

Migration and Asylum in Europe 2003



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1. Executive Summary

This report presents statistical data on migration and asylum in the European Union context. It is based on data selections from the European Union Statistical Office (EUROSTAT) and from country studies prepared by National Contact Points of the European Migration Network and by other experts. It is the third report of a series started in the year 2001 and marks the first time that country studies have been presented on the fifteen countries which were members of the European Union in 2003, the ten accession states (which acceded to the EU in 2004), the non-EU Schengen countries, as well as Bulgaria and Romania. The report covers the year 2003. It signifies one step forward in a process of delivering up-to-date data for common European policies and a comparative analysis of European migration and asylum issues.

Various instruments of data selection and their presentation by the European member states are still insufficient. Political discussions and academic reflections in the area are also still rarely related to statistical data. Patterns of migration and refugee inflows, as well as contextual social and political as well as economic frameworks of migration and flight are changing in an accelerating manner. Immigration and asylum policies are being constantly improved on all political levels of the European Union. For this, reliable and comparable statistical data are necessary.

The annual report presents data on migration flows (immigration, emigration and net migration), on residence permits, on migrant stocks (population data), on refugee flows (asylum applications), refugee protection policies (asylum decisions), and on measures against irregular residents (refusals, removals and apprehensions). Nevertheless, it is still difficult to understand these data in a context of changing economic, political and social frameworks. The data are more or less presented in a "pure" fashion. The data are to be understood as a presentation of different layers of immigrant populations from various immigration cycles. The stock data are related to the citizen status of populations given at various cycles and stages of the immigration processes. Migration stocks and flows are differentiated over time by various legal, social, political and cultural categories. Furthermore, old patterns of immigrant populations have influenced new migration configurations and structures of migration systems, which are still rather difficult to analyse empirically.

The spaces of European Union migration policies are not congruent with the European Union formation. The Maastricht and Amsterdam Treaties have served as important legal bases for defining these spaces for the year 2003. Furthermore, the Schengen system is important in territorialising migration and refugee flows in Europe. Though not all members in the European Union are full members of the Schengen system, non-European Union countries, such as Norway and Iceland, are taking part in these common migration and border control policies. Asylum and refugee protection policies in Europe are based on the Dublin regime and other EC Directives. Other territorial peculiarities are the Nordic Passport Union between the Scandinavian countries, the common travel area between the United Kingdom and Ireland, and other bilateral and multilateral agreements.

Around 3.1 million recorded people¹ immigrated to the European member states (EU 15) in 2003; the largest group of immigrants came from third countries (in this report, third countries are non-EU 25 countries). There is a wide variety of migration patterns: there are a growing number of immigrants from Latin America; Eastern Europe as a region of origin is of importance, as are the southern neighbouring countries of the European Union. There is obviously a continuity of established migration flows and systems.

Emigration is a rather important phenomenon in European migration processes. Outflow figures include return migrants. Data are rather unclear due to the fact that emigration is often not registered. Nevertheless, the number of emigrants in 2003 amounted to around 1.5 million² in the European member states (EU 15). With regard to data on citizenship and immigration, rather wide ranging migration fluidity has been noted. This refers to the flexibility of migrants in the context of migration stocks and flows.

All European member states (EU 15) increased their populations through migration. The largest gains are to be seen in Spain, Ireland and Italy. Again with regard to net migration, the fluidity of migration in all countries is considerable. The largest net migration in the European member states (EU 15) from third countries (non-EU 25) in 2003 were identified through the presence of Romanian, Moroccan, Ecuadorian as well as Chinese and Turkish citizens. It is, however, necessary to differentiate between the different countries and citizenship groups. The variety of migration configurations is altering the general picture of migration. When the population development data are

¹ This number does not include immigration to Greece.

² The exact number is 1.46 million, excluding Greece and France.

compared with net migration figures, there seems to be a dependency between both factors.

The population of the European Union member states (EU 15) in 2003 was 382,748,050. This is a higher figure in comparison to 2002, with an increase of around two million people; of these, 23,449,149 people were non-nationals of the country where they resided. Between 2000 and 2004, the population in Europe grew by around 1.5 percent, while the population of the accession states (EU 10) decreased. The population of non-nationals grew by 15.1 percent, with a particularly exceptional population growth of non-nationals in Ireland, Portugal, Finland, Italy and Spain. The non-national population is rather unevenly distributed throughout Europe. The largest third country citizen groups in the European member states (EU 15) are of Turkish, Moroccan and Serbian/Montenegrin citizenship. By differentiating the statistics on population and migrant stocks by the country of immigration, the impression is that the immigration processes in Europe vary widely between the various states as well as in regard to the migration groups. There is a multi-factorial interpretation necessary for these developments for which, however, the relevant statistical material is not available. Of most importance are the policies pertaining to temporary residence permits and employment permits. Also important are the family reunification regimes. There are also other very significant aspects to structure the numbers of non-national populations as, for example, the immigration of highly qualified people and the residence of foreign students.

An important fraction of the non-national population in Europe originated through refugee movements. The statistical data do not represent the diversity of asylum categories in Europe for the year 2003. For statistical reasons, five categories of refugee protection data have been differentiated: "asylum applicants", "recognised refugees", "Geneva Convention refugees", "people protected due to humanitarian reasons" and "other status refugees". Most data in the European Union context still come from the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR). Nearly no data is available for reasons of flight, nor are the general circumstances in the countries of origin or transit well documented numerically. Likewise, little is known about the social characteristics of asylum-seekers or refugees.

The number of asylum applications in the fifteen European Union member states (EU 15) decreased slightly between 1998 and 2003. A rather similar pattern with lower numbers appeared for the accession states (EU 10). Most asylum applications submitted in 2003 were in the United Kingdom, France and Germany. Again, the

distribution of asylum applicants throughout Europe is rather unevenly distributed. In each country the patterns are different. This has to do with the variety of refugee migration paths, with various procedural patterns in each country and with the situations in countries of origin and transit.

The statistical data presentation on age and sex ratios of refugee flows are restricted and there is also a variety of patterns in the European Union member states. The larger number of asylum applicants are between the ages of 18 and 35. There is a rising problem regarding unaccompanied minors. Data on applications and decisions are not comparable. The numbers and ratios of positive decisions vary from country to country. When analysing the data structures on positive decisions, it again becomes clear that refugee policies are run differently in each country. Data on refugee protection are related to patterns of migration flows and stocks. Also, the numbers of asylum applicants are clearly connected to crisis situations in the countries of origin.

To interpret irregular immigration to Europe, data are available on refusals, removals and apprehensions. These data indicate some trends and tendencies. The development seems to be more or less stable and there is even a decline in the number of removals and apprehensions. According to individual data on groups of refused, removed or apprehended citizens or of countries of immigration, there is a relation between these indicators and data to the patterns of established migration configurations and systems. When one takes into account the data on regularisation, specially in the Mediterranean countries, the irregular immigration seems to be much larger than the refusals, removals and apprehensions indicate.

2 Introduction

2.1 The Need for European Migration Statistics

Migration to Europe has become a central issue on various political levels. First of all, it has developed into a continuous topic of debate at the nation-state level. Furthermore, it is still perceived as a central social problem at the local and regional levels. Thirdly, it is clearly conceived as a European political task. Despite reservations of national governments with regard to labour market regulations, responsibility for immigration policy and refugee protection has increasingly been transferred to the institutions of the European Union. Within this context, the European Commission's Directorate for Freedom, Security and Justice and the Directorate for Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities both administer relevant measures. Various European legal documents as well as intergovernmental, bilateral and multilateral treaties and agreements influence this political arena. There are still three identifiable principles of European immigration and refugee protection policies: first, the free movement of European citizens; second, common orientation towards fundamental and human rights; and third, the realisation of a European area of social welfare.

Instruments for the fulfilment of these policy goals are, first, the Schengen Agreement, which includes European states that are not members of the European Union (such as Iceland, Norway and Switzerland), while it does not fully cover some of the European Union member states. Secondly, there is the common European passport symbolising European citizenship, based on the possession of member state nationality. A common European policy of "economic immigration" has also been proposed in 2005.³ European employment strategies include policies for immigrant populations. A common European refugee protection and asylum policy was founded with the Dublin convention. Various directives and the European Refugee Fund provide the background for a common refugee protection policy. In addition, there are other European efforts with regard to temporary protection, family reunification, etc. Since the beginning of the decade, policies for solving the problems of illegal and irregular immigration have become a central European task. Additionally, efforts to combat discrimination and a common policy of integrating populations with immigrant backgrounds have increasingly been on the European agenda.

Political discussions on national economic immigration policies, especially in regard to recruiting immigrants for special areas in the labour market, continue to remain

vague and difficult to review. The problems in this context are multifaceted, ranging from differing political perceptions, to the need for developing adequate political strategies. From the scientific perspective, it needs to be noted that definitions in this research field are still problematic. It is a matter of fact that the immigration phenomenon is still understood as a threat to social cohesion and welfare as well as a threat to government stability and security. Due to the diffuse knowledge of migration and the extensive debates on strategies, it is tremendously important to provide a clear analysis of immigration processes in Europe. The improvement of statistical data will contribute to this challenging task.

The structural patterns of immigration processes are changing at an accelerating pace, as is evident in terms of demographic, economic, sociological, political and cultural patterns. Until the 1990s these patterns were conceived as being shaped by the inward mobility of economic migrants and of people seeking protection as refugees. The situation has since changed: immigrant categories are becoming difficult to define and are increasingly more diffuse. Simple distinctions between skilled and unskilled immigrants, for example, make an efficient policy of labour market integration difficult. Immigration is related to the complex patterns of structural unemployment and welfare state dependencies. Generational differences, language and cultural traits play an important role in specifying immigration processes, settlement and integration models. The processes of immigration and refugee protection are increasingly intertwined and, therefore, difficult to describe. The time scales of settlement also vary. The simple distinction between temporary and long-term immigration is no longer sufficient. Likewise, immigration policies are complicated due to illegal border crossing, irregular settlement and work. These expanding social phenomena related to migration and refugee protection are distorting images of how European national societies deal with territorial identities, political borders, citizenship and citizens' rights. It will continue to be unclear how the impact of immigration on European social and political life might be understood as long as we have problems gathering reliable data on immigration processes.

The political obligations at the European Union level concerning immigration and refugee protection are accelerating. The number of tasks is augmented frequently. The management of migration and refugee protection is restricted due to the lack of financial resources. However, the central deficit is a lack of knowledge about migration and refugee flows in terms of social descriptions, categorisations as well as in

³ See the European Commission's policy plan on legal migration - COM (2005) 669.

numerical specification. At the European level, the provision of statistical and demographic data is still insufficient.³ So far the provision of statistical data has been based on deliveries from national institutions, statistical offices and ministries. Regional and local data are still difficult to obtain and there is also the additional challenge of comparability with national data. Furthermore, statistics are collected, arranged, and delivered by the national agencies with a considerable time lag. Therefore, the European Commission initiated the publication of annual statistical reports on “Migration and Asylum in Europe” as a rather complex and long-term programme.

2.2 The Annual Report on “Migration and Asylum in Europe”, its purpose and limitations

The preparation and publication of the annual statistical report is based on Council conclusions regarding the common analysis and improved exchange of statistics on asylum and migration adopted on 28/29 May 2001 and on the Commission’s Action Plan for the Collection and Analysis of Community Statistics in the Field of Migration.⁴ These reports shall contribute to the improvement of statistics in this area while stimulating the political debate on the nature of migration and asylum flows.⁵ The first annual report was prepared by the Commission services in co-operation with data providers in member states.⁶ It covered the year 2001 and provided a picture of patterns and trends with respect to migrants, asylum applicants, refugees and enforcement measures against illegal immigration in the fifteen European Union member states, plus the ten countries which were then in the process of acceding to the EU, and four other countries closely associated to the European Union (Norway, Iceland, Bulgaria and Romania). Based on this experience, a follow-up report for the year 2002 was published in co-operation with the European Migration Network (EMN) and appeared in the spring of 2006.⁷

³ See the chapter on “Metadata”.

⁴ Com (2003) 179.

⁵ A comprehensive overview of sources, collections and presentation of European migration statistics is provided by Poulain, Michel; Perrin, Nicolas; Singleton, Ann (ed): 2006, THESIM. Towards Harmonised European Statistics on International Migration. University Press Louvain.

⁶ Available from the DG JLS Website: http://europa.eu.int/comm/justice_home/doc_centre/asylum/statistics/printer/doc_annual_report_2001_en.htm.

⁷ The EMN aims to improve the availability of and access to information concerning migration and asylum at EU and member state levels. For more information, see the EMN Website: <http://www.european-migration-network.org>.

This is the third report, covering the year 2003 and a total of 29 countries: the fifteen member states of the European Union at the time; the ten accession states; and Romania and Bulgaria; in addition, Norway and Iceland are included as members of the Schengen area agreement. For each of these states, country studies have been written in the context of the *European Migration Network (EMN)* by EMN National Contact Points (NCPs) and by specialists under the supervision of the *Berlin Institute for Comparative Social Research (BIVS)*. These country reports provide information and data on the basis of various materials. For the second report, the *Centre d'étude de Gestion Démographique pour les Administrations Publiques (GéDAP)*, as the partner of the *Berliner Institut für Vergleichende Sozialforschung (BIVS)*, collaborated with the *Statistical Office of the European Union (EUROSTAT, or SOEC)*. The data sets were compiled on the basis of material sent to *EUROSTAT* by National Statistical Offices (and in some cases, by administrative agencies, e.g. Ministries of Interior) in the 29 countries concerned. The *EUROSTAT* data have also been the subject of discussions with *EUROSTAT* officials and of revisions by members of the working group preparing the Annual Report. This rather complicated process has been improved with the 2003 report preparations. However, the process has still not been fully implemented. Cooperation between various member states has to be improved. Parallel to these activities, the *European Commission* and in particular *EUROSTAT* are establishing new guidelines for improving the statistical data provision situation among member states and in the European Union at large.

Insufficient coordination in the area of definitions and of identification criteria is not the only obstacle in the provision of comparable statistics on international migration and refugee protection. The reliability of the data collection process is still open to question. Regardless of the type of criteria used, the gathered data vary considerably from country to country, and it is not unusual, for example, for the registration of emigration to cover only one emigrant out of two, not to say one out of ten. In order to understand why these problems have not yet been solved, other elements must be considered that are clearly against a quick improvement of the current situation. The UN recommendations on international migration statistics provide a useful target for improving the collection, reliability and comparability of such statistics in Europe. In order to fulfil these objectives, the proposed EU Regulation on Community Statistics on Migration and International Protection⁸ will require all member states to produce

⁸ Published 14.9.2005, Commission of the European Community: COM (2005) 375 final, 2005/0156 (COD). It is expected that the first reference year for data provided under the Regulation will be 2008.

reliable and harmonised statistics on international migrations also including asylum, residence permits, irregular migration and acquisition of citizenship.

The current 2003 report first offers some insights into the European and global aspects of immigration, refugee protection and settlement patterns – flows and stocks. This is followed by comparative tables compiling available data on migration stocks, population structures, resident permits, asylum applications, and data on the refusal of entry, apprehension, and removal of third country nationals. This chapter is supplemented by a discussion of the meta-data situation. The last section contains the 29 country studies, covering the 25 member states of the European Union, the two non-EU Schengen states, Norway and Iceland, as well as the accession states Romania and Bulgaria. According to the state of the European integration process in the reference year of this report, 2003, the report describes migration processes in Europe with regard to the following categories:

- “EU 15” refers to the 15 EU member states in 2003;
- The “10 accession states” (in some tables “EU 10”) refers to the ten states that were in the process of joining the European Union in 2004;
- “Non-EU 25 states” refers to the notion of “third countries”, a term regularly used in the European context. It thus refers to all states that were neither EU member states nor one of the ten accession states.

The migration data used in this report classify migrants by their citizenship and not by their country of destination or origin. Comparable data on the latter have not – until now – been available. For this report “citizenship” and “nationality” are used as synonyms despite the situation of having to deal with European citizenship without an understanding of European nationality. A glossary with further explanations is in the process of preparation.

2.3. The History of Immigration to Europe 1945-2003⁹

⁹ A comprehensive collection of essays on the history of migration in Europe was presented in two volumes by Colin Holmes, “Migration in European History” (Cheltenham 1996) in the framework of “The International Library of Studies on Migration”, edited by Robin Cohen. An overview is given by Randall Hansen (2003) under the title “Migration to Europe since 1945: its history and its lessons”, in: Spencer, Sarah (ed.), *The Politics of Migration. Managing Opportunity, Conflict and Change*. Oxford, pp. 25-38.

Modern widespread migration cycles began in northern Europe around the 19th century with the agricultural revolution, the rise of capitalism and subsequent industrialisation processes. People from rapidly transforming rural areas were driven to new industrial production sites in the growing cities. The impoverished, deprived, persecuted and excluded migrated to destinations such as the United States, Canada, South America, South Africa and Australia. With the formation of many of the new nation-states in Europe in the 19th century, diasporas – as they are known today – were formed as national minorities in the settler states. Inside Europe people moved from rural areas to industrial sites or to modernised agricultural firms. One could argue that large and rather uncontrolled migration movements accompanied the nearly 200 year-long European industrialisation process. Population exchange, expulsion, forced and voluntary assimilation in addition to re-migration were part of this process that continued up to the Second World War.

In the 1940s, almost all of Europe again faced an extensive displacement of populations. Victims of the Second World War were looking for a new place of settlement. Mass population movements in eastern and central Europe were under way; not in the least were large numbers of Polish and German-speaking people as a result of the readjustment of the borders and the dissolution of Prussia. Many European countries offered refuge to displaced people. Large numbers of Europeans emigrated to the Americas and elsewhere; the displaced Jewish population emigrated to Israel. This constituted a new phase of nation-state formation following the Second World War. The years between the late 1940s and late 1970s were dominated by two main contextual developments. The first development began with de-colonisation. This process was accompanied by new relationships between 'mother countries' in Europe and their former colonies on various levels. The second development involved the rather long-lasting and extensive upswing of the European economies beginning in the 1950s. In order to retain economic growth, two sources of labour were taken into account. One source involved labourers from European states' colonies and former colonised countries, which were, in most cases, economically plagued by underemployment. The second source was the European countries in the Mediterranean. In this manner, new labour migrant recruitment schemes in European countries began to be implemented.

The guest worker system in Germany, and later in Austria and the Netherlands, was a continuation of the old recruitment system of the late 19th and early 20th centuries, in which mainly labourers from central and eastern Europe were recruited to work in the

modernised agricultural regions and industrial centres of these former empires. This system was formalised during the 1950s, in the form of bilateral treaties between the states of origin and of destination as well as agreements in the destination countries between trade unions, employer associations and other interested parties. Recruitment offices were established in various countries with a surplus of labour, first in southern European countries such as Spain, Portugal, Italy and Greece, and later in southern Mediterranean countries such as Algeria, Morocco, Tunisia and Turkey. In the early years, labour migrants from rural areas were recruited for the classical industrial production sites – textile mills, shipyards, steel and coal mines, construction and the like. Later, recruited labourers found employment in the electronics industry and in other manufacturing areas. From the beginning onwards, guest workers were employed in the tourist, restaurant and catering sectors.

The colonial labour recruitment system was similar to the guest worker system, and established in countries such as the UK and the Netherlands. People from the colonies had been continuously settling in the so-called mother countries in small numbers during the previous century. However, after the Second World War, colonial labour workers were recruited from various parts of the world. Additionally, the new post-colonial situation aided a rather wide-reaching return system and for migration movements outside the institutionalised recruitment systems into European countries of settlement. Most of these people came in the 1960s, driven by rumours that the gates of entry for colonial migrants would soon become more restrictive.

Both the guest worker and the colonial labour systems were based on the expectation that the labour immigrants, often without families, would migrate for a limited period of time and then return to their countries of origin after their work period had been completed. The guest worker and colonial labour systems declined during the economic crisis across northern Europe in the late 1960s and early 1970s. This crisis marked a closing of the gates for both kinds of immigrants. The recession caused by the oil shock in the mid-1970s was a watershed in the history of European migration flows. However, family reunification as a gate of entry continued and accelerated. During the late 1970s and early 1980s, the immigrant communities in northern and western Europe grew through the immigration of fiancés, children and other relatives of the former guest workers. Most colonial immigrants settled their citizenship status through double nationalities, most guest workers, however, had difficulties in receiving full citizen status in their country of settlement. This might have to do with their status

as social citizens, with their self-awareness of living in diasporas, or with the refusal of governments to tolerate double nationalities.

After closing the more general gates of entry for immigrant labour, many European states opened new gates of entry for labour migrants. These were defined more specifically, and were increasingly based on a rather utilitarian strategy of immigration. Labour market needs were specified with a new precision. The establishment of a variety of micro-gates of entry geared towards filling employment gaps in specific sectors was the basis for a widely accepted new perspective in the 1990s, which became known over time as migration management.

In general, the 1980s and 1990s were defined by groundbreaking changes in industrial and labour market structures. Classical industrial sectors had already begun to decline in the 1970s. At the same time, new industries came into existence. New patterns of consumption were developed, and the labour market was reshuffled as a result. This is clearly reflected in the changing employment patterns of immigrant labour, marked by the decline of the heavy industrial and manufacturing sector and the rise of the service sector. Today, production and immigration have become largely globalised.

After the Second World War, the immigration of refugees was a common feature in European countries, and this mainly east-west migration was, for example, the main reason for the formulation of the Geneva Convention on Refugees. Protection and asylum provisions were accepted in most European countries due to the east-west division of Europe. Refugees were understood as persons who were persecuted in Bolshevik and post-Bolshevik countries, and who were thus forced to flee to the capitalist industrial countries of western Europe. Some of this refugee immigration can be understood as a mass refugee movement, such as the flight of Hungarians to western Europe in 1956 or of Czechoslovaks in 1968. There are other notable refugee movements in the east-west framework as well, for example, the flight of Jewish people from Poland and other eastern European countries. All of these groups settled in western Europe.

Labour migrants in the guest worker or post-colonial immigration system constitute another historical refugee movement that has not been widely recognised. Portuguese and Spanish persons persecuted in their countries of origin were able to immigrate to northern European countries. Here, they established wide-ranging political activities in the diaspora. After the return of the first Greek guest workers, a new wave of Greek labour immigrants moved to western Europe during the dictatorship era (1967-1974).

The same can be said of Turkey in the early 1980s. These refugees were mostly accepted as labour immigrants or according to family reunification. Refugee movements to Europe from new regions also took place during this time period with the immigration of Chileans, and later, of Iranians and other persons from the Middle East. Vietnamese and Southeast Asians also moved into Europe in large numbers. This category of non-nationals was different from the east-west refugees, and subsequently, a new policy of settlement was established.

During the 1980s and 1990s, a globalisation of refugee movements took place so that refugees from all over the world fled to European countries in order to seek asylum. One of the reasons for these developments was the closing of labour market-oriented gates of immigration. In this sense, many immigrants were not only looking for protection, but for an escape from economic deprivation. Also, many refugees who might have fled to Europe under the precursors of the guest worker and post-colonial systems were forced to come directly through refugee gates of entry.

In the late 1980s and early 1990s, many eastern Europeans tried to move into western European countries through refugee and asylum applications. The intra-European conflicts in the early 1990s, for example, in Yugoslavia caused a new explosion in the numbers of refugees, resulting in an extensive discussion on changing refugee protection and asylum laws in western European countries. This debate was related to three factors: first, to the sheer numbers of refugees and concepts of burden sharing; second, to the globalisation of refugee flows in terms of their countries of origin; and third, to new instruments for dealing with refugees. As a result of these debates, refugee flows became increasingly restricted and short-term 'safe haven' policies for refugee protection were established.

Since the beginning of the 1990s, these issues have been on the agenda but have not yet been resolved. They have been contradicted by a new humanitarian consensus. In all European countries, the concept of human rights as a basic principle of democratic governance was debated. The outcome led to new discussions on the definition of asylum, on the extension of asylum and on new types of residence permits based on humanitarian grounds, such as medical reasons. For example, the discussion included widening activities concerning care for vulnerable refugee groups, such as unaccompanied minors, women, traumatised refugees and the like. The contradiction between these new humanitarian projects, on the one hand, and the various restrictive measures regarding refugees on the other, have been fought out in the European countries in different ways, resulting in an utterly complex situation when looking at the

situation from an EU perspective. Therefore, this is still an issue of debate among member states inside the governing institutions of the European Union.

In the course of the last decade, changes in immigration to Europe have become obvious. The economic restructuring of European societies has changed the composition of new immigrants to Europe. The shifting composition of immigrants in the 1990s was due to the large influx of asylum seekers (and later, family reunification and family formation). This began with the increasing number of unskilled immigrants for the various services and manufacturing industries for which autochthonous labour was not available. The number of highly qualified immigrants has meanwhile also been increasing, and there is indeed an official government-supported competition among European countries with regard to 'brain gain'. Accompanying these phenomena has been the rising immigration of students. Other new immigration phenomena should be mentioned here, such as the rising number of professional migrants inside companies, as well as short-term migrants of various kinds who are granted short-term visas for certain functions. The globalisation of labour immigrants and refugees – with regard to the country of origin has created a more complex situation for integration efforts and support structures. This has resulted in the cultural diversification of European societies to an extent that has never been seen before.

When one looks at the immigration history following the Second World War, one can speak of the complex immigration history in each of the European countries and the continent as a whole. Most immigration movements have been well documented, but there are still areas in which knowledge is scarce. Contrary to the general situation of historical presentation, the collective memory of immigration history in Europe differs from country to country. The immigration of guest workers and colonial workers is the central area of collective awareness, and the memory of these migration flows still structures the debate on migration.

The historical reality tells a different story. First of all, the history of immigration in Europe is the outcome of guest worker and post-colonial recruitment policies, of irregular immigration, of protective or restrictive policies towards refugees and of the mobilisation of migrants from all over the world. There are gaps in knowledge here as well, and much is yet to be researched before it is possible to gain a comprehensive understanding of immigration history in Europe. In addition, there is the problem that the presentation of immigration history has been seen as a 'separate issue'. Indeed, one can say that immigration movements to European societies are rather complicated,

and that there are different interpretations of immigration history in each country. It is difficult to bring this together in a comparative manner.

Thus, it should be mentioned that one outcome of looking at the historiography of immigration in Europe is the realisation that there is a wide range of socio-graphic characteristics among immigrant groups. These characteristics are, for example, region or country of origin, duration of residence in the new country, cultural traditions, religious differences, gender structures, qualification levels, education and the desire to live a better life – or the social baggage that immigrants bring with them to the country of settlement as resources that aid them in their impacting the economic, political and cultural developments of European societies.

Table 2.3.1: Steps of Immigration to Europe 1945-2003

Main Period	Migration System	Flows (examples)	Problems with regard to migration statistics in Europe
1945 until ca. 1955	Post-war displacement	Jewish victims, persecuted Roma, former prisoners of war, German diaspora populations, etc.	Diaspora immigration continues. Due to varying citizenship policies, these flows and stocks are often considered as national citizens.
Around 1955 until 1974	<p>Guest worker and colonial labour migration</p> <p>- This regime was officially stopped in 1973 ff. - These immigrant populations are still involved in migration flows with their countries of settlement and origin.</p>	<p>Recruitment in Italy, Greece, Spain, Turkey, Morocco, Portugal, Tunisia and Yugoslavia.</p> <p>-----</p> <p>Central and eastern European states copied recruitment policies in regard to countries like Cuba, Angola, Vietnam, etc.</p> <p>-----</p> <p>In the colonial and post-colonial contexts, countries like the UK, France, and the Netherlands established immigration policies for colonial and post-colonial citizens.</p>	In some European countries, residents with a guest worker background had not been naturalised – even down to the fourth generation. This influences the number of non-national populations.
Around 1965 until the 1990s	Family unification	Spouses and children of settled immigrants.	Processes of family unification still dominantly influence the number of migrants. Birth rates – as well as mortality rates – of immigrant populations influence the data on population stocks.
Since the late 1970s	<p>Asylum or other permits of residence given to refugees</p> <p>-The Geneva Convention as well as national protection regimes provided the basis.</p>	After a widely accepted protection policy, up until the end of the 1970s new and large flows appeared from peripheral and third world countries. First from Vietnam and Chile, later from Middle Eastern countries. The numbers of positive decisions are rather low.	With family unification and irregular immigration, applications for asylum became an important gate of entry. Former applicants influenced the numbers of non-national population stocks.
Since the early 1990s	Temporary protection granted to refugees	Large inflows of refugees from European areas of conflict. Refugees from other places were included.	Large populations of non-nationals remain in Europe as temporarily protected or tolerated people.

Since the 1990s	New schemes for temporary labour immigration that take into account shortages in certain economic sectors; various new gates of entry were established.	Included here are recruitment schemes in the health sector, agriculture as well as construction and catering. Furthermore, new guest worker and vocational training schemes were established. Bilateral treaties with a variety of European countries and labour suppliers outside Europe provided the basis for these new, diffuse immigration flows.	Not much comparable data are available in this area.
Since the late 1990s	Recruitment policies for highly skilled workers	Most European states have tried to widen the number of highly qualified personnel by liberating visa and resident permit policies as well as by giving foreign students a permit to remain upon completion of their degrees.	Not much comparable data are available in this area.
Since the 1980s	Irregular border crossing and settlement	Old and new immigration have been accompanied by irregular inflows. With the difficulties of entering the European territory, with increasingly restrictive visa policies and a low percentage of positive asylum decisions, the number of irregular border crossings and residents has been rising.	Numbers on irregular immigration are not known, but there are estimates. Regularisation policies have contributed to the large increase of non-national population stocks.

The history of migration inflows to European countries is associated with statistical data in a rather complicated way. The various immigration phases have influenced current population patterns in Europe. They are the background of current immigration flows like family unification or illegal immigration. It seems to be the case that even people who are still seeking protection in Europe are selecting their destinations through the network of former migration flows. The non-naturalisation of immigrant stocks influences the data available with regard to counting the non-national population. This is the case for various guest worker populations in Europe as well as for refugee populations. Large numbers of people with an immigrant background still define their nationality and citizenship by their diaspora situation. Regularisation or legalisation processes have largely increased the numbers of non-nationals in various European countries.

2.4 The European Migration Space

One of the basic ideas behind the European integration process has been the implementation of the free movement of people beyond the dismantling of national borders with regard to capital and goods. The Schengen Agreement and its implementing measures are most important for the free movement of people, the policies of border and visa agreement between European states. The Schengen area does not exactly correspond with European Union member state territory, as Iceland, Norway, and Switzerland are cooperating members although they are not members of the EU. Ireland and the UK are not Schengen group members but can choose to take part in some common instruments of the asylum and immigration policies. Denmark has opted out of full collaboration with the Schengen Agreement but has a special status in the framework of collaborative immigration policies that fall under Schengen consideration.

In 1985 France, Germany, Belgium, Luxembourg and the Netherlands created a territory without borders. This became known as the "Schengen area".¹⁰ The agreements were discussed in the town of Schengen in Luxembourg. This intergovernmental cooperation expanded to include 13 countries in 1997, following the signing of the Treaty of Amsterdam, which incorporated into EU law on 1 May 1999 the decisions taken since 1985 by Schengen group members and associated working structures. Common rules regarding visas, asylum rights and checks at external borders were adopted to allow for the free movement of persons within the signatory states without disturbing law and order.

This freedom of movement was accompanied by so-called "compensatory" measures. Such measures seek to improve coordination between the police, customs and the judiciary while developing instruments to fight against terrorism and organised crime. In order to facilitate this, an information system known as the Schengen Information System (SIS) was set up to exchange data on people's identities and descriptions of objects, stolen or lost. Step by step the Schengen space was extended to all member states.¹¹ Between Schengen states a new border regime was established with common procedures. Immigration infrastructures at the Schengen

¹⁰ See the European Commission's Schengen-website:
<http://europa.eu/scadplus/leg/en/lvb/l33020.htm>.

¹¹ Italy signed the agreement on 27 November 1990, Spain and Portugal joined on 25 June 1991, Greece followed on 6 November 1992, then Austria on 28 April 1995. Finally Denmark, Finland and Sweden joined on 19 December 1996. The United Kingdom and Ireland maintain a status of partial cooperation.

border spaces were reconstructed to separate Schengen citizen from other nationals. Rules regarding conditions of entry and visas for short stays were harmonised.

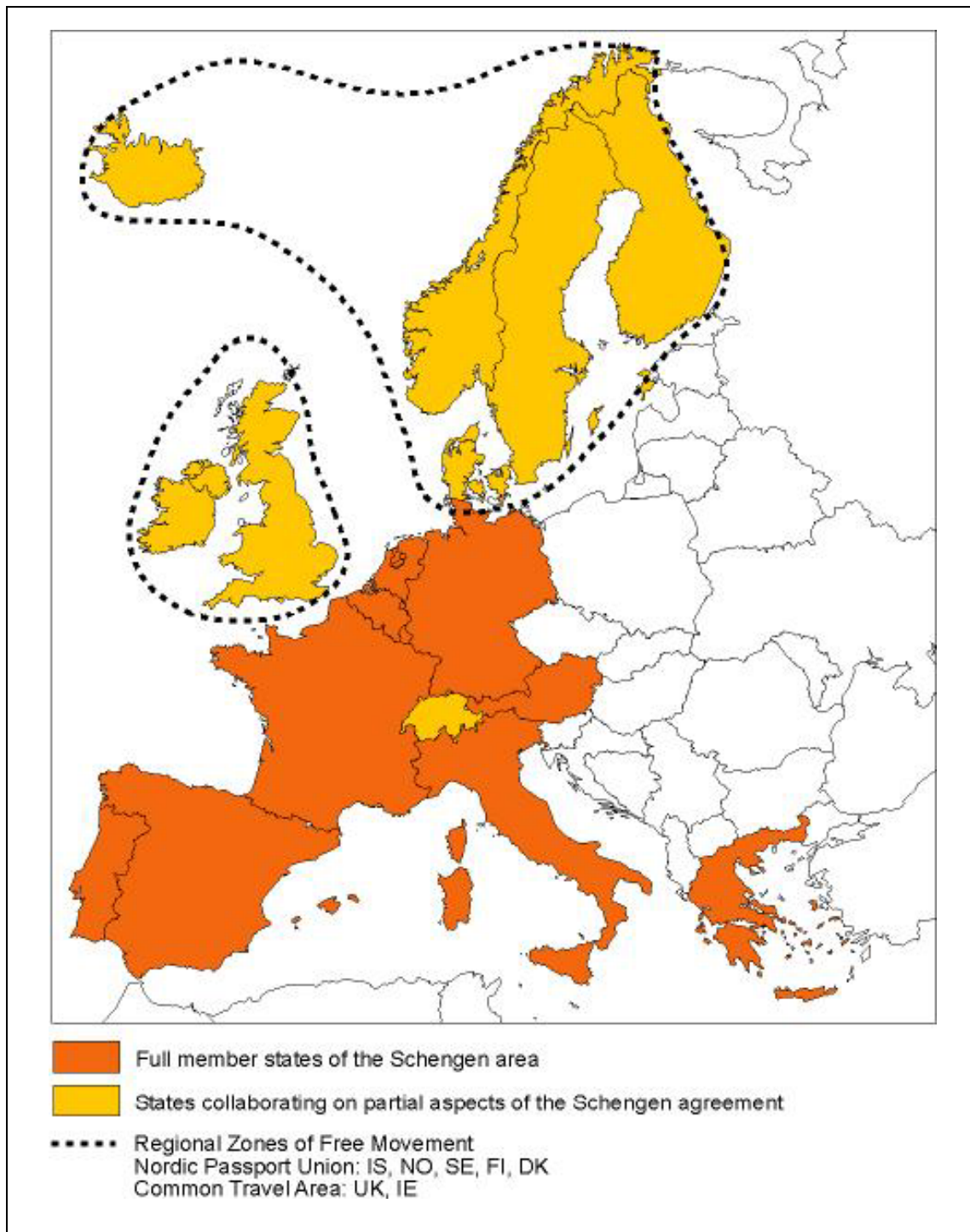
Although Denmark signed the Schengen Agreement, it can choose within the EU framework whether or not to apply any new decisions taken under Title IV of the EC Treaty, even those that constitute a development of the Schengen acquis. Denmark is bound by certain measures under the common visa policy. In accordance with the protocol to the Treaty of Amsterdam, Ireland and the United Kingdom can take part in all or some of the Schengen arrangements if the 13 Schengen group member states and the government representative of the country in question vote unanimously in favour within the Council. In March 1999, the United Kingdom requested to take part in some aspects of Schengen. In addition, Ireland asked to take part in some aspects of Schengen, roughly corresponding to the aspects covered by the United Kingdom's request, in June 2000. Iceland and Norway have been associated with the development of the agreements since 19 December 1996, although they did not have voting rights that other Schengen member states possessed. These countries continue to participate in the drafting of new legal instruments building on the Schengen acquis. The European Community also entered into an agreement with Norway and Iceland concerning the criteria and mechanisms for establishing the state responsible for examining a request for asylum (Dublin acquis). In 2002 the Commission began negotiations in regard to joining the Schengen acquis with Switzerland.

Apart from this intergovernmental cooperation agreement, other existing multilateral agreements between states overlap with the Schengen Agreement. The Nordic Passport Union, the Common Travel Area between the UK and Ireland, and the bilateral arrangement between Cyprus and Greece have established peculiar cross-border relationships. This affects cross-border migration patterns as well as statistical survey systems inside the European Union. This report includes states such as Iceland and Norway, two states which are not members of the European Union, but of the EEA.

The European Economic Area (EEA) was founded on 1 January 1994 following an agreement between the European Free Trade Association (EFTA) and the European Union (EU). It was designed to allow EFTA countries to participate in the European Single Market without having to join the EU. The Nordic Passport Union, a cooperation agreement created in 1954 between the Nordic States Denmark, Sweden, Norway, Finland and Iceland allows for the free movement within this region for citizens of the cooperating states without a passport. Free movement for other citizens is also possible, although they have to carry a document to prove their identity. The five

member states of the Nordic Passport Union joined the Schengen Agreement in 1997, and removed border checks in the area. Since March 2001 the Schengen acquis has been applicable. The Common Travel Area or, informally the Passport Free Zone is another free movement agreement. Citizens of the Republic of Ireland, the United Kingdom and the three Crown Dependencies (Isle of Man, the *Bailiwicks* of Guernsey and Jersey) are allowed to travel between their countries without a passport. According to a bilateral arrangement, Greek citizens have permanent residence rights and the right to employment in Cyprus.

Map 2.4.1: The Schengen Area and other Spaces of the European Immigration Regime



Source: BIVS 2006

According to the state of the European Integration process in 2003, migration processes in Europe are described with regard to the following categories:

- s EU 15 refers to the 15 European Union member states in 2003: Austria (AT), Belgium (BE), Denmark (DK), Germany (DE), France (F), Greece (GR), Spain (ES), Ireland (IE), Italy (IT), Luxembourg (LU), The Netherlands (NL), Portugal (PT), Finland (FI), Sweden (SE), and United Kingdom (UK).
- s The ten European accession states (EU 10) refer to the states joining the European Union in 2004: the Netherlands (CZ), Estonia (EE), Cyprus (CY), Latvia (LV), Lithuania (LT), Malta (MT), Poland (PL), Slovenia (SI), and the Slovak Republic (SK).
- s Non-EU 25 refers to all states that are either non-EU member states (EU 15) or one of the ten accession states (EU 10).

3. European Migration Dynamics

3.1 Immigration

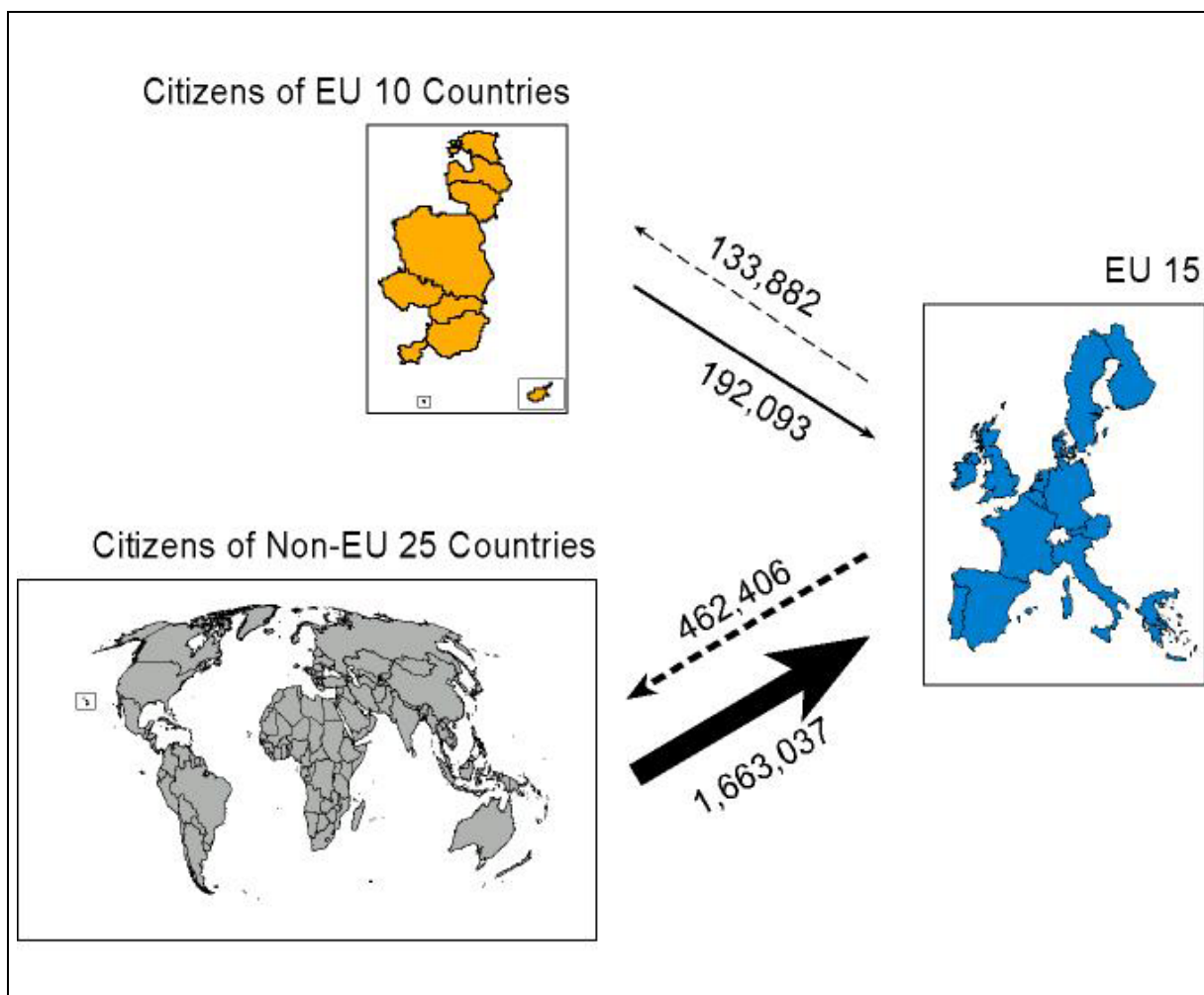
Taking into account the restricted reliability¹² of available statistical material, one can argue that in the European member states (EU 15) there were at least more than 3.1 million recorded immigrants in the year 2003, including citizens of the member states as well as nationals from European accession states (EU 10) and third countries (Non-EU 25). If we take into account the nearly 200,000 citizens of the ten accession states (EU 10) and the circa 1.66 Mio people from third countries (Non-EU 25), then at least 1.3 million people were migrating across international borders inside the European Union (EU15). In 2003, the largest numbers of immigrants were citizens of third countries (Non-EU 25) (See Map 3.1.1).

In absolute numbers, there were large differences in registered immigration of nationals and non-nationals between the member states (EU 15). In the 2003 ranking, Germany was the largest immigration state within the EU 15, Spain the second and the United Kingdom is to be found on the third position. From the year 2000 onwards, the recorded number of immigrants increased in Spain and Italy, while numbers rose more moderately in Belgium, France, Luxembourg, Austria and France. In all other countries the number of registered immigrants decreased during the reference period. This was also the case for Germany.

Sufficient data for migration flows between all European Union countries for 2003 are not available, however, if one takes into consideration the migration patterns in regard to selected member states= citizens, one can observe preferred countries of settlement within the EU 15 (See Chart 3.1.2).

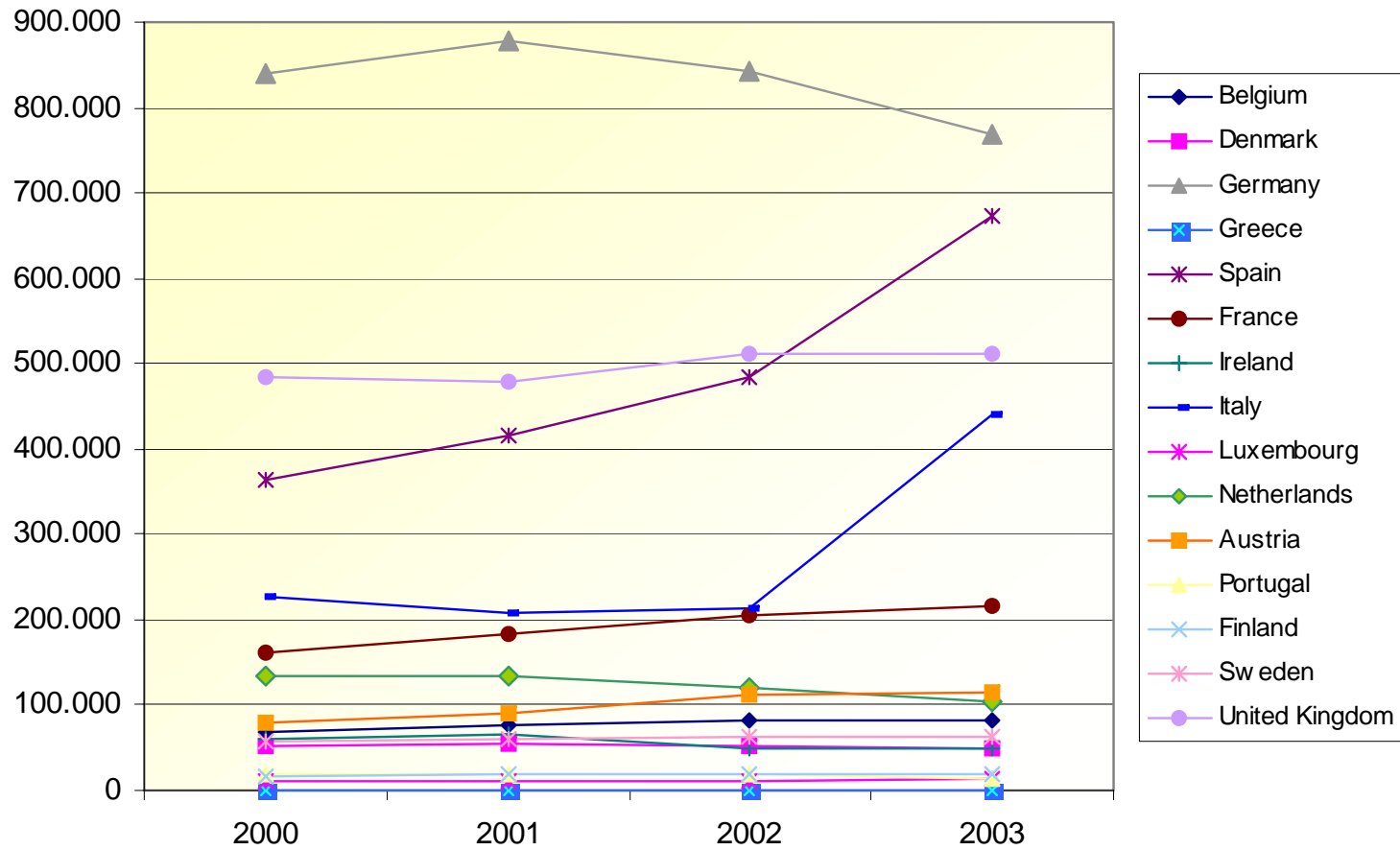
¹² The data on flows used in this report is based on different national definitions. As explained in the chapter on metadata, only a few statistics providers produce data that is in line with UN-recommendations, for example measuring immigration as long-term-migration to stay for at least one year. There are still other criteria used, for example the intended time of stay (see 9.6), so data comparability is not very good. Immigration data in this report are based on citizenship and not on country of origin.

Map 3.1.1: Immigration to and Emigration from European Member States (EU 15) in 2003



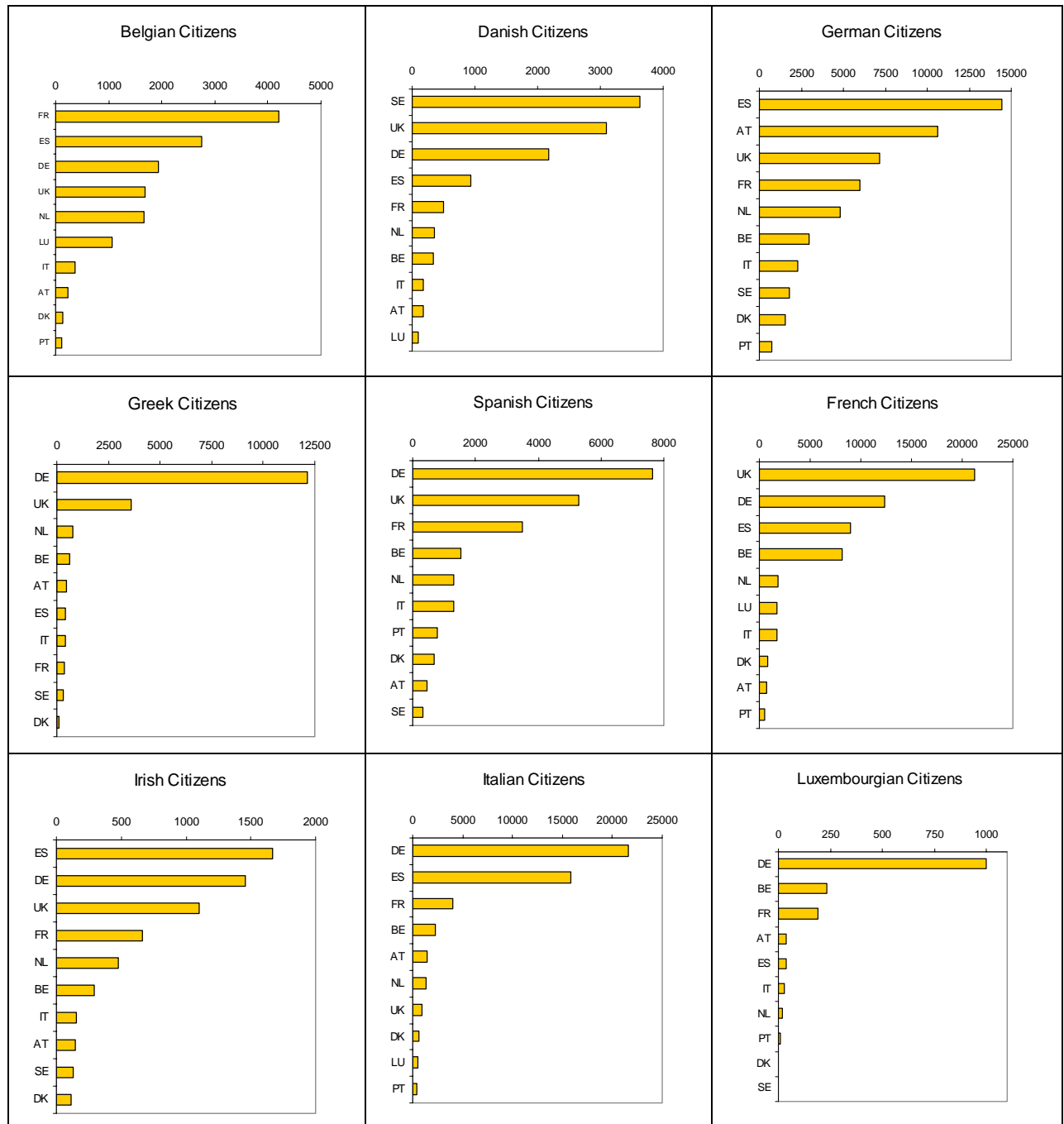
**without Greece, Ireland (immigration and emigration) and Portugal (immigration)
drawn through arrows represent immigration to, dotted arrows emigration from the EU15
Data Source: G  DAP/Eurostat 2006, Map: BIVS 2006*

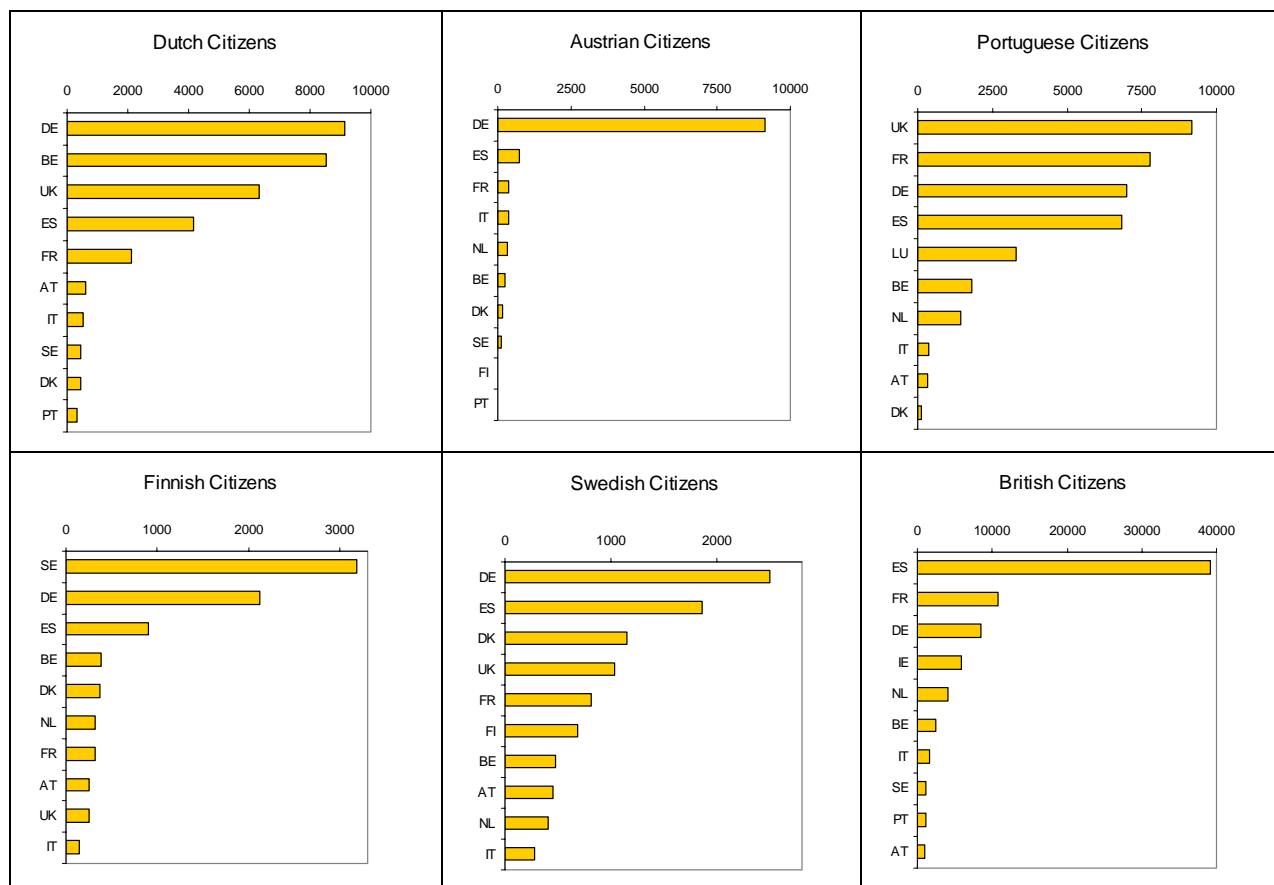
Chart 3.1.2: Recorded Immigration Flows to European Member States (EU 15), 2000-2003



Data Source: G  DAP/Eurostat 2006, Graphs: BIVS 2006

Chart 3.1.3: Migration Flows between European Member States (EU 15) in 2003: The Ten most Important Countries of Settlement for EU Citizens (EU 15) in 2003*



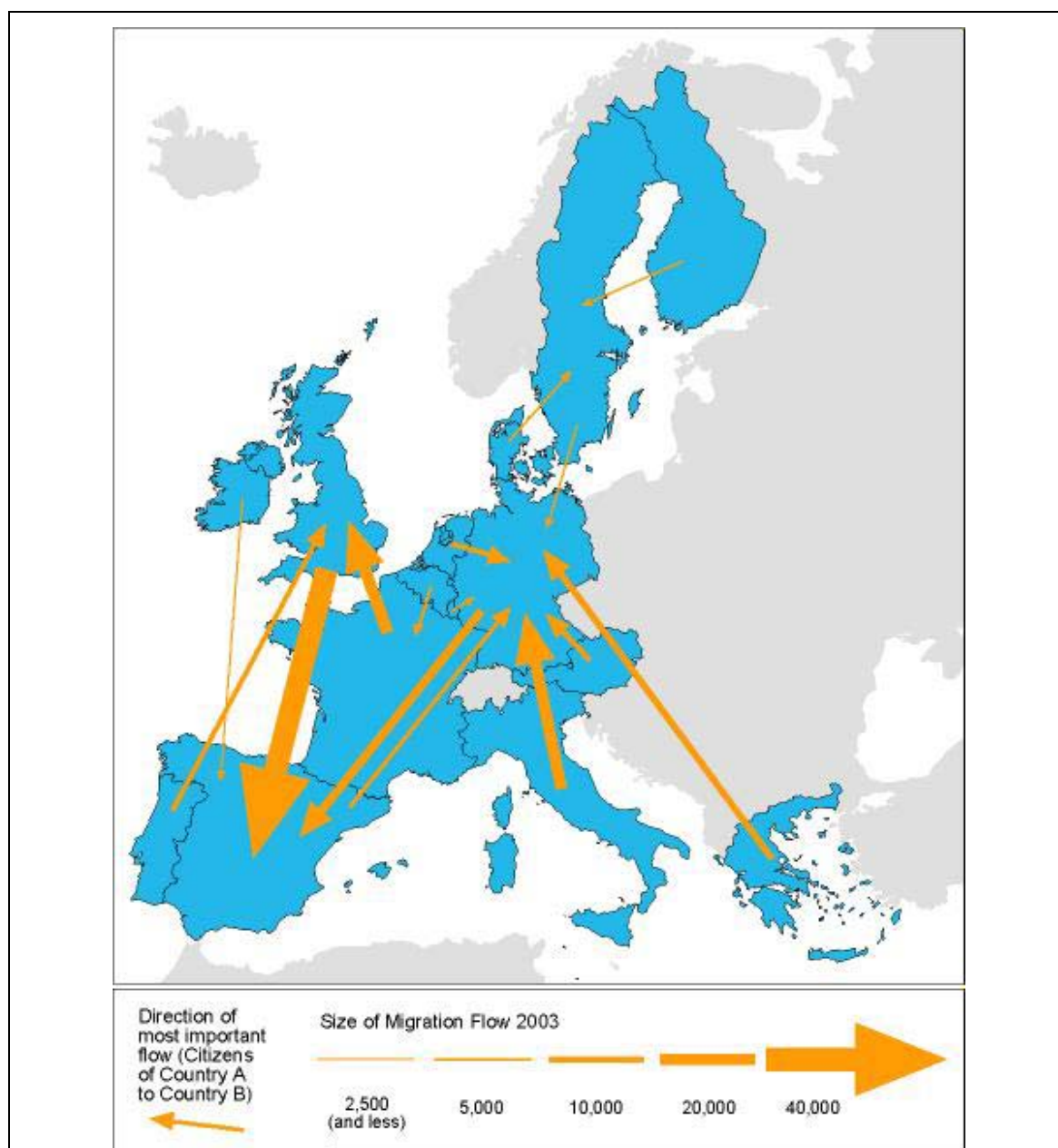


Graphs: BIVS 2006, Data Source: GéDAP/Eurostat 2006

Peculiar migration dynamics and immigration patterns have developed in each European country. As mentioned above, this has to do with different histories of immigration and emigration as well as with other relationships between national migration systems discussed below. Such peculiar patterns might go back to early recruitment and family unification or to lasting refugee flows. Common borders, cultural and linguistic similarities and other cultural features are of importance. Other factors are new immigration flows and seasonal or temporary migration, for example into the service or agricultural sector. (Chart 3.1.3)

The map 3.1.4 presents the largest flows of citizens of European member states (EU 15) migrating inside the European Union territory (EU 15). The widths of the arrows represent the sizes of each flow. Thus, for instance, it is obvious that Spain is the most important country of destination for British and German citizens. Germany is the most important immigration country for Swedish, Dutch, Austrian, Italian and Greek citizens. For each citizenship group, only the largest flow is shown, therefore the interpretation of this map is rather restricted. (Map 3.1.4)

Map 3.1.4: Largest Migration Flows of European Citizens within the European Union (EU 15), 2003



* Immigration to Greece and Ireland is not included.

Data Source: GÉDAP/Eurostat 2006, Map: BIVS 2006

Table 3.1.5: Immigration to European Member States (EU 15) by Third Country Citizens (Non-EU 25), 2003*

	<i>Country of current residence</i>													
	BE	DK	DE	ES	FR	IE	IT	LU	NL	AT	PT	FI	SE	UK
<i>Citizens of</i>														
Romania	998	230	23,780	69,942	2,774	:	74,463	49	657	5,333	158	47	329	1,371
Morocco	8,444	80	6,272	58,334	24,948	:	32,369	64	4,497	:	112	60	263	0
Ecuador	298	22	894	99,380	286	:	16,987	12	138	:	32	7	105	751
China (incl. Hong Kong & Macau)	1,579	1,930	16,059	12,238	8,901	:	13,514	94	3,772	2,171	311	423	1,430	37,099
Turkey	3,831	502	49,774	238	7,545	:	1,295	43	6,193	10,176	11	271	1,183	1,448
Ukraine	267	648	17,696	11,497	1,002	:	41,263	294	514	:	239	125	280	116
India	1,101	529	9,227	2,640	1,891	:	7,878	9	638	:	106	195	752	31,257
Russian Federation	610	459	31,776	6,275	3,222	:	4,028	210	929	3,629	172	1,670	967	955
Albania	236	14	1,670	213	431	:	46,587	57	58	:	6	15	66	0
United States of America	2,483	1,428	14,666	3,290	4,416	1,800	1,300	172	2,533	:	106	240	929	15,365
Other Third Countries	15,306	12,242	201,670	221,636	112,420	14,900	129,462	1,998	31,861	48,779	8,860	3,141	27,666	162,164
Total Third Countries	35,153	18,084	373,484	485,683	167,836	16,700	369,146	3,002	51,790	70,088	10,113	6,194	33,970	250,526

*without immigration data to Greece

Country specific remarks:

France: Immigration data refer to residence permits with a length of validity of at least one year issued in 2003.

The estimates include EEA citizens and all children under age 18.

Ireland: Year beginning mid-April

Portugal: data based on residence permits

United Kingdom: data from International Passenger Survey (adjusted for: asylum seekers, flows to/from Irish Republic, visitors and migrant switchers).

Data Source: G  DAP/Eurostat 2006; Austria: NSI's website; France: INED

The table 3.1.5 provides an overview of the ten most important citizenship groups of third countries (Non-EU 25) which immigrated to the European Union (EU 15) territory in 2003. Romanian citizens were by far the largest immigrant group. Italy and Spain were their main destination countries. Moroccan citizens represent the second largest group with similar destination countries and with a smaller number of this group of immigrants migrating to France. Ecuadorian citizens, the third largest immigrant group, are almost exclusively migrating to Spain. Chinese immigrants are in fourth position. Approximately 40 percent of the 90,000 Chinese immigrants in 2003 settled in the UK. The others went to Germany, Spain and Italy. Turkish immigrants are the fifth largest group, which is strongly oriented towards Germany. Indians are found in the sixth position, heading for the United Kingdom. Russians, Albanians and citizens of the United States of America occupy the remaining positions in the top ten of third country immigrants in the European member states (EU 15) in 2003.

The flows of third country citizens to EU 15 countries in 2003 show several trends:

- The growing importance of relatively new migration flows from Latin America, exemplified by Ecuadorians;
- The importance of immigration from beyond the eastern (Russian Federation, Ukraine, Albania) and the southern (Morocco) boundaries of the European Union (EU 15);
- Ongoing migratory relations between classical immigration countries and migrant groups as in the case of Turkish citizens going to Germany and of Indian citizens to the UK;
- The importance of inflows of citizens from highly developed economies outside the EU, exemplified by the emigration from the USA; and
- The establishment of the new (especially Mediterranean) countries of settlement. Spain and Italy are the primary destinations for third country immigrants (Non-EU 25) to the European Union (EU 15) territory.

Table 3.1.6: Immigration to European Member States (EU 15) by Citizens from the EU Accession States (EU 10), 2003

<i>Country of current residence</i>													
	BE	DK	DE	ES	FR	IT	LU	NL	AT	PT	FI	SE	UK
<i>Citizens of</i>													
Poland	2,086	861	88,241	4,649	2,711	10,592	117	1,530	3,186	34	73	1,017	3,649
Hungary	347	135	14,252	345	443	632	60	379	2,691	19	46	159	1,990
Slovak Repub	153	77	10,599	457	324	755	44	164	2,499	2	14	47	2,112
Czech Repub	281	176	8,447	554	430	924	52	243	1,154	9	34	83	1,674
Lithuania	130	673	3,235	1,762	170	391	29	161	126	11	33	230	76
Estonia	69	145	814	80	72	102	32	47	37	3	1,102	277	2,675
Latvia	71	337	1,834	258	84	187	17	56	67	11	46	152	0
Slovenia	44	28	2,029	92	83	235	33	49	393	0	4	16	0
Cyprus	9	1	80	10	44	26	0	4	9	0	3	8	1,428
Malta	0	2	35	10	13	42	9	17	1	1	0	3	119
Total EU10	3,190	2,444	129,566	8,217	4,426	13,886	393	2,650	10,163	90	1,355	1,992	13,721

* without immigration to Greece and Ireland;

Source: GÉDAP/Eurostat 2006; for Austria: NSI's website; for France: INED

Table 3.1.7: Immigration Flows to the Accession States (EU 10) in 2003

	<i>Country of current residence</i>							
	CZ	CY	LV	LT	HU	MT	SI	SK
<i>Citizens of</i>								
Ukraine	15,490	279	71	397	2,613	:	247	652
Romania	360	246	1	4	9,599	:	43	40
Russian Federation	1,841	1,594	291	1,089	337	:	112	194
Viet Nam	3,580	11	1	37	236	:	0	337
Serbia and Montenegro	254	0	0	4	709	:	1,499	108
Bosnia and Herzegovina	55	0	0	0	4	:	2,105	20
United States of America	894	102	73	154	514	56	55	255
China (incl. Hong Kong & Macau)	489	348	0	127	738	:	73	171
The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia	159	37	0	0	15	:	1,559	92
Croatia	126	0	1	1	86	:	1,282	58
other Third Countries	5,858	3,894	206	1,042	2,417		478	744
Total Third Countries	29,106	6,511	644	2,855	17,268	:	7,453	2,671

*No data available for Estonia and Poland

Source: G  DAP/Eurostat 2006

The table 3.1.6 illustrates that in 2003 Polish citizens alone represent more than 60 percent of the migration flows from the accession states (EU 10) to European Union member states (EU 15). This can partially be explained by the demographic weight of Poland among the accession states. In contrast, compared to its total population, migration from the Slovak Republic to member states is relatively large. Germany is the most important country of settlement for nearly all immigrants from accession states (EU 10), except for Estonian, Cypriot and Maltese citizens for whom the United Kingdom is the principal destination. Compared to the immigration dynamics of citizens from third countries (Non-EU 25), the size of immigration from the accession states (EU 10) is rather small. Although some data are missing and therefore a complete picture is not possible, flows from the accession states represent around seven percent of all immigration to the European Union (EU 15) territory.

In 2003, more than half of the number of people who immigrated to the accession states (EU 10) was made up of third country citizens from outside the future Union (EU 25). The main citizenship groups arrived from eastern Europe and east Asia. Without considering Estonia, Malta and Poland (for which no data are available) as destination countries, Ukrainians, Romanians and Russians were the most important immigrant groups to the accession states. Citizens from former Yugoslavia, in particular, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Serbia/Montenegro, Croatia, also constituted large immigrant groups. Non-European immigrants arriving in the ten accession states (EU 10) in large number originated from Vietnam, the USA and China (Table 3.1.7).

Compared to third country citizens, the size of immigration of member state (EU 15) citizens to the ten accession states is rather small. An exception is the migration of 5,000 Greek and of 2,500 British citizens to Cyprus.

Migration within the territory of the accession states (EU 10) is of comparable weight. Migration of Slovak citizens to the Czech Republic is the biggest flow between these countries.

3.2 Emigration

Table 3.2.1: Recorded Emigration from European Member States (EU 15), 2000-2003

	2000	2001	2002	2003
Belgium	56,479	52,697	51,563	54,123
Denmark	43,417	43,980	43,481	43,466
Germany	674,038	606,494	623,255	626,330
Spain	:	:	36,605	64,298
Ireland	26,200	25,600	20,700	18,500
Italy	56,601	56,077	41,756	48,706
Luxembourg	7,334	8,824	9,452	10,540
Netherlands	78,977	82,566	96,918	104,831
Austria	62,006	72,654	79,658	77,257
Portugal	4,692	5,762	8,814	6,687
Finland	14,311	13,153	12,891	12,083
Sweden	34,091	32,141	33,009	35,023
United Kingdom	320,700	307,700	359,400	361,500

*without Greece and France

Source: GÉDAP/Eurostat 2006

In the chapter on immigration data problems of data reliability were emphasised. Data on emigration are even more problematic. This is for various reasons. Registration is the most obvious problem as in most European countries, emigration is often not registered. In many states, statistics are based on residence data. Emigration data include B if registered B all persons leaving the country. These include national as well as foreign citizens. Emigrants might be people leaving for settlement in a new destination country, returnees to countries of origin or removed people. Migration flows inside the European Union (EU 10) are included. Apparently, until 2003, the numbers of people emigrating from member states within the European Union (EU 15) were rather steady. In 2003, the largest emigration flows were registered in Germany and in the United Kingdom.

Table 3.2.2: Recorded Emigration of Citizens of European Accession States (EU 10) from EU 15 Countries, 2003

<i>Country of previous residence</i>											
	BE	DK	DE	ES	IT	LU	NL	AT	FI	SE	UK
<i>Citizens of</i>											
Poland	393	583	73,666	187	147	39	407	2,115	12	172	3,055
Hungary	107	109	14,972	19	35	60	138	2,087	53	97	3,605
Slovak Republic	57	51	9,669	30	23	14	54	1,522	2	14	1,483
Czech Republic	81	142	8,232	42	19	15	101	861	18	35	0
Lithuania	41	619	2,083	63	3	7	25	82	14	43	0
Slovenia	22	21	2,223	5	65	7	20	408	0	8	0
Latvia	25	347	1,424	5	4	4	10	24	8	40	0
Estonia	18	141	506	4	1	17	11	18	171	62	0
Cyprus	3	2	101	1	1	0	5	5	0	12	367
Malta	8	0	46	0	3	3	6	1	0	3	186
Total EU10	755	2,021	112,922	356	301	166	777	7,123	278	486	8,697
Total Emigration	41,897	43,466	626,330	64,298	48,706	10,540	68,885	77,257	12,083	35,023	313,960

*without Greece, France, Ireland, Portugal

Source: G  DAP/Eurostat 2006

Table 3.2.3: Emigration of Larger Groups of Third Country (Non EU 25) Citizens from European Member States (EU 15), 2003*

	<i>Country of previous residence</i>										
	BE	DK	DE	ES	IT	LU	NL	AT	FI	SE	UK
<i>Citizens of</i>											
Turkey	320	270	36,863	16	23	26	664	3,085	26	130	1,252
Serbia and Montenegro	0	16	30,728	34	310	457	142	4,849	13	111	0
United States of America	2,120	1,344	14,064	251	366	355	1,687	892	184	717	10,891
Romania	153	136	19,759	1,438	343	37	127	2,689	13	40	0
Australia	126	286	1,541	14	66	13	370	:	40	205	20,468
China (incl. Hong Kong & Macau)	257	582	11,704	648	316	39	452	:	38	295	8,246
Russian Federation	124	212	13,879	228	54	302	168	808	271	137	0
Croatia	31	15	12,120	19	171	5	53	2,486	1	48	0
Bulgaria	76	70	10,280	444	30	11	79	830	5	50	647
India	289	215	6,121	242	219	3	187	:	42	193	4,212
Other Third Countries	3,684	6,949	115,040	18,902	4,523	1,301	6,334	14,572	452	5,221	47,404
Total Third Countries	7,180	10,095	272,099	22,236	6,421	2,549	10,263	30,211	1,085	7,147	93,120

* without Greece, France, Ireland and Portugal

Source: Eurostat 2006; Malta, Austria, Iceland: NSI's website; France: INED, calculations by BIVS

As mentioned above, emigration data include return migration figures. The number of citizens of European accession states (EU 10) emigrating from member states (EU 15) is, with the exception of Germany, rather small. Polish emigrants (73,666) contribute to the large number of 112,922 people leaving member states (EU 15) towards Poland, Hungary, the Czech and the Slovak Republic. These figures indicate the existence of rather stable migration systems between Germany and these countries. Numbers for the United Kingdom and Austria are comparatively small, but much larger than the figures for other member states (EU 15) (Table 3.2.2).

GéDAP and Eurostat were able to provide emigration data by citizenship for eleven of the 15 EU member states. The most important groups of third country nationals leaving these states were citizens from Turkey, Serbia/Montenegro, the USA and Romania. Although caution is necessary in interpreting these data, one can state that in comparison to the migration data provided, most emigration flows are considerably smaller than immigration. The inflow of Romanian, Turkish, Chinese or Moroccan citizens is two to six times higher than emigration. Citizens from Serbia/Montenegro, are exceptions, whose size of emigration is close to immigration, and citizens from Australia, whose emigration flows outweigh immigration. Various factors provide the reason for third country (non-EU 25) emigration from member states. First of all, these data are related to migration fluidity, the flexibility of migrants in the context of certain migration configurations to exchange household members between the country of origin and destination. Second, return policies with regard to temporarily protected refugees and the removal of irregular immigrants influence these data.

The migratory relations between the ten EU accession states with the EU 15 are quite balanced, although the data do not permit for a precise interpretation (Table 3.2.3).

Table 3.2.4: Recorded Emigration from European Accession Countries (EU 10), 2000-2003

	2000	2001	2002	2003
Czech Republic	1,263	21,469	32,389	34,226
Cyprus	8,804	12,835	7,485	4,437
Latvia	7,131	6,602	3,262	2,210
Lithuania	21,816	7,253	7,086	11,032
Hungary	2,540	2,591	3,126	3,122
Poland	26,999	23,368	24,532	20,813
Slovenia	3,570	4,811	7,269	5,867
Slovak Republic	811	1,011	1,411	4,777

*without Estonia and Malta

Source: GÉDAP/Eurostat 2006

With the exception of the Czech Republic, emigration flows from accession states are rather steady. The largest flows originate from the Czech Republic, Poland and Cyprus.

Table 3.2.5: Emigration of Third Country Citizens (Non-EU 25) from Accession States (EU 10), 2003

<i>Country of current residence</i>							
	CZ	CY	LV	LT	HU	SI	SK
<i>Citizens of</i>							
Ukraine	15,490	279	71	397	2,613	247	652
Romania	360	246	1	4	9,599	43	40
Russian Federation	1,841	1,594	291	1,089	337	112	194
Viet Nam	3,580	11	1	37	236	0	337
Serbia and Montenegro	254	0	0	4	709	1,499	108
Bosnia and Herzegovina	55	0	0	0	4	2,105	20
United States of America	894	102	73	154	514	55	255
China (incl. Hong Kong & Macau)	489	348	0	127	738	73	171
the former Yugoslav							
Republic of Macedonia	159	37	0	0	15	1,559	92
Croatia	126	0	1	1	86	1,282	58
Other Third Countries	5,858	3,894	206	1,042	2,417	478	744
Total Third Countries	29,106	6,511	644	2,855	17,268	7,453	2,671
Total Immigration	60,015	16,779	1,364	4,728	21,327	9,279	6,551

*Without Estonia, Poland, Malta

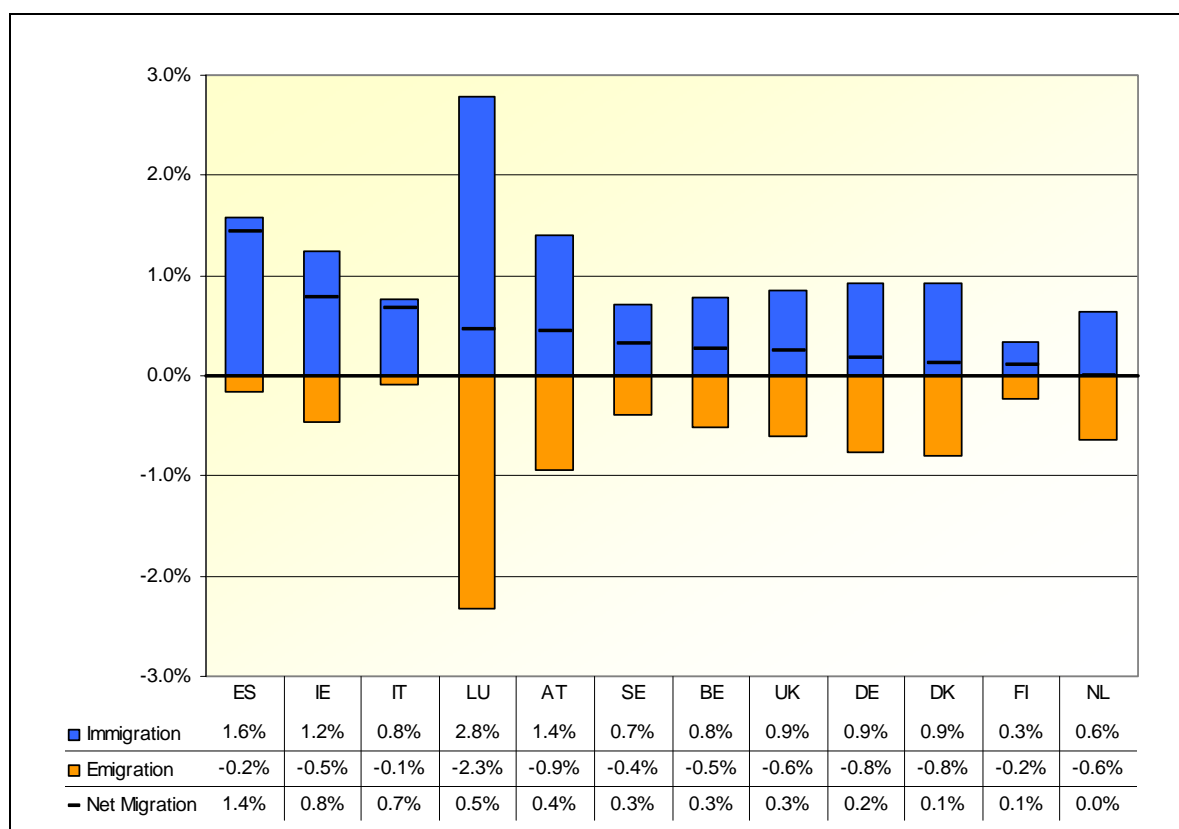
Source: GÉDAP/Eurostat 2006

The largest numbers of third country (non-EU 26) emigrants from the accession states are counted for Ukrainian and Russian Citizens from the Czech Republic. Other larger flows are related to the Hungarian-Romanian migration system. The greater number of Russian citizens in the Baltic States is related to late consequences of state building processes. Both, the Baltic Russian and the Hungarian Romanian developments might be interpreted as diaspora migration phenomena (see below).

3.3. Net-Migration

Data on net migration (immigration minus emigration) indicate population growth through migration. The data are deduced from immigration and emigration statistics. As mentioned above, this material is not fully reliable and comparable so it should be just understood as indicative for the understanding of European migration processes.¹³

Chart 3.3.1: Immigration, Emigration and Net Migration in Selected European Member States (EU 15) as Percentage of Total Population, 2003*



*Country Notes:

Belgium: Emigration flows include corrections; Greece: Data not available; Ireland: Year beginning mid-April
 Netherlands: Emigration flows include administrative corrections; Portugal: Immigration: foreigners only (residence permits)
 United Kingdom: Total International Migration (data from International Passenger Survey, adjusted for: asylum seekers, flows to/from Irish Republic, visitors and migrant switchers).

Chart: BIVS 2006, Data Source: GÉDAP/Eurostat 2006

¹³

Absolute numbers are to be found in the "Authorized Tables" below.

All EU 15 countries for which data are available increased its population through migration. Compared to total population, Spain (1.4 percent), Ireland (0.8 percent) and Italy (0.7 percent) registered the largest relative net gains. For all other countries, the relative increase of population by migration was even smaller. The number for the Netherlands was zero. Nevertheless, the fluidity of migrants in all countries was considerable. In absolute numbers, the largest gains were registered in Spain (circa 608,000) and Italy (roughly 390,000 persons), Germany (approximately 143,000) and the United Kingdom (around 150,000). For Spain and Italy, the numbers increased exceptionally, mainly due to legalisation and regularisation procedures (Chart 3.3.1).

Table 3.3.2: Net Migration in the European Member States (EU 15), 2001-2003

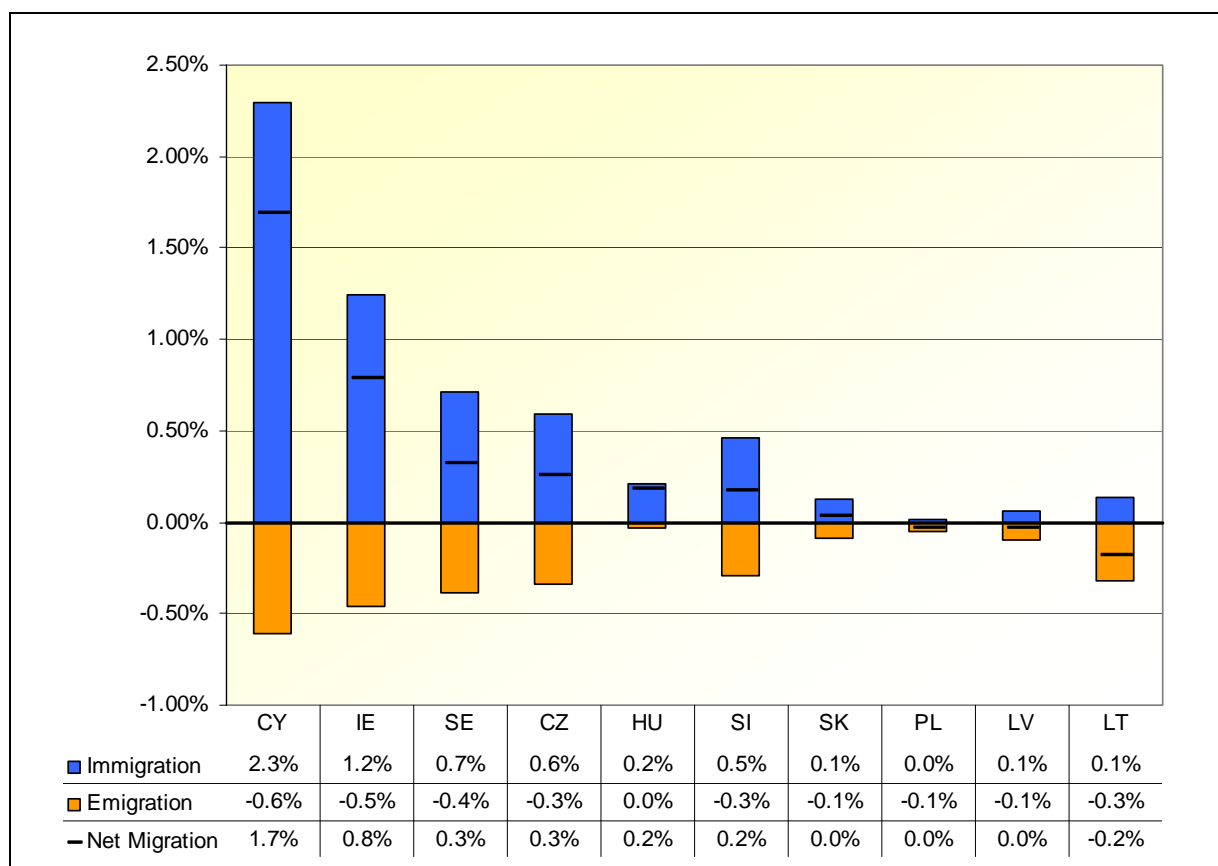
	2000	2001	2002	2003
Belgium	12,137	24,887	31,092	27,790
Denmark	9,498	12,004	9,297	6,288
Germany	167,120	272,723	219,288	142,645
Greece	44,251	27,726	31,848	44,778
Spain	:	:	446,655	607,968
Ireland	32,800	41,300	29,800	31,600
Italy	170,367	152,175	171,446	391,595
Luxembourg	4,431	3,311	2,649	2,073
Netherlands	53,873	50,838	24,332	-317
Austria	17,272	17,274	33,507	36,297
Portugal	:	:	:	:
Finland	2,584	5,802	5,222	5,755
Sweden	24,568	28,654	31,078	28,772
United Kingdom	162,700	171,900	153,400	151,100

Notes: Greece: estimates provided by the EMN National Contact Point

Chart: BIVS 2006, Data Source: GÉDAP/Eurostat 2006

Among the eight out of ten accession states for which data were available, the situation was polarised: while the population of Cyprus increased by 1.7 percent through migration, the migration balance of accession states Slovakia, Poland, Latvia and Lithuania was neutral or slightly negative.

Chart 3.3.3: Immigration, Emigration and Net Migration in Selected European Accession States (EU 10) as Percentage of Total Population, 2003*



***Country Notes**

Czech Republic: From 2001 change of the definition for flows of foreigners: until 2000 only changes of permanent residence; from 2001, changes of usual residence

Malta: Immigration figures refer to persons who intend to reside in Malta and are therefore entitled to tax reductions

Poland: Migration for permanent residence

Slovak Republic: Change of definition in 2003: Flows until 2002 and flows of nationals in 2003 cover changes of permanent residence only;

Romania Migration for permanent residence. Immigration: foreigners only; Emigration: nationals only.

Chart: BIVS 2006, Data Source: GÉDAP/Eurostat 2006

In absolute numbers, the largest gains were registered in the Czech Republic (25,000), Hungary (18,000) and Cyprus (12,000), while Poland registered a loss of nearly 14,000 persons through migration.

Table 3.3.4: Net Migration in the European Accession States (EU 10), 2001-2003

	2000	2001	2002	2003
Czech Republic	6539	-8551	12290	25789
Cyprus	3960	4650	6885	12342
Latvia	-5504	-5159	-1834	-846
Lithuania	-20306	-2559	-1976	-6304
Hungary	19186	19488	16729	18205
Poland	-19668	-16743	-17945	-13765
Slovenia	2615	2992	1865	3412
Slovak Republic	1463	1012	901	1774

Source: G  DAP/Eurostat 2006

Chart 3.3.5: Largest Net Migration of Third Country Groups (Non EU 25) by Citizenship in the European Member States (EU 15), 2003

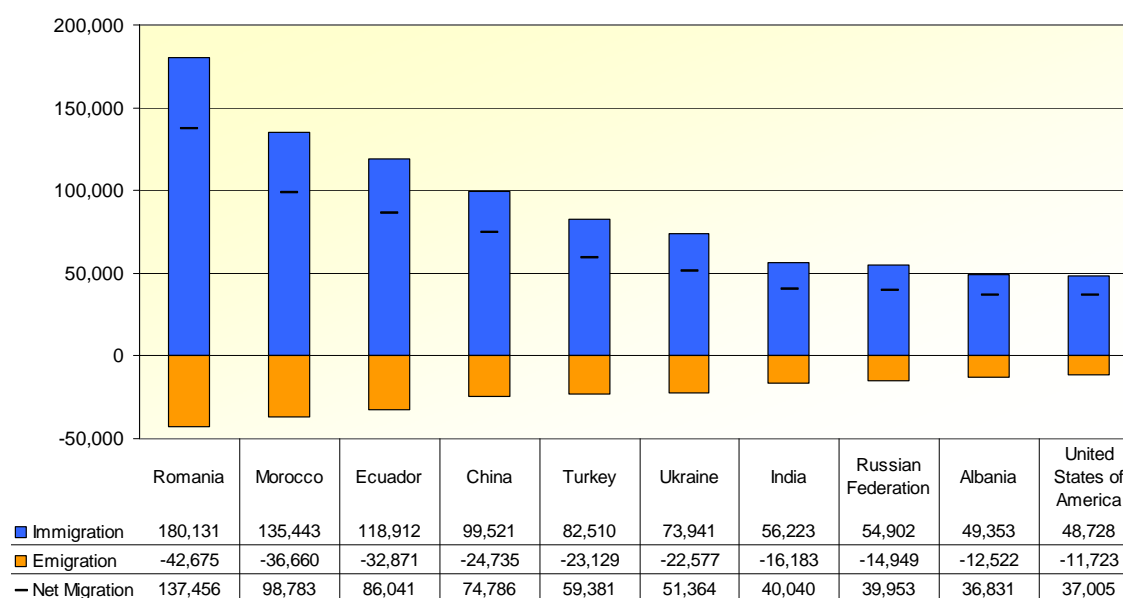


Chart: BIVS 2006, Source: G  DAP/Eurostat 2006

There are no data available for Greece, Ireland, Portugal, and Austria. Romanian citizens contributed to most European member states= population increases through immigration. Moroccans provide the second largest immigration gain with a large established immigrant population of former guest workers comparable to the Turkish immigrant group. Ecuadorians were in the third position, part of a new migration configuration with Latin America. The large group of Chinese is also notable. Ukrainian (net gain: 73,941) and Russian (net gain: 54,902) gains were related to established immigration patterns from eastern Europe. Part of net migration from Albania might be related to registrations through regulation processes. The large migration gain by

citizens from the United States is also worth mentioning. European member states= net migration are larger from third-countries (Non-EU 25) than from European accession states (EU 10). With a view on migration balances in selected countries, it can be demonstrated, that B as argued above B the migration situation in Europe differs widely from country to country.

Chart 3.3.6: Examples of Net Migration Data for Selected Member States (EU 15), 2003

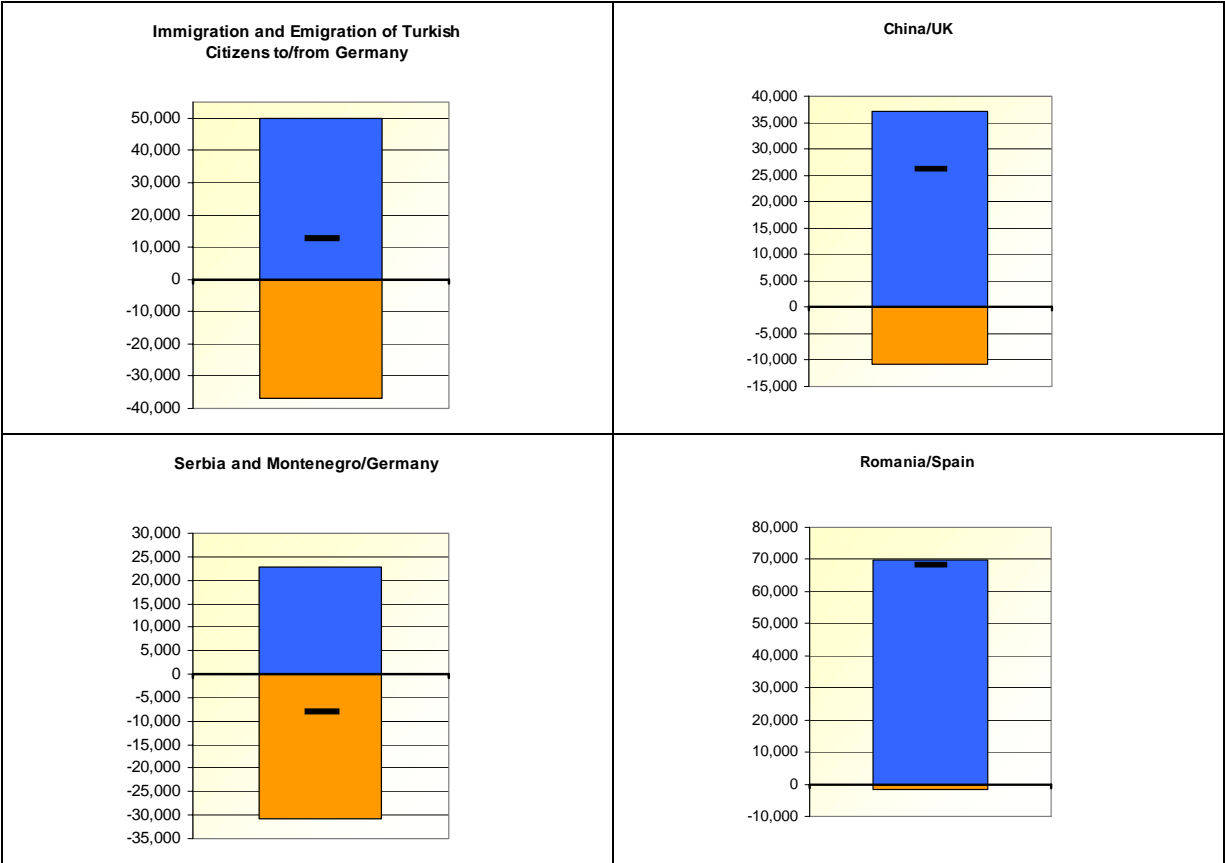
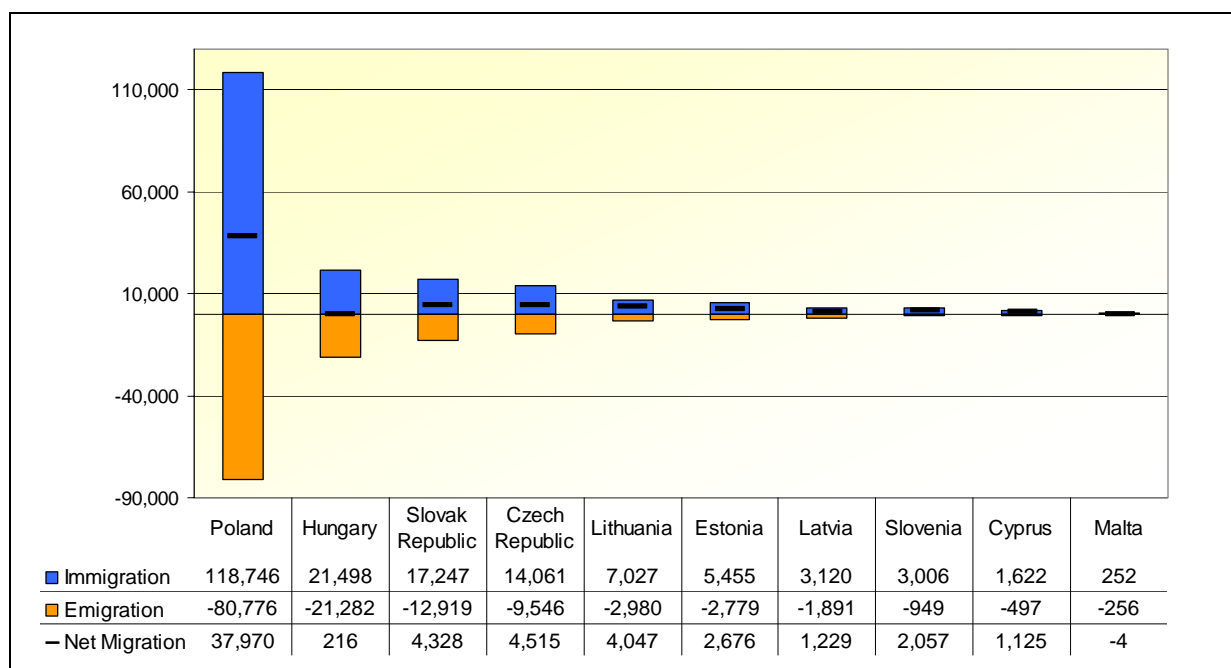


Chart: BIVS 2006, Data Source: G  DAP/Eurostat 2006

Chart 3.3.7: Net Migration of Citizens of the Accession States (EU 10) to European Member States (EU 15), 2003



*Without Greece and Ireland, emigration from Portugal for all, Australia: no data available for citizenship groups

Chart: BIVS 2006, Data Source: GÉDAP/Eurostat 2006

In 2003, the number of citizens from European member states (EU 15) in the accession countries (EU 10) was still rather small. Poland was the exception in this context: This might be partially explained by peculiar migration configurations, for example by the diaspora formation of so-called German co-ethnics from Poland or by former Polish nationals with German citizenship who have arranged cross-border residences.

Chart 3.3.8: Net Migration and Total Population Growth from 2001 until 2003 in Selected European Countries (EU 25)

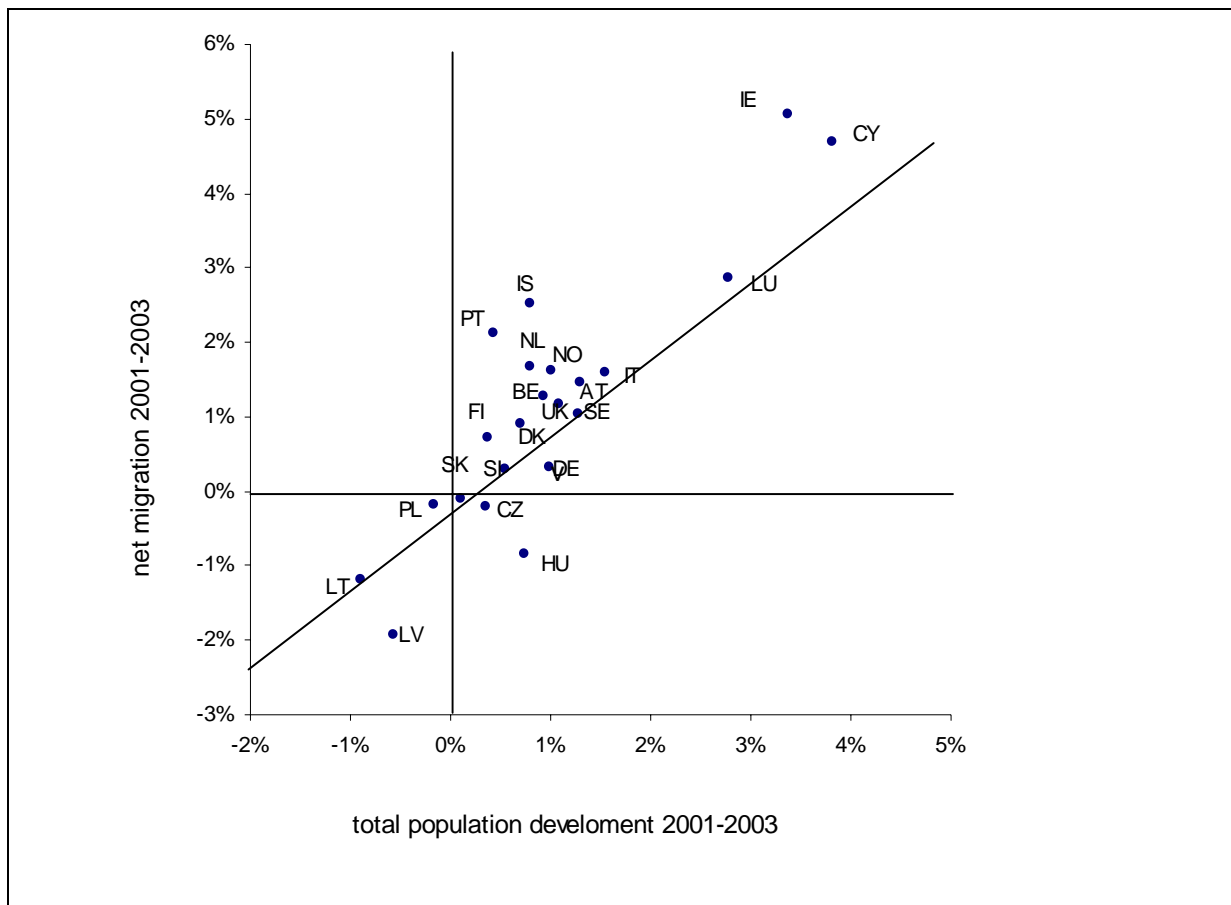


Chart: BIVS 2006, Data Source: G  DAP/Eurostat 2006

The central issue in political and academic debates with regard to net migration is related to the "demographic decline". The contribution of immigration to population growth is a highly discussed issue. Certainly factors, such as education, cultural and social capital, as well as economic system or welfare state developments play important roles in such a scenario. When comparing population with net migration, there seems to be a dependency between both factors. In Poland, Lithuania and Latvia, we have both negative immigration and a negative population growth. Ireland, Cyprus, and Luxembourg have experienced rather large migration gains and high population growth. All other countries experienced between a zero and two percent population growth and up to three percent net migration; only the Czech Republic and Hungary display a negative migration balance.

4. Populations and Migrant Stocks

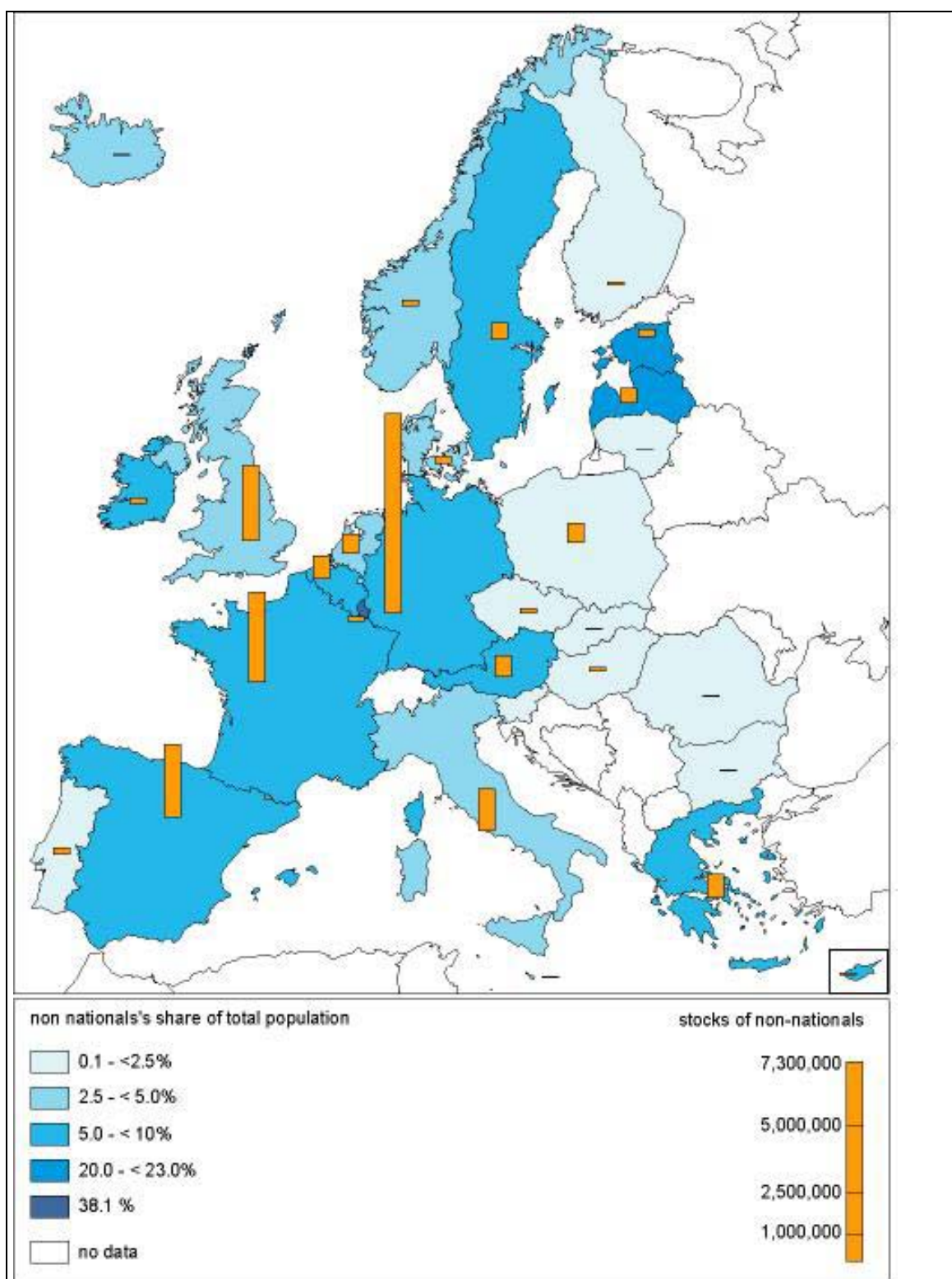
The population of the European Union member states in 2003 was 382,748,050 (2002: 380,823,989), of which 23,449,149 (2002: 22,103,843) were non-nationals.¹⁴ The population grew in the European member states (EU 15) between 2000 and 2004 by around 1.5 percent; the population of non-nationals grew by 15.1 percent. The population of the accession states (EU 10) decreased by 0.3 percent. As in 2002, the population growth seems to have been exceptional in Ireland.¹⁵ Between 2002 and 2004 the total population size rose by over 5.1 percent and the population of non-nationals rose by nearly 40 percent.¹⁶ Portugal experienced a non-national population growth rate of 20.5 percent during this period and a total population growth of 2.1 percent. Finland was also confronted with rising population increases, with a non-national population growth rate of 17.5 percent and a total population growth of 0.7 percent. In Spain, with a total population growth of 4.6 percent, the numbers of non-nationals more than doubled to 102.3 percent between 2000 and 2004.

¹⁴ Population data are recorded on 1 January of the subsequent year. Migration data presents problems of reliability and comparability. In various cases, the data in the country reports differ from data in the EUROSTAT/GéDAP statistical tables. Please note that the above-mentioned GéDAP data 2002 differs from the GéDAP data 2003 for 2002 (Total Population 2002: 380,821,986; Non-National Population 2002: 22,308,748).

¹⁵ Ireland has the highest fertility rate of the European EU 25, countries.

¹⁶ Irish data on population stocks come from census data. The last census took place in 2002. EUROSTAT data seem to have other sources.

Map 4.1: Shares and Total Stocks of Non-National Populations, 2003

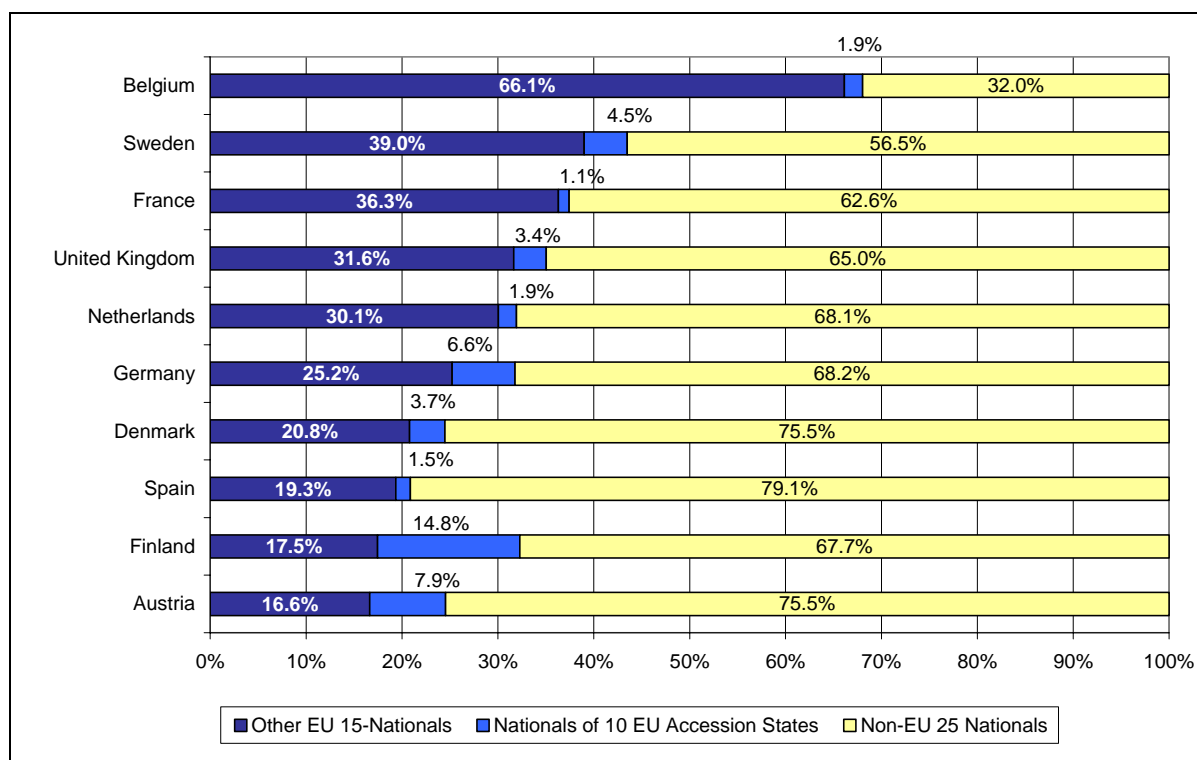


Data Source: G  DAP/Eurostat 2006, Map: BIVS 2006

The largest non-national population is found in Germany with 7,334,765 persons, followed by France (3,423,663), the United Kingdom (2,941,400), Spain (2,772,200), and Italy (2,193,998). Luxembourg is still the country with the largest representation of non-nationals as a percentage of the total population (38.1 percent). It is worthwhile to mention here the unevenness of population distributions between each of the European member states (EU 15) and accession states (EU 10). This is the case with the total number of nationals and non-nationals as well as the representation as a percentage of the total population. Germany has approximately 82.5 million inhabitants, France and the UK each has about 60 million, Italy has nearly 58 million and Spain more than 42 million inhabitants. At the end of 2003, these countries account for nearly 80 percent (79.60 percent or 18,666,026 people) of the non-national population in all European member states (EU 15).

The average share of non-national populations in the 15 EU member states is 5.8 percent. The non-national population in Luxembourg, however, is 38.1 percent. For the following states the shares of non-nationals are well above the average: Austria (9.32 percent), Germany (8.89 percent), Belgium (8.21 percent) and Greece (6.94 percent). The following countries have shares below the average: France (5.5 percent), Sweden (5.3 percent) and the UK (4.64 percent). Finland (1.99 percent) has the lowest percentage of non-nationals in relation to the total population. Concerning the acceding states (EU 10), Poland (699,896) has the largest number of non-national residents (1.83 percent). Latvia also possesses a large number of resident non-nationals (534,534), especially in relation to the total population (22.93 percent). It should also be mentioned that Latvia's nation-state building process plays an important role in excluding "non-ethnic Latvians" as "non-citizens".

Chart 4.2: Shares of Citizens of Other European Member States (EU 15), of Accession States (EU 10) and of Third Countries (Non-EU 25) in Selected Member States, 2003



Source: G  DAP/Eurostat 2006, Chart: BIVS

Chart 4.2 shows the division of non-nationals in selected European member states (EU 15). The share of third country citizens (Non-EU 25) is rather high. Most states have a third country population of more than two thirds. The share of third country citizens among non-nationals is the highest in Spain, Denmark and Austria, attaining percentages of 75 to 79 percent. Only Belgium shows a comparatively low share of third country (Non-EU 25) citizens and more than two thirds of the non-nationals in 2003 were citizens of other member states (EU 15). Data on Luxembourg are not available. In all states, the share of citizens from accession states is rather low. Only in Finland is the share of accession state citizens relatively high at nearly 15 percent.

Table 4.3: Third Country Citizen Groups Larger than 100,000 in the European Member States, 2003

Turkey	2,190,221
Serbia/Montenegro	750,067
Morocco	643,845
Albania	449,608
Ecuador	439,420
Poland	418,045
Romania	327,674
Croatia	303,813
Bosnia and Herzegovina	301,113
Russian Federation	257,463
Colombia	241,053
Ukraine	197,639
United States	184,250
China (including Hong Kong)	176,267
Iraq	155,344
Bulgaria	152,565
Argentina	126,895
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	113,743
Vietnam	100,517

Note: Missing data for France, Ireland, Italy, Portugal and United Kingdom.

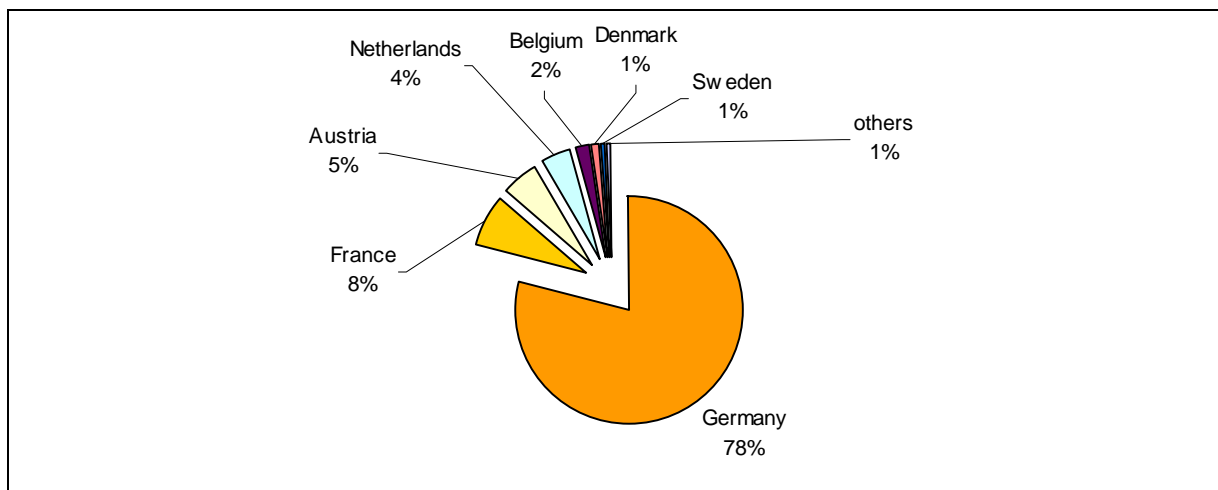
Data Source: G  DAP/Eurostat 2006

Table 4.3 on third country (Non-EU 25) citizen populations larger than 100,000 and settled in the European member states excludes data on France, Ireland, Italy, Portugal and the United Kingdom due to missing G  DAP/Eurostat data. The map refers to all non-national populations, including those of the EU 15 and 10 EU accession states. The largest group of third country citizens by far is comprised of Turkish nationals. There are nearly 2.2 million Turkish nationals living in European member states, most of them in Germany. Two groups are to be taken into consideration. Part of the Turkish population is related to the labour recruitment regimes prior to 1974 and to family reunification. These former guest workers have not been naturalised. Even third generation migrants maintain passports from their country of origin. As shown above, this population is involved in large cross border fluctuations. The second group of Turkish citizens in Europe comprises mainly refugees who came from Turkey during phases of dictatorship and repression, or refugees from civil war zones in the Kurdish areas. It needs to be noted that some of the people who came from Serbia/Montenegro, Croatia, and Bosnia Herzegovina are related to guest workers, while others came during the large refugee movements in the 1990s. Citizens of Poland, the Russian Federation, Iraq, Iran, and Vietnam are mostly refugees.

Romanians, Bulgarians and Ukrainians have been moving towards Europe as refugees, seasonal workers or as irregular immigrants since the fall of the iron curtain. Many Moroccan immigrants are made up of former illegal workers, but many were also recruited as guest workers or migrated later under family unification regulations. The representation of Moroccan residents, especially in Spain and Italy, is largely due to the regularisation of irregular immigrants. The Albanian population is in most cases a result of the large irregular and legalised immigration movements to Italy and Greece of the 1990s. Ecuadorians, Colombians, as well as Argentineans arrived mainly in Spain, but also in Italy within the framework of Hispanic migration systems. There is also a large number of US Americans who have settled in Europe. A large number of Chinese have also settled in various European countries, particularly in Italy.

Graph 4.4: Distribution of Selected Large Stocks of Non-National Populations in the European Member States, 2003

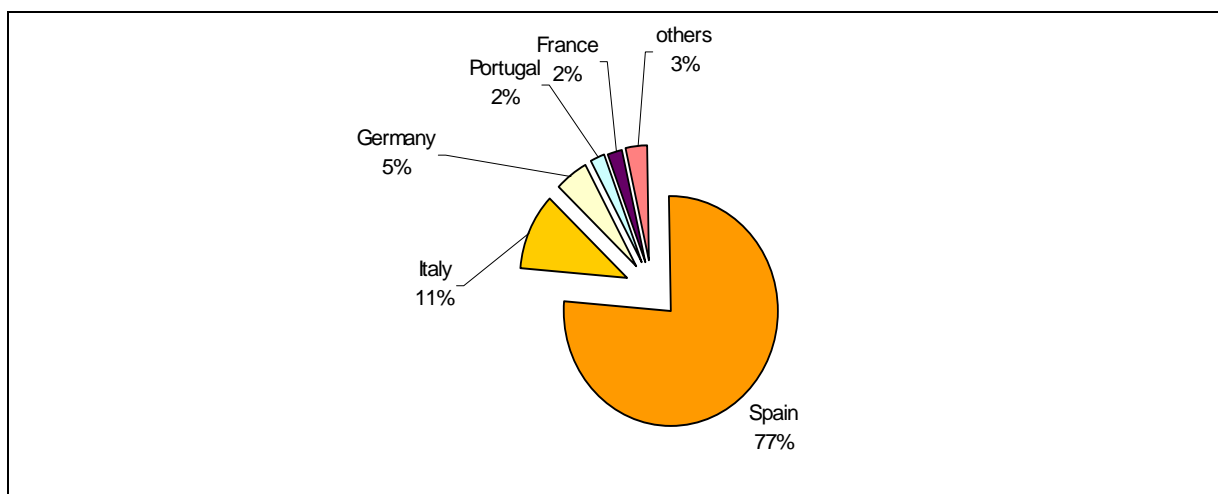
Turkish Citizens in EU 15 Countries*, 2003



* without UK and Luxembourg

Source: GÉDAP/Eurostat, Chart: BIVS

Citizens from the Most Important Latin American Countries* in EU 15 Countries, 2003**

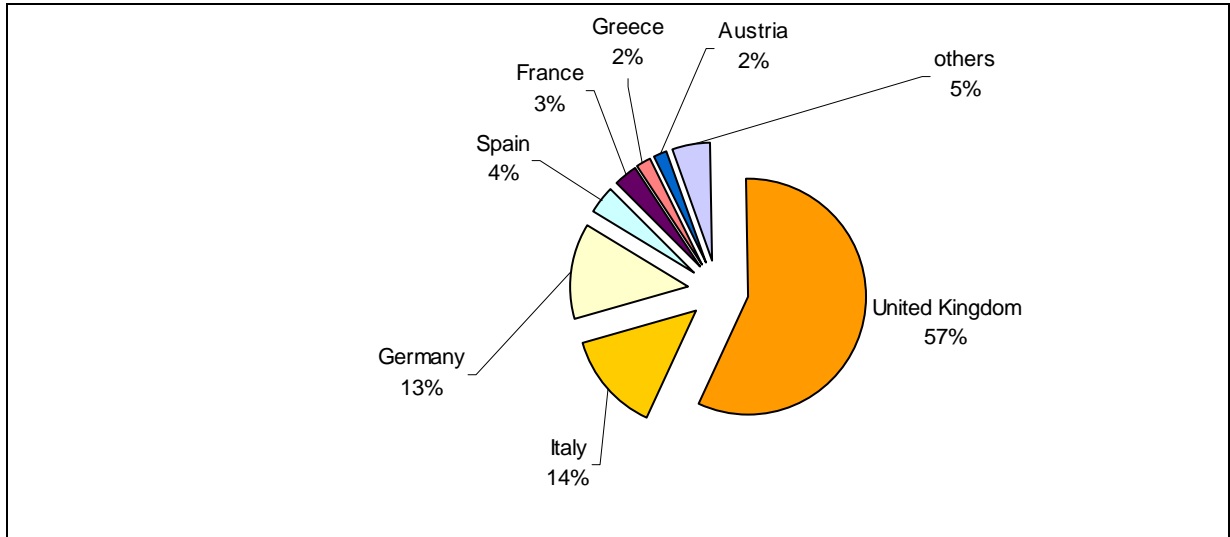


* Ecuador, Colombia, Argentina, Brazil and Peru

** without UK and Luxembourg.

Source: GÉDAP/Eurostat, Chart: BIVS

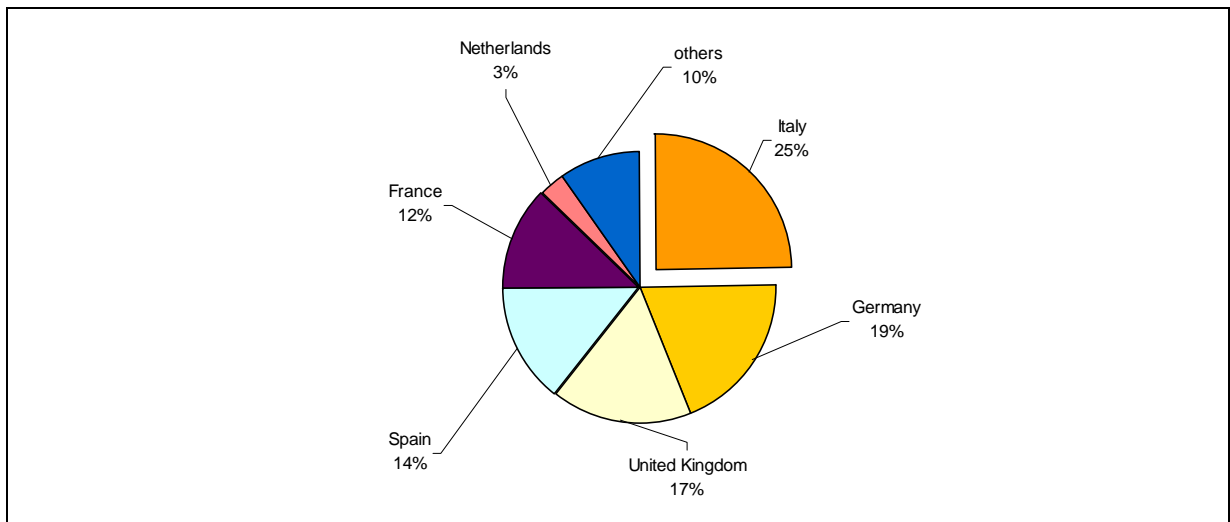
Indian Citizens in EU 15 Countries*, 2003



* without Luxembourg.

Source: G  DAP/eurostat. Chart: BIVS.

Chinese Citizens in EU 15 Countries*, 2003

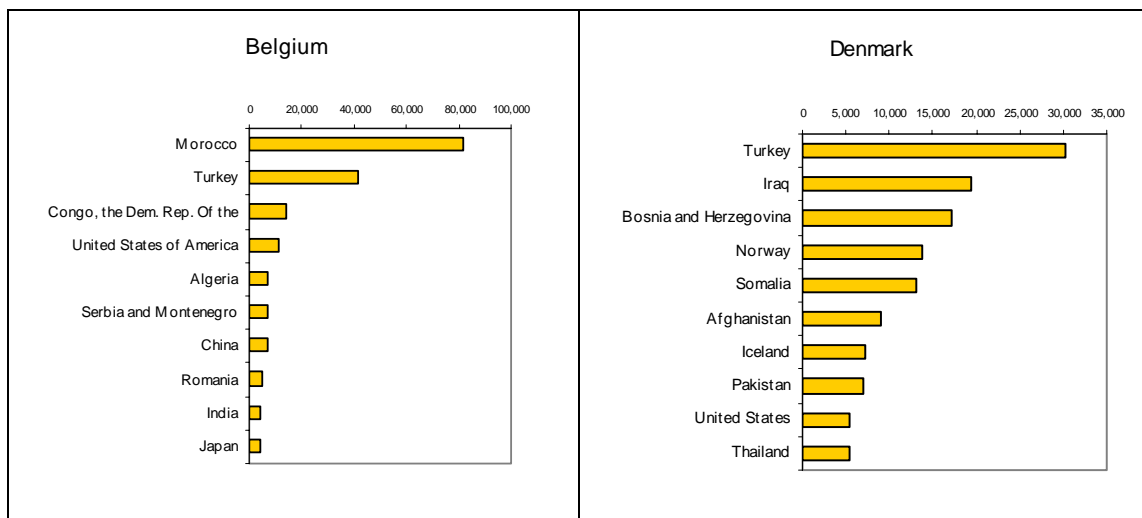


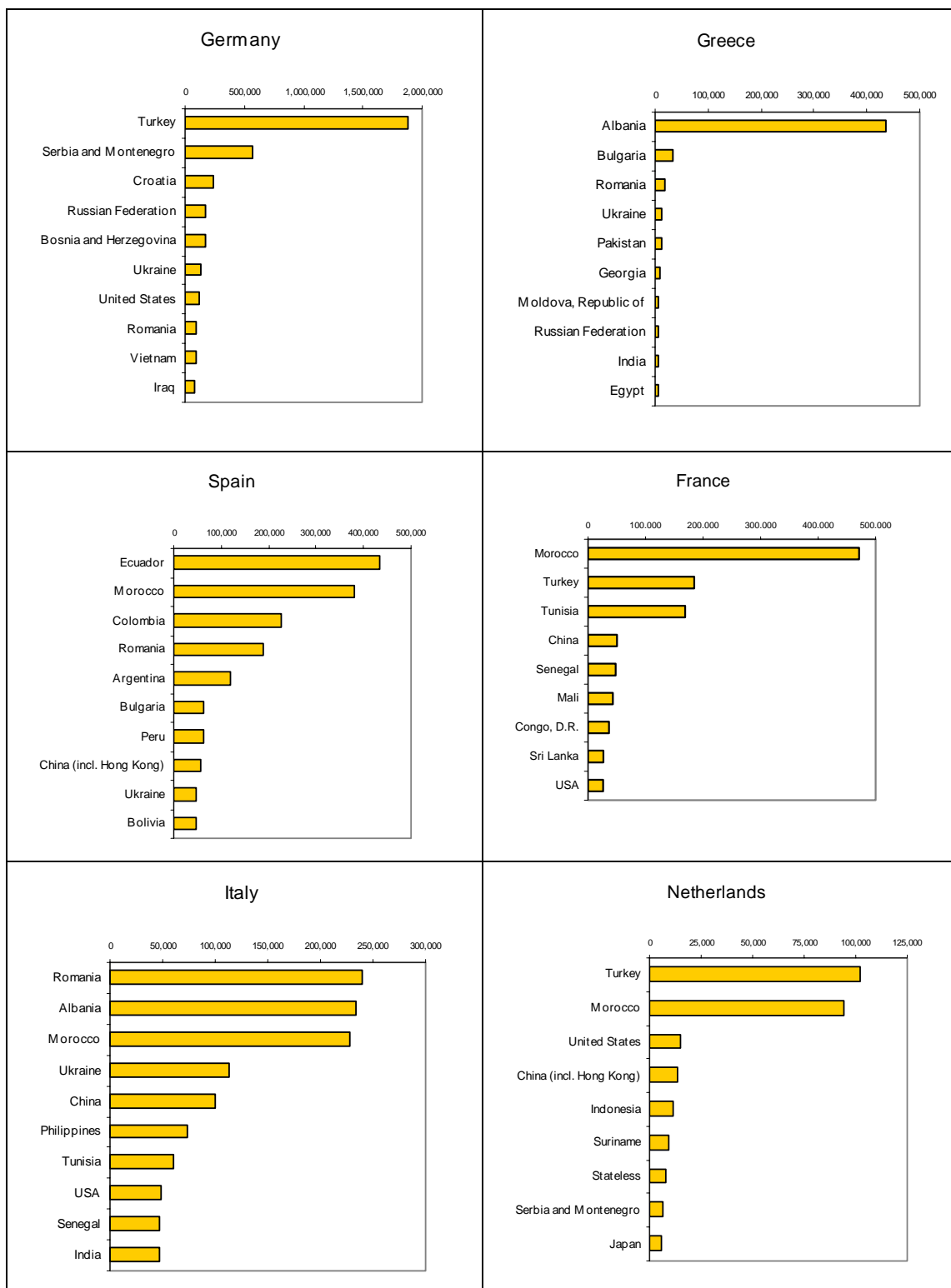
* without Luxembourg

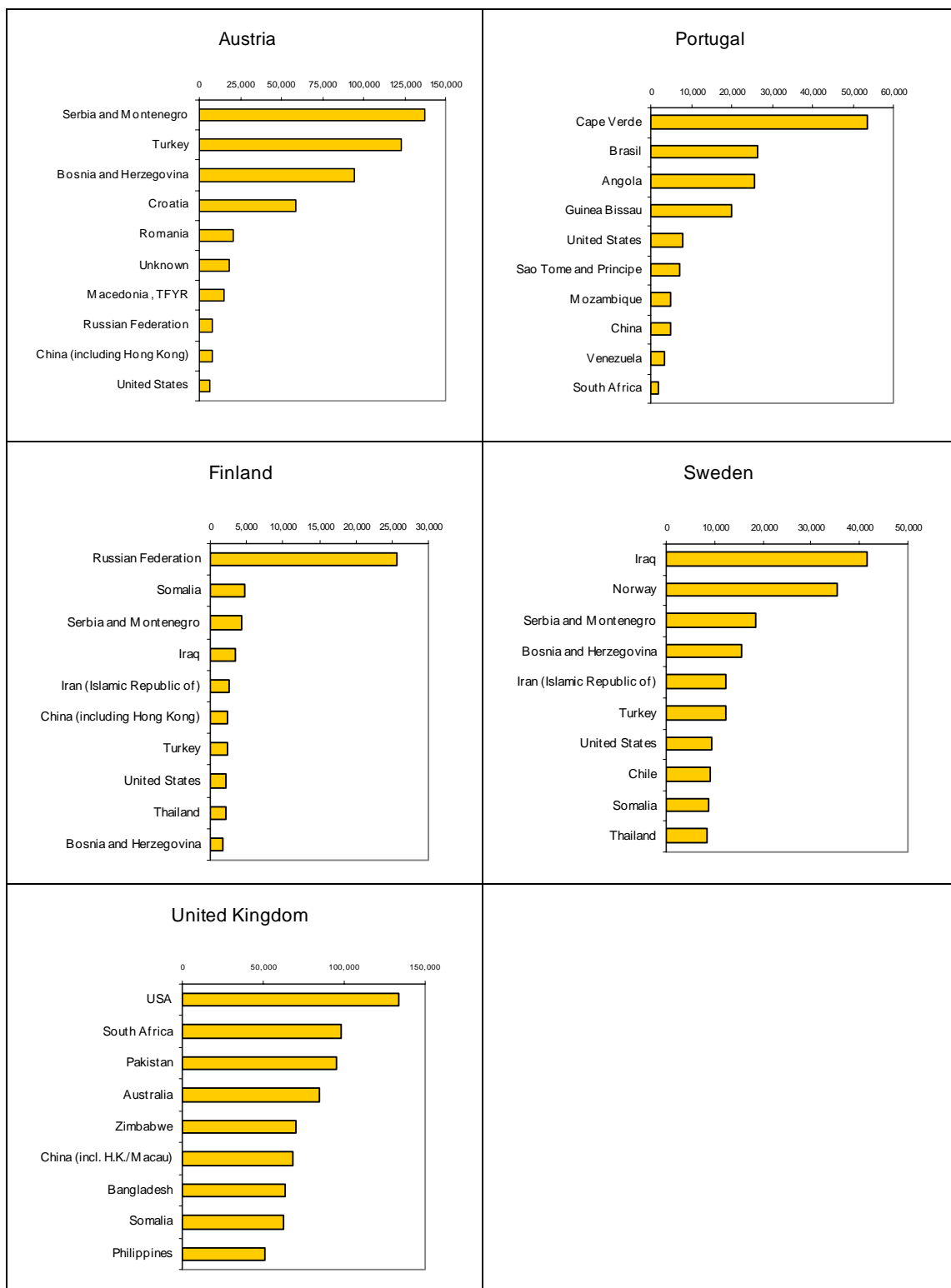
Source: G  DAP/Eurostat, Chart: BIVS

When outlining a preliminary interpretation of the population by country of citizens, it is important to keep in mind the historic formation of immigrant populations in Europe. The recent history of immigration in most European countries involves the period of post-war labour recruitment that officially ended around 1974. From the 1970s onwards family unification in addition to refugee movements have led to a numerical increase of immigrant population groups. These inflows have continued until today. Since the 1980s, irregular immigration has become a substantial migration phenomenon. Large numbers of irregular migrants were legalised in countries like Spain, Italy and Greece in order to be included in statistics of non-national populations. Immigration from eastern Europe increased after 1989. Since the 1990s, various new gates of entry were opened due to labour market policies and humanitarian needs. These developments have led to the formation of various types of immigrant communities that play an important role in cross border diaspora formations and immigration flows.

Chart 4.5: Ten Largest Groups of Third Country Citizens in Selected European Member States (EU 15), 2003







Source: G  DAP/Eurostat 2006, Charts: BIVS

It is obvious that the non-national population in Europe is unevenly distributed due to different histories of immigration flows, migration configurations and migration regimes. This can be exemplified by four different non-national populations stocks.

Most Turkish migrants have settled in Germany. 78 percent of Turkish migrants in Germany were registered as residents in 2003. All other countries have a Turkish migrant population far below ten percent. The three other countries with large shares of Turkish citizens are France with eight percent, Austria with five percent and the Netherlands with four percent. The large population of Turkish citizens in Germany can be partly explained by: guest worker traditions, family unification and the protection of refugees. In the framework of the guest worker system, immigrants more or less have the same rights as German citizens with exceptions of suffrage, visa to third countries, and the right to not be removed to the country of origin in cases of criminal activities. Immigration histories and special problems in naturalisation policies are the main reasons for the large number of Turkish citizens in Germany.

The chart on citizens from Latin American countries shows that Spain is the main country of settlement with 77 percent. The second largest country is Italy with 11 percent. The countries of origin included in the statistics are Ecuador, Colombia, Argentina, Brazil and Peru. As mentioned above, the main Latin American country of emigration to Europe is Ecuador. Brazil is the origin of most of the immigrants in Portugal. Latin American citizens in Spain are more or less the result of the Hispanic-Latin American migration system, which had included special immigration and citizenship laws until the 1990s, and of new immigration patterns especially from Ecuador and Colombia.

Indian citizens make up the third example of a relatively large non-national population in the European member states. As expected, the largest group of Indian citizens is in the United Kingdom with 57 percent. This is due to the long established post-colonial emigration flows to the UK from India including family unification. The other factor is the close relationship between these two countries in the framework of the Commonwealth. Italy is the country with the second largest number of registered Indian citizens. This might be explained by the regularisation of irregular immigrants. In Germany the Indian population has its origin in refugee immigration and possibly intra-European migration movements.

Rather evenly distributed in Europe are Chinese citizens, with the largest settlement country being Italy, with 25 percent of all Chinese citizens in Europe. In the district economies and especially in the leather industry and in trade sectors in Italy, various

communities have been established over the last 15 years. Here, the Chinese have found niches in the restaurant business and in trade. It is not surprising that 17 percent of European Chinese live in the United Kingdom due to colonial relationships with Hong Kong.

Another most interesting interpretation of the available data is the composition of third country citizens in selected European member states (EU 15).

- S In Belgium, Moroccans comprise the largest group, followed by Turkish citizens and citizens of the Democratic Republic of Congo, Belgium's former main colony. The fourth largest group consists of citizens of the United States.
- S The largest group in Denmark consists of Turkish citizens including those of Kurdish background. The second group is made up of Iraqis, followed by citizens of Bosnia and Herzegovina. Norwegians comprise the fourth largest group.
- S The group of Turkish citizens is by far the largest group of non-nationals in Germany, followed by citizens of Serbia/Montenegro and Croatia. Due to special immigration regimes with regard to the Jewish and German diaspora, the fourth largest group consists of citizens of the Russian Federation.
- S The non-national population in Greece is dominated by Albanians due to regularisation processes. Bulgarians and Romanians follow, making up a rather small number of non-nationals.
- S The largest third country citizen groups in Spain consist of people from Ecuador, followed by Moroccans and Colombians. The fourth group is comprised of Romanians; then another group from Latin American is the Argentineans. South Americans came to Spain largely as part of the Hispanic migration system and the Moroccans are registered due to regularisation and legalisation processes in Spain.
- S The largest groups in France consist of Moroccans, followed by Turkish citizens and Tunisians. All three groups have settled largely because of the recruitment programmes of the 1950s and 1960s. Immigrants from Algeria do not appear due to citizenship policies in France.
- S The largest group of immigrants in Italy are citizens from Romania, followed by Albanians and Moroccans. All three groups, as well as Ukrainians have been registered due to regularisation processes.

- S In the Netherlands, the largest group of third country nationals are Turkish citizens followed by Moroccans.
- S The largest group in Austria is from Serbia/Montenegro, followed by Turkish citizens and those from Bosnia and Herzegovina. The presence of Serbians, Montenegrins and Bosnians, as well as Croatians is the result of long traditions of labour emigration, yet many are also neighbourhood refugees.
- S In Portugal, the largest groups of immigrants are related to the Lusitanian migration system. The largest groups are citizens from Cape Verde, followed by citizens of Brazil, Angola and Guinea Bissau. As an immigration country, Portugal seems to be closely related to the global Portuguese language community.
- S The most important non-national citizen group in Finland comes from the Russian Federation. This certainly has to do with the Finnish diaspora living across the Finnish border and the Russian-Finnish relations. The second group is an old established refugee group in Finland consisting of Somali citizens, followed by refugee populations from Serbia/Montenegro and Iraq.
- S Norwegians, who share a border with Sweden, comprise the second largest non-national group in Sweden. The largest non-national citizen group is comprised of Iraqi refugees. The third largest group is made up of Serbian/Montenegrins. The fourth group comes from Bosnia and Herzegovina.
- S The largest group of non-national citizens in the United Kingdom come from the United States; the second group from South Africa and the fourth group from Australia. This has to do with new immigration configuration systems between the industrial countries as well as with the cultural relationship in the English speaking world. The third group, Pakistani nationals, is related to post-colonial immigration, family unification and citizenship regulations for family members.

It is obvious that the non-national European populations are rather unevenly distributed. The absolute numbers and share of non-national populations (other European member state citizens, accession state citizens and third country nationals) in the European Union vary greatly. Many factors influence the population patterns which are rather difficult to interpret. These factors might be related to histories of immigration and settlement and to different recruitment patterns. They also have to do with regularisation, legalisation and naturalisation policies, and are dependent on different immigration regimes and resident permit policies.

Overall, these factors have to do with immigration regimes in each European country and labour recruitment policies. In addition, the distribution of the non-national population in Europe is embedded in worldwide systems of cultural relationships such as the English-speaking Commonwealth, the Portuguese-speaking Lusitanian system, the Hispanic system and the Francophone world. They are based on neighbourhood relationships across common borders as well as on formations of diasporas and trans-state relationships. New immigration patterns in the framework of industrial countries as well as changing immigration regimes also tend to play an increasing role in structuring the non-national populations throughout Europe.

The tables on population by country of citizenship show that the immigration by some Mediterranean and Asian nationals was the result of labour recruitment schemes and the settlement of colonial or guest workers. Germany has rather large numbers of citizens from the last category. There is an obvious difference in numbers between the United Kingdom and Germany due to different naturalisation regimes. The other most important factor in structuring non-national population stocks are regularisation and legalisation policies with regard to irregular (illegal) residents. There are several structural interpretations possible for the differences in stocks and flows. These might consider changes in migration systems, such as the number of people immigrating via family unification of former recruited labour immigrants. There have also been various established immigration configurations within the frameworks of chain migration, flight, or of other cross border fluctuations. For these phenomena, statistical data are not available and therefore not included in this report.

Territorial neighbourhoods and bilateral traditions of migration flows also play a role. This is obviously the case with regard to migration between the United Kingdom and Malta or Ireland; between Cyprus and Greece; between Estonia and Finland; or between Denmark and Sweden. Another interpretation might be related to the flows that took place after 1989 from the acceding countries. Here, neighbouring countries again seem to play a role as illustrated by situations in Germany, the Czech Republic and Poland. There are foreign population settlements that might be interpreted in a different context as well, for example, as the migration of the elderly or retired. Formerly naturalised emigrants return to their country of origin as pensioners. Others start their migration career after retiring. Figures for Spain and Italy are influenced by these phenomena. A further interpretation relates to the mobilisation of immigrants with special skills or a high education level, who are working in short-term or permanent contract positions. Especially the cross border mobility between industrialised regions

is of importance in this regard. Other factors are cultural international relationships and diaspora formations.¹⁷

¹⁷ See the chapter on international and European migration dynamics.

Table 4.6: Residence Permits Granted in Selected European Countries (Excluding Seasonal Workers), 2003

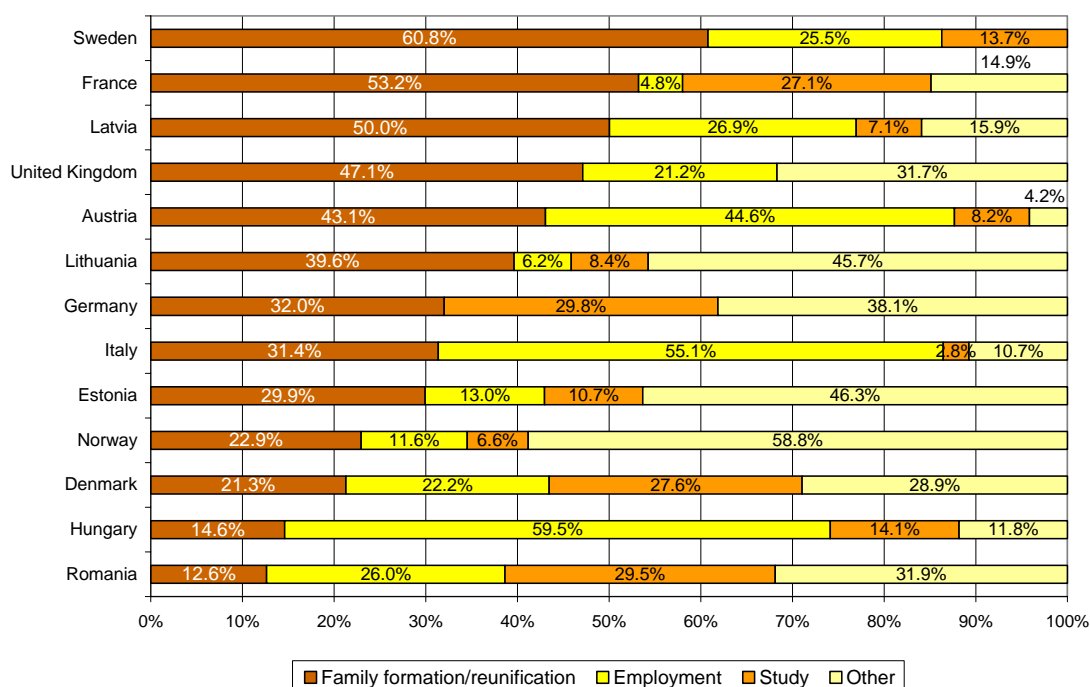
	Total 2001	Total 2002	Total 2003	of which:			
				Family formation/ reunification	Study	Employment	Other
Denmark	57,675	23,253	22,511	4,791	6,212	4,992	6,516
Germany	:	:	:	76,077	70,890		90,612
France	140,142	162,936	173,312	92,240	46,995	8,300	25,777
Italy	271,517	388,086	1,517,306	475,823	42,768	835,612	163,103
Austria	24,840	65,967	69,969	30,127	5,711	31,219	2,912
Sweden	56,571	37,064	40,181	24,423	5,509	10,249	
United Kingdom	108,410	115,895	139,765	65,805		29,600	44,270
Estonia	35,117	7,328	7,948	2,380	853	1,033	3,682
Latvia	5,584	6,522	8,263	4,135	590	2,223	1,315
Lithuania	6,607	7,706	7,634	3,026	641	475	3,492
Hungary	:	29,407	31,782	5,773	5,559	23,553	4,679
Romania	:	:	40,804	5,150	12,027	10,618	13,009
Norway	23,081	51,034	45,619	10,469	3,030	5,280	26,840

Note: The total figure for Hungary 2003 is not equal to the sum of the categories.

Source: GÉDAP 2006

Data on residence permits are only available in selected countries. They indicate the distribution of settlement for a certain year. Their value is in showing patterns of immigration (flows) with regard to population developments (stocks). The most important factors for granting a permit are for reasons of family unification, employment and study. Permanent work permits are granted in most European member states after a certain period, constitutive to a prior temporary work permit. They are mostly combined with a permanent settlement permit. The minimum period of prior stay in the country required for applying for permanent residence differs from country to country. In Denmark, if certain requirements are fulfilled, a permanent residence permit can be granted after three years of residence. In the Netherlands, an application is only possible after five years. Portugal portrays an example of preferential treatment for some immigrant groups. Immigrants from Portuguese-speaking countries are required to have resided in Portugal for five years, while other third country nationals need to have resided in Portugal for eight years in order to obtain a permanent residence permit. In the accession states (EU 10) Latvia and Poland, the required period of uninterrupted stay in the country is ten years.

Chart 4.7: Shares of Most Important Categories of Residence Permits in Selected European Countries, 2003



Source: G  DAP 2006. Chart: BIVS

The data are difficult to compare, since the conditions and procedures for receiving residence permits in each country is different. The figures for Italy in the table are rather deviant. Part of the numerical increase is related to regularisation and legalisation programmes. The data show the large share of family unification permits. Close to or more than 50 percent of the residence permits were given for the purpose of family reunification in Sweden, France, Latvia, and the UK in 2003. The allowance of stay for employment (excluding seasonal work) is in general less important, with exceptions in Hungary, Italy and Austria. Among the European member states (EU 15), the share of residence permits granted on the basis of work is very low in France (5 percent). There was no data available on residence permits issued for work in Germany. The number of student residents is rather uneven. Germany, France, and Italy have the largest populations of foreign students. The United Kingdom seems to have the largest population of non-national students with an estimated 90,000. Denmark issued a rather large share of residence permits in 2003.

Although not covered in these figures, temporary permits for residence and work are important indicators for understanding the migratory phenomena in Europe. They are often based on bilateral agreements, tied to quotas and designed to cope with sectoral shortages in the labour force. The data presented here do not include seasonal labour recruitment and temporary immigration. Furthermore, with regard to residence permit data as well as to immigration statistics, the definitions vary from country to country. A clear distinction between long-term and temporary immigration is not possible.

Following the examples of Canada, the USA, Australia and New Zealand, European countries have developed policies to select highly qualified immigrants from the world labour market. Until the 1990s, recruitment policies were more or less oriented towards semi or lower skilled labourers with a rural background for employment in classical industries or services. The new immigration policies are focussing on urban populations in areas with an overproduction of technical and academic personnel. In addition to special residence permits, issued to members of international organisations and to foreign representatives, Belgium is granting permits to highly skilled workers with a minimum wage of 29,400 Euro a year for up to four years of residence; technicians and trainees aged 30 or less are allowed to stay in the country for one year as well.¹⁸ In Denmark since 2002, a special job card scheme has facilitated entry to persons who have been offered jobs in particular listed employment sectors.¹⁹ According to its national report, France has introduced a special temporary permit (*autorisation provisoire de travail*) to recruit highly skilled persons. Legal measures have been undertaken to facilitate the entry of foreign managers and executives with special attention to intra-firm mobility. The process to obtain work permits for these categories of immigrants and their spouses has been alleviated.²⁰ In Austria, a separate gate of entry and special procedures for key professionals (defined by income, qualification and labour market needs) has been in place since 1998. Key professionals benefit from less bureaucratic treatment, receiving both settlement and a work permit. In 2000, Ireland introduced a visa scheme to attract employees with certain skills, i.e. IT and computing, construction and nursing.²¹ Germany introduced the so-called green-card to foster the entry and residence of highly skilled individuals. The Czech

¹⁸ Some minor changes were introduced in 2003; see Statistical Report 2002, p. 299.

¹⁹ See National Report on Denmark.

²⁰ See Country Report on France.

²¹ See Country Report on Ireland, pp 9/10.

Republic started a five-year pilot project in 2003, entitled "Active Selection of Qualified Foreign Staff" with the objective of attracting foreign experts and their families.

Family reunification still represents the most important inflow of residents. This may explain why, on 22 September 2003, the EU Council of ministers approved a directive on the right of third country nationals legally (2003/86/EC) established in a European Union member state to family reunification. It determines the conditions under which family reunification is granted to third country nationals residing lawfully in the territory of an EU member state, whether the family relationship arose before or after the resident's entry, as well as the rights of the family members concerned. Specific criteria apply to refugees.

Legally resident foreigners can bring their spouse, their under-age children and the children of their spouse with them. Member states can demand that the third country national be legally resident in the country for a certain period of time before they are authorised to bring over members of their family, but this period cannot exceed two years. Member states can restrict family reunification rights for children if they are fifteen years old or older when they apply. Member states may also refuse to allow the entry of children over the age of twelve who travel separately from their family. Family reunification can be refused to spouses less than 21 years of age. However, member states may authorise the entry of unmarried partners, ascendants and adult dependant children. For the past twenty years, family reunification has been one of the main sources of immigration to the European Union (EU). Family reunification measures are not only a way of bringing families back together, but they are also essential for facilitating the integration of third country nationals into the EU.²²

According to the number of resident permits granted in 2003, the number of student residents is unevenly distributed throughout the European countries. Germany, France, and Italy have the largest population of foreign students. The United Kingdom seems to have the largest population of non-national students. By estimation, around 90,000 resident permits were granted for reasons of study in 2003. Denmark issued a rather large share of student residence permits in 2003.

"On 7 October 2002, the European Commission adopted a proposal for Council directive on the conditions of entry and residence of third country nationals for the

²² See the official website of the European Commission Directorate for Justice, Freedom and Security.

purposes of studies, vocational training or voluntary service. The proposal was adopted in 2004 (Directive 2004/114). It distinguishes four categories of third country nationals: students, pupils, unpaid trainees and volunteers. It also includes a provision whereby under certain conditions third country students already admitted by a Member State may be granted the right to mobility in other member states so as to facilitate the pathway for those pursuing studies in a number of Member States".²³

Special entry conditions for the purpose of study are in place in various countries under observation. A residence card is granted in Denmark to students matriculated in certified educational institutions, who can prove that they have sufficient financial means equivalent to the "start help" amount. 6,000 residence permits, comprising 28 percent of the total issued, were granted to students in 2003. 28,191 residence permits were awarded to students in Spain for more than six months of stay. In France, roughly 45,000 permits were granted, some 40 percent of which went to African citizens. Students in Austria are granted a quota-free residence permit for temporary stay. In Ireland, a person wishing to enter for the purposes of study must provide evidence of his or her acceptance to a college, his or her payment of tuition fees, the means of self-sufficiency and medical insurance. In Hungary, students obtain a D-visa, valid for one year which may be extended until the studies are completed.

²³ See the official website of the European Commission Directorate for Justice, Freedom and Security.

5. Asylum and Refugee Protection

The right to seek asylum is recognised in all European countries through the Geneva Convention of 1951 and the New York Protocol of 1967. All Geneva Convention signatory states are obliged to grant asylum to a person with a

“well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, is outside the country of his nationality and is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country; or who, not having a nationality and being outside the country of his former habitual residence as a result of such events, is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to return to it”.²⁵

There is a tradition with the asylum policies in each of the European countries that is more or less related to the Geneva Convention, but has been defined until now within different legal frameworks.²⁶ Some countries have taken over Geneva Convention definitions, while others have been more restrictive. The European Union has developed various directives in establishing a common European asylum policy. A common definition was proposed by the Council in 2004.²⁸

The status of protection is related to decisions of political instances and states dealing with specific cases. Therefore, a diffuse variety of categories are assigned in European member and accession states. For technical reasons, this statistical data presentation

²⁵ United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees; UNHCR: 1996, Convention and protocol relating to the status of refugees. Text of the 1951 Convention relating to the status of refugees. Text of the 1967 Protocol relating to the status of refugees. Resolution 2198 (XXI) adopted by the United Nations General Assembly with an introductory note by the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees. Geneva. (Article 1,2).

²⁶ See the “Communication from the Commission to the Council and the European Parliament Towards a common asylum procedure and a uniform status, valid throughout the Union, for persons granted asylum” (COM/2000/755 final).

²⁸ The Council Directive of 2004 postulates in article 16 that “minimum standards for the definition and content of refugee status should be laid down to guide the competent national bodies of Member States in the application of the Geneva Convention”; in article 17 it is argued that “it is necessary to introduce common criteria for recognising applicants for asylum as refugees within the meaning of Article 1 of the Geneva Convention”. See: Council of the European Union: 2004, Council Directive 2004/83 on minimum standards for the qualification and status of third country nationals or stateless persons as refugees or as persons who otherwise need international protection and the content of the protection granted. ASILE 23, Brussels, 27 April 2004.

differentiates between the following categories: “asylum applicants“, “recognised refugees“, “Geneva Convention refugees“, “people protected due to humanitarian grounds“, and “other status refugees“.

The category of asylum applicants consists of people who are applying for asylum, which means they are claiming refugee status in a reception state. Recognised refugees are people who have been granted special refugee protection rights after having achieved a successful outcome in an application procedure. Asylum applicants have a very different status, which is partially defined in the Geneva Convention and more so, by various human rights considerations. The status of recognised refugees, first of all, includes the Geneva Convention that guarantees social citizen rights equal to nationals of the protection country. Full Geneva Convention status is rare in most European Union territories. In most countries national law regulates status. In European statistics, however, the Geneva Convention status is defined without taking into account national variations.

Protection on “humanitarian grounds” is another recognised category. This status relates to rights rooted in family or kinship unification as well as in vulnerabilities related to being a minor refugee, traumatised or having physical disabilities. There are various other reasons for granting humanitarian protection status, due to the threat of the death penalty or of torture in the country of origin. A special issue is a protection status for persecuted women. Furthermore, “temporary protection” status exists for people who are searching for protection during times of upheaval or civil war in their countries of origin. The definition of statistical data by status is rather unclear. The borderline between humanitarian protection, other statuses of protection, and Geneva Convention status has not been fully determined.

Data on asylum and refugee protection is considered in many states to be a sensitive issue. Moreover, the method of collecting and aggregating data varies from country to country.²⁹ UNHCR has developed a statistical set of data during the last decade. However, even this data is not totally reliable because their basis is dependant on UNHCR data selection processes in each country and by the international organisation's documentation centre in general.³⁰ European states interpret the sensibility of data in the area of refugee protection more strictly in regard to social attributes. This is the case for various issues such as sex ratio or age ratio as well as data on the country of origin. Additionally, it is

²⁹ See chapter 9.

³⁰ See the DVD-publication by UNHCR under the title *refworld* and the annual report of UNHCR under the title “The State of the WORLD's REFUGEES” published by Oxford University Press.

difficult to relate asylum and refugee protection data to other characteristics such as residence and citizenship. Data on household structures and family structures are not available. However, such data would be necessary for further research and policies. There are no data to assist in the comparison of flight reasons and general circumstances in the countries of origin or transit. Until now, the goal of harmonising asylum statistics in Europe has not been reached.

Taking into consideration the presented data, one should note that the data shows one step on a long way to arrive at a system of monitoring and data provisions in the area of refugee protection in the framework of common European asylum policies. The statistics on refugee protection are truly understood as an initial orientation on the basis of available data. In the future, one will at least have to receive comparable data on refugee stocks, on flows in the countries of origin and transit as well as on social structures of refugee populations.

The absolute figures regarding initial asylum applications in the 15 member states (EU 15) decreased slightly from 298,553 (1998) to 298,211 (2003) (Table 5.1). This was due to the surprising reduction in the number of initial applications between 2002 and 2003 by 67,028 cases. Between 1998 and 2002, the number of applications increased by 26 percent. This increase was reflected by the large increase of 298,533 cases in 1998 and 361,827 in 1999, respectively. The numbers were rather steady in the following years.

In the accession states (EU 10), the general numeration of initial asylum applications follows a similar pattern. However, there was an increase of around 100,000 cases per year between 1998 and 2001. During these four years, the number of applications increased from 16,073 in 1998 up to 43,416 in 2001. In 2002 there was a reasonable decrease to 31,417; in 2003 the number rose again to 37,240.

The United Kingdom still receives the most applications (60,045 in 2003, a decrease from 84,130 applications in 2002). France receives the second highest number of applications, 50,680 in 2002 to 52,204 in 2003. Germany is third, having received 50,563 cases in 2003, a decrease since 2001 (88,287) and 2002 (71,127). The two other countries that receive a large number of applications are Austria with 32,359 cases and Sweden with 31,355 cases. Both countries are receiving fewer and fewer applications. Beyond France, the number of cases increased in Greece, from 5,664 (2002) up to 8,178

(2003), and in Luxembourg, from 1,042 (2002) up to 1,549 (2003). A declining number of first applications is identified in all the other countries.

Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Lithuania, Malta, Poland, Slovenia and the Slovak Republic the European accession states (EU 10), received an obvious increase in the numbers of applications. In Bulgaria, one of the other accession states, the number decreased by more than half, from 2,888 cases in 2002 to 1,318 in 2003. However, there was a continuous increase between 1998 and 2002. No Eurostat figures are available on Romania. The number nearly doubled in Norway between 1998 (8,351 cases) and 2002 (16,020 cases), but it decreased in 2003 by 360 cases. Iceland is becoming a protection state with a growing, but still low number of applications (118 in 2003).

Table 5.1.: First Asylum Applications in Member States (EU 15) During the Period 1998-2003

	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Austria	13,793	20,096	18,284	30,135	39,354	32,359
Belgium	19,423	32,956	40,082	22,027	18,234	13,585
Denmark	9,370	12,331	12,200	12,512	6,068	4,390
Germany	98,644	95,113	78,563	88,287	71,127	50,563
Greece	2,953	1,528	3,083	5,499	5,664	8,178
Finland	1,271	3,106	3,170	1,651	3,119	3,092
France	22,375	30,907	38,747	47,291	50,680	52,204
Ireland	4,625	7,702	10,913	10,316	11,634	7,901
Italy	13,192	24,801	18,360	17,401	16,015	13,705
Luxembourg	1,709	2,921	628	686	1,042	1,549
Netherlands	45,217	39,299	43,895	32,579	18,667	13,402
Portugal	338	271	202	193	180	116
Spain	6,764	8,405	7,926	9,490	6,309	5,767
Sweden	12,844	11,231	16,303	23,515	33,016	31,355
United Kingdom	46,015	71,160	80,315	71,025	84,130	60,045
Total EU15	298,533	361,827	372,671	372,607	365,239	298,211
Cyprus	225	789	651	1,766	794	4,393
Czech Republic	4,085	7,220	8,788	17,330	8,291	11,400
Estonia	23	21	3	12	9	14
Hungary	7,097	11,499	7,801	9,554	6,412	2,401
Latvia	58	22	5	14	24	5
Lithuania	159	133	303	425	368	395
Malta	160	253	113	130	350	457
Poland	3,423	3,061	4,657	4,523	4,772	6,825
Slovenia	337	744	9,244	1,511	654	1,050
Slovak Republic	506	1,320	1,556	8,151	9,743	10,300
Total "EU 10"	16,073	25,062	33,121	43,416	31,417	37,240
Total EU 25	314,606	386,889	405,812	416,023	407,394	339,619
Bulgaria	834	1,349	1,755	2,428	2,888	1,318
Romania	1,236	1,667	1,366	2,280	1,000	:
Iceland	24	24	25	52	117	118
Norway	8,351	9,622	10,250	13,738	17,480	16,020

Source: GéDAP/Eurostat 2006.

The number of asylum seekers in European member and accession states is rather unevenly distributed (Map 5.2). This is most obvious when taking into account the numbers in total population in the receiving states. There are countries with a large percentage of asylum applications in the total population, such as Sweden, Austria and Luxembourg and middle range rates in larger states, such as the United Kingdom, France, and Germany. The Mediterranean countries, with the exception of Greece, remained unaffected until 2003.

Charts 5.3 and 5.4 outlining accumulated numbers of asylum applicants 1997 to 2003 show that in each country the longitudinal numerical pattern in regard to asylum applications is different. The charts show that it is nearly impossible to present a coherent interpretation on the European level. To obtain a more concrete image, one should consult the section with country studies of this report. The numbers of asylum applications per year have to be interpreted in regard to the various asylum application procedures. The application act per year is also counted.³¹ This can be initiated by recent refugees and by people who have been long-term residents in the country; it can even be a second or third application. Each time, the initial application is accounted for when the procedure starts again. The initial applications can be made by former immigrants who are applying for protection due to political changes in their country of origin and with regard to their political activities before submitting an application.³² In 2003, the procedures varied widely from country to country and even the procedures for counting the applications vary from state to state so that a comparative interpretation is rather difficult.

Data varies from country to country is evident when looking at the most important citizenship (nationalities) of asylum applicants. It seems to be obvious that the number of applications have to do with other factors within the framework of the immigration system and configuration. Refugee flows follow former migration paths established by labour migrants and refugees. Former colonial relations, for example, between the Congo and Belgium or Algeria and France are also factors. These refugee flows, however, might be based on linguistic and cultural relationships between these countries.³³

Refugee flows are beyond all doubt closely related to countries in the states of political crises, to war and civil war-ridden areas. There is still a great number of Yugoslavian

³¹ In some countries, even the person is used as the basis of data collection.

³² This differs from state to state.

³³ The comparatively large number of Congolese asylum applicants in France is an indicator for the thesis on

asylum seekers that might have to do with the high number of residents from these areas and the restricted possibilities of immigration in the conflict-ridden situation in most post-Yugoslavian states. The situation is similar in Turkey; a rather high number of refugees are settling in Europe. In some countries there are surprising refugee flows, such as Nigerians to Ireland and France. The 2002 war in Iraq is reflected by a high number of asylum applications in most of the European countries. The high number of Russian applicants is obviously connected to the ongoing war in Chechnya and in other parts of the Russian Republic. In addition, refugees have also originated from civil war-ridden Georgia.

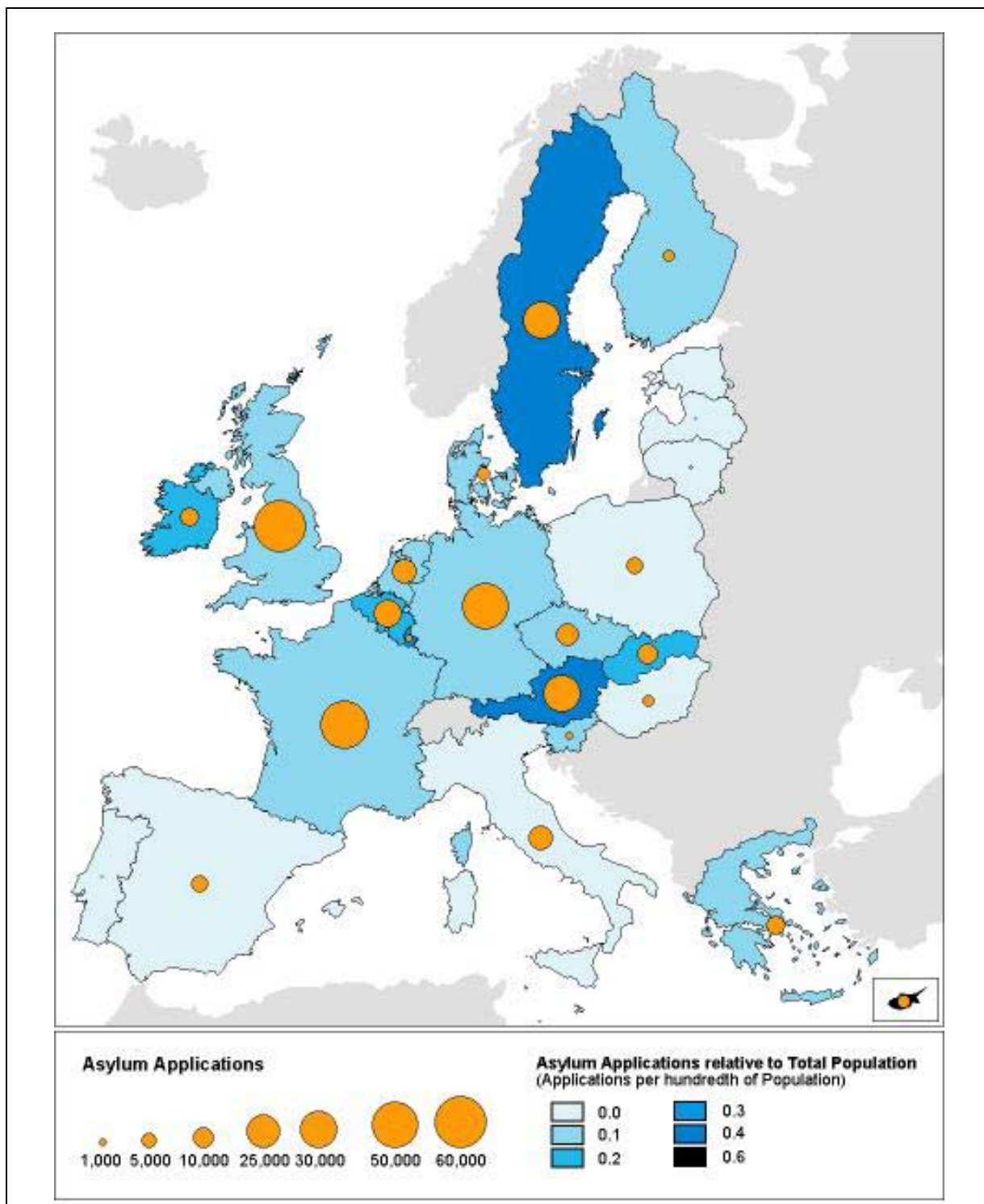
There seems to be a multilevel explanation for asylum movements. However, this has not been possible to explain until now since very little research has been done on the origin of flight. A map based on data from UNHCR on initial asylum applicants' countries of origin clearly shows that the states of origin for asylum applicants in European member states are more or less from countries in crisis.³⁴

When looking at the sex ratio of asylum applications in selected European Union countries, it becomes obvious that this issue is different from country to country, connected to the diversity of asylum application procedures. In some countries females are considered family members, while in other countries women have to apply through a separate application. From some countries of origin there are more males than females coming to Europe. Thirdly, the sex ratio in asylum applications is related to its use in gaining access to residency in Europe when other gates of entry are restricted, for example, when obtaining a visa for family unification or work. Data on sex ratio are not available for most European countries and are difficult to interpret for the countries in which such data have been collected.

linguistic and cultural relations.

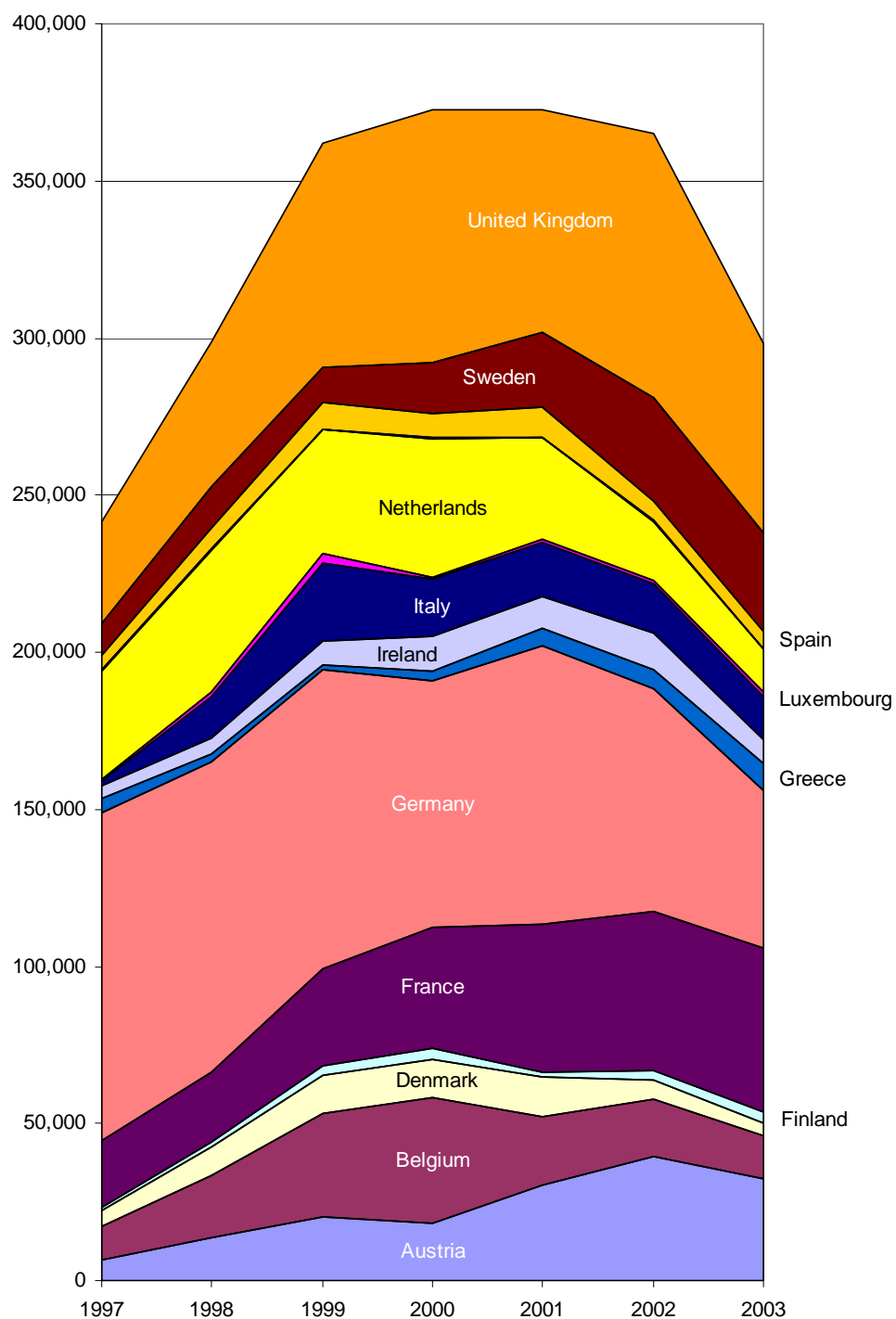
³⁴ See chapter seven on international developments and European migration.

Map 5.2.: Asylum Applications in European Member States (EU 15) by Absolute Numbers and Relative Numbers to a Country's Total Population, 2003



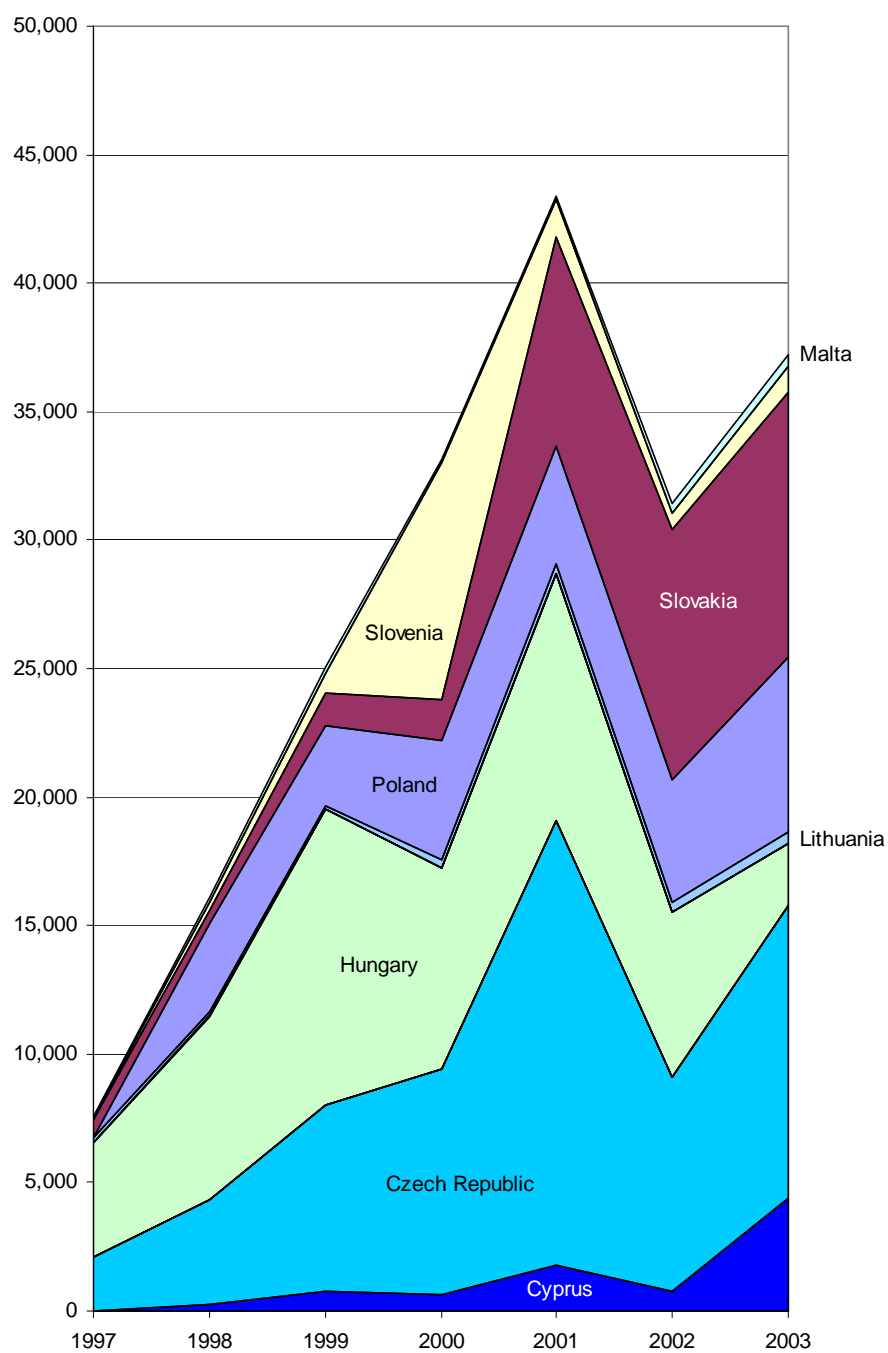
Data Source: G  DAP/Eurostat 2006, Map: BIVS 2006

Chart 5.3.: Accumulated Number of Asylum Applications, 1997-2003 (EU 15)



Source: G  DAP/Eurostat 2006, Chart: BIVS 2006

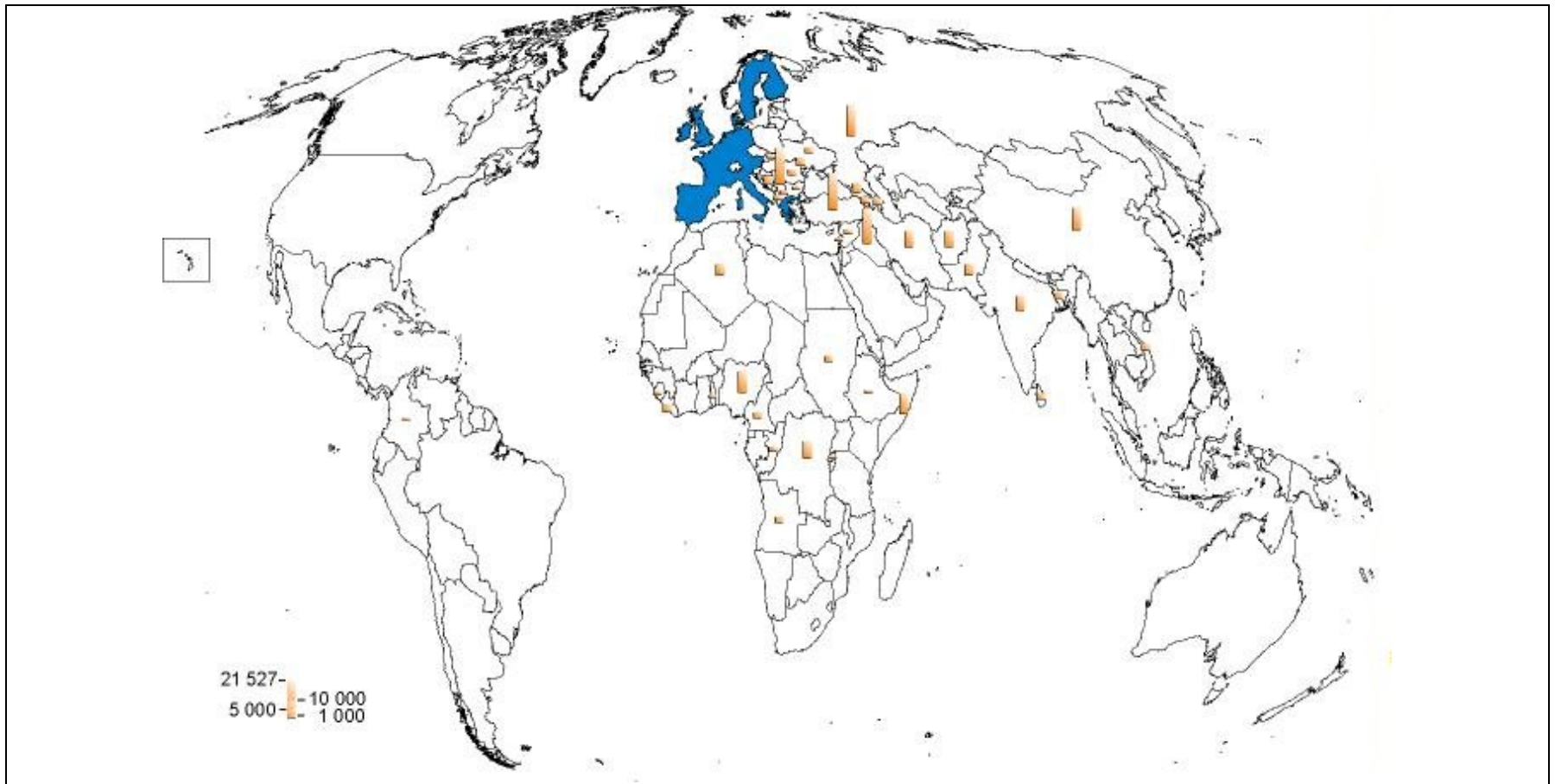
Chart 5.4.: Accumulated Number of Asylum Applications, 1997-2003 (Ten EU Accession States)



Note: No Data for Cyprus and Poland in 1997

Source: G  DAP/Eurostat 2006, Chart: BIVS 2006

Map 5.5.: First Asylum Applications in Member States (EU 15) in 2003 by Countries of Origin



Data Source: UNHCR, Map: BIVS 2006

Data on age groups (Table 5.6) present similar problems. Data categorisation is different from country to country and in most countries, there is no such data or has not been published. Generally, it seems that the large number of asylum applicants coming to European member states range in age from 18 to 35. Dealing with unaccompanied children is becoming increasingly problematic in European refugee protection policies. An initial look at the material illustrates the complicated and restricted data situation. We have a deviant number of people under 17 years old in the Netherlands in regard to the table on age cohorts. For most European countries, official data on unaccompanied minors is not available via Eurostat and GÉDAP. Nevertheless, research and publications on the issue of unaccompanied minors is increasing, so in the future more data will be available.

In some countries there are rather large numbers of decisions in relation to initial asylum applications, while these numbers are rather low in other countries. Decision data (Table 5.7) have to do with protection procedures; they are not related to the number of refugees who apply for asylum during the year under review. Many applicants might have stayed in the country for many years awaiting a decision on their case. Furthermore, positive decisions in some countries are related to strict national refugee protection laws, while in other countries they are related in general to Geneva Convention criteria. In some countries they include people who will stay due to humanitarian or other reasons.³⁵ It is obvious that the percentage of positive decisions in most European countries is rather low.

The number of positive decisions in Denmark and the Netherlands is higher compared to countries like Germany, Austria and Belgium (Table 5.7). Only one percent of all decisions in Greece for the year 2003 are positive. Rather large numbers of positive decisions are common in countries like Denmark and the Netherlands. Countries like Portugal, Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom are in the middle range (Table 5.8). If one has a look at the protection policies in the ten European accession states (EU 10), Lithuania has the largest positive decision rate (63 percent), Latvia rests at 33 percent but is related to only 18 cases, and 24 percent of all decisions in Hungary are positive. All other accession states fall below 4 percent.

³⁵ See the country studies in this report.

Table 5.6.: Asylum Applications by Sex, by Age Group and by Unaccompanied Minors in Selected EU 15 Countries, 2003

Asylum Applications by Sex in selected EU15-countries, 2003				
Sex	Austria	Belgium	France	Netherlands
Total	32,359	13,585	52,204	13,402
Male	23,726	8,979	36,128	9,184
Female	8,633	4,593	16,076	4,126
Unknown	0	13	0	92

Asylum Applications by Age Group in selected EU15-countries, 2003			
Age Groups	Belgium	France	Netherlands
Total	13,585	52,204	13,402
0-17	741	743	3,964
18-35	9,878	37,612	7,389
36-59	2,785	13,220	1,902
60+	168	615	147
Unknown	13	14	0

Asylum Applications by Unaccompanied Minors in selected EU15-countries, 2003				
Age groups	Belgium	France	Ireland	Netherlands
Total	741	949	275	1,216
0-13	154	27	9	222
14	38	4	:	92
15	62	15	:	180
16	168	177	:	286
17	319	506	:	262
Age unknown	0	220	:	174

Age groups	Denmark
Total	159
0-11	9
12-14	20
15-17	130
Age unknown	0

Source: G  DAP/Eurostat 2006

Table 5.7.: Decisions on Asylum Protection in EU 15 Countries, 2003

	Total	Positive decisions		Negative decisions	Other non-status decisions
Belgium	22,830	1,341	6%	21,489	647
Denmark	3,429	767	22%	2,662	0
Germany	95,323	4,562	5%	64,032	26,729
Greece	4,811	40	1%	4,771	0
Spain	6,965	364	5%	6,601	:
France	95,846	9,996	10%	85,850	:
Ireland	9,313	345	4%	7,845	1,123
Netherlands	34,242	7,820	23%	21,452	4,971
Austria	35,608	2,084	6%	4,951	28,573
Portugal	100	14	14%	85	1
Finland	3,320	494	15%	2,443	383
Sweden	31,006	4,322	14%	22,659	4,025
United Kingdom	80,370	13,180	16%	67,190	:

Source: G  DAP/Eurostat 2006

Notes:

Italy and Luxembourg: no data available.

Belgium: Included in the "other non-status decisions" category are cases where individuals voluntarily agree to drop their asylum requests, die, or acquire Belgian citizenship... When a person fails to react to a notice to attend an interview without a legitimate reason, a negative decision may be taken and included in the statistics for negative decisions. Data on decision data refer to cases and consider only Geneva Convention status. The numbers of applications include only new or first asylum applications.

France: Decisions, not persons

Netherlands: Cases, not persons

Table 5.8.: Decisions on Asylum Protection in the Ten EU Accession States, 2003

	Total	Positive decisions		Negative decisions	Other non-status decisions
Czech Republic	14,884	259	2%	9,108	5,517
Estonia	14	0	0%	13	1
Cyprus	:	10	:	:	:
Latvia	18	6	33%	10	2
Lithuania	774	488	63%	56	230
Hungary	3,931	950	24%	1,545	1,436
Poland	7,772	243	3%	3,163	4,366
Slovenia	1,196	52	4%	147	997
Slovak Republic	7,421	11	0%	829	6,581

Notes:

Malta: no data available.

Czech Republic: Total number of decisions refers to the numbers of decisions of the first and second instance. Appeals to the regional court and cessations are not included.

Data Source: G  DAP/Eurostat 2006

With regard to the status granted by a positive decision, it becomes clear that refugee policies are run differently in each country (Chart 5.9). In the member states (EU 15) Ireland and Italy, Geneva Convention status is rather comprehensive. Geneva Convention status is most often granted in Spain, Germany and Denmark. In Austria and the United Kingdom the number of applicants granted Geneva Convention status is smaller than those granted humanitarian status. In other member states such as Portugal, Greece, Sweden and Finland, Geneva Convention status is surprisingly infrequent. Finland is an exception, because the 69 percent of positively decided asylum application are granted "other status". With regard to the ten accession states (EU 10), there is a rather similar diverging picture. In the Slovak Republic and Poland most positive decisions lead to the granting of Geneva Convention status. On the other hand, Lithuania and Finland only offer Geneva Convention status to one percent of all positive decisions. Even in regard to the subsidiary protection status and other status categories, the protection policies in European countries are widely differentiated.

Since it is difficult to present aggregated data for European member states (EU 15) or the accession states (EU 10) due to missing data and variations in data presentation, three examples have been selected with regard to positive decisions and granted Geneva status (Table 5.10). It is obvious in all three states that the number of positive decisions and Geneva Convention status granted is related to the crisis situation in the countries of origin. In all of the countries of origin there have been situations of political unrest. Nevertheless, the percentages of positive decisions vary widely. Other factors seem to influence asylum policies in Europe. However, this interpretation is rather vague since we do not know on what these decisions are based on in terms of time and refugee groups.

To demonstrate the thesis that asylum applications are connected to the crisis situations in the country of origin, we have selected four countries where a longitudinal presentation of data illustrates that there is a flight-related cycle of events in the country of origin (Chart 5.11).

With regard to Serbia/Montenegro, the numbers of asylum applications declined after the crisis of the early 1990s. Afterwards, a rapid increase in applications was attributed to the military attacks on Serbia and the Kosovo crisis in 1990. Following this period, the number of asylum applications decreased again relatively quickly. Hence, there seems to

be a direct relationship to the war and civil war events in the area and the number of asylum applications.

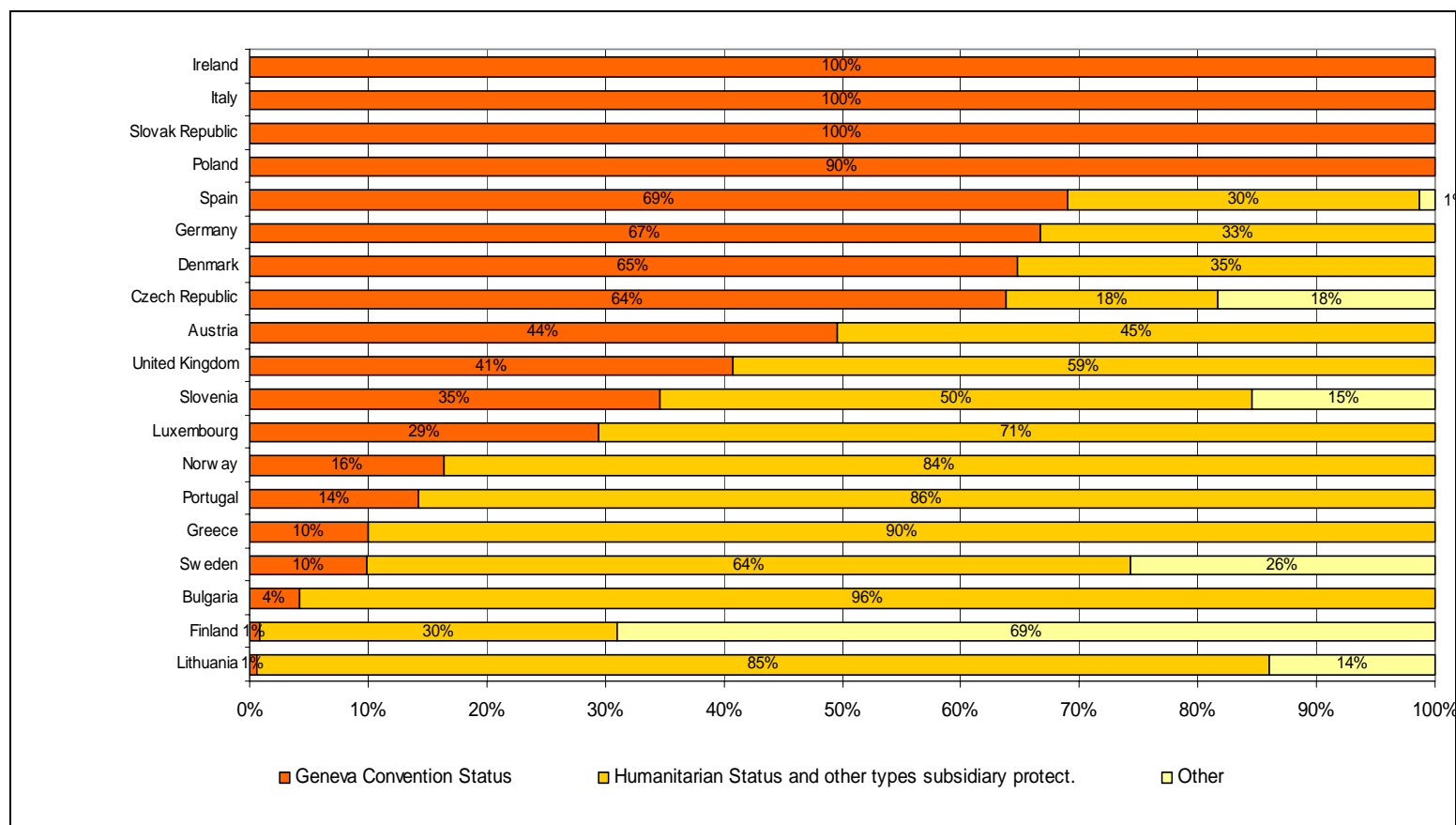
With regard to Turkey, a rather high number of asylum applicants in the mid-1990s could be observed. This was connected to the civil war situation in the Kurdish-speaking areas of the Republic of Turkey. Afterwards, there was a decline until 1999, which was closely related to the decreasing violence in eastern Turkey in the 1990s. In the three years preceding 2003, another increase was observed.

Relatively low numbers of refugees from Iraq sought asylum in the early 1990s. After the first Iraq War the number of refugees increased, possibly due to the complicated situation in Iraq concerning the protection status in the Kurdish area and the repression in the Shiite sections of Iraq. 2002 was the peak of asylum application statistics, the year of the second Iraqi War. Afterwards the number of applications declined again.

With regard to asylum applications from Afghanistan, there was a rise in the number of applications until 2001, when international forces occupied Afghanistan and a new government was installed. Afterwards the number of asylum applications decreased.

Despite the fact that there is a more or less clear relationship between crisis situations in the country of origin and the number of asylum applications, we still have to take into account the multidimensional set of factors in order to understand this data. Obviously there is a sensibility with regard to wars, civil wars, repression and the direct impact of war on refugee flows. However, the data shows that more areas of interpretation are necessary in order to better understand the statistical tables. These have to do with asylum application procedures, with refusal and return policies as well as with programmes of crisis management, post-crisis policies in the countries of origin and the use of diasporas as agents and social bridges for political and economic recovery in the countries of refugee movements' origin.

Chart 5.9: Positive Decisions (First Instance) on Asylum Applications – Statuses Granted, 2003



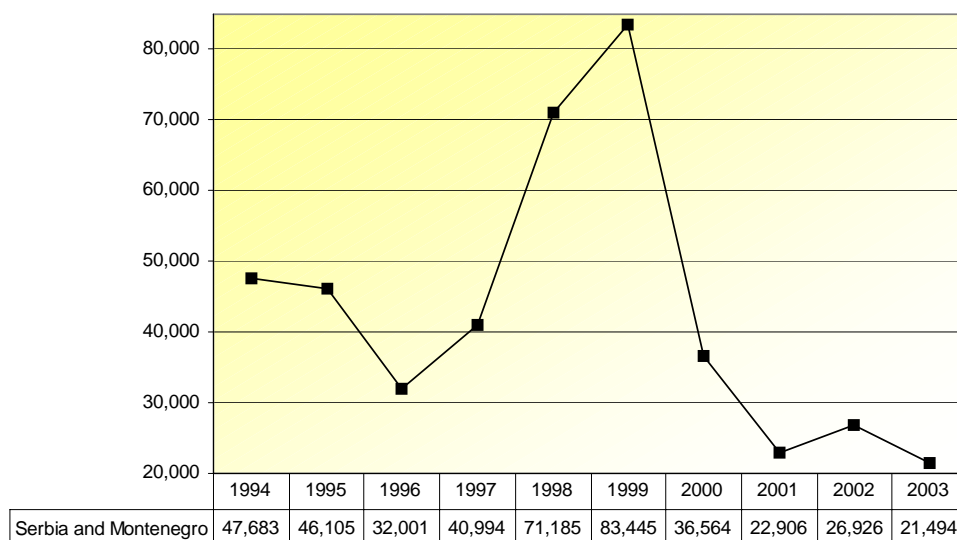
Data Source: GÉDAP/Eurostat 2006, Chart: BIVS 2006

**Table 5.10.: Positive Decisions (First Instance) by Country of Citizenship, 2003
(selected countries)**

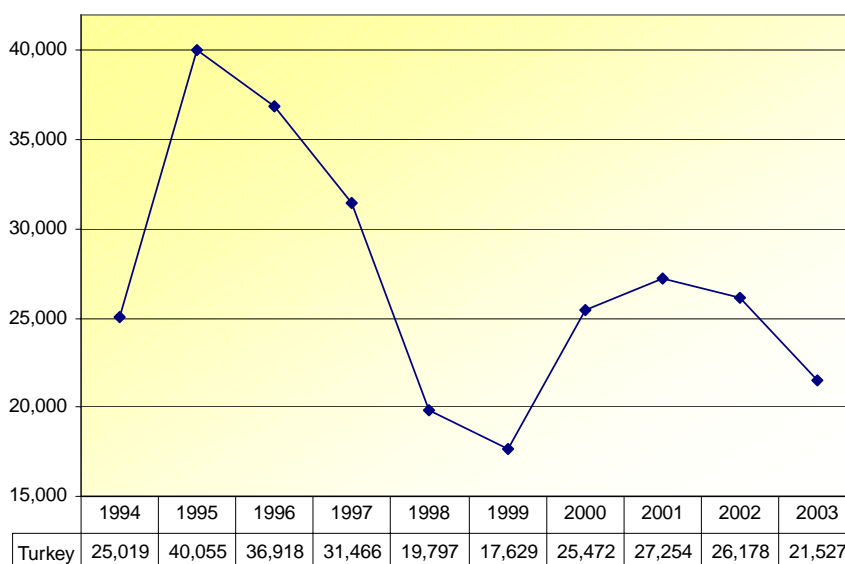
UNITED KINGDOM			
	Total	Geneva Convention Status Granted	
			Percent of Total
TOTAL	13,180	5,380	40.8
Somalia	3,100	2,470	79.7
Iraq	2,410	85	3.5
Zimbabwe	1,105	1,070	96.8
Afghanistan	685	85	12.4
Angola	510	35	6.9
Others	5,370	1,635	30.4
SWEDEN			
	Total	Geneva Convention Status Granted	
			Percent of Total
TOTAL	4,322	430	9.9
Iraq	1,165	19	1.6
Somalia	969	24	2.5
Yugoslavia	516	199	38.6
Stateless	476	6	1.3
Afghanistan	268	19	7.1
Others	928	163	17.6
NETHERLANDS			
	Total	Geneva Convention Status Granted	
			Percent of Total
TOTAL	4,621	393	8.5
Iraq	1,589	10	0.6
Afghanistan	597	93	15.6
Burundi	241	2	0.8
Angola	194	8	4.1
Sierra Leone	177	0	0.0
Others	1,823	280	15.4
<i>Data Source: GEDAP 2006</i>			

Chart 5.11.: Asylum Applications of Citizens from Serbia/Montenegro, Turkey, Iraq and Afghanistan in EU 15 States, 1994-2003

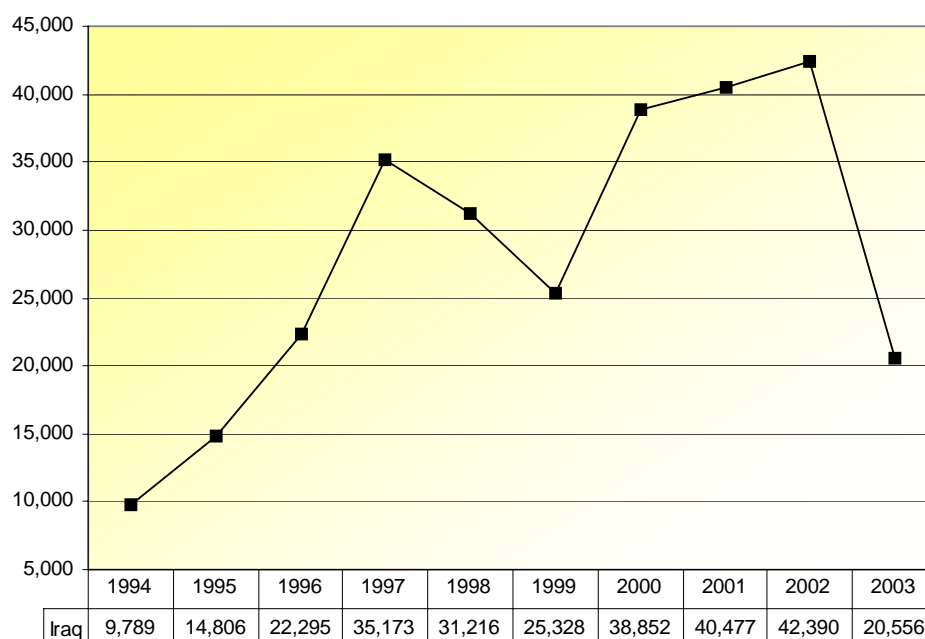
Asylum Applications of Citizens from Serbia-Montenegro in EU 15 States, 1994-2003



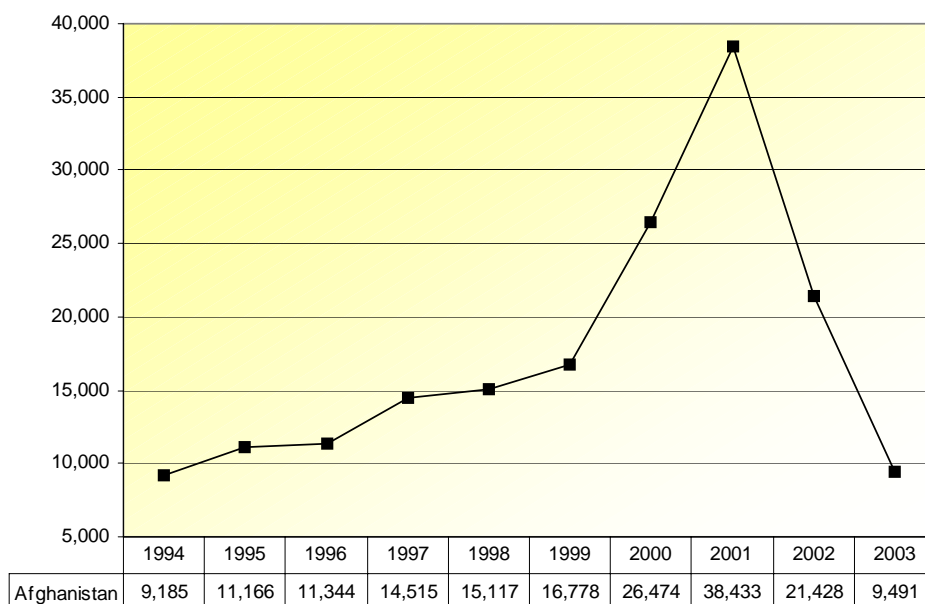
Asylum Applications of Citizens from Turkey in EU 15 States, 1994-2003



Asylum Applications of Citizens from Iraq in EU 15 States, 1994-2003

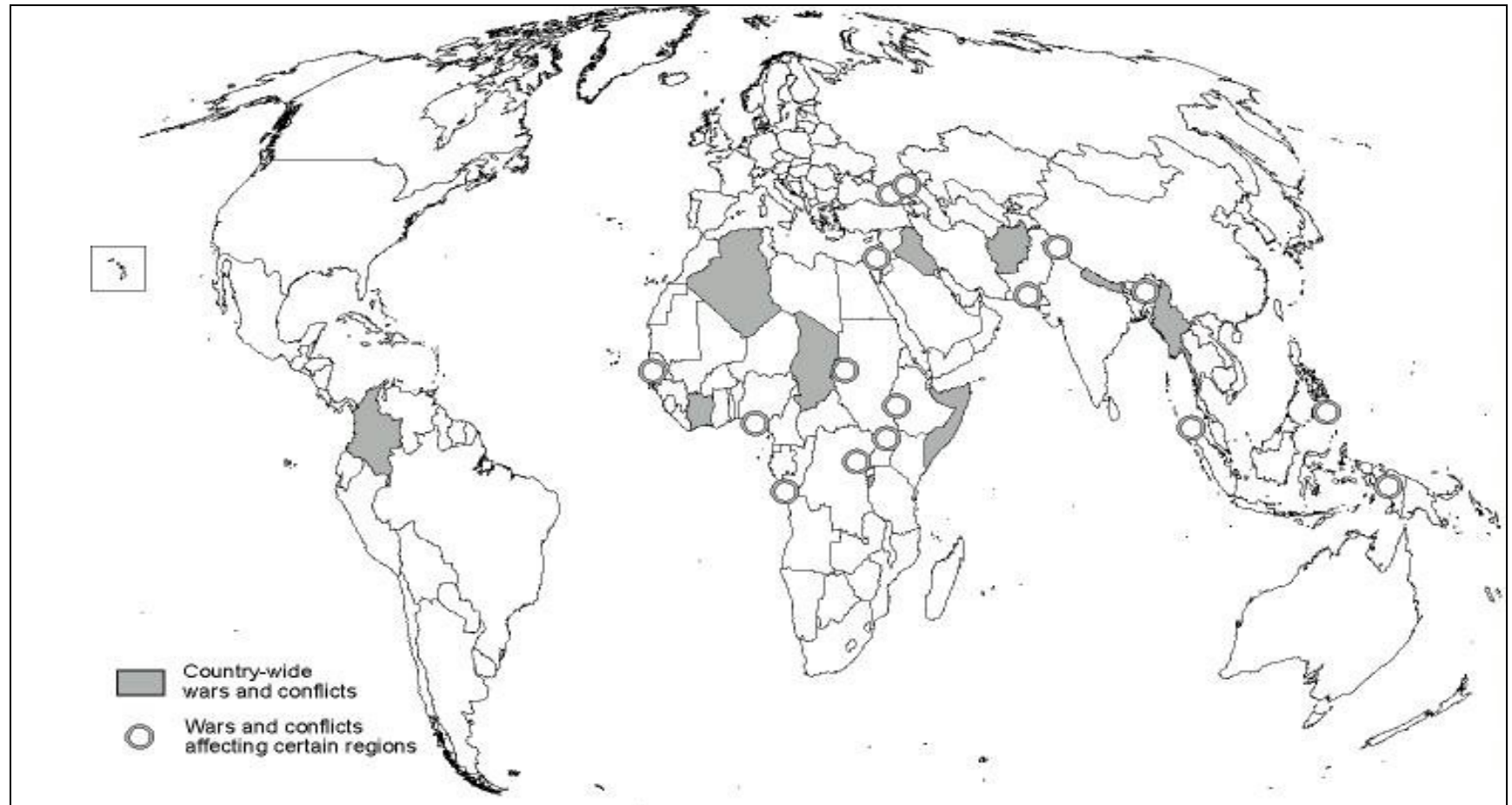


Asylum Applications of Citizens from Afghanistan in EU 15 States, 1994-2003



Data Source: UNHCR Statistical Yearbook 2003, Chart: BIVS 2006

Map 5.12.: Wars and Armed Conflicts in 2003



Source: AKUF 2004, Map: BIVS 2006

6. Refusals, Apprehensions, and Removals

There are three types of activities that can be classified as irregular or illegal migration. The first is the illegal crossing of international borders. The second form is related to illegal residence in the country of settlement. Finally, irregular or illegal migration can have to do with illegal economic activities, which might mean working in the black market or being employed without a labour permit. Irregular border crossing is done by using forged documents, by crossing a border in secret, and by being smuggled or trafficked. In the framework of the Schengen regime, external borders have been strengthened with control systems in order to prevent people from crossing national boundaries illegally or clandestinely. Aside from such border controls, people discovered in border areas as irregulars and without a founded asylum appeal are refused and sent back to the transit or origin country from which they arrived. Airlines are liable for their passengers when they are refused and sent back.

Irregular residency and illegal employment are both significant problems. In the European context, not all people who irregularly enter the EU member state countries are automatically refused. There are two reasons for this. One reason is that due to police and legal procedures, irregular migrants have to be screened and their cases dealt with legally. In some countries these procedures need more time than the legally allowed duration of detention. In most cases there are problems with undocumented migrants, whose returns are not accepted by the last country of stay or by their country of origin. Therefore, Mediterranean countries in particular, like Spain, Italy and Greece, have a large number of irregular migrants.

An additional large group of migrants stay in the country illegally after entering on a tourist or student visa, or continue to stay in the country after receiving negative decisions in asylum application procedures. There are various other reasons of getting into an irregular or undocumented situation, for example, when migrants lose their allowance of stay due to illegal economic activities. Another aspect of irregularity is smuggling and trafficking, which is dealt with by various forms of police control activities throughout the European states.

Irregular immigration is an area that has not yet been fully documented. The phenomenon is clandestine, meaning that official statistical data collection is impossible. In order to deal numerically with this aspect of migration, one is restricted

to only using indicators and estimations. One possibility around this would be taking regularisation data into account. Various forms of regularisation and legalisation policies have led to legal residency for large numbers of irregular immigrants, especially in Spain, Italy and Greece. The European Union has established the *Centre for Information, Discussion and Exchange on the Crossing of Borders and Immigration (CIREFI)*, which is collecting refusal,³⁶ apprehension³⁷ and removal³⁸ data. These data are obviously of poor quality and the definitions of the three categories remain vague. The data do not reflect the differences between stocks of illegal migrants and immigration flows. They do not distinguish between the act of refusal, apprehension or removal with the persons who have been refused, apprehended or removed. Therefore, a single data set may contain duplicate entries. It is most obvious that the indications given by the data cannot accurately correspond to the large number of legalised migrants in some European countries.

Despite attempts to clarify the situation, the data available still seems to be rather unreliable, especially when seeking indicators for regular and illegal immigration. Based on our research, difficulty arose as it was nearly impossible to obtain national contextual data, data tables also appeared rather scattered and time scales were rather small. Considering the overall delicate situation of illegal immigrants, it is to be expected that collecting and guaranteeing data on irregular and illegal immigration is difficult. Despite this, it was interesting to observe, that the statistics collected had not changed since the reference year of 2002. As such, only a preliminary synthesis on this issue - even for the 2003 report – is possible. Despite these difficulties, it seems clearly evident that data sets from all the European member states are not yet comparable. Overall, the data can not provide a reliable indication about the phenomenon of irregular and illegal migration as such, although it might be possible to discern trends and tendencies based on the information gathered in this realm. Such interpretations are only grounded in measuring the instruments of refusals, removals and apprehensions and are more or less related to the various national policies of policing or border control and their documentation. Available data might shed light on the level of awareness of illegal migration in the countries reviewed. Data on irregular migration

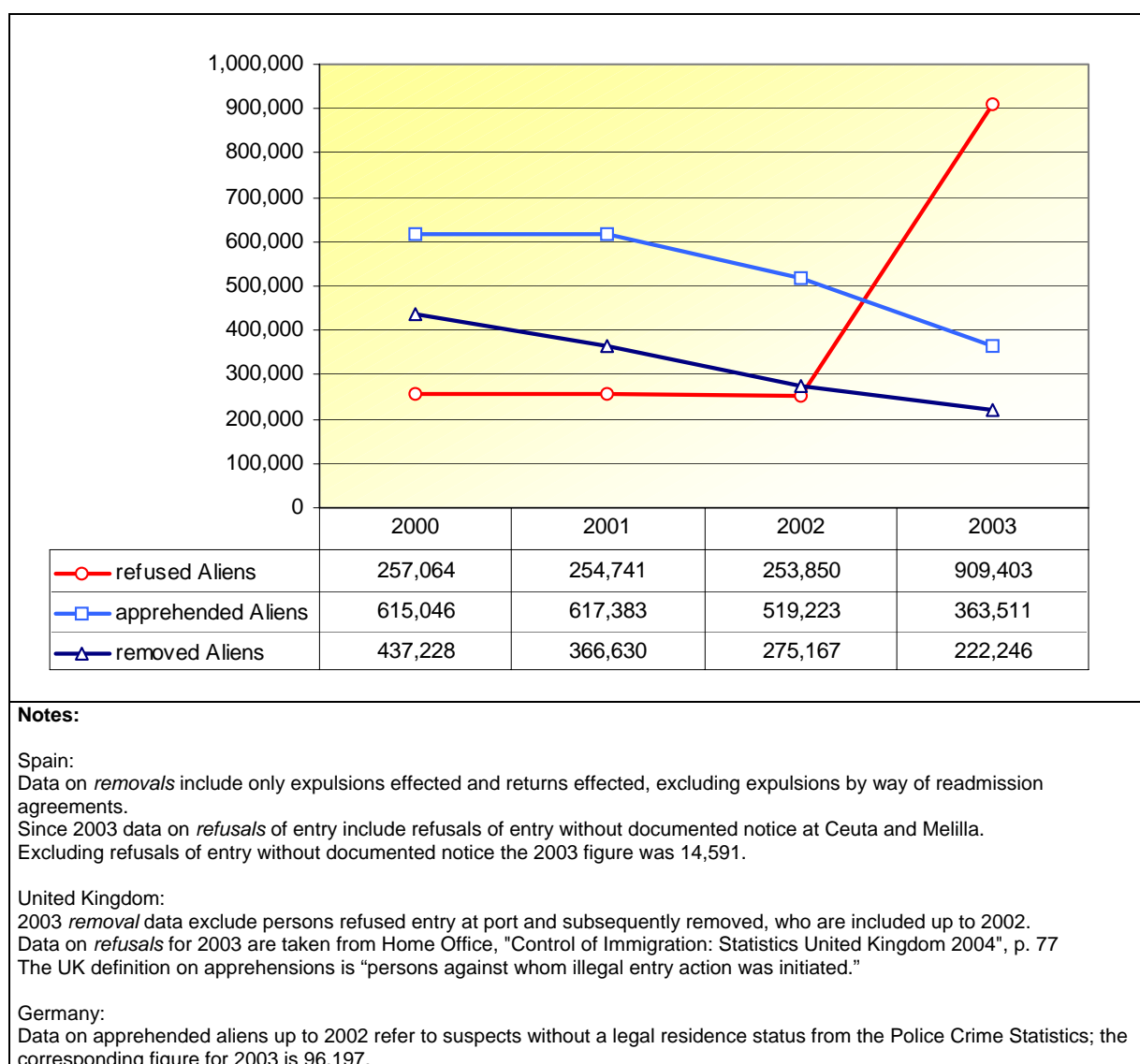
³⁶ "Refused aliens" are defined as "persons other than those entitled under Community law who are returned to a third country" (CIREFI).

³⁷ "Apprehended aliens illegally present" are defined as "Persons other than those entitled under Community law who are officially found to be on the territory of a Member State without possessing border documents, were refused entry or a subject to an entry or residence prohibition; or have become liable to expulsion" (CIREFI).

³⁸ "Removed aliens" are defined as "persons other than those entitled under Community law who are returned to a third country" (CIREFI).

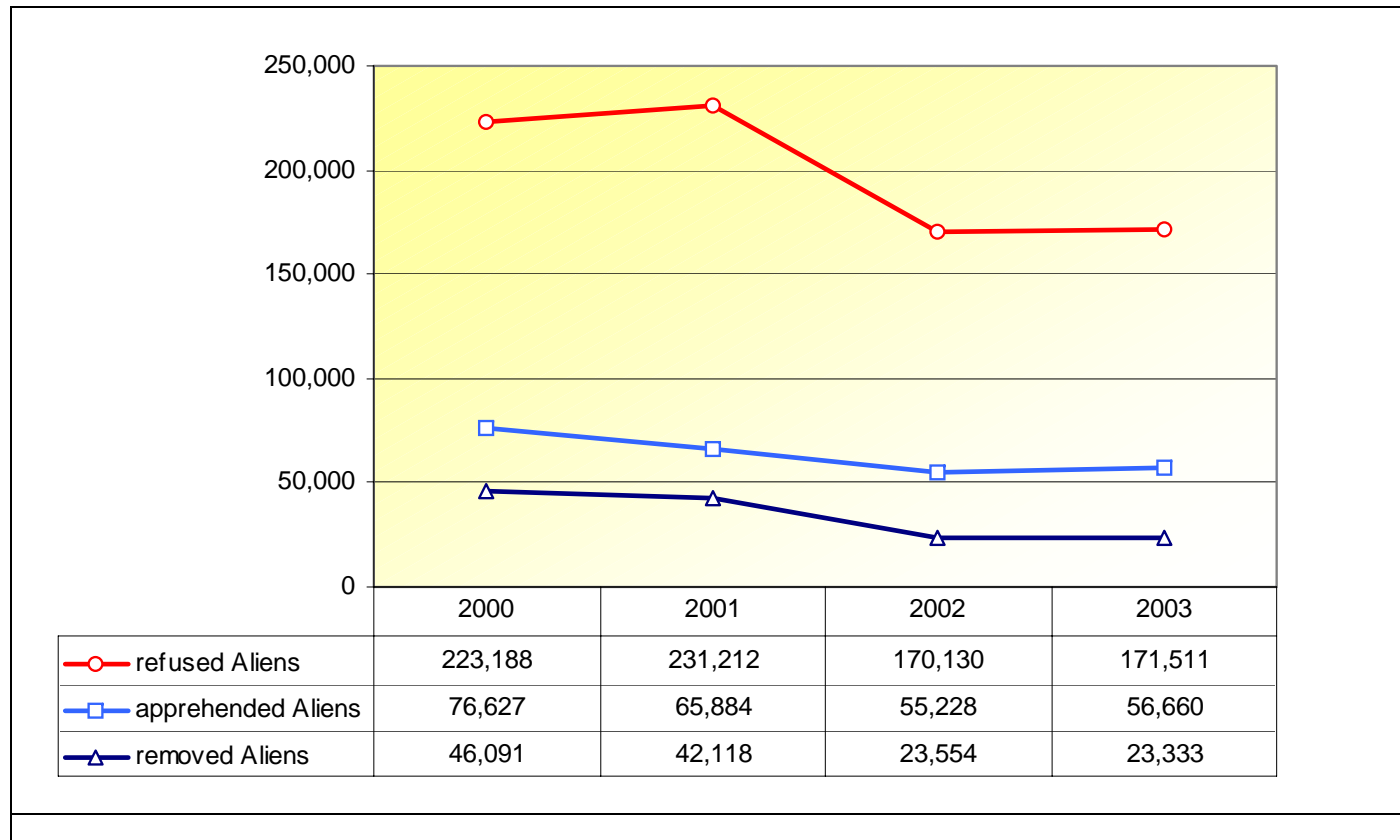
serve not only as a mostly unreliable indicator, but are also the outcome of a categorical system in revision. In Spain in 2003, for example, the number of refusals grew from around 50,000 (2002) to around 700,000. This does not reflect an actual change of migration patterns or of policing methods, but is due to a new data collection system in the country, as Spain now includes border crossings in Ceuta and Melilla in its statistics.

Chart 6.1.: Total Number of Refused, Apprehended and Removed Aliens in the EU 15, 2000-2003



Source: G  DAP/ CIREFI 2006, Chart: BIVS

Chart 6.2.: Total Number of Refused, Apprehended and Removed Aliens in the Ten EU Accession States, 2000-2003



Source: G  DAP/CIREFI 2006, Chart: BIVS

Table 6.3.: Total Number of Refused Aliens During the Period 1997-2003

	Absolute number						
	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Belgium	3,123	4,285	4,902	5,506	5,171	4,078	4,143
Denmark	:	:	:	3,936	2,049	486	658
Germany	88,269	60,091	57,342	52,257	51,054	47,286	42,072
Greece	:	:	:	9,546	16,972	17,681	17,300
France	46,366	40,608	47,002	44,185	38,563	:	31,317
Ireland	:	:	:	:	5,504	5,647	5,826
Italy	39,888	47,822	45,157	48,437	42,221	37,183	24,003
Luxembourg	:	:	:	65	:	:	:
Netherlands	8,854	9,412	9,975	10,023	9,484	8,419	9,382
Austria	80,706	25,532	24,732	19,055	17,595	22,997	22,305
Portugal	:	445	1,753	2,472	2,636	4,189	3,695
Spain	7,080	9,571	13,532	15,430	18,743	50,679	706,081
Finland	2,318	2,464	3,633	3,647	3,639	3,506	2,910
Sweden	:	:	:	4,230	3,245	1,339	1,601
United Kingdom	24,535	27,605	31,295	38,275	37,865	50,360	38,110
Total EU15*				257,064	254,741	253,850	909,403
Czech Republic	:	:	:	48,301	39,394	33,526	31,166
Estonia	:	:	:	2,299	3,414	3,438	3,056
Cyprus	3,832	4,702	6,175	4,590	5,195	4,025	3,384
Latvia	:	:	:	938	707	1,084	5,151
Lithuania	3,280	2,191	2,505	4,266	3,810	4,136	5,516
Malta	2,126	2,793	2,197	3,335	2,266	2,156	805
Hungary	54,672	32,854	31,881	25,798	33,517	14,452	21,263
Poland	39,425	41,045	40,003	53,122	50,833	47,972	44,380
Slovenia	43,791	38,632	39,740	44,908	59,917	37,713	38,589
Slovak Republic	36,042	36,563	35,631	35,631	32,159	21,628	18,201
Total 10 Accession States				223,188	231,212	170,130	171,511
Bulgaria	:	:	:	6,425	5,532	6,928	5,917
Romania	:	:	:	37,011	32,033	36,922	55,950
Iceland	6	21	34	58	106	50	101
Norway	1,112	1,501	1,687	1,340	1,561	1,970	1,662
Source: G��DAP/ CIREFI 2006							
* without Ireland in 2000, Luxembourg in 2001-2003 and France in 2002.							
Note: Figures in italics indicate highly questionable data							

Country specific remarks:

Spain	Since 2003 data on refusals of entry include refusals of entry without documented notice at Ceuta and Melilla. This explains the huge increase in refusals at the border. Excluding refusals of entry without documented notice the 2003 figure was 14,591.
United Kingdom	Data for 2003 are taken from Home Office, "Control of Immigration: Statistics United Kingdom 2004", p. 77

What is obvious with regard to refused aliens in Europe is the change between 253,850 refusals in 2002 to 909,403 in 2003 (Chart 6.1; Table 6.3). Taking into account the fact that we do not have data for all countries, the number of refusals in general remains unchanged from year to year, from 257,064 in 2000, to 254,741 in 2001, and to 235,850 in 2002. The change in categorisation in Spain explains most of the numerical increases of 655,402 between the year 2002 and the following year 2003. Subtracting this difference on the national level from the 2003 total number of refusals for all European member states (EU 15), the calculation shows that the numbers are essentially unchanged up to 2003 with 254,001 refusals. During these years, both the number of apprehended aliens and the number of removed aliens declined following the year 2001. For the European accession states (EU 10) there is a general decline in refusals and more or less stability in the area of apprehension and removals (Chart 6.2).

In terms of the data presented for 2003, the country with the largest number of refusals is Spain. Spain is followed by the larger member states (EU 15), by Germany with 42,072 refusals, the United Kingdom with 38,110, France with 31,317,³⁹ and Italy with 24,003. As in most member states of the European Union (EU 15), the numbers of refusals are declining in all four cases. The exceptions are Belgium, Denmark, Ireland, the Netherlands, Spain⁴⁰ and Sweden. Between 1997 and 2003, the number of refusals did not follow a steady pattern in most of the countries reviewed; a similar situation exists in the accession states (EU 10). In most of these states the number of refusals declined, with the exceptions of the Baltic countries, with their large Russian-speaking minorities and their special relation to the CIS countries. Once again though, it should be noted that these data are highly questionable and it is not clear to what extent the data on refusals are related to numbers of illegal border crossings.

When one interprets the numbers of refusals in terms of immigration configurations⁴¹ and migration systems,⁴² it is evident that Germany was a destination country of irregular immigration from former guest worker countries, such as Turkey (refusals in 2003 2,095; 2002: 2,403). The other guest worker country of origin was

³⁹ Eurostat/GéDAP data is not available for France for the reference year of 2002.

⁴⁰ As mentioned, the data situation is inconclusive.

⁴¹ A "migration configuration" is a social phenomenon established over time and space across borders, in which traditions of horizontal mobility, of migration chains, of migration networks, of migration experiences and knowledge, of group cohesion, of transport vehicles, of gates of entry or of migration regimes, define a specific immigrant population group.

⁴² A "migration system" is a presentation of migration flows interrelated to each other. This can be a national migration system concerning all immigrants coming and settling in a state's territory. It can also refer to bilateral migratory movements between two countries. It might be the systematisation of migratory flows in a certain region, as for example, in Europe as well as of global flows.

Serbia/Montenegro, with 4,554 refusals in 2003 (2002: 5,010 refusals). For both of these countries of origin, the unstable political situation should be taken into account. France refused in 2003 2,141 citizens from its former colony Algeria, 2,910 from Morocco, and 1,041 from Senegal. Overall though, most documented refusals for this period involve Chinese citizens (4,321). Other large numbers arrived from crisis regions like Turkey or Iraq. The nexus between refugee immigration and irregular entry is not clear. Portugal refused 2,339 people from the Lusitanian sister country Brazil. Refused border crossing in Spain seems to be related to traditional ties to South America (Ecuador 2003: 4,923; 2002: 5,433) or to neighbouring countries such as Morocco (2003: 632,237) or Mauritania (2003: 63,931).⁴¹ In addition, Italy also had a large number of denied aliens from neighbouring countries, for instance, 1,853 citizens of Albania (5,954 in 2002). The two other large numbers of refusals in 2003 involve 4,458 citizens from Romania and 29,901 Bulgarian nationals. As in 2002, there are still a substantial number of refusals and returns back to accession states (EU 10).

For accession states (2002) the data on citizenship of refused aliens is rather poor. Most refusals involve migrants from central and eastern European countries. The most prominent countries concerning the refusal of aliens in 2003 are Poland with 44,380 refusals (2002: 47,972), Slovenia with 38,589 refusals (2003: 37,713), and the Czech Republic with 31,116 refusals (2002: 33,526 refusals). The largest numbers of refusals in Poland involve citizens from the neighbouring countries Belarus (13,021), Ukraine (12,217) and Lithuania (9,600). Interesting is the large number of migrants from Poland in the neighbouring Czech Republic (7,802), as well as from Slovakia (3,844).⁴² In Hungary, too, most people refused are from countries with a common border, from Serbia (2,672) and from Romania (7,410). In both neighbouring countries, the large Hungarian diaspora minorities have established migration configurations. This special situation might explain the refusal of a large number of Hungarians from Romania (19,268). In 2003 in both countries – as in Poland – the numbers of Ukrainians are rather large (Hungary: 3,829; Romania 3,776). Diaspora configurations might be the reason for the 2,375 Turkish citizens refused.

These speculations can be extended. Obviously, when taken as indicators, the numbers of refusals refer to a rather complex pattern of migration configurations and systems of irregular immigration. These patterns are consistent with various research

⁴¹ It is not clear if the data are related to citizenship or to the state.

⁴² When considering the border crossing from Slovakia to the Czech Republic, the recent nation-state building processes in these two countries must be taken into account.

results.⁴³ Despite various political debates on substitution by opening new gates of entry, the question of whether or not illegal border crossings follow established paths of immigration and to what extent they are related to other migration configuration remains an untouched field of research. Additionally, it should be remembered that the scattered numbers on refusals do not allow for a systematic data overview and even less for a convincing description of irregular migration patterns.

A similar point can be argued with respect to data on apprehension of aliens (Table 6.4). The police crime statistics differ from country to country; it is not known, for instance, under what circumstances aliens have been apprehended, whether they were apprehended for entering the country illegally or were illegally employed. The popular terminology is “illegally present”, and is obviously not just the preparation for removals. Until now, no common European-wide definition of the term has been agreed upon. Furthermore, data on the criminal activities as grounds for apprehension are not available. It is also unclear what the sources of increases are in the available data. The system for collecting data in Germany was changed in 2002, while statistics are only available in the United Kingdom for the period from 1997 to 2002. Though it is not possible to state a correlation in the data on apprehensions with statistics on refusals and removals, some interconnections can be identified.

Similar problems as those with the refusal data are present in the removal data (Table 6.5). The various definitions of removal are not comparable as the data situation is more than problematic. In terms of indicators, however, one can argue that the number of removals declined in the European member states (EU 15) and in the European accession states (EU 10) by nearly half between 2000 and 2003. It should be noted that there is a wide variation between the member states in terms of increases or decreases in the number of removals.

The number of removals is another indicator that can be used to analyse regular and illegal migration. The European Union member states (EU 15) registered a total number of 209,995 removals in 2002. This number shrank considerably in 2003. The reasons for this change are, however, not clear. The most significant change took place in the United Kingdom, where the number of removals decreased from 65,460 in 2002 to 21,380 in 2003, due to a new system of data collection. In Germany, the number was minimised by around 10,000, from 40,174 in 2002 to 30,176 in 2003. Again, large numbers of Romanians (11,738) were removed from Italy in 2003 (2002:

⁴³ See: Jörg Alt: 2005, Life in the world of shadows: The problematic of illegal migration. Global Migration Perspectives No. 41. MS. Global Commission on International Migration. Geneva.

6,063), from Spain 2,801, and from Hungary 2,881 (2002: 3,301). 17,006 Moroccans were removed from Spain and 2,963 from Italy. 34,698 Albanians were removed from Greece, 4,194 from Italy. The greatest number of Ukrainians (2,614) was removed in 2003 from Poland. In the case of Germany, citizens from Turkey (4,310) and from Serbia/Montenegro (4,508) were removed in large numbers. 2,404 Polish citizens were also removed. More than one thousand citizens of each of the eastern European states of Bulgaria (1,524), Ukraine (1,900), and Russia (1,305) were removed from Germany. 1,032 citizens of China and 1,307 of Vietnam were removed from this country as well. As indicators of irregular immigration, removals seem closely related to established migration configurations and systems of migration.

The most convincing indicators of the number of irregular residents in European countries are the number of applicants for regularisation and the number of legalised people.⁴⁴ This has been presented for the Mediterranean countries (Table 6.6). Concerning other relevant information, in addition to the table's data, a new law on the status of aliens went into effect in Greece in 2003. Roughly 500,000 residence permits were granted to irregular residents during the year 2003. Apparently, the size of the irregular non-national population in these states is much higher than the tables from CIREFI indicate. In other European member and accession states, regularisation policies for long-term irregular residents were implemented (system of permanent regularisations, as opposed to large-scale one-shot regularisations), though data are not available.

⁴⁴ An overview of regularisation processes is given by Amanda Levinson (2005), "The regularisation of unauthorised migrants: literature survey and country case studies". Oxford.

Table 6.4.: Total Number of Apprehended Aliens Illegally Present During the Period 1997-2003

	Absolute number						
	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Belgium	:	2,677	14,916	6,070	17,310	19,998	22,164
Denmark	:	:	:	275	646	313	1,666
Germany	138,146	140,779	128,320	124,262	122,583	112,573	26,493
Greece	199,500	148,750	182,118	259,403	219,598	43,742	47,915
Spain	11,212	11,511	10,574	6,579	12,976	56,130	55,164
France	19,568	22,322	27,293	43,508	37,586	48,521	54,092
Ireland	6	24	24	25	52	115	:
Italy	34,645	49,065	44,121	40,489	64,734	92,823	59,535
Luxembourg	:	:	:	164	85	:	:
Netherlands	:	:	8,945	9,840	6,431	10,603	6,397
Austria	27,459	25,326	39,863	42,374	45,308	46,232	43,448
Portugal	:	1,994	9,361	26,140	4,682	12,975	17,886
Finland	133	103	69	226	229	474	1,588
Sweden	:	:	:	8,366	15,288	26,674	27,163
United Kingdom	14,390	16,500	21,165	47,325	69,875	48,050	:
Total EU15*				615,046	617,383	519,223	363,511
Czech Republic	:	:	:	25,503	21,580	22,625	23,142
Estonia	:	:	:	3,139	1,342	864	1,716
Cyprus	60	82	231	1,449	182	725	3,794
Latvia	:	:	:	293	283	377	518
Lithuania	565	520	:	457	250	200	502
Hungary	4,415	4,933	4,805	2,347	1,597	406	509
Malta	394	463	616	531	722	1,854	931
Poland	:	:	:	954	3,509	7,549	8,841
Slovenia	7,093	13,740	18,695	35,892	20,871	5,393	4,214
Slovak Republic	2,821	8,236	8,050	6,062	15,548	15,235	12,493
Total 10 Accession States				76,627	65,884	55,228	56,660
Bulgaria	:	:	:	4,144	1,892	400	454
Romania	:	:	:	2,696	3,738	2,713	4,975
Iceland	6	24	24	25	52	112	73
Norway	:	:	:	:	368	459	786

Source: G  DAP/CIREFI 2006

* without Luxembourg in 2002, Luxembourg, Ireland and UK in 2003

Note: Figures in italics indicate highly questionable data

Country specific remarks:

Germany Data up to 2002 refer to suspects without a legal residence status from the Police Crime Statistics; the corresponding figure for 2003 is 96,197

United Kingdom UK Definition: Annual totals of persons against whom illegal entry action was initiated during the period 1997-2002

Table 6.5.: Total Number of Removed Aliens During the Period 1997-2003

	Absolute number						
	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Belgium	4,890	3,877	3,457	4,684	8,801	10,352	9,996
Denmark	:	:	:	1,339	3,056	1,627	3,100
Germany	64,869	69,989	56,539	55,813	43,950	40,174	30,176
Greece	:	:	184,501	225,713	167,199	45,299	40,930
France	9,637	7,570	7,821	9,230	8,604	10,015	11,692
Ireland	:	:	6	186	364	521	:
Italy	4,700	8,950	8,978	23,955	23,836	33,289	31,013
Luxembourg	:	:	64	128	118	:	:
Netherlands	39,441	36,206	36,894	25,209	16,548	21,070	23,206
Austria	16,867	16,992	17,071	14,855	11,592	9,858	11,070
Portugal	:	106	906	1,143	607	1,991	2,798
Spain	27,773	22,723	23,840	23,942	26,801	26,434	26,757
Finland	:	:	1,205	2,501	1,514	2,223	2,773
Sweden	:	:	:	1,885	4,505	6,854	7,355
United Kingdom	31,145	34,920	37,780	46,645	49,135	65,460	21,380
Total EU 15*				437,228	366,630	275,167	222,246
Czech Republic	:	:	:	3,943	6,375	4,873	2,602
Estonia	:	:	:	403	317	255	171
Cyprus	:	:	:	2,791	3,204	2,932	3,307
Latvia	:	:	:	371	314	540	375
Lithuania	927	736	307	345	342	312	846
Hungary	15,636	22,553	18,898	19,645	13,987	3,602	4,804
Malta	383	450	604	515	699	952	847
Poland	:	:	:	6,770	5,852	4,751	5,879
Slovenia	6,577	6,111	6,040	8,855	9,017	4,268	3,209
Slovak Republic	1,404	2,759	2,827	2,453	2,011	1,069	1,293
Total 10 Accession States				46,091	42,118	23,554	23,333
Bulgaria	:	:	:	4,803	2,128	722	814
Romania	1,320	1,564	1,172	654	686	333	500
Iceland	7	9	0	11	23	9	18
Norway	1,657	3,020	3,454	3,833	5,324	7,849	8,672

Source: GéDAP/CIREFI 2006

* without Luxembourg in 2002, Luxembourg and Ireland in 2003

Note: Figures in italics indicate highly questionable data

Country specific remarks:

Spain Data include only expulsions effected and returns effected, excluding expulsions by way of readmission agreements.

United Kingdom 2003 removal data exclude persons refused entry at port and subsequently removed, who are included up to 2002

Table 6.6: Regularisation Schemes in Mediterranean Countries of the EU 15 by Number of Applicants and Number of Regularised (until 2003)

	Year	Number of applicants	Number of regularised
Greece	1998 (white card)	370,000	370,000
	1998 (green card)	228,000	220,000
	2001	368,000	228,000
Spain	1985-86	44,000	23,000
	1991	135,393	109,135
	1996	25,000	21,300
	2000	247,598	153,463
	2001	350,000	221,083
France	1981-82	..	121,100
	1997-98	..	77,800
Italy	1986-87		118,700
	1990		235,000
	1995-96	256,000	238,000
	1998-99	308,000	193,200
	2002	700,000	634,700
Portugal	1992-93	80,000	38,364
	1996	35,000	31,000
	2001		170,000

Source: Levinson 2005

7. International Migration Dynamics and European Developments

International data which might provide a reliable comparative overview with EU developments are not available. As noted above, even for member states of the European Union with rather far developed national statistics, the data on flows and stocks of immigrants are difficult to present – this is even more evident in regard to non-industrialised or just recently industrialised countries. Nevertheless, various international agencies have been delivering valuable data material and increasingly more countries are becoming aware of their migration situation.⁴ The United Nations Population Fund (UNPD) published tables with various data. Most of the material is based, however, on unclear sources or estimations. The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) and the International Labour Office (ILO) are meanwhile delivering the most reliable statistical publications. There is, nonetheless, a gap between interpretative conclusions and the data presentations – especially regarding the relation between the time relevance of data and of general propositions. The situation of data presentations pertaining to refugees and international protection is more satisfactory. The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) has been improving its statistical research and dissemination ongoing since the early 1990s. The agency now frequently publishes pertinent data sets.⁵

According to estimations of international organisations, the collected number of international migrants in 2003 was around 180 to 200 million.⁶ For the year 1970 these figures were estimated at only 82 million, increasing to 175 million migrants in the year 2000. These numbers continuously cover just three percent of the world's population, a steady, unchanging rate already for decades. Around 23.5 million non-nationals were counted in the European member states for the year 2003; this estimate is around 11.75 percent of the world's immigrant population. For the United States, the estimated figure is around 18 percent of the world's immigrant population.

With the global share of three percent, migration is still more or less a peripheral demographic phenomenon. Despite this, the influences of migration on various social, political and cultural formations are rather obvious. The estimated number of migrants rose from 1980 to 2000 in both the industrialised countries, from 48 million to 110 million, as well

⁴It has been noted that there has been a "significant increase in the number of countries, particularly developing countries that have become host to foreign workers. Based on the entries in the NATLEX database maintained by the International Labour Organisation, over 100 countries enacted legislation or signed agreements that related to migration during the 1990s. In comparison, in 1970, there only were around 40 countries employing foreign labour" (ILO (ed.): 2003).

⁵In this report data on refugees and international protection originated often from UNHCR sources.

⁶In some statistical publications refugees are included in these numbers; in others there is a tendency to understand "international migrants" as just economic immigrants.

as the developing world, from 52 million to 65 million.⁷ In most countries of the world, migration became a central political agenda in regional political systems like the European Union, and within the framework of the United Nations.

The number of refugees worldwide⁸ is dependent on various factors, such as wars, civil disturbances and other violent developments. By the end of 2003, the global population of concern to the UNHCR was estimated at 17 million persons, including 9.7 million refugees. 882,000 persons were registered as asylum applicants. 1.1 million refugees were repatriated during the year 2003. 4.2 million persons were counted as internally displaced persons (IDPs). In 2003, 233,000 IDPs were returned to their place of origin. UNHCR acknowledged a reduction of refugees by 24 percent for the time period between 2000 and 2004. As in the European region, the number of asylum applicants worldwide declined, while the global refugee population fell by 9 percent to total 914,000 persons. This marked the lowest number since 1980. The most important receiving countries with the largest refugee populations remained to be Pakistan (1.1 million), Iran (985,000), Germany (960,000), Tanzania (650,000), the United States (453,000), China (299,000) and Serbia-Montenegro (291,000).

Developing regions hosted 6.5 million refugees, equalling 67 percent of the global refugee population. The 50 Least Developed Countries (LDCs) provided protection to 26 percent of the world's refugees. Europe hosted 24.4 percent of the world's refugee population. Asia provided protection to the largest population of concern to the UNHCR, reaching 36.4 percent. Africa hosted 25.2 percent, Latin America and the Caribbean 7.8 percent, and North America 5.8 percent.

Some 309,000 asylum requests were lodged in the 15 original countries of the European Union (minus 21 percent). Including the ten new member states of the European Union (EU 10) who joined in 2004, the number of asylum claims submitted in the EU amounted to around 347,000 (minus 19 percent). The number of asylum requests is still rather extensive in the non-industrialised countries, where circa 157,000 applications for asylum or refugee status were received. This is, however, 11 percent below the 2002 level (176,000). South Africa was the largest receiving country for asylum applicants in non-industrialised countries during 2003 (36,000 or 23 percent of all claims), followed by Malaysia (19,000 or 12 percent), Ecuador (11,000 or 7 percent), Ghana (8,600 or 6 percent), Egypt (6,700 or 4 percent) and Pakistan (5,800 or 4 percent).

In 2003, around 93,600 asylum applicants were granted Convention Refugee Status, totalling 59,300 in the first instance and 34,300 persons on appeal. Another 32,400 asylum applicants were allowed to remain for humanitarian reasons (27,400 in the first instance and 5,000 on appeal). Convention refugee status was granted in 14 percent of first instance

⁷ See: Martin, Philip: 2005 Global Commission on Migration (GCIM).

decisions made in 2003, the lowest recognition rate since 1994. Including humanitarian status, 20 percent of all substantive asylum decisions made in the first instance in 2003 were positive, the lowest level since 1993. As in 2002, some 20 percent of all substantive asylum decisions made on appeal during 2003 resulted in the granting of refugee status (18 percent) or humanitarian status (3 percent). The number of undecided asylum cases in the first instance and on appeal in industrialised countries decreased by 16 percent during 2003. By the end of 2003, 497,000 asylum applicants were awaiting a decision in the first instance while another 168,000 asylum claims were pending an appeal.

The numbers of refugees in regard to their countries of origin differ from the same numerical hierarchy in regard to asylum applicants. By the end of 2003, there were some 2.1 million Afghan refugees according to UNHCR's estimates. This accounted for one quarter of the global refugee population. Sudan was the second largest country of origin among the refugees (606,000), followed by Burundi (532,000) and the Democratic Republic of the Congo (453,000). The Russian Federation was the main country of origin of asylum applicants in industrialised countries in 2003: 35,000 new claims were lodged by Russian citizens, the majority of which were from Chechnya. Serbia-Montenegro was the second leading country of origin among the asylum applicants (27,300), followed by Iraq (25,700), Turkey (24,800), China (23,200) and the Islamic Republic of Iran (15,700).

Pakistan hosted the highest number of refugees in relation to its economic capacity.⁹ The Democratic Republic of the Congo was the country with the second highest refugee burden (2,800 refugees), followed by the United Republic of Tanzania (2,500 refugees) and Ethiopia (2,000 refugees).

The demographic impact of refugees was significant in Africa and Europe. Armenia, Serbia-Montenegro and Guinea hosted the largest numbers of refugees in relation to the size of their national population. Overall, Armenia hosted the largest number of refugees in relation to its national population size. Between 1999 and 2003, it hosted on average 86 refugees per 1,000 inhabitants. Serbia-Montenegro was the second main country affected by refugee displacement in relation to its national population (39 refugees per 1,000 inhabitants), followed by Guinea (35 refugees) and Djibouti (34 refugees per 1,000 inhabitants).

Circa 48 percent of people under the mandate of UNHCR consist of women. Almost half (46 percent) of the population of concern to the UNHCR are minors under the age of 18. In sub-Saharan Africa, due to higher birth rates, the proportion of minors is about 54 percent.

Worldwide, internal displacements play an important part in the stages of migration theatre. Most of them are just excluded population groups. 4.2 million internally displaced

⁸The following data are based on the UNHCR Refugee Reports.

⁹ This is measured in relation to the national gross domestic product (GDP) per capita.

persons (IDPs) of concern to the UNHCR have been counted for this period. 233,000 IDPs returned to their place of origin in 2003. The numbers of internally displaced persons under UNHCR's mandate decreased by 10 percent; while the numbers of others IDPs (of concern to the UNHCR) fell by five percent. In the member and accession states of the European Union, internally displaced persons make up a rare category and are not counted. However, the eastern peripheral European countries are widely affected by displacement processes.

Refugee repatriations declined worldwide in numbers. In 2003, 1.1 million refugees were repatriated to their home country. This is a 55 percent decrease compared to 2002 when some 2.4 million refugees returned. Afghans constituted some 59 percent (646,000) of all returnees; Angolans 133,000; people from Burundi 82,000; and refugees from Iraq 55,000. These figures are rather high compared to available data from the European Union area.

Resettlement in 2003 was not a far developed instrument of international protection. The main resettlement countries¹⁰ in 2003 were the United States with 28,400 refugees resettled during US Fiscal Year (2004: 53,000), Australia with 11,900 refugees (2004: 16,000), Canada with 10,800 refugees (2004: 10,000), and Norway with 1,600 refugees. As UNHCR notes, major nationalities accepted for resettlement during 2003 were refugees from Sudan (8,400), Afghanistan (6,000), Ukraine (5,100), the Islamic Republic of Iran (4,000) and Liberia (3,700).

As noted in the section on illegal migration in Europe, the worldwide number of unauthorised, illegal migrants is, of course, indeterminable. The World Commission on International Migration estimates a flow of 2.5 to 4 million unauthorised migrants. For Europe, the World Commission on International Migration refers to an illegal flow of 500,000 and an illegal stock of 5 million, which might make up 10 percent of all migrants. 10 million is estimated as the stock of unauthorised immigrants in the United States and 20 million in India. In comparison, Europe still seems to be a region with a comparatively small number of illegal immigrants.

Migration dynamics differ from region to region. Europe is particularly impacted by east west migration flows. Countries like Moldova and the Ukraine are outflow areas. Poland can be understood as a classical emigration country with various diasporas abroad. Crises areas in the Russian Federation lead to new refugee flows. These flows affect neighbouring countries and European member states as far away as Spain or Italy. The Russian Federation itself is – due to recent nation-state formations and international border constructions – a country with large displaced populations. The new borders in central and eastern Europe have contributed to further migration flows.

¹⁰These data derive from the report on in an Independent World Commission on International Migration (WCIM).

Migration dynamics have changed extensively in the non European post-industrial regions. The United States, Canada, Australia and New Zealand are still countries in which the old “immigrant-countries-inflows” of migrants continue. These countries are also receiving refugees for permanent settlement under refugee resettlement programmes. Despite this, the migration dynamics in these countries have changed widely as new patterns of migration flows have been emerging. Considering recent scenarios of persecution and violence as well as revisions in international protection policies, refugee flows have become an increasing topic of interest, particularly as they are composed of such varying population groups, who use different migration paths and gates of entry. Of central importance are the illegal border crossings that are often associated with economic migrants. During the last decades – especially in the United States – unauthorised immigrants have been arriving in large numbers.

It can even be argued in regard to the United States that illegal border crossings, combined with citizenship arrangements are a method for international labour recruitment. Besides the large inflows of low-skilled illegal immigrants, the United States was still the global magnet – in the year 2003 – for highly skilled migrants. This phenomenon can be observed in the case of adult experts as well as for students. Around 12 percent of the world’s migrant population lives in the United States. In Canada forms of recruitment have been established, which – until now – has entailed an effective selection of migrants in terms of skills and financial, demographic and educational capital.

In all these “classical immigration countries”, improving migration and international protection policies has been discussed ongoing in the last years. An important aspect of post-industrial countries’ migration dynamics is related to the increasing numerical size of flows between these states. The available immigration and population data show that there are a rising number of residents in Europe coming from such countries. This might have to do with cosmopolitan migrations, as evidenced in intra-firm mobility, professionals’ mobility, or with student movements, among other things.

As a post-industrial state, Japan has been trying to change its immigration policies for years. Until recently, despite a rather restrictive immigration policy, various gates of entry were more or less opened, which was considered attractive for labourers from various emigration states, especially from Southeast Asia. Japan has changed this policy, however, and is now actively involved in recruiting labour from Japanese diaspora populations, especially from Brazil. There are large Japanese diasporas in various European states consisting mainly of cosmopolitan migrants like business professionals or experts of various kinds. Singapore has established a rather complicated immigration system, particularly targeting skilled migrants; it fosters vocational training colleges in the selection of skilled workers who have the intention to immigrate to Singapore, for example, from Bangladesh.

The Mediterranean migration flows, often labelled as the Mediterranean Migration System, are based on various phenomena: first, on former labour recruitment (guest worker) and colonial migrations, and migration flows, which are still continuing inside Europe as well as between Europe and its periphery – these include fluctuations between migration diasporas and regions of origin as well as family unification flows; second, there are new migration dynamics in North Africa, in the Middle East and recently in Africa, south of the Sahara, which have been changing the migration system of the Mediterranean; third, continuing migration flows are the outcomes of the Balkan wars in the 1990s, and fourth, migrations from the century old Hispanic, Lusitanian, Italian and Greek diasporas have been intensified due to the effects of the transformation of post-Bolshevist states and of the new global economic and political differentials.

As various reports show,¹¹ the Mediterranean region is rather important as an area of transit and increasingly as an area of immigration. Like many Middle Eastern countries, like the Gulf States and Saudi Arabia, southern and eastern Mediterranean countries are destination places of recruited labour from abroad and of unauthorised immigration flows. At the same time, emigration from North Africa and from Middle Eastern countries to Europe is increasing. Reasons for this are associated with high unemployment rates of educated youngsters and deep-rooted migration configurations in Europe, extending back to colonial links and post-war recruitment schemes. The rather fragile political situations in many Middle Eastern countries are the cause for large refugee flows from this area. The role of the Mediterranean countries as transit areas is of importance for migrants and refugees from other countries in the Middle East and south of the Sahara.

The Middle East is absorbing large numbers of immigrants from the southern Asian and south eastern Asian regions. Most of these immigrants do manual labour in building trades and oil industries, or they work in tourism, catering and services. Many immigrants can be categorised as belonging to a part of the cosmopolitan migrants, working as engineers and specialists in international companies and enterprises. Turkey is still an important country of emigration due to traditions of guest worker recruitment and offers of refuge based on regions of civil war. The old migration bridgeheads in Europe and the large settlements of internal immigrants in the western Turkish metropolitan cities, with kinship relations to Europe will serve as structural conditions for the large migration movements to Europe in the future. Furthermore, Turkey has established a rather large group of cosmopolitan migrants related to international economic activities.

¹¹See the CARIM Annual Report 2005.

According to data collections and estimations of international organisations, circa 2 percent of the world migrant population has settled in Africa, south of the Sahara¹². This makes up around 16 million people. The absolute number of migrants from sub-Saharan Africa to Europe is still rather small, but numbers of residents in various European countries have been accelerating, many of whom are using asylum applications as a gate of entry - which is understandable considering the fragile political and economic situation in most of these states. The largest refugee movements, however, are taking place between and inside the African states. There are rather wide ranging cross border migration dynamics in many of these countries due to artificial border drawings and transnational kinships and tribal affinities. The main source countries of new mass refugee outflows during the year 2003 consisted of Sudan (112,000), Liberia (87,000), the Democratic Republic of the Congo (30,000), Côte d'Ivoire (22,000), Somalia (15,000) and the Central African Republic (13,000). Post-colonial, cultural and linguistic relations to the United Kingdom, France, and Belgium are incentives for migrants to join diaspora populations and communities in these countries.

In southern and south eastern Asia, migration dynamics are based on various factors. First, India is still in a process of mass migration movements from the countryside to urban agglomerations. This is intensified by internal displacements due to political violence and structural economic changes. Furthermore, India is a place of international protection and immigration as, for example, from Nepal and Myanmar. India is host to one of the largest irregular immigrant populations. Additionally, the rather complicated migration dynamics of India is widely influenced by former colonial and post-colonial labour emigrations and through the establishment of large Indian diasporas. In the context of highly skilled recruitment for global labour markets, India plays a highly important role. As part of the Commonwealth and bound to English-speaking post-colonial traditions, special migration flows have been established. Such political and cultural affinities are governing migration flows from Pakistan, Bangladesh, and also from other former British zones of influence.

Government guided regimes for selecting and training possible emigrants have been established in Pakistan, Bangladesh and the Philippines. Overall, the current migration situation in these regions is multifaceted and difficult to describe. Long established diaspora formations are significant in this context. The traditions of labour recruitment and economic emigration have established global migration networks. As mentioned, the Commonwealth and English linguistic traditions certainly play a role in this, especially in regard to the settlement of Indian, Bangladeshi and Pakistani migrants in the United Kingdom. Large and long lasting refugee flows are still taking place. Former refugee movements have contributed to the establishment of long lasting migration configurations. Large refugee populations are

¹²See: Adepoju, Aderanti: 2004, Trends in International Migration in and from Africa, in: Massey, Douglas S.; Taylor, J. Edward (Hg.), International Migration. Prospects and policies in a global market. Oxford, S. 59-76.

composed of Afghans in Pakistan and Iran, and Sri Lankans worldwide. Europe is widely affected by these migration dynamics.

Considering East Asia and the Pacific, first, the post-industrial countries Singapore, Japan, Australia, and New Zealand have to be taken into consideration. Hong Kong, has meanwhile also assumed a focal point of international immigration. China, however, is the outstanding country in terms of internal migration, comparable to India, yet further accelerating these flows than is India. Additionally, China is an eminent country of emigration; this comprises students and new Chinese diaspora populations in various countries, including European states. Two structural prerequisites for the formation of migration flows are to be mentioned: affinities to the worldwide networks of Chinese diasporas and the search for economic niches, for example, in Europe. Examples of this in 2003 include the expansion of restaurant trades in most European cities, the specialised production centres, such as the leather industry in Italy, or the retail trades and retail centres in many European accession states (EU 10).

South Korea changed during the 1980s and the 1990s from a place of emigration to a country of immigration. Beyond just regular immigration, South Korea has rapidly become a country with large unauthorised inflows.¹³ But with the labour immigration tradition in various European countries, there are still vital South Korean migration configurations such as, for example, exporting nurses to European countries. The Philippine Islands have a long tradition as a country of emigration. Europe especially is a region of destination for female Philippines, who are trained on the islands to work as nurses and in personal services abroad. East and Southeast Asia compose a region with complicated and growing migration systems and configurations. The region's migration dynamic is accelerating and multifaceted. Various flows are contributing to recent developments in the European migration system.

Rising international population mobility can be observed in the Latin American and Caribbean region. In 2003, International organisations counted around 6 million international migrants within the continent and around 20 million migrants worldwide. The continent has been both a country of out and of in migration for a long time now. Outflows were mainly oriented towards the United States and to Spain and Portugal. These outflows have been extended to other European countries like Italy and the United Kingdom. Further diaspora flows to Japan need to be mentioned in this context as well. Many outflows have been based on diaspora arrangements, but irregular emigration is becoming a growing phenomenon. Refugee flows to the United States have meanwhile been scaled down; irregular flows were the common phenomenon in 2003. The current features of migration dynamics are as multifaceted and complicated as in other parts of the world. European developments in the

¹³For the analysis of regional migration dynamics in the eastern Asian area, see Greame, Hugo: 2005,

region have gained rising attention and significance as is exemplified by the data on Columbian and Ecuadorian migration as much as the changes in Lusitanian and Hispanic migration patterns with Spain and Portugal have shown.

As pointed out in various sections of this report, the statistical material does not allow us to develop a general interpretation and theory of migration flows. This might be possible once there is better material on migrants' origins and citizenship. Hypothetically though, some basic assumptions can be brought forward. There seems to be a close link between migration flows to Europe and regional migration dynamics. First, numerical cycles of worldwide migration and refuge seem to be related to European immigration conjunctures. Secondly, transnational regional labour markets are related to global labour recruitment and supply systems. This could be further elaborated in the theoretical framework based on the analysis of world labour markets. It seems to be obvious that the regional mobilisation of workers is contributing to systems of migration flows. This has been widely discussed in reference to Latin America, to Africa and to eastern Europe. However, no systematic analysis is available due to the lack of numerical data and case studies, which could enable a generalisation about the situational results.

The empirical data and theoretical reflections on refugee flows and international protection are being better developed. Despite the low recognition rates worldwide, especially in the European Union, there is a close relationship between the origin of refugee flows with persecution and violence in certain countries. This is reflected by the correlation between countries of refugees' and asylum applicants' origin and countries under political stress.¹⁴ The outstanding high rate of permits granted for humanitarian protection in some countries is another indicator. Certainly, these factors are related to economic and social differentials. Nevertheless, the explanation of such flows is easier to be contextualised in an empirical theoretical framework than just referring only to pure economic migration currents.

Little structural information is known about displacement processes and uncontrolled or irregular migration.¹⁵ Two main contradictory interpretations have been discussed: the first is based on some case studies, arguing that irregular migration configurations are related to other migrant flows based on being part of social loyalties. Family members are accompanying their kin, or unauthorised migrants are just following established paths of migration¹⁶ into similar cultural communities of earlier immigration flows. The other more political rather than research-based argument speculates that there might be a continuum of immigration to be understood as a dependency between the access of borders and the

Internationale Migration (GCIM).

¹⁴ See the chapter on Asylum and International Protection above.

¹⁵ The terms "irregular" or "non-documented" are used mainly in NGO contexts. The classical term used by governments is "illegal", yet increasingly more often this is replaced by the terms "non-authorised" or "uncontrolled".

¹⁶ Especially for temporary labour migrant groups this has been documented.

numbers of illegal immigrants. The resulting postulate is the implementation of more legal immigration possibilities to reduce the number of unauthorised arrivals. Of course, open borders will mark the end of illegal immigration, which is trivial and tautological. However, the problem is the assertive statement that the management of migration flows might reduce the number of illegal immigrants. This is difficult to demonstrate empirically and – despite the continuing propagation of such a policy – this has until now, never been proven. A third independent explanation argues that governments and economic representatives are tolerating such irregular flows due to political pressures to satisfy the demand for dangerous, dirty and low-paid labour. In the frame of these discourses, humanitarian entry policies, toleration or even legalisation in the countries of transit and settlement connote the failures of certain migration regimes in managing migration; illegal immigration should be controlled by border policing and deterring return policies. A comprehensive theoretical understanding and migration management are still expected especially in fields of understanding irregular migration.

Accelerating regional migration dynamics can be observed in most areas of the world. The numbers of migrants are increasing. However, from region to region the relation between immigration growth and population increase differs. Attempts have been to explain migration dynamics through a systematic approach based on ideas of migration pressures and suctions (negative and positive pressures). In such a research context, some economists have even established models of communicating tubes. By trivial factual additions, these paradigmatic proposals might bring together contextual push and pull factors. Explanations that include an interpretation of the whole configuration of migration, including push and pull factors as well as supply and demand factors, but not excluding time (historic), space, and regime factors of the migration processes seem to be more appropriate, however. Here, more numerical and interpretative research is necessary and to be expected. Up till now, most information necessary for such an undertaking has been missing. Nevertheless, in some areas of migration experiences, preliminary interpretations are possible.

The data presented in this report provide insight into the dependency between worldwide experiences of persecution or violence and refugee flows and regional, especially European migration dynamics. There are indications for social factors influencing such flows in the field of economic migration. Of course, income differentials and employment expectations are the opportunity structures for most economic migrations. But this is a tautological assessment since “economic migration” is defined by these factors. But opportunity structures cannot explain the specifics and peculiarities of flows. Here, cultural and linguistic affinities and diaspora relations seem to be the basis for understanding the migration phenomenon. The statistical data on Europe show that:

1. Common borders and spatial neighbourhoods or close distances serve as the background for more extensive migration flows. This includes the vehicles of migration and transport opportunities for reaching a place of destination and might in form of a cheap air ticket, a transit airport on the way to a country enabling an easy, available entry visa or routing by smugglers and traffickers.
2. Migration bridgeheads have already been established by earlier flows which are now settlements of immigrant populations of a common regional origin; these people might have developed a specific cultural milieu and an associational community attracting and serving new migrants to come.
3. Political post-colonial relations might be of importance in structuring global migration flows towards Europe; these formations can be related to international cultural and linguistic politics. Examples are the Francophone states and populations, the Commonwealth-related networks and institutions, as well as the Hispanic and Lusitanian conglomerations.
4. Classical and recent diaspora formations are structuring migration flows as have been demonstrated by the Chinese and Turkish migration dynamics.

Regarding the understanding of global migration patterns and regional migration dynamics, academics and politicians are still confronted with a lack of numerical and related social data and a widely speculative theoretical and political discourse. Furthermore, the impact of changing international migration flows to Europe is more or less the topic of *ad hoc* interpretations. But after all is said and done, researchers and specialists in administrations and politics are now being confronted with the migration phenomenon in Europe and beyond, which is understood to be complicated and multifaceted. There is a general agreement that further data collection is necessary, that European wide and international collaboration in migration research and policies are to be improved, and that more interpretative and theoretical work are demanded. As such, the 2003 statistical report is a further contribution to this task.

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