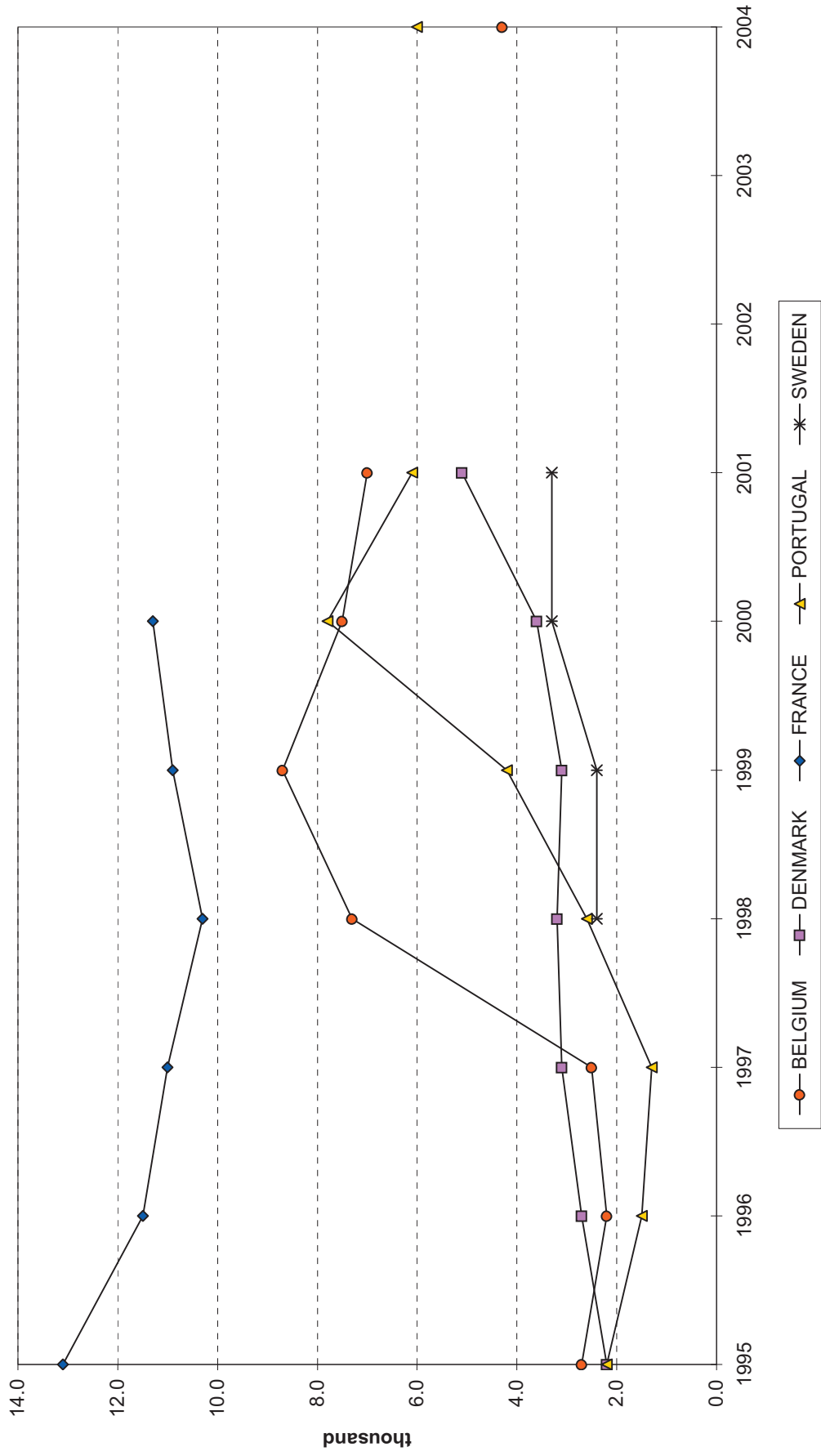
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

**FIGURE 10b - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN LABOUR TO SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES,  
1995-2004**



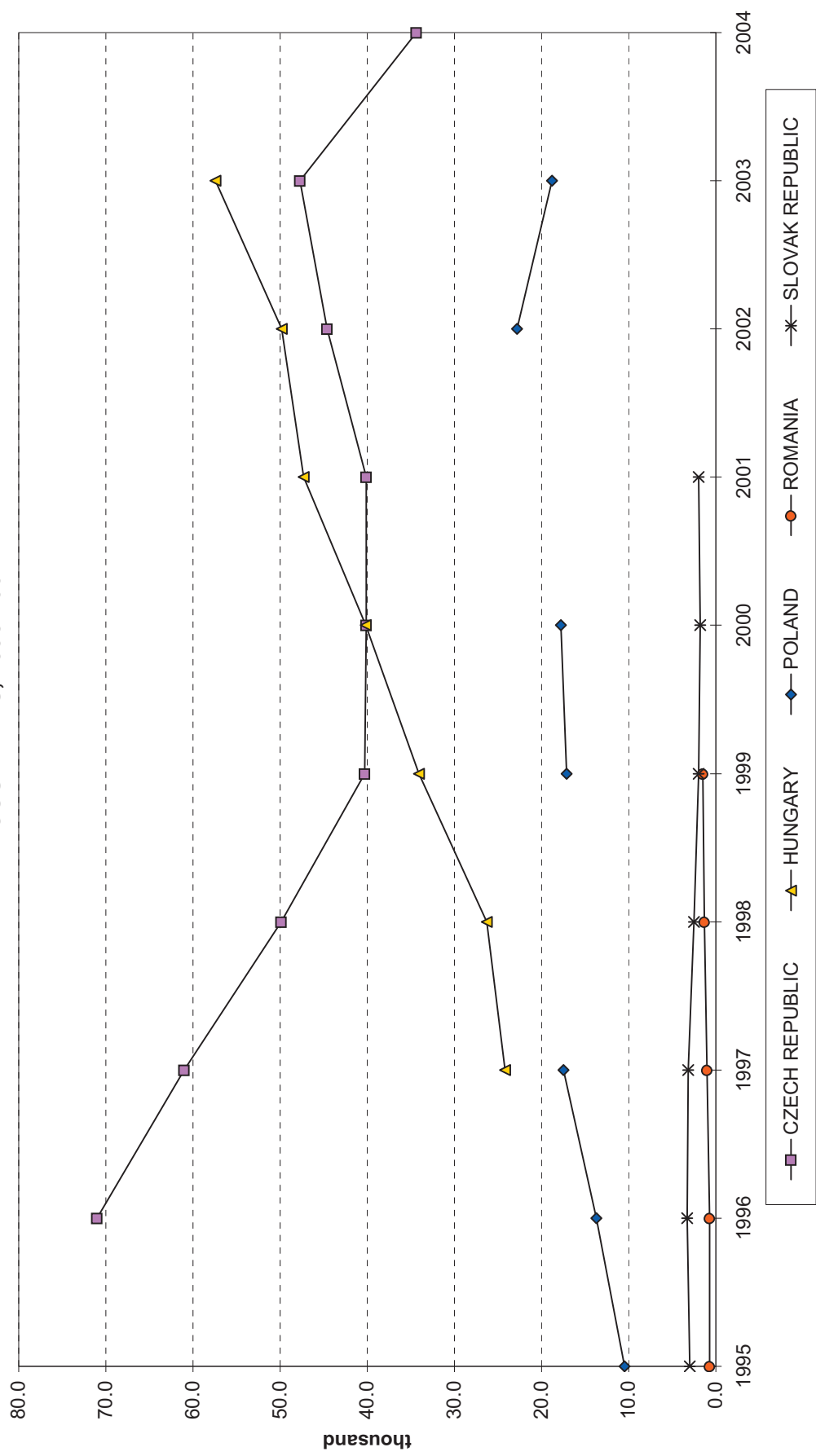
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

**FIGURE 10c - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN LABOUR TO SELECTED WESTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2004**



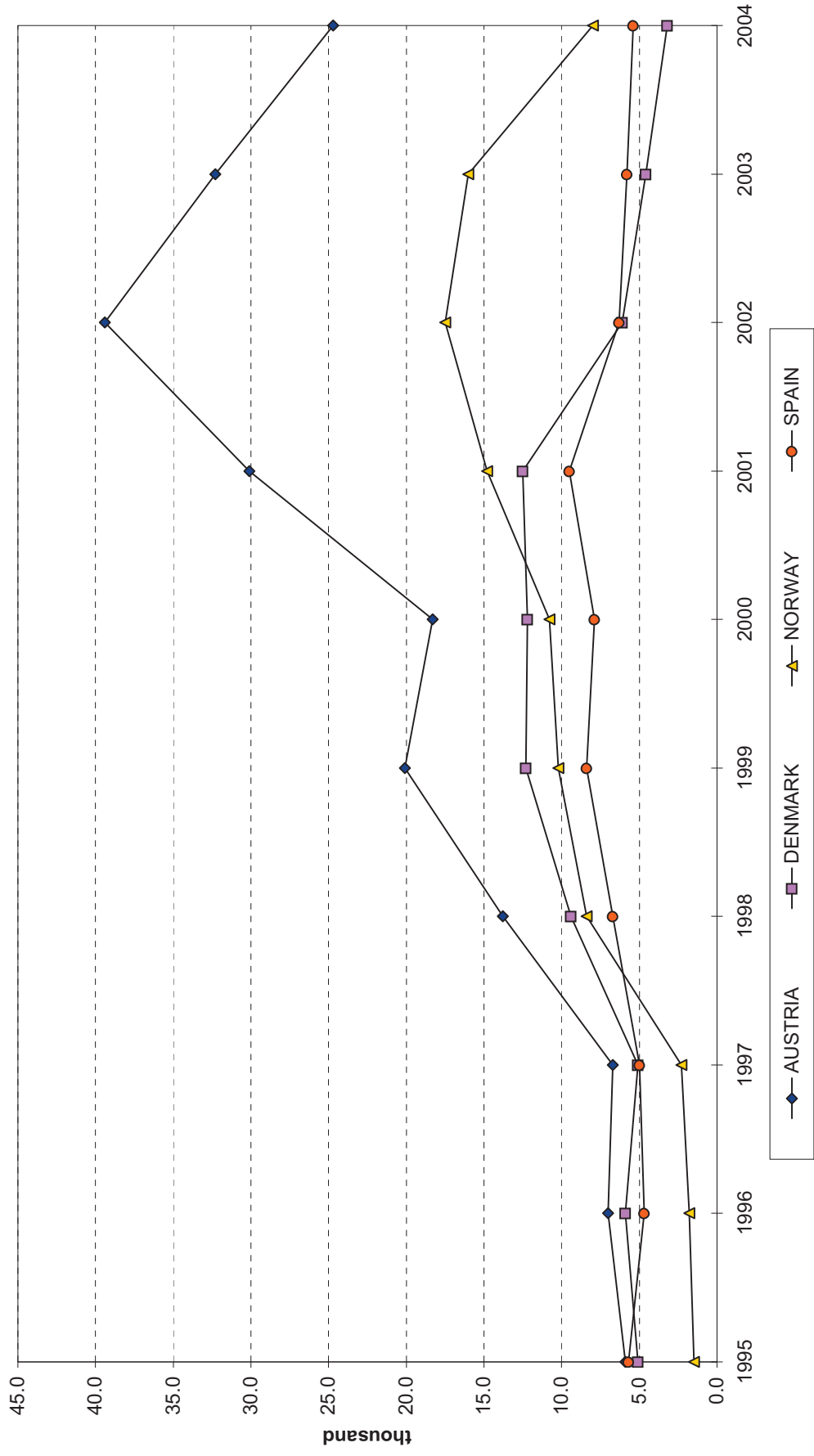
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

**FIGURE 10d - INFLOWS OF FOREIGN LABOUR TO SELECTED CENTRAL AND EASTERN EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2004**



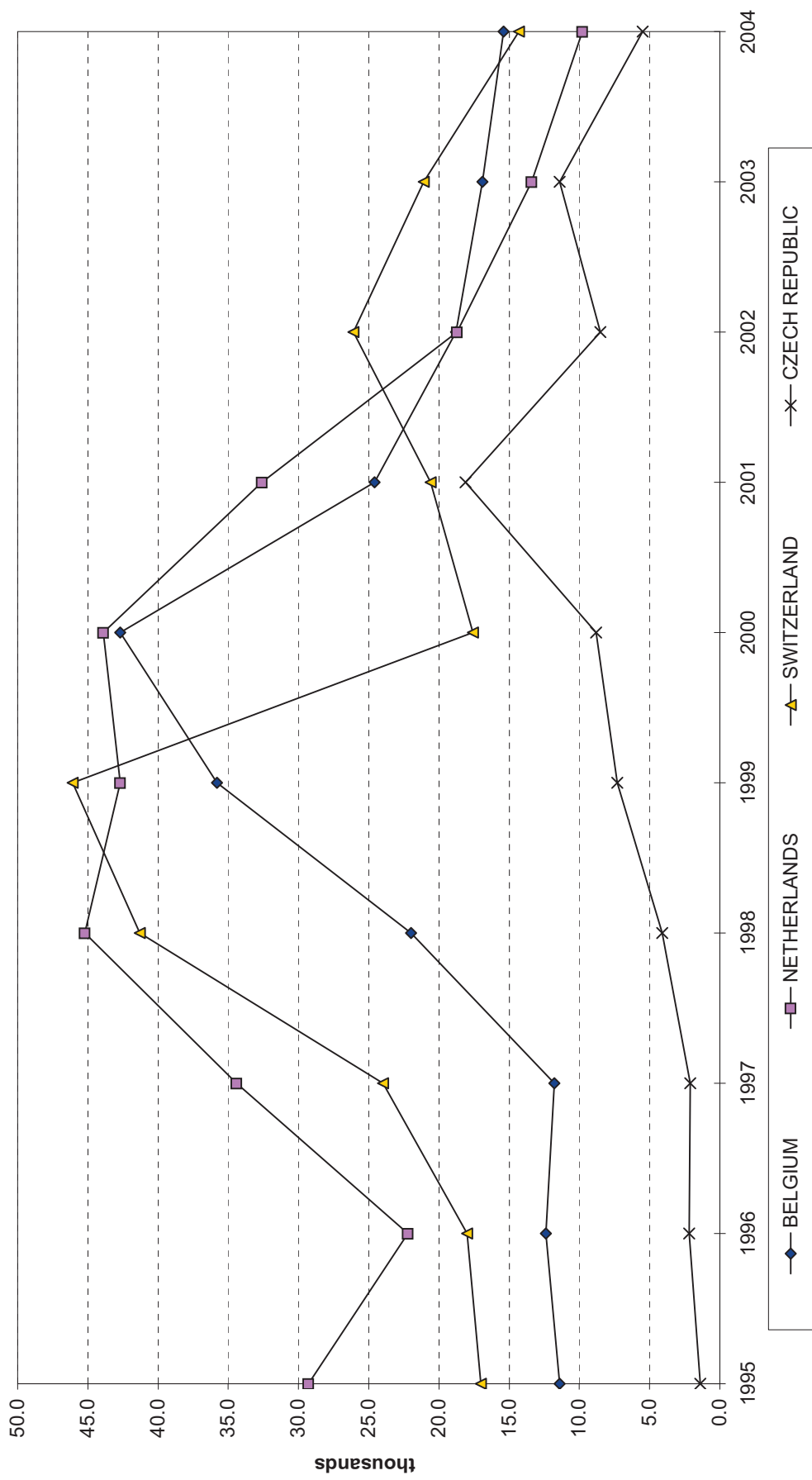
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 11a - ASYLUM APPLICATIONS IN SELECTED EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2004



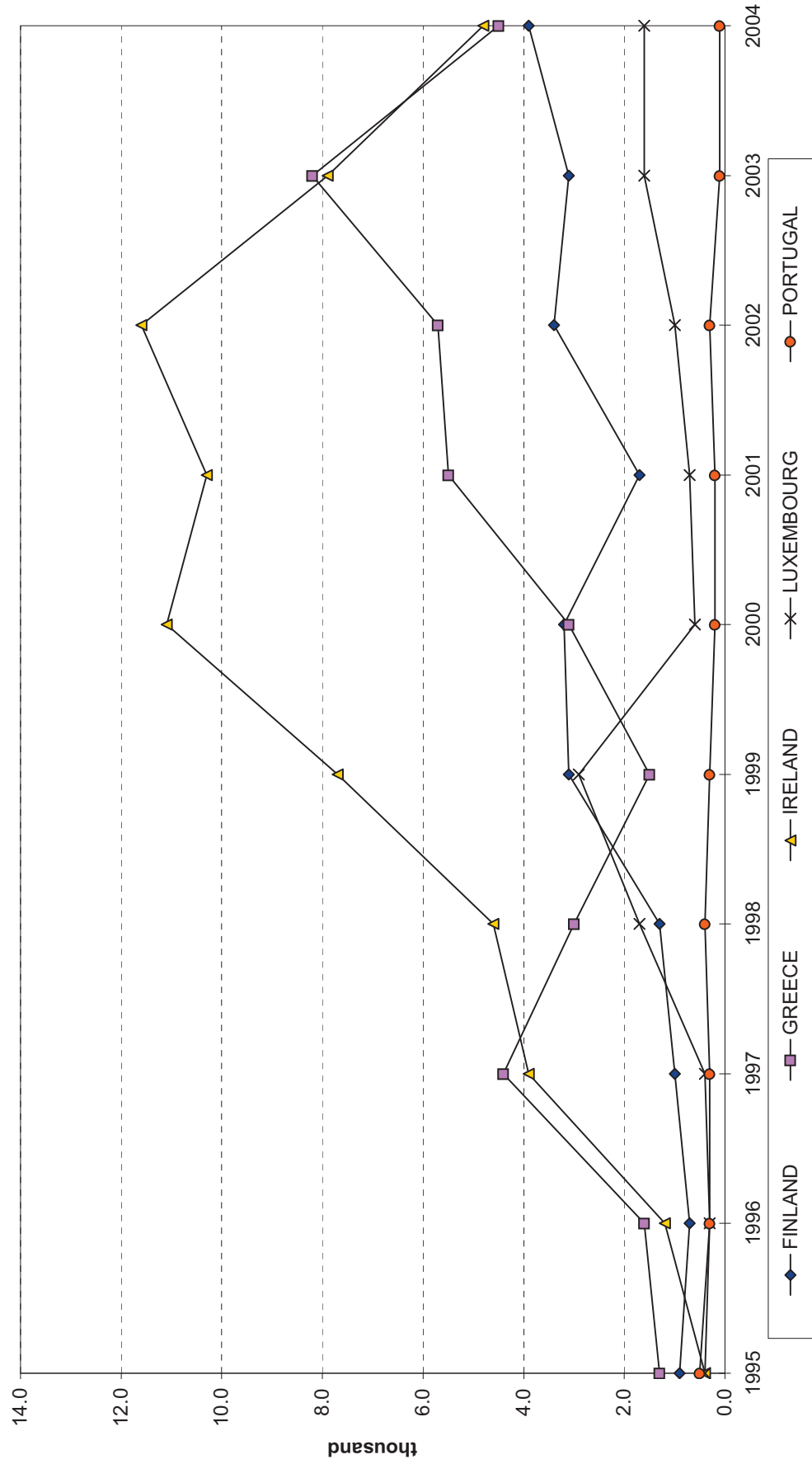
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 11b - ASYLUM APPLICATIONS IN SELECTED EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2004



For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

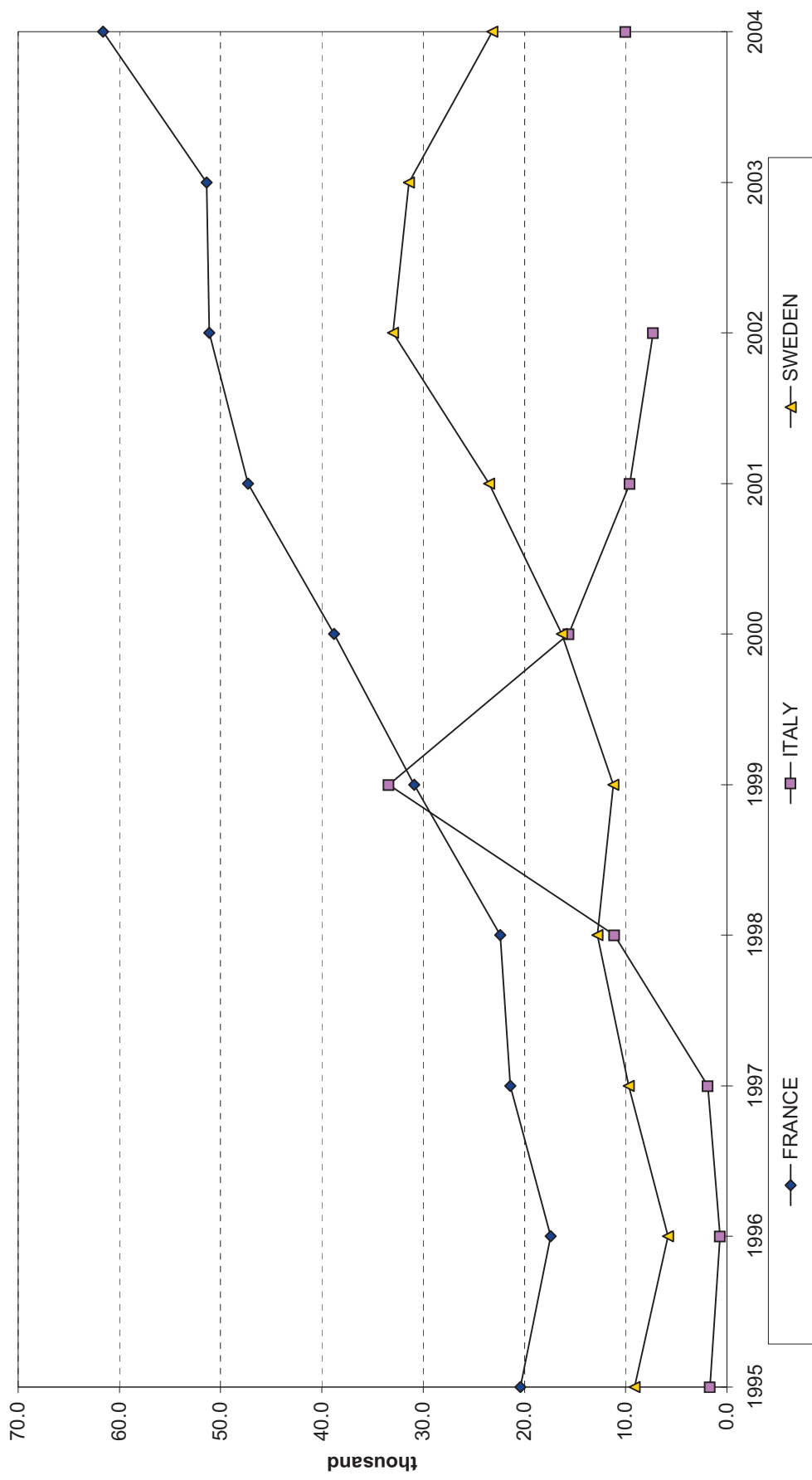
FIGURE 11c - ASYLUM APPLICATIONS IN SELECTED EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2004



For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

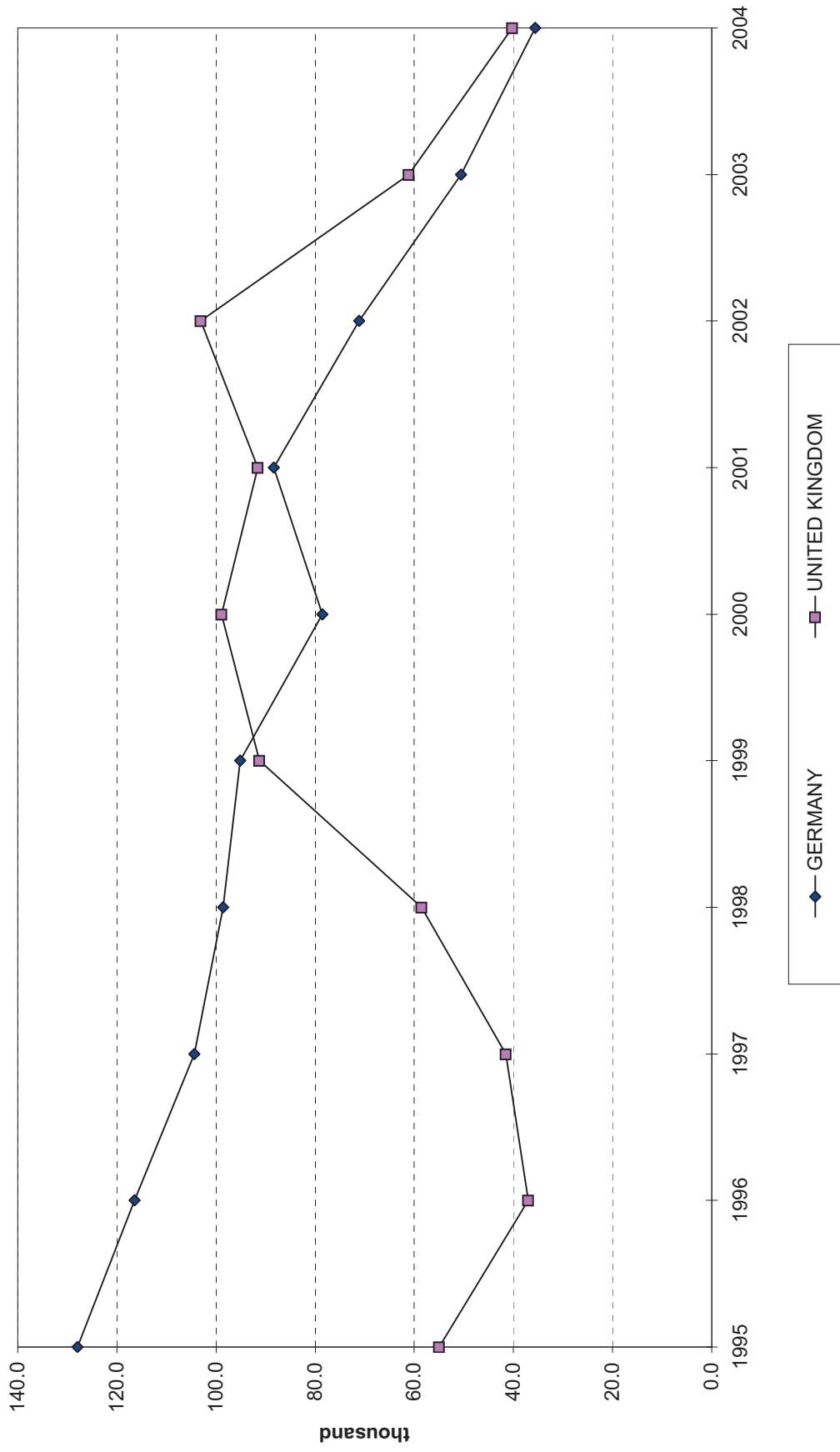


FIGURE 11d - ASYLUM APPLICATIONS IN SELECTED EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2004



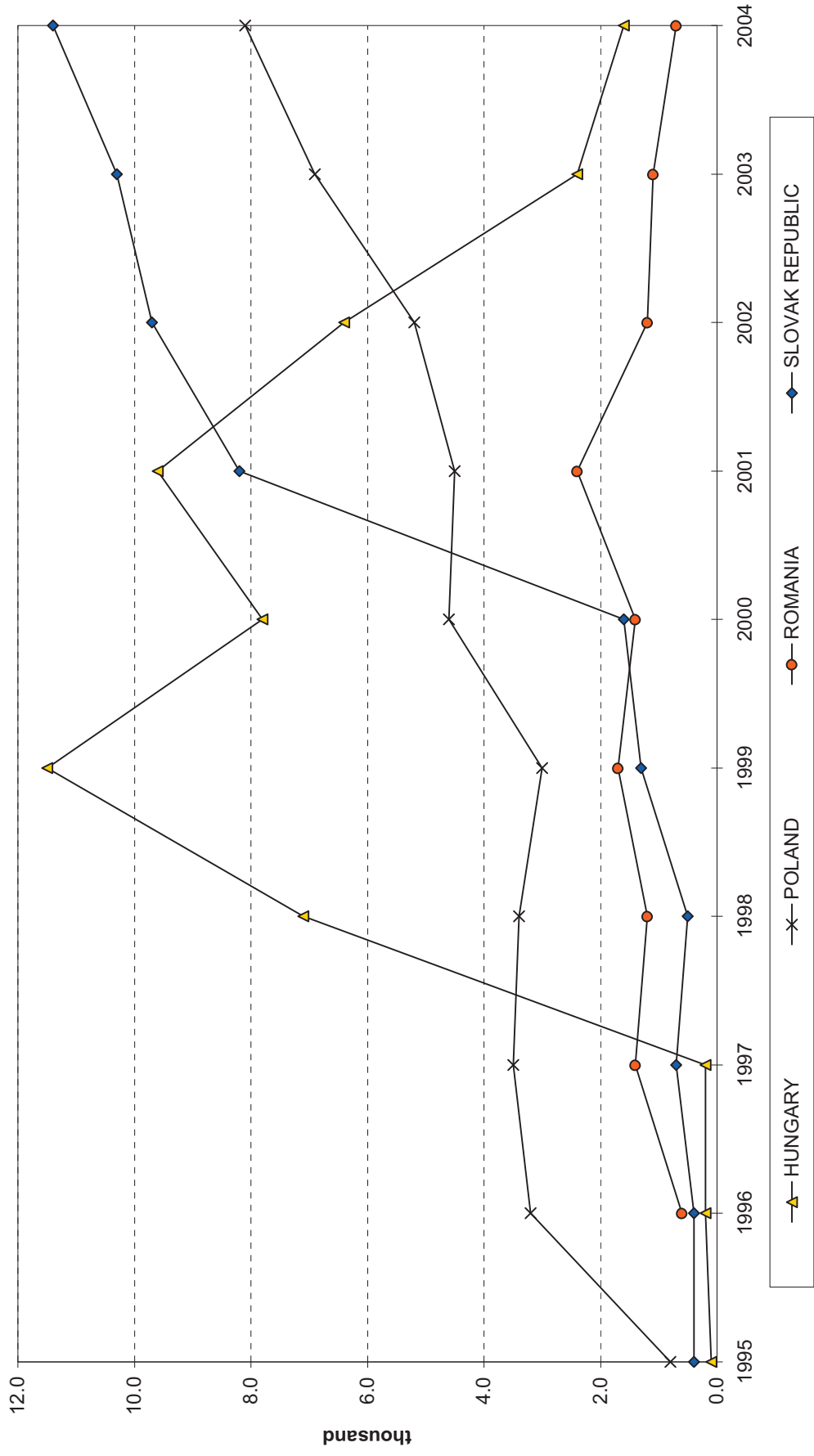
For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 11e - ASYLUM APPLICATIONS IN GERMANY AND THE UNITED KINGDOM, 1995-2004



For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

FIGURE 11f - ASYLUM APPLICATIONS IN SELECTED EUROPEAN COUNTRIES, 1995-2004



For sources and explanatory notes, please refer to corresponding table

