

# EUROPE



- In 2005, western and central Europe hosted 44.1 million migrants, a significant proportion of whom came from neighbouring countries.<sup>1</sup>
- In 2005, migrants accounted for 7.6 per cent of the total population in the region and 23.2 per cent of international migrants worldwide (UN DESA, 2005). Furthermore, in 2005 net migration contributed almost 85 per cent of Europe's population growth (Münz, 2006), while labour migration made up a substantial share of total migration flows.
- In the majority of western European countries, the foreign-born population represents between seven and 15 per cent of the total population, while in most new European Union (EU) Member States the share of foreign-born in 2005 was still below five per cent (Münz, 2006; see also Map 6).
- The Russian Federation, with 12 million migrants in 2005, ranks as the leading country of destination in eastern Europe (UN DESA, 2005).

## WESTERN AND CENTRAL EUROPE<sup>2</sup>

- Germany, host to 10.1 million migrants in 2005, is the principal country of destination, followed by France (6.5 million), the U.K. (5.4 million), Spain (4.8 million) and Italy (2.5 million) (see Figure 1). The ten countries reviewed in this Figure all show positive rates of growth in the stock of migrants from 2000 to 2005, with Spain and Italy recording the most important increases of 194.2 per cent, or 3.1 million migrants, and 54.1 per cent, or 884,000 migrants, respectively. Relative to population size, Luxembourg and Liechtenstein are host to the highest migrant stocks (37.3% and 33.5%, respectively), followed by Switzerland (22.9%) and the Baltic states of Latvia and Estonia (19.5% and 15.2%, respectively) (UN DESA, 2005). In three countries the immigration/population ratio actually contracted between 2000 and 2005, for

<sup>2</sup> This section covers the 27 EU Member States (Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom), the three European Economic Area (EEA) countries (Iceland, Liechtenstein and Norway) as well as Switzerland, and two EU candidate countries, Croatia and Turkey. However, the latest data available in respect of EU countries relates to the EU-25 (i.e. minus Bulgaria and Romania, which acceded to the EU on 1 January 2007).

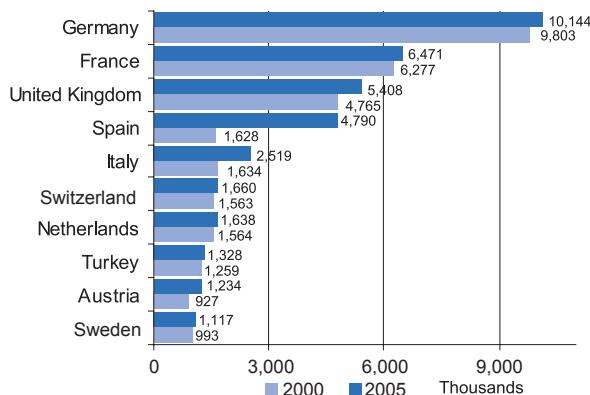
<sup>1</sup> Thirty per cent of migrants living in western and central European countries are originally from other western and central European countries (UN DESA, 2005).

various reasons: the number of migrants dropped in Latvia and Estonia during this five-year period, while in Liechtenstein immigration actually increased, but at a lower rate than population growth.

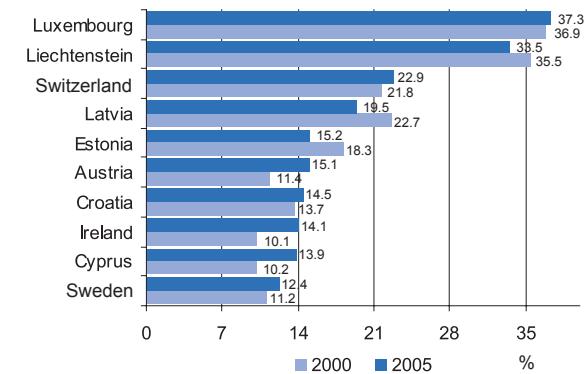
**Figure 1:**

**Stock of migrants in western and central Europe, top ten destination countries, 2000 and 2005**

**Part A: Total number of migrants**



**Part B: As a share of total population**



Source: UN DESA, 2005.

**Western and central Europe is one of the most important regions of destination for migratory flows ...**

- While most regions of the world experienced fluctuations in migratory flows over the last

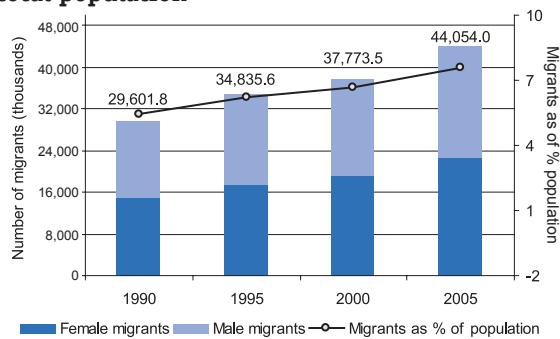
50 years, nowhere have the changes been as pronounced as in Europe. Having been primarily countries of emigration for more than two centuries, most countries in the region became countries of immigration in the late 20<sup>th</sup> century. Many reasons have been advanced to account for this reversal, covering factors as diverse as economic disparities between Europe and its neighbours to the south and east, the large humanitarian inflows of the 1980s and 1990s, and the emergence of organized trafficking and smuggling networks. The role of growing demand for migrant workers to fill gaps in local labour markets is also widely acknowledged.

**... leading to a steady growth of its migrant population**

- As the membership of the EU grew from 12 to 25 between 1990 and 2004, the number of migrants across the combined territories of EU Member States and other countries in western and central Europe likewise increased from 14.5 to 44.1 million. Migration to this sub-region has grown on average at a 14.5 per cent quintennial rate since 1990. In 2005, the foreign-born living in western and central Europe represented 7.6 per cent of its total population, and 23.2 per cent of all international migrants worldwide (see Figure 2).

**Figure 2:**

**Estimated number of migrants in western and central Europe, by gender and as a percentage of total population**



Source: UN DESA, 2005.

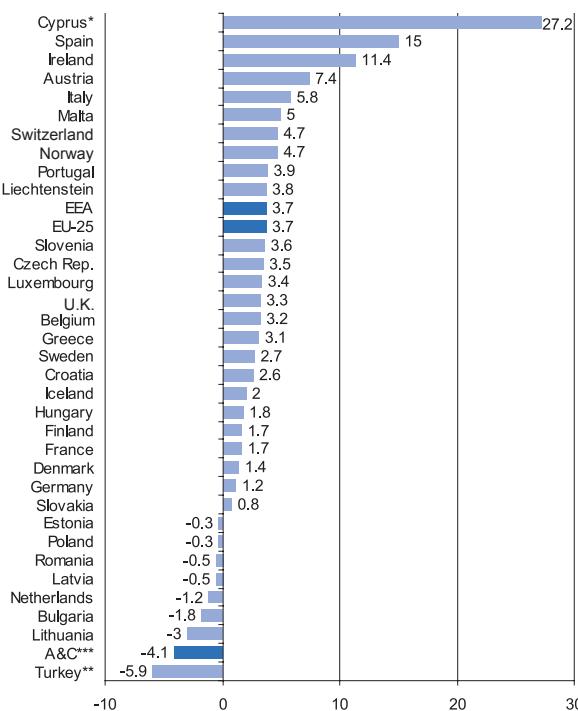
- The former EU-15 (except the Netherlands), Norway and Switzerland have a positive migration balance, as do six of the 10 new EU Member States (Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Malta, Slovenia and Slovakia). Several countries, in particular the Czech Republic, Italy, Greece, Slovenia and Slovakia, registered population growth only in 2005, and that because of migration. In Germany and Hungary, the population decline would have been much larger without a positive migration balance (see Figure 3). In absolute numbers, the EU-25 registered a net gain of 1.8 million people in 2005 owing to international migration, accounting for almost 85 per cent of Europe's total population growth.

***The majority of migrants come from within the region or adjacent countries***

- One interesting but often overlooked feature of the migratory patterns in Europe is the prevalence of intra-regional movements. The OECD online datasets on migration show that intra-regional movements in Europe represented around 30 per cent of total migration in the period 1998-2004. Figure 4 shows the stock of intra-regional migrants as a percentage of total migration in EU-25 countries, Switzerland and Norway. In most of the countries analyzed, the bulk of migrants from the EU-25 accounts for at least 25 per cent of total migration. In some countries (e.g. Belgium, Ireland, Luxembourg, the Slovak Republic and Switzerland), migrants from within the region equal or exceed 50 per cent of total migration. However, in all countries reviewed besides Italy, the contribution of intra-regional migration to total migration has decreased over time. Yet, in absolute terms, with the exception of Germany and the Czech Republic, the European foreign population in these countries increased, but by less than the number of migrants from outside Europe.

**Figure 3:**

**Net migration in Europe  
per 1,000 population, 2005**



**Notes:** \*Area under the effective control of the Government of the Republic of Cyprus.

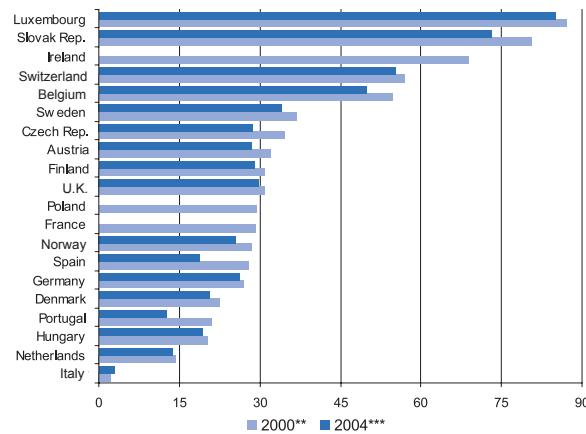
\*\*Data for Turkey on net migration are from 2003.

\*\*\*Accession and Candidate countries excluding the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia.

**Source:** Eurostat. Data taken from Münz, 2006.

**Figure 4:**

**Stock of intra-regional migrants as a percentage of total migration in OECD European countries, 2000 and 2004\***



**Notes:** \*Data for Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, Hungary, Ireland, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland, the Slovak Rep. and Sweden correspond to the stock of foreign population by country of birth; while data for the Czech Rep., France, Germany, Italy, Luxembourg, Portugal, Spain, Switzerland and the U.K. are stocks of foreign population by nationality.

\*\*Figures for France correspond to 1999 data; Slovak Rep. (2001); Poland (2002); and Ireland (2002).

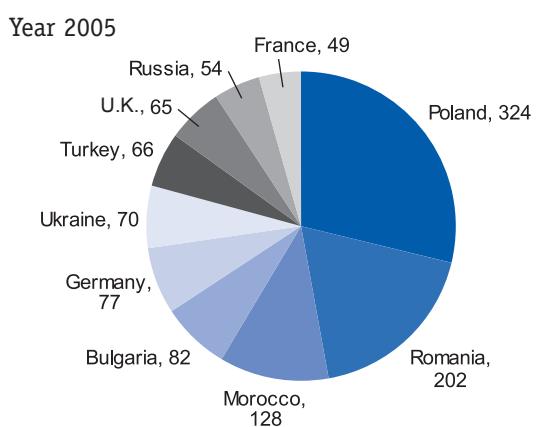
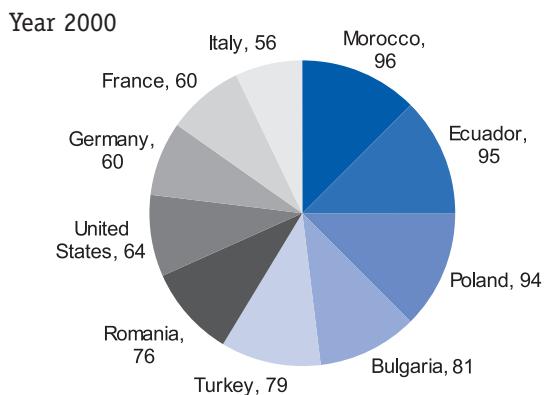
\*\*\*Figures for Italy and Belgium use 2003 data.

**Source:** OECD online datasets.

- Looking at the origins of the migratory flows, the pattern is one of relative stability (see Figure 5), although a number of differences are noticeable between 2000 and 2005. Over that period, Ecuador lost its place in the top ten countries of origin for OECD EU countries, while The Russian Federation and Ukraine became significant providers of migrants. The large 2005 influxes from Poland, Romania and Bulgaria reflect Poland's accession to EU membership the year before and Romania and Bulgaria's status as candidate countries at that time.

**Figure 5:**

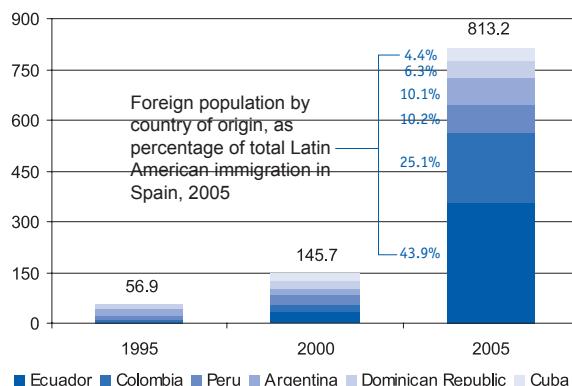
**Major countries of origin of migrants in OECD European countries, 2000 and 2005 (thousands)**



**Note:** Data are not harmonized. Statistics from some countries may include many short-term flows.

**Source:** OECD, 2007.

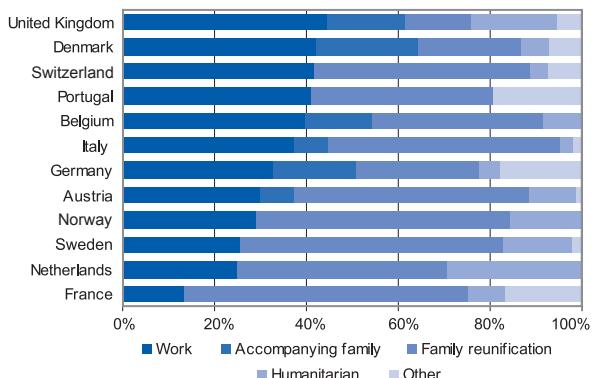
- A newly developing trend is the emergence of Latin America as a significant source region. Migration from Latin America to Europe has increased from a negligible base in 1995 to between 150,000 and 250,000 persons annually since 2000. The main countries of destination are Spain, Portugal and Italy. Spain, the leading country of destination for Latin American migrants, registered a stock of 813,200 migrants in 2004, mostly from Ecuador (357,100) and Colombia (204,300), and the remaining migrants originated mainly from Peru, Argentina, the Dominican Republic and Cuba (see Figure 6).

**Figure 6:****Stock of foreign population in Spain, 1995, 2000 and 2005 (thousands)**

Source: OECD, Stock of foreign population by nationality, online database.

**Work-related migration is substantial**

- Work-related migration (workers and accompanying family members) is responsible for a substantial share of migrant inflows, accounting for over 40 per cent of all migrants in Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Italy, Portugal, Switzerland and the U.K. Elsewhere, including Switzerland and Italy, family reunification accounts for the highest proportion of migration (see Figure 7). However, Figure 7, just as the overall harmonized statistics on migrant flows, does not include irregular labour movements, which, according to OECD (2007), have been substantial in southern Europe in recent years (see also Chapter 8).

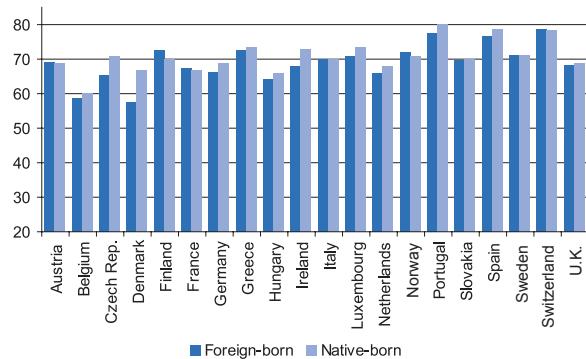
**Figure 7:****International migration by category of entry in selected European countries as a percentage of total inflows, harmonized data, 2005**

Source: OECD, 2007.

- In 2005, migrants accounted for a large and growing proportion of the total labour force in European countries. The size of the foreign-born population has increased by over 20 per cent from 2000 to 2005 in almost all the countries reviewed, except in France and the Netherlands. In just under half of the countries, the labour force participation rate of the foreign-born was equivalent or higher than for the native-born (see Figure 8). Moreover, during the last decade the difference in the labour force participation rate between the foreign-born and the native-born has tended to decrease in most countries, although in 2004 and 2005 the unemployment rate of migrants continued to be higher, except in Hungary and Poland (OECD, 2007).

**Figure 8:**

**Labour force participation rate of foreign-born and native-born population in selected European countries, 2005**



**Source:** European Community Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat) except for Denmark (Population Register), taken from OECD, 2007.

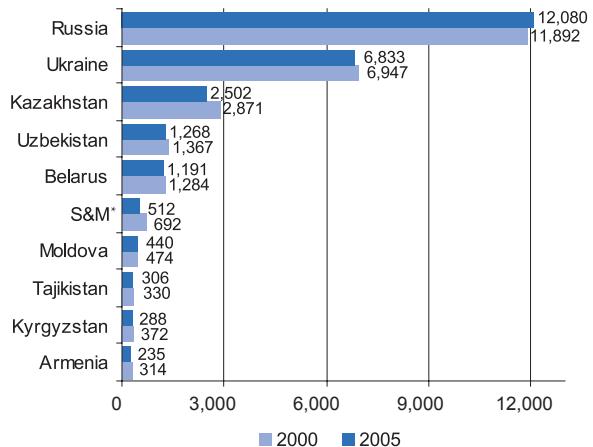
### EASTERN EUROPE AND CENTRAL ASIA<sup>3</sup>

- As host to 12 million migrants in 2005, the Russian Federation is the leading country of destination in this region, followed by Ukraine (6.8 million) and Kazakhstan (2.5 million) (see Figure 9). While Russia registered a 1.6 per cent increase in the stock of migrants from 2001 to 2005, the other nine countries reviewed saw their stock of migrants fall over the same period. With the exception of Ukraine and Russia, the number of migrants as a share of their total populations fell in all countries.

**Figure 9:**

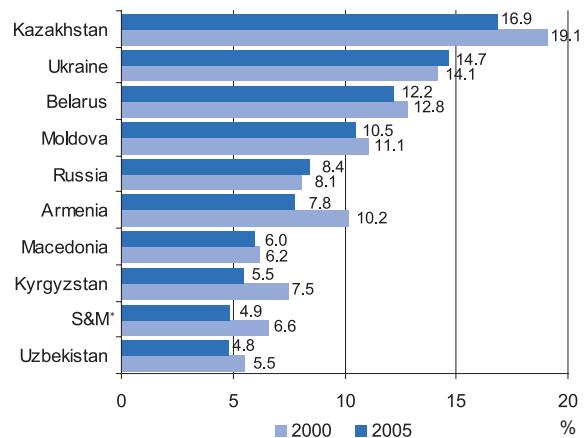
**Stock of migrants in eastern Europe and Central Asia, top ten destinations, 2000 and 2005**

#### Part A: Total number of migrants



**Note:** \* The then Serbia and Montenegro.

#### Part B: As share of total population



**Note:** \* The then Serbia and Montenegro.

**Source:** UN DESA, 2005.

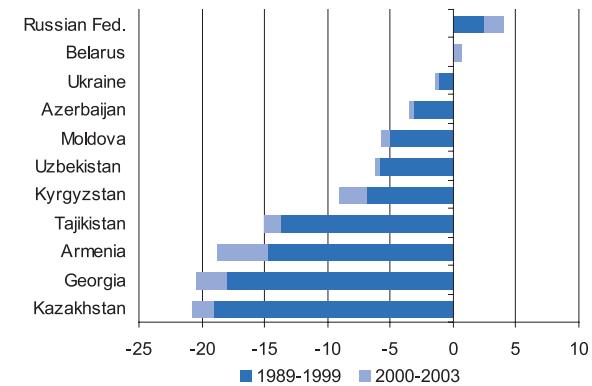
<sup>3</sup> Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (FYROM) (granted EU candidate country status in December 2005), Moldova, the Russian Federation, the then Serbia and Montenegro, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Ukraine and Uzbekistan.

**Two broad migration systems operate in this sub-region**

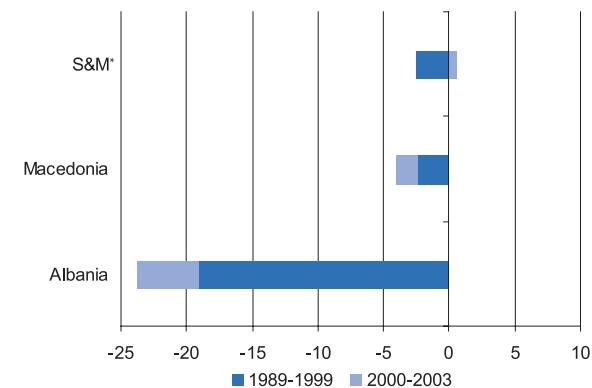
- The nature and patterns of migratory movements in this sub-region since 1990 have been shaped by the combined effects of economic transition, political and social liberalization, and the break-up of two federal countries (the former Soviet Union, and former Federal Republic of Yugoslavia). They also account for the difficulty of accessing and compiling reliable migration data concerning this sub-region. The direction and magnitude of migration flows have changed significantly following the lifting of political constraints on movement, as has the emergence of 22 new countries and the resulting diversification of migratory flows throughout the region. Finally, with the break-up of the former Soviet Union a new category of migrants, the “statistical” migrants, emerged, who may not have moved physically, but were defined as migrants under UN practice (World Bank, 2006).
- According to Mansoor and Quillin (2006), two broad migration systems have developed in the region: the first concerns migrants from eastern European countries who move to western Europe; and the second involves the majority of migrants from Central Asia who travel to the wealthier countries of the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS), particularly the Russian Federation and Kazakhstan. Figures 10a and 10b clearly show this bipolar migration system, with Russia registering by far the largest population gain from migration. Most of the migration to Russia is shaped by migrants leaving the other countries of the former Soviet Union.

**Figure 10:**  
**Net migration in eastern Europe and Central Asia as a percentage of total population, 1989-1999 and 2000-2003**

10a: In the CIS



10b: In Eastern Europe



**Note:** \* The then Serbia and Montenegro.  
Turkmenistan and Bosnia and Herzegovina are not included owing to migration data difficulties.

**Source:** National statistical offices and UNICEF, TransMONEE Database, Mansoor and Quillin (2006).

- Yet, the two migration systems in the sub-region are not exclusively bipolar. Indeed, there are significant subsidiary flows from the poorer CIS economies, particularly from Moldova, to western European countries; and from Central Asia towards the EU and Turkey.

- There is a considerable migration flow from Western European and Central Asian (WECA)<sup>4</sup> countries to western Europe (73% of total emigration from WECA countries), as well as in the opposite direction (17% of total emigration from western Europe), accounting for 62 per cent of total immigration to WECA countries (Mansoor and Quillin, 2006). Flows from Germany to Poland, the then Serbia and Montenegro and Turkey are among the major contributors to such migratory movements from western Europe.
- Regarding flows involving the CIS countries, the Russian Federation is both a source and destination

<sup>4</sup> In this paragraph, Western European and Central Asian (WECA) countries consist of Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Croatia, Czech Republic, Estonia, FYROM, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania, the then Serbia and Montenegro, Slovakia, Slovenia and Turkey. This is a specific classification used in Mansoor and Quillin (2006).

of such flows. The largest flows that do not include Russia are from Ukraine and Kazakhstan to Germany. The first can be explained by proximity and large per capita income differentials, the second by the fact that Kazakhstan hosted the largest concentration of persons of German ancestry in the former Soviet Union (Mansoor and Quillin, 2006).

- Since the break-up of the former Soviet Union, there have been significant flows of migrant workers to the Russian Federation, mainly from neighbouring countries. Concerns about the levels of these movements and their irregularity has resulted in the formulation and implementation of a new Russian migration law and policy to better manage these flows and the status of migrants once in the country (see Textbox Reg. 2).

## Textbox Reg. 2

### The New Russian Migration Legislation

At the time the new Russian migration legislation<sup>1</sup> came into force on 15 January 2007, the vast majority of foreign workers had neither residence nor work permits that would have allowed them to live and work in the Russian Federation. The number of irregular migrants, primarily originating from the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) region and coming to Russia for the purpose of temporary employment, was variously estimated at between 5.5 and 10 million, and felt to pose a threat not only to the country's public order and security, but also to the safety of migrant workers themselves. Legal and administrative impediments to the acquisition of work and residence permits were generally seen to be one of the main causes for the rise in irregular migration.

While it remains virtually impossible to fully resolve the problem of irregular migration, the new legislation is intended to improve policy effectiveness and coherence.

The two key elements of the new legislation with a direct impact on the regulation of labour migration in Russia are: (1) **the introduction of a simplified registration procedure** – covering all foreigners who come to Russia for short visits; and (2) **the simplification of the procedures for obtaining work permits** – covering migrants originating from countries benefiting from visa-free arrangements.

The new legislative provisions introduce the following significant reforms in procedure:

- **Temporary migrant workers may register their stay in Russia through a simplified procedure<sup>2</sup>**

Under this new procedure, all migrants, including temporary migrant workers, are required to present their personal identification and migration card, stamped by the border guard authorities at the point of entry to Russia, to the "sponsor" (i.e. the party who invited the migrant, which may include the whole range of natural persons and legal entities – e.g. employers, landlords, officials, etc.); the sponsor is then responsible for notifying the authorities (either at their office/s or by post) about the arrival of the migrant. If there is no sponsor, the migrant is responsible for notifying the authorities him/herself.

In addition, the legislation further simplifies registration of all migrants, including temporary migrant workers, by establishing a notification-based procedure (in contrast to the previous system that provided considerable discretion to the authorities and under which registration could be refused). It is now also possible for migrant workers to register at the place of employment, thus addressing an important objective, namely that of retaining the existing pattern of predominantly **circular or temporary labour migration**, which is considered by many to be the preferred type of labour migration for Russia. Finally, the legislation intends to lay the foundations for a migration registration scheme on which to base an official system for the collection of immigration statistics.

In view of the scope and the protection offered by the new registration procedures, the vast majority of migrants may be expected to comply with this law and duly register as required.

- **The procedures for obtaining a work permit for temporary migrants are much simplified and more time-efficient**

The migrant from a country benefiting from a visa-free regime can now apply for a work permit him/herself (previously only the employer could do so) and should be issued with a work permit within a 10-day period (the only basis for the authorities to refuse the permit, if all the papers are in order, would be the exhaustion of quotas).

By allowing migrants to apply for the work permit themselves, this provision also has the effect of protecting migrant workers against exploitative working conditions as it enables them to choose and change employers and encourages them to take into consideration their rights. The legislation can therefore be seen to contribute to the ongoing efforts to combat human trafficking and forced labour. As such, it is expected to address the shadow economy and, by the same token, increase the tax revenue for the Russian treasury.

The progressive nature of the new legislation is also demonstrated by the granting of significant privileges to foreign workers from countries with which the Russian Federation has concluded visa-free entry agreements, viz. Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Moldova, Tajikistan, Ukraine and Uzbekistan.<sup>4</sup>

Moreover, employers of temporary workers from those countries do not have to comply with the general requirement to obtain a permit to employ foreign workers, an arrangement having the effect of promoting closer cooperation with CIS countries with a view to the eventual creation of a common CIS-wide labour market.

This approach was supported by the huge 2007 quota of six million work permits for visa-free migrants. This quota was considered to be more than enough to cover the entire labour migration flow from those countries and to legalize the employment of irregular migrants already in Russia before the new legislation came into force.<sup>5</sup>

With the major legal obstacles to the legalization of foreign workers removed, it is now largely up to migrants themselves to regularize their status in Russia. Accordingly, the new legislation foresees heavier penalties for unauthorized residence and employment in Russia, with fines between 2,000 and 5,000 Russian roubles.<sup>6</sup>

Persons aiding and abetting migrants to live and work in Russia in violation of the law, or who exert pressure on them to do so, face fines of up to 8,000 times the statutory minimum monthly wage (2,000-5,000 Russian roubles for physical persons, 25,000-50,000 for officials and 250,000-800,000 Russian roubles for organizations). The severity of these sanctions is intended to make the unauthorized employment of a migrant unattractive and to discourage employers from doing so and, by the same token, to enhance the protection of migrants' human and labour rights. Since the legislation came into effect, many companies employing irregular migrants have had to pay heavy fines, which, by the end of May 2007, already totalled around 60 million Russian roubles.

At the same time, the penalty procedures for migrants have in practice worked as a de facto regularization process. Migrants originating from countries with a visa-free regime and already present in Russia could pay a fine and then apply for a work permit. This is especially important for the very large number of foreign workers who were in Russia without authorization prior to the new legislation coming into force.

However, effective implementation of this legislation has not been easy and many challenges remain to be overcome. One shortcoming has been the lack of information dissemination about the new legal procedures.<sup>7</sup> Another has been the absence of sufficient administrative personnel. Finally, a network of officially certified employment agencies is yet to be established.

Such initial difficulties notwithstanding, there is evidence<sup>8</sup> of the legislation's positive impact as demonstrated by: (a) the rise in the share of foreign nationals lawfully present in Russia; and (b) the increase in the percentage of migrant workers holding work permits. If just over 700,000 work permits were issued in Russia in 2005 and a little more than one million in 2006, that figure rose to nearly one million work permits (997,500) issued during the first five months of 2007 alone (i.e. as of 31 May 2007). Thus, based on the same estimated overall total of migrants, the percentage of migrant workers holding valid work permits has nearly doubled.

#### **Notes:**

<sup>1</sup> This legislation consists of five Federal laws (No. 109-FZ of 18 July 2006, No. 110-FZ of 18 July 2006, No. 121-FZ of 18 July 2006, No. 189-FZ of 5 November 2006, No. 2-FZ of 6 January 2006) as well as various implementing decrees and orders issued by the Federal Migration Service (FMS).

<sup>2</sup> Federal Law No. 109-FZ and Federal Law No. 110-FZ.

<sup>3</sup> Federal Law No. 110-FZ.

<sup>4</sup> Ibid.

<sup>5</sup> The 2008 quota is 1,828,245. The rationale for this lower quota is that migrants who have worked in Russia without authorization had an opportunity to regularize their status during 2007.

<sup>6</sup> Approximately USD 85-205 as at August 2008.

<sup>7</sup> However, IOM, in conjunction with the FMS, has since conducted such an information campaign, which included the preparation and printing of a large number of information materials (reference books, leaflets and posters) for distribution within Russia as well as individual countries of origin.

<sup>8</sup> In conjunction with the FMS, IOM Moscow recently launched a study monitoring implementation of the new migration legislation.

*Source: IOM Moscow.*

## **SOME TOPICAL ISSUES IN MIGRATION MANAGEMENT IN EUROPE**

### ***Labour migration is now at the centre of debates about migration management in EU Member States***

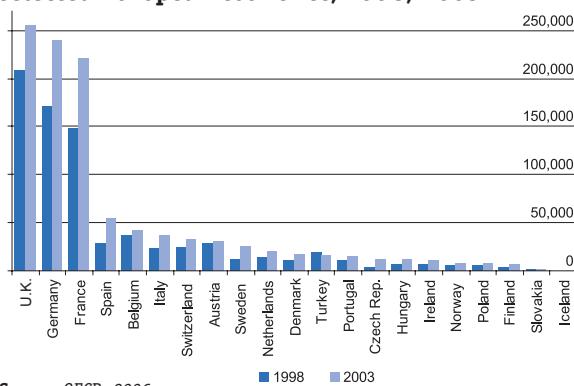
- There is growing recognition that migration is one of the possible answers to problems of demographic ageing and welfare system sustainability. There is therefore an ongoing search for effective policy formulation and programme management strategies covering, inter alia, identification of needs, skill recognition, selection, recruitment and integration arrangements (see Chapter 11). Many Member States have introduced or are considering introducing schemes to attract highly qualified professionals in the face of growing international competition for skilled migrants (see Chapter 2). A bigger challenge lies in the development of cooperative approaches and partnerships with countries of origin (see Chapter 13).

### ***Student mobility continues to increase in response to policies in destination countries***

- Recent years have seen a large increase in the numbers of international tertiary students studying in European countries (see Figure 11). From 1998 to 2003, their numbers increased by some 38.5 per cent, with much of the increase occurring since 2001, resulting in a 24 per cent growth rate between 2001 and 2003. According to UNESCO (2006), the total number of international tertiary students leaving their countries of origin to study in western European countries stood at a little more than 1.5 million in 2004. The top destination countries in that year were the U.K. (300,100 international students), Germany (260,300) and France (237,600), with 54 per cent of international students concentrated in these three countries (UNESCO, 2006). The increase in the number of international students seems to be a response to signals sent by destination countries concerning possibilities for work and residence

following the completion of study, especially in fields where there is a shortage of labour. For more detailed explanations of these trends and a definition of student migration, see Chapter 4; for a visual distribution of students by country of destination, see Map 2.

**Figure 11:**  
**Stock of international tertiary students in selected European countries, 1998, 2003**



Source: OECD, 2006.

***Europe is increasingly an attractive destination for young sportspersons***

- The growing migration of young football (soccer) players from Africa and Latin America to Europe is giving rise to concerns regarding the welfare of the young persons concerned and the impact on countries and regions of origin. But if the football player is successful, there also appear to be clear benefits to this mobility (see Textbox Reg. 3).

### Textbox Reg. 3

#### A Very Long Shot

All over the world, millions of boys dream of becoming football<sup>1</sup> stars as a gateway to fame and fortune and an escape from poverty and need. They pursue their dream in the dust, on bare feet, with footballs made out of rags. They hear stories about the millions earned by the superstars in Europe, which further adds to their determination. But only a lucky few will ever get a real shot at a professional career and at breaking out of the economic realities they face in their countries.

The issue of mobility and top sport has gained prominence over the past few years. It was recently the topic of scientific debate at the International Conference "Globalised Football: Nations and Migration, The City and the Dream", held in Lisbon in May 2006.

The global mobility of human talent is at its most visible in the world of football, but it can equally be seen in other highly competitive sports where a lot of money is at stake. Out of the 14 teams in the most recent Cricket World Cup, ten had foreign coaches and training staff, something that would have been unheard of even a decade earlier (Kapur and McHale, 2005). Professional sports in North America – baseball, basketball, American football and ice hockey – show a similar migration of talent.

But football is by far the most important international market for elite players from developing countries. Most of the players from developing countries in the 2006 Football World Cup play abroad, the majority of them in Europe where the sport is most competitive and lucrative. Every player on the national team from Côte d'Ivoire, for example, plays for a club outside his country (Pratt, 2006). Conversely, some European teams, like London's Arsenal, may be composed entirely of foreigners (Milanovic, 2006). Another London club, Chelsea, had 17 players on 10 different national teams in the 2006 World Cup.<sup>2</sup>

The major European teams send scouts across Africa and Latin America in search of promising, exportable new talent. Moreover, since this is a fiercely competitive environment, such talents have to be found earlier and earlier, outmaneuvering other teams equally interested to enroll them. While only some years ago players moved abroad in their eighteens or twenties, it is now common for them to do so as early as twelve years of age.

There have been cases where agents lured boys into accepting contracts containing confusing provisions concerning agents' percentages of salaries and transfer fees (Kapur and McHale, 2005). Many young players from developing countries were promised untold riches by unscrupulous agents, only to be exploited by the very people supposed to train and look after them. The phrase "football slavery" was even coined to describe football players who ended up living in poor conditions and with little money far away from their homeland and unable to return (BBC News Online, 2003).

For many African and Latin American clubs, the only way to stay afloat is to produce players to send to the major football centres in Europe.

Some national leagues in Europe have imposed quotas on the number of non-EU players for each team. In an effort to get around such restrictions, clubs help their foreign stars to change their nationality (*Migration News*, March 2001). Over the past few years, many players have been investigated for holding false passports that enable them to play as "Europeans" on football teams (*Migration News*, March 2001).

Some believe that African football has benefited from the export of its skilled players and that the recent success of African national teams is contingent on the migration of elite talent (Kapur and McHale, 2005). The drain is thought to enhance the skills of expatriate players, encourage the transfer of know-how and better playing techniques to their home-based compatriots and raise the overall popularity of the game on the continent (Kapur and McHale, 2005). Others contend that the "expropriation" of Africa's playing resources is on the contrary undermining the regional development of the game. Nevertheless, some of the best players continue to give time and money to their national team and their country of origin even after moving overseas.

The Confederation of African Football (CAF) and the Fédération Internationale de Football Association (FIFA) have tried to improve the situation: in 1997 the African Club Champions League was established to provide top-level club competition and to create the structures and economic incentives needed to encourage players to remain with African clubs (Kapur and McHale, 2005). But in Latin America, where football is a well-established tradition, migration abroad is stronger than ever. European clubs pay their players so much more than any African or Latin American team can possibly afford that such measures are unlikely even to slow down the "feet drain".

The success stories of young football stars who succeed on the international football scene will continue to inspire young persons in developing countries for years to come.

**Notes:**

<sup>1</sup> Also called "soccer".

<sup>2</sup> See <http://www.sportnetwork.net/main/s379/st96621.htm>.

**Source:** United Nations Population Fund (UNPFA), *The State of World Population 2006. Youth Supplement, Moving Young*, [http://www.unfpa.org/swp/2006/moving\\_youth\\_eng/stories/stories\\_Falcao.html](http://www.unfpa.org/swp/2006/moving_youth_eng/stories/stories_Falcao.html).

### **Irregular migration continues to be a major issue of concern**

Irregular migration is by definition difficult to measure; however, the following estimates show that irregular migration in the region accounts for an important part of total migration. A combination

of estimates<sup>5</sup> published by the World Bank (Mansoor and Quillin, 2006) shows that until 2006 there were more than three million undocumented migrants in the EU, and between 1.3 million and 1.5 million in Russia. The last figures are considerably lower than

<sup>5</sup> These estimations are the result of combining estimates from the Pew Hispanic Center, IOM, ILO, the World Bank, the U.K. Home Office, and others (Mansoor and Quillin, 2006).

some of the Russian Government estimates that placed irregular migrant workers in the country at around 10 million in 2006 (Novosti, 2006; see also Textbox Reg. 2). Jandl on the other hand, estimates the stock of irregular migrants in Europe at between 2.6 million and 6.4 million (Jandl, 2003), with nearly 400,000 border apprehensions annually in the EU-25 area (Jandl, 2004). At the national level, various techniques such as double-entry cards, the Delphi method,<sup>6</sup> capture/recapture, residual estimates and regularizations<sup>7</sup> allow a growing number of countries to establish more viable estimates of the irregular migrant population on their territory (see also Chapters 9 and 11). OECD 2006 figures estimate the size of irregular migration in countries for

which documented estimation methods are available at between one and four per cent of the total population. Thanks to these methods, the Netherlands estimated its unauthorized migrant population in 2005 at between 125,000 and 230,000. In the same year, Switzerland estimated the number of irregular migrants on its territory at between 80,000 and 100,000, and Spain<sup>8</sup> at 690,000, while, in 2002, Italy<sup>9</sup> put the number of irregular migrants within its borders at around 700,000. Portugal and Greece estimated their irregular migrant populations in 2001 at 185,000 and 370,000, respectively (OECD, 2006).

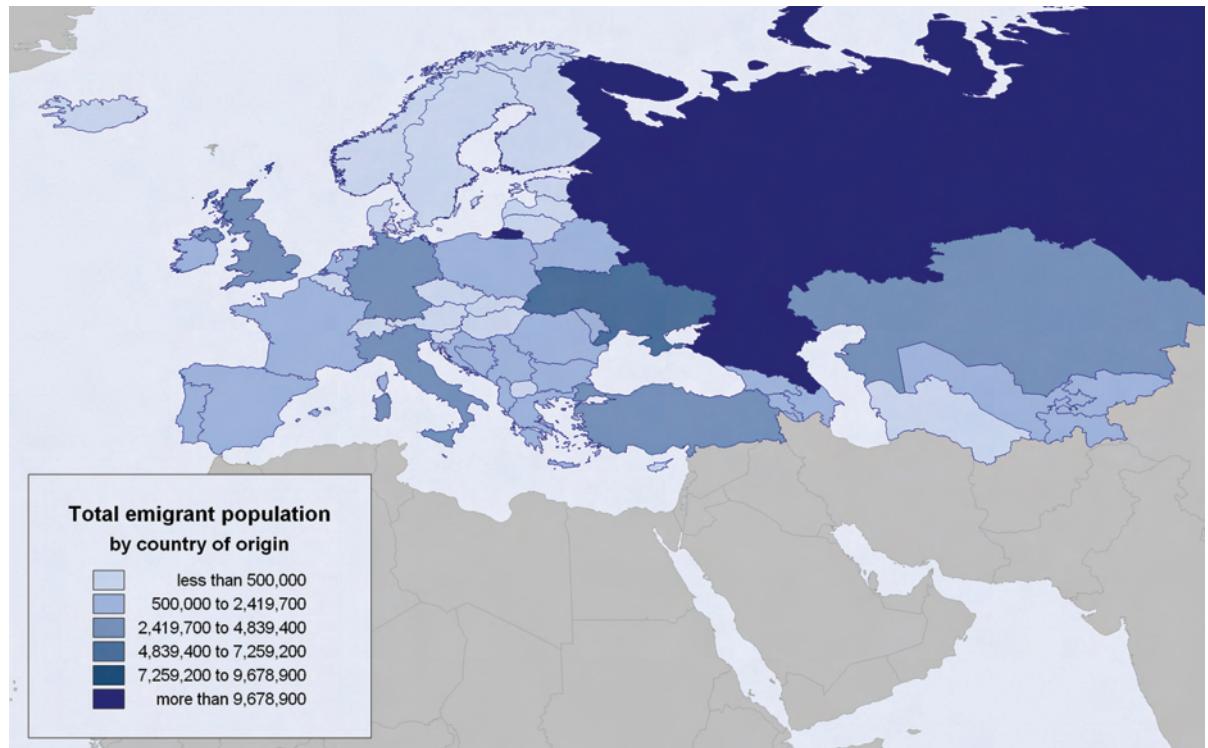
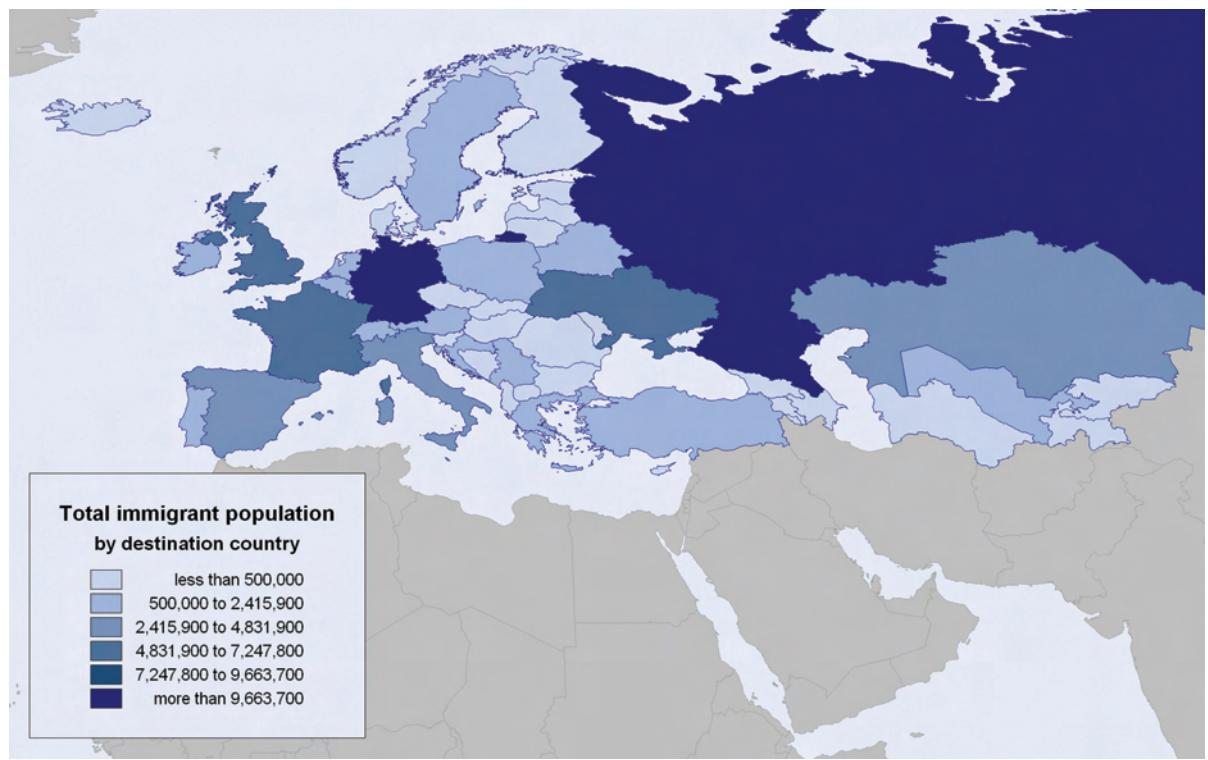
<sup>6</sup> "Estimates are obtained locally and independently from a group of informed experts who must justify their figures. They are often fed back to the entire group for confrontation and discussion before a second round. The process continues until there is convergence of views" (OECD, 2006: 46).

<sup>7</sup> See OECD (2006) for a more complete description of these methods.

<sup>8</sup> In Spain, the number of irregular migrants was calculated on the basis of the regularization process that occurred in 2005. It is important to bear in mind that these estimates of irregular migrants cover only persons eligible to be regularized and applying for regularization; therefore, this volume is likely to be lower than the total amount of irregular migrants in the country. Before the regularization process in 2005, Spain also conducted a regularization exercise in 2001.

<sup>9</sup> Similarly, in Italy, the number of irregular migrants was calculated on the basis of the regularization process that took place in 2002. Before that, Italy had conducted a regularization programme in 1997.

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