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Migration in the Black Sea Region:

An Overview*

Geneva, November 2008

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IOM International Organization for Migration

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ACRONYM LIST

AVR	Assisted Voluntary Return
BSEC	Organization of the Black Sea Economic Cooperation
CIS	Commonwealth of Independent States
EC	European Commission
EU	European Union
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
ICMPD	International Centre for Migration Policy Development
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IOM	International Organization for Migration
MPI	Migration Policy Institute
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
DFID	UK Department for International Development
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNPD	United Nations Population Division
VoT	Victims of Trafficking
WB	World Bank

FOREWORD

International migration is a prominent feature of globalization and one of the defining issues of this century. Increasingly, migration entails economic, social, demographic, cultural, security and environmental effects on both sending and receiving societies. The task of formulating effective and coherent approaches for the management of international migration poses formidable challenges and frequently has led to regional initiatives such as Regional Consultative Processes (RCPs).¹ These initiatives – which address a wide range of migration issues including migration and development, integration of migrants, smuggling of and trafficking in persons, irregular migration and so on – often reflect the different migration agendas of governments even though the challenges they face may be similar in nature.

Within this context and considering its proactive role in various RCPs, the International Organization for Migration (IOM) signed a Memorandum of Understanding with the Organization of the Black Sea Economic Cooperation (BSEC) in 2006. One of the main aims of this agreement is to enhance cooperation in addressing irregular migration and combating trafficking in persons in the Black Sea region, an area that experiences significant migration challenges as a transit, origin, and destination hub for migrants. Consequently, in 2007, IOM launched the “Black Sea Consultative Process on Migration Management”, a joint project with the BSEC’s Working Group on Combating Crime (Particularly its Organized Forms).

The project aimed to contribute to effective migration management in the Black Sea region as well as combating irregular migration through strengthened regional cooperation and capacity building of relevant authorities in all twelve member states of the BSEC.² Specifically, IOM has drafted national **Migration Profiles** for those countries where such documents did not exist, and has reviewed and updated existing Profiles.³

Why country Migration Profiles? A concept and tool promoted by the European Commission, the Profiles are an evidence-based approach to assess the migration situation in a country. IOM has adopted and further developed this

¹ Regional Consultative Processes bring together representatives of states, international organizations and, in some cases, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) for informal and non-binding dialogue and information exchange on migration-related issues of common interest and concern.

² Albania, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Bulgaria, Georgia, Greece, Moldova, Romania, the Russian Federation, Serbia, Turkey and Ukraine.

³ Within the framework of the Slovenian presidency of the EU, IOM prepared Migration Profiles for the Western Balkan Countries including BSEC members Albania, Serbia and Turkey.

concept and has since implemented it in various regions such as the Balkans, Western and Central Africa, and Latin America. The intention is to contribute towards greater coherence of national migration policies and enhanced regional cooperation. This requires appropriate compilation of internationally comparable data among other features such as national coordination and cooperation among involved authorities and pursuit of an active international cooperation at bilateral, regional and global levels. The Profiles, using a common template, allow for comparability despite data limitations⁴ and different national contexts.

Furthermore, to ensure the legitimacy and recognized value of the Profiles, the BSEC member states and the BSEC Working Group on Combating Crime (WGCC) provided substantial feedback on the Profiles. Drafted in IOM's office in Budapest and coordinated with IOM's Research Unit at IOM Headquarters in Geneva and the respective IOM office in each of the BSEC countries – to ensure high-quality – the Profiles also offer a set of policy recommendations for effective migration management in the region. These were thoroughly discussed during an expert meeting of the BSEC's WGCC in Istanbul on 10 September 2008. Subsequently, the recommendations were approved by the BSEC's Council of Ministers of Foreign Affairs that convened in Tirana on 23 October 2008.

This set of Profiles is the result of intensive cooperation between many individuals within IOM and among IOM and other stakeholders. The input of the following people is highly appreciated: Christine Aghazarm and Verónica Escudero, Research Unit in IOM Geneva, as authors of the regional overview and for their extensive review of all the Profiles, Frank Laczko, head of the Research and Publications in IOM Geneva, for his supervision throughout the project, IOM staff in IOM offices in all the BSEC countries, and the dedicated finance and administrative colleagues in IOM Budapest. Special thanks to IOM's 1035 Facility who funded this project. Moreover, particular gratitude is warmly given to the Organization of the Black Sea Economic Organization as the associate organization in this project, especially the Permanent International Secretariat who kindly arranged the meetings related to the implementation of the project. Not least, IOM gratefully acknowledges the support of the BSEC Member States in the production of the Profiles, above all for their input to their specific country profile and the endorsement of the regional migration policy recommendations.

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⁴ For a discussion on the quality and limitations migration data, see the regional overview.

I. INTRODUCTION

Historically, the Black Sea Region has served as a bridge and a crossroads of both traditional and modern routes of commerce and migration from the Silk Road to modern oil pipelines. It forms an important cultural, political and economic triangle connecting the nations of Europe, the Middle East and Central Asia. The dissolution of the Soviet Union and the enlargement processes of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) and the European Union (EU) have connected the West to the region closer than ever. The accession of Romania and Bulgaria to the EU has brought the EU border to the Black Sea. The Black Sea region has been identified as the new front line for combating threats to international security, the core of which are caused by transnational crime, including trafficking and smuggling in human beings.

The Black Sea region, covering a vast territory of 20 million square kilometers and hosting a population of about 350 million people, experiences significant migration challenges being a transit, origin and destination area for migrants. While the countries have very different socio-economic and political situations, most of them are undergoing transition to democracy and liberalizing their economies, and are subsequently facing a broad variety of migration related issues. All countries in the region are sending and transit countries on the routes of migration flows towards Western Europe, such as through Russia and Ukraine, or through Turkey and Bulgaria. However, migration within the region itself remains strong as Russia continues to be the major destination country in the region, in particular for Russian speaking populations in the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) countries.

Due to the slow demarcation of borders, lack of resources, and increased migration flows following the break-up of the Soviet Union, border guards and other border authorities face continued challenges in managing their borders humanely and improving the skills and capacity of their personnel as well as ensuring safe and transparent passage for travellers, while combating organized irregular migration. Border regions also pose security risks due to the concentration of minority populations across borders and separatist conflicts.

Poverty and lack of opportunities are among the major push factors for migration from the region. Labour migration flows occur from the poorer to the richer countries of the region and beyond the borders of the Black Sea toward the EU and further toward the United States. The role of remittances in the economic

development of the region is an increasingly important issue. The relationship with migrant communities and diasporas in terms of social remittances varies among the countries in the region as these are not always easily or clearly defined. However, across the countries there are a range of projects and programmes seeking to engage these communities.

Irregular migration remains a reality in the region as opportunities for legal migration are often limited. One of the biggest challenges is human trafficking. Some of the countries in the region such as Moldova and Ukraine represent the most important source countries for victims of trafficking (VoT) to the EU. Thus the Black Sea region is also the meeting point of many irregular migration routes leading further west: the Eastern Mediterranean route, the Balkan and the Central and Eastern European routes all at some point cut through the Black Sea region. Due to the expansion of the EU, the Central and Eastern European route has become crucial as part of the EU border is now established on the Black Sea.

In spite of the positive efforts made so far by the governments in the region and international organizations such as the International Organization for Migration (IOM), the Black Sea Economic Cooperation (BSEC), the Southeast European Co-operative Initiative (SECI), the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE) and others, much remains to be done in terms of migration management. Regional cooperation and building the capacity of the states in the region to deal effectively with migration issues remains a priority.

Therefore, the overall objective of the Migration Profiles in the Black Sea region is to promote effective migration management within the Black Sea region. The purpose of the national Migration Profiles is to provide reliable and comparable migration data which can serve to strengthen the capacity of national migration authorities in the Black Sea region to effectively manage migration in its various forms in the region. Furthermore, the Migration Profiles facilitate information sharing of migration experiences among the Black Sea countries.

The Regional Overview of the Migration Profiles in the Black Sea region is structured in the following way:

- Part I: Introduction: an overview of migration challenges in the region as well as the objective and purposes of the national Migration Profiles.
- Part II: Migration Profiles: provides background on the purpose and function of Migration Profiles.
- Part III: Migration Data - Comparability, Quality and Limitations: analyses the data currently available on immigration, emigration, remittances, and ir-

regular migration offering an analysis of the strengths and limitations.

- Part IV: Regional Analysis of Migration in the Black Sea Region: a regional overview and analysis of the trends in the region based on the data presented in the national Migration Profiles in terms of immigration, emigration, labour migration, irregular migration and remittances.
- Part V: Regional Recommendations: includes the migration policy regional recommendations for the Black Sea region as endorsed by the BSEC Council of Ministers.

II. MIGRATION PROFILES

Migration Profiles are a tool first promoted by the European Commission (EC)¹ which IOM has adopted and further developed in various regions such as the Black Sea, the Balkans, and currently in Western and Central Africa and Latin America. Coherence of national migration policies requires appropriate compilation and availability of internationally comparable migration data, national policy coordination, active cooperation among involved authorities and active international cooperation in legislation at the bilateral, regional and global levels.

The creation of Migration Profiles responds to these challenges through an evidence-based approach. They provide a framework for bringing existing information from different sources together in a structured manner at both national and regional levels. Migration Profiles provide a means to identify data gaps and to develop strategies to enhance data collection, data analysis and data-sharing for governments in a given region through the analysis of information and data available on immigration, emigration, irregular migration, labour market conditions, skills shortages, diaspora and remittances. The preparation of Migration Profiles in close collaboration with governments and in association with governmental institutions involved in migration management and institutions responsible for data collection in the beneficiary countries allows countries to better identify and understand their own needs for the development of national and regional policies on migration.

In addition, Migration Profiles are intended to promote greater policy coherence and a more comprehensive approach to migration planning at the national level. Therefore, Migration Profiles also entail an assessment of existing migration policies and migration capacities at the national level and may include a review of current long and short term programmes and initiatives. The migration policy section of the Profiles gathers information regarding the main actors, the main institutions and governmental agencies in charge of migration issues including descriptions of what their role is and how they interact. The Profiles are also meant to be utilized as a policy tool to promote more regional cooperation with regard to the free movement and establishment of persons, to address labour migration challenges and opportunities, irregular migration, and to strengthen

¹ In its Communication on Migration and Development in 2005, the European Commission, promoted the idea of establishing a Migration Profile for each interested developing country in order to bring together all information relevant to the design and management of an effective policy on migration and development and define appropriate policy responses. European Commission COM (2005) *Migration and Development: Some concrete orientations*.

migration and development policies. The Profiles offer a set of policy recommendations for effective migration management in the region including the enhancement of data collection and sharing, and operative cooperation in the region in terms of policies, legal frameworks and institutional structures.

In order to achieve these results, a Migration Profiles template needs to be created which is sustainable and replicable across countries. The key for a successful Migration Profiles exercise is the recognition of the Profiles as a useful policy development tool by countries through ownership of this instrument. Therefore, Profiles need to be updated regularly, used at the policy level and use a common template to facilitate comparability.

III. MIGRATION DATA: COMPARABILITY, QUALITY AND LIMITATIONS

Migration is by nature a difficult variable to capture. The multidimensional and multidirectional characteristics of migration today, as well as its temporary and circular patterns require sophisticated data collection systems and methodologies, which in most cases, countries are not prepared to apply. One of the main challenges in measuring international migration remains the fact that no agreement has been reached on a common definition of a “migrant”. This lack of consistency and conformity is one the main obstacles to setting accurate measurements allowing for comparability at the regional and international levels.

The UN Recommendations on Statistics of International Migration (UN, 1998)² prepared a series of definitions and classifications of migratory movement aimed at forming a basis for data collection on migration. However, countries collecting data on migration do so to support their own national legislative, administrative and policy needs. Therefore they are often reluctant to adopt concepts that would allow for regional and international coherence in defining migrants at the expense of their own specific use of the data collected.

An example of these methodological inconsistencies is the use of residency as a defining factor for migrant status in some cases, while in others using the nationality or country of birth to define a migrant. In addition, the migrants’ duration of stay is often unspecified in migration data, and thus information referring to permanent, temporary of even short-term migration remains vague.

Another source of continuous misunderstanding is the difference between stock and flow data. Stocks of migrants indicate the total number of migrants who are present at a determined location at a specific point in time, while flows of migrants measure the number of migrants who have arrived at, or departed from a certain location at a specific point in time.³ Knowing what various migration statistics published by governments, academic bodies or international organizations are aimed at measuring is critical for understanding the migration phenomenon. A misunderstanding of the different concepts can lead to false conclusions and therefore to inaccurate policy recommendations by the users of the data, such as policy makers and the wider public.

² Taken from Folden et al, 2007.

³ ECLAC, 2007

In addition, there is a perceived sensitivity around the issue of migration. Given the high volume of migrants around the world, as well as their impact on both countries of origin and destination, migration is perceived as a sensitive political issue. Governments have a sense of ownership of the data collected and given this sensitivity may prefer not to release the little information available. This can not only result in a lack of available information on the issue but also hindrance to putting in practice new systems of data collection that address the weaknesses of the systems in place.

In this section, the aim is to discuss the data quality of the main sources of information used in the different Migration Profiles aiming at assessing their comparability and reliability and explaining the potential limitations of the data provided.

A. Immigration and Emigration

There are generally two types of sources of information regarding immigration and emigration data: international and national migration statistics. These sources of information are usually based on different assumptions and follow a different methodology of data collection and as a consequence they are meant to address different needs. While international statistics generally allow for better comparability, national statistics might include country specific data and therefore be more accurate for national purposes. In the different Migration Profiles prepared for the Black Sea countries, information from both is presented. Even if in many cases information from one source does not support information from the other, this will allow the final user to have all the information available, which can then be broken down and analysed depending on the user's specific needs.

The data used to estimate the number of immigrants and emigrants in the different countries of the Black Sea region is measured in terms of stocks rather than flows. While flows allow for a more dynamic and chronological analysis of migration, it is generally easier to compute comparable stock than flow data, given most present migration data collection mechanisms (please see explanation of stocks and flows above). Given the limited information available in terms of migration, stock-data provide considerable value to the study of migration especially when accompanied by additional socio-demographic and economic determinants. Even with profound differences from country to country, some information of this type is shown in many of the Black Sea Migration Profiles.

1. International Statistics

Immigration estimates

In terms of international statistics on immigration, the Profiles draw on the statistics provided by the United Nations Population Division (UNPD, 2007).⁴ The UNPD provides estimates of migrant stocks on a regular basis, basing its calculations mostly on population censuses corresponding to the decennial rounds of censuses from 1950 to 2000. Given that in the majority of cases the censuses available gathered information on place of birth, these estimates define migration as the foreign-born population present in the country analysed. However, in some countries information on place of birth was not recorded and therefore a different defining factor, such as citizenship of those enumerated (that is, their legal nationality) was used.⁵

Generally census and survey data are the main sources of stock data on migrants. Most of countries have carried out censuses and surveys, yet not all are in a position to determine their migrant stocks due to the high cost of processing the information; and the countries that do produce their own stocks of migrants use them internally because this information is usually not comparable regionally or internationally due to differences in definitions. Estimates from the UNPD are especially helpful in providing information that has considerable value for migration analysis and that is at times the only available information. However, even if the reliability of the information provided is adequate for those countries that conduct population censuses regularly, in the case of countries with limited data collection and analysis capacities, the information provided is often outdated and does not adequately reflect the present situation. (please see Quality of Migration Data below as well as Section 2, National Statistics, Administrative data, for specific examples of migration data collection issues for this region).

Emigration estimates

Measuring international emigration is an even more challenging task than measuring immigration. Reliable estimates of emigration (either flows or stocks) are necessary for policy makers in order to manage international emigration and assess its consequences for countries of origin. Various statistical methodologies have been tried to provide data on migration outflows and stocks of nationals living abroad, but their accuracy has proved to be unsatisfactory in most cases.

⁴ Please note that some of the profiles cite the World Bank as the source of immigration information. When that is the case, the information was extracted from Ratha and Xu (2008) but the source of the immigration data is UNPD (2007).

⁵ For more detailed information regarding the methodology used by the UNPD for estimating the stock of migrants, please refer to: <http://esa.un.org/migration/index.asp?panel=4>

Currently, the most effective (even if not totally reliable yet) method of measuring emigration is through the destination countries' censuses gathering information on foreign nationals. However, many problems (such as the definitions and categories of migrants used by the different countries of destination as well as the different points in time when the different censuses are carried out, etc.) remain especially in terms of the level of comparability across the different calculations of the destination countries' censuses. This reduces the reliability of the information collected and therefore the effectiveness of their use for policy and administrative purposes in the countries of origin.

Facing this challenge, the Black Sea Migration Profiles obtain their international information on emigrant stocks from the Bilateral Database on Migrant Stocks produced by Ratha and Shaw (2007) from the Development Prospects Group of the World Bank (WB). This is an updated and augmented version of the University of Sussex database⁶, which used the latest round of country censuses (1995-2004) as well as population registers, national statistical bureaus and a number of secondary sources (OECD, ILO, MPI, DFID, UNPD) to compile bilateral migrant stocks for 162 countries. The Ratha and Shaw (2007) database updated information for around 112 countries with respect to foreign-born migrants and migrants' nationality. The data on foreign-born migrants and migrants' nationality was used to create a "combined migrant stock" dataset for 212 countries. It typically uses information on foreign-born migrants as a default, relying on foreign nationality data only when data on foreign-born migrants was not available. Because the recent years for which census data on migrants was available varies across countries, the migrant stocks for each destination country were scaled to the UNPD's latest estimates of migrant stocks for 2005.

This Ratha and Shaw (2007) new database shares many of the weaknesses of the original Sussex database, but has the advantage of being: a) more reliable (uses a fewer number of assumptions than the previous one) and b) is the most comprehensive and up-to-date database available presently. However, the issue of heterogeneity in migration statistics should be taken into consideration when using the information provided by this source. This is triggered by a number of factors such as disparities across countries in data collection practices, differences in definitions used to classify migrants, shifting borders (the breakup of the former Soviet Union, for example), undercounting of irregular migrants, high non-response rates in poorer countries and varying rates of naturalization of the foreign-born.

⁶ As described in Parsons et al, 2005.

Quality of the migration data

Several caveats should be applied to the international estimates presented in this sub-section. The first, as mentioned before, is the definition of migrant. Migrants are defined as either foreign-born or of foreign nationality (where data was not available by country of birth) in the databases used. The two are not conceptually the same, yet they are merged in order to achieve a global database. For example, counting migrants by foreign nationality would exclude the foreign-born who have acquired citizenship in other countries (Ratha, 2007). However, in the absence of complete information for all countries by country of birth, all international agencies (OECD, UN, Sussex, World Bank) combine data on country of birth and country of citizenship to arrive at global estimates of migrant stocks.

Interpreting the meaning of migrant stocks also presents some difficulties such as measuring children born abroad to seasonal migrants who may appear as foreign born, but are not necessarily migrants. Another example is the case of students that are included in some national migration statistics but not in others.

In addition, a specific problem arose regarding the calculation of immigrants and emigrants with the disintegration of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) in 1991, accompanied by the breakdown of the former Yugoslavia in 1992, as well as that of the former Czechoslovakia in 1993, which dramatically changed the volume of migrants in the world. This added a new challenge to the measurement of immigration and emigration in the region, having literally from one day to the next a large number of persons that became international migrants without necessarily having moved from their place of residence. For purposes of estimation, the international statistics used in these Profiles backdated the effects of the breakup to 1990 in all cases. However, the impossibility of deriving estimates for the successor States of the former Czechoslovakia, the former USSR and the former Yugoslavia for periods before 1990, the long-term series of estimates for the period 1960-1985 is presented by the sources only in terms of the geographical units that existed before disintegration (UNPD, 2006).

Finally, estimates of global migrant stocks appear to undercount the actual stock of migrants in a number of countries because of the absence of modern methods to gather administrative data, reporting lags in census data and under-reporting of irregular and forced migrants (Ratha, 2007).

All of this indicates that migration data is in need of a serious overhaul in terms of availability, timeliness, quality, and cross-country comparability. In the

end, the quality of data on bilateral migration is as good (or poor) as the quality of the population censuses of different countries, which in a significant number of countries is just missing.

2. National Statistics

National statistics on migration are collected from a variety of sources that can be categorized as either administrative data or surveys.

Administrative data

Administrative data can mainly be collected through: a) border control procedures; b) lists of passengers on sea or airport manifests; c) applications for passports, visas, work permits, deportation statistics, regularization processes; and d) population registers.

In the Black Sea these types of statistics are collected for a fair number of countries. The CIS countries in the Black Sea region inherited their system of migration data collection from the period of the Soviet Union, and therefore these countries collect information on flows of migrants mainly through population registers. Registration is done in the place of residence, and foreigners as a rule, must have a residence permit. The exception is Georgia which abolished registration in the early 1990's and re-established this system only in 2004.⁷ However, time criterion for registration may vary from country to country and more importantly from the UN recommendations. For example, Bulgaria, Romania and Serbia provided information on residence permits categorized as short and long-term residence, while the other countries do not specify the length of stay of the migrants registered.

Information on work permits was also provided in the Profiles in the form of flows by Albania, Azerbaijan, Bulgaria, Romania, Russia, Serbia, Turkey and Ukraine.

The downside of administrative data is that it is only collected for specific administrative purposes often not linked to migration and therefore it might not provide the information needed. In addition, since these collection systems are country specific, data might be based in different definitions and classification regimes which make this information less comparable to other statistics on migrants.

⁷ Chudinovskikh, 2008

However, even if data following these collection systems is usually scattered and not always updated regularly, it records additional information on migrants that could be useful for further analysis on migration. In the Profiles, an example of this is the information regarding duration of stay of migrants, work-permits, registration of foreigners with national professional bodies, information on diasporas and diasporas' contribution, etc., which might add a deeper understanding on other aspects of migration such as the level of integration of migrants, the opportunities they have in destination countries, the contribution of migration to the countries of origin, etc.

Census and survey data

Information on stocks is provided by censuses and survey data. The censuses are a good source of information but since they are carried out with long intervals, they usually do not provide up-to-date information on the foreign-population and foreign-born. In the Black Sea Profiles only Russia, Greece and Turkey provided first hand information drawn from their respective censuses. This information diverges in all cases from the data provided by the international statistics (even if they base their calculations on the national censuses), which is understandable since international statistics process the countries' information in order to update it and enhance comparability across countries.

Data quality

The quality of international migration data from national sources varies from country to country and from source to source. Generally migration data based on population registries and frontier control operations is much poorer than that of census counts or birth and death registrations (ECLAC, 2007). The poor quality of administrative data is mainly due to the fact that there are many forms of international movements that are neither easy to identify nor to classify, the fact that registrations are not compulsory and that sometimes migrants do not have incentives to collaborate. Moreover, since countries generally have more control over the inflow than outflow of persons, data on immigration is generally better than data on emigration. In addition, classifications based on the duration of stay or purpose of stay are not always the same across countries and most of the time do not follow the UN recommendations on migrant definitions, which seriously impedes the international comparability of data. An even bigger challenge lies in trying to include irregular migratory flows into the collection systems. In most instances, these streams are according to their nature, undercover, often disguised as regular migration and thus in many cases difficult to recognize and account for (ECLAC, 2007).

B. Irregular Migration

Irregular migration can involve a combination of legal or illegal entry. Irregular migration data relies mainly on statistics based on border apprehension, regularization, failed asylum applications and both voluntary and forced returns. Such data are not always readily comparable across countries as variations in data collection and definitions exist. Data may also combine statistics on smuggling together with illegal entry or trafficking. For example, an increase in the number of border apprehensions could reflect a real increase in irregular migration or an increase in enforcement measures or both.

Furthermore, each of these statistical variables indicates a particular aspect of the irregular migration process: border apprehensions deal specifically with illegal entry; regularization and returns widen the measurement by including those with an irregular status, such as visa over-stayers or failed asylum seekers who may have entered legally.

Border apprehensions

Border apprehension data, should in principle be one of the key sources of information available to provide an informed estimate on the scale, structure and trends of irregular migration. In practice the data collected presented in the Migration Profiles may be difficult to interpret because the data is an amalgam of figures that refer to flows (illegal crossings) and stocks (aliens illegally present).

Refusals of entry

Data on refusals of entry do not (only) count attempts at illegal entry. For example, EU data on refusals refers to everybody refused entry at the border for whatever reason (Jandl and Kraler, 2006). Detailed statistics on refusals indicate that the majority of people “refused entry” at official border posts could easily enter the country legally, but at the moment of counting they did not fulfill the relevant criteria (for example, they had forgotten their passports). Therefore the numbers of persons refused entry at borders can be very high.

Returns

The number of returns is another indicator that can be used to analyse irregular migration. A general problem with return data is that often forced and voluntary returns are not sufficiently distinguished and with regard to forced removals the reasons for removal and where the person was removed to are often

not given. Return data are perhaps most useful in helping to understand the profile of irregular migrants at least in terms of their country of origin, although the category of migrant being removed is usually not indicated (i.e. failed asylum seeker, victim of trafficking, over-stayer working illegally etc.). Deportation itself is an ambiguous category, and most countries distinguish between two or more types of forced removal (Jandl and Kraler, 2006). Sometimes data refers to returns at the border, sometimes from within the country and sometimes to both, making cross-national comparisons very difficult. It is also evident that the number of persons actually removed from a particular territory is considerably lower than the number of persons issued an order to leave or accompanied by voluntary return operations.

In terms of voluntary returns, the data has been taken from the Assisted Voluntary Return (AVR) database of IOM. This database collects data on those who have participated in AVR programmes. The numbers largely reflect the presence of an IOM programme in the country. Furthermore, programmes may not be active in all countries of the region at the same time so that comparisons across time may be difficult.

Human trafficking

The collection of primary data on human trafficking presents many challenges especially due to its clandestine nature. National estimates are often not comparable as definitions of trafficking may differ from country to country as well as the quality of the data collected. IOM's Global Human Trafficking database is the World's largest database of primary data on registered VoTs, containing only primary data on 13,000⁸ registered victims of more than 80 different nationalities trafficked to more than 90 destination countries including information on countries of origin and destination in the Black Sea region. Though mainly an IOM case management tool, it has proved to be a useful research instrument from which to draw statistical analyses and reports from.

C. Remittances

In general, the quality and coverage of existing data on remittances is not adequate. First, there are still debates around the definition of remittances. While some international agencies such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF) count only workers' remittances, the WB maintains that compensation of employees and migrant transfers should also be counted. In addition, there is the problem

⁸ As of January 2008.

that many types of formal remittance flows are not recorded in some countries, due to weaknesses in data collection. For example, reporting of “small” remittance transactions made through formal channels is sometimes not mandatory and remittances sent through post offices, exchange bureaus, and other money transfer operators (MTOs) are often not reflected in official statistics (de Luna Martinez, 2005). Moreover, remittances are often misclassified as export revenue, tourism receipts, nonresident deposits, or even foreign direct investment (FDI) (WB, 2007). However, the most important challenge arises when trying to add to the calculations flows that go through informal channels, such as unregulated money transfer firms or family and friends who carry remittances.

In the Black Sea Migration Profiles the remittance data shown come mostly from two sources: international remittance information gathered from the WB (2007, 2008) and national remittance data from the national central banks of the countries analysed. Acknowledging that both sources of information have their own advantages and limitations (i.e. the WB allows for better comparability, while the National Banks may include different data and therefore be more accurate for national purposes), the decision was taken to show the two different sources aiming at enhancing the pertinence of the figures for the different users of this information.

World Bank data on remittances

The World Bank (2007) defines migrant remittances as the sum of workers’ remittances, compensation of employees, and migrants’ transfers. Data for these variables is mostly taken from the balance of payments (BoP) data file of the IMF. However, many countries do not report data on remittances in the IMF BoP statistics and for these countries the Bank has used alternative estimates of workers’ remittances using either country desk or the central bank data. Out of the Black Sea countries the only country not reporting to the IMF is Serbia.

According to the Bank, “Workers’ remittances, as defined in the IMF Balance of Payments manual, are current private transfers from migrant workers who are considered residents of the host country to recipients in their country of origin. If the migrants live in the host country for a year or longer, they are considered residents, regardless of their immigration status. If the migrants have lived in the host country for less than a year, their entire income in the host country should be classified as compensation of employees.”⁹

⁹ Taken from: <http://siteresources.worldbank.org/EXTDECPROSPECTS/Resources/476882-1157133580628/FactbookDataNotes.pdf>

One of the limitations of this source, besides the general problem of underestimating remittances from informal channels, is that the definition used by the countries when compiling the data does not follow the rules stated in the residence guidelines. For example, “many countries compile data based on the citizenship of the migrant worker rather than on their residency status. Further, data is shown entirely as either compensation of employees or as worker remittances, although they should be split between the two categories if the guidelines were correctly followed. Therefore, the distinction between these two categories appears to be entirely arbitrary, depending on country preference, convenience, and tax laws or data availability” (WB, 2007).

Remittances data from the Central Banks and other governmental agencies

Regarding national data on remittances, six of the countries analysed (Albania, Armenia, Bulgaria, Georgia, Romania and Turkey¹⁰) provide information from the national central banks. As explained previously, the advantage of having this information is that depending on the methodologies used for retrieving this information, it can be a better estimate of the amount of remittances received by the country. However, in general the national central banks do not provide descriptions of the methodologies used for collecting such data and therefore it is difficult to analyse what the figures account for.

De Luna Martinez (2005) carried out a survey of central banks, based on responses from 40 central banks.¹¹ The study reveals widespread problems with the remittance data collection methodology. The main problem is that remittance statistics are based on data reported by commercial banks to central banks or other financial sector authorities, but leave out flows through money transfer operators or other types of financial institutions (such as credit unions, post offices) and also informal personal channels. The exception of this would be Russia and Moldova that collect some data from informal channels through surveys of migrants visiting their home country or household surveys.

Given the limited coverage of existing remittance data, current statistics are most probably underestimating the total value of remittances inflows, which is true not only for statistics of the national central banks but also for international databases on remittances.

¹⁰ The national source of information for remittances in Turkey is Tuncay et al (2005). However, since the original source of the data is the State Statistical Institute (DIE), we have included it in the list.

¹¹ From the Black Sea region seven countries were considered in the survey: Azerbaijan, Bulgaria, Georgia, Moldova, Russia, Serbia and Turkey.

IV. REGIONAL ANALYSIS OF MIGRATION IN THE BLACK SEA REGION

This section presents an overview of the main trends in migration in the Black Sea Region according to a range of different indicators in the following categories: immigration, emigration, labour migration, irregular migration and remittances. When possible, data regarding the breakdown by gender has also been included as well as information about diasporas. This section also includes information on main countries of origin and destination of migrants, both regular and irregular, to and from this region.

However, it is important to take into account that there is considerable variation between the countries in the region. It is challenging to establish general trends when indicators in the countries do not point in the same direction. Therefore, all trends and figures presented in this Overview should be utilized carefully and not taken out of the context given.

A. Immigration

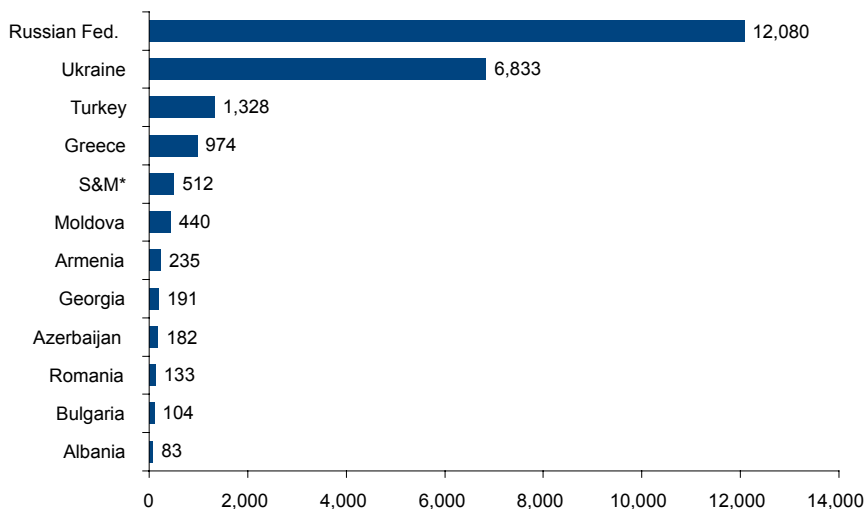
Stocks of immigrants

In 2005, there were 23.1 million migrants in the Black Sea region, accounting for 6.8 per cent of the population in the region (UNPD, 2007). The Russian Federation hosting 12.1 million migrants in 2005, remains the principal country of destination, followed by Ukraine with 6.8 million migrants in the same year (see Chart 1). These countries continue to be the two top destination countries receiving 82 per cent of the total immigration in the region, despite a slight decrease in the stock of migrants in the latter compared to 2000. Relative to the size of its population, Ukraine has the highest number of migrants (14.7%), followed by Moldova (10.5%), Greece (8.8%) and the Russian Federation (8.4%).

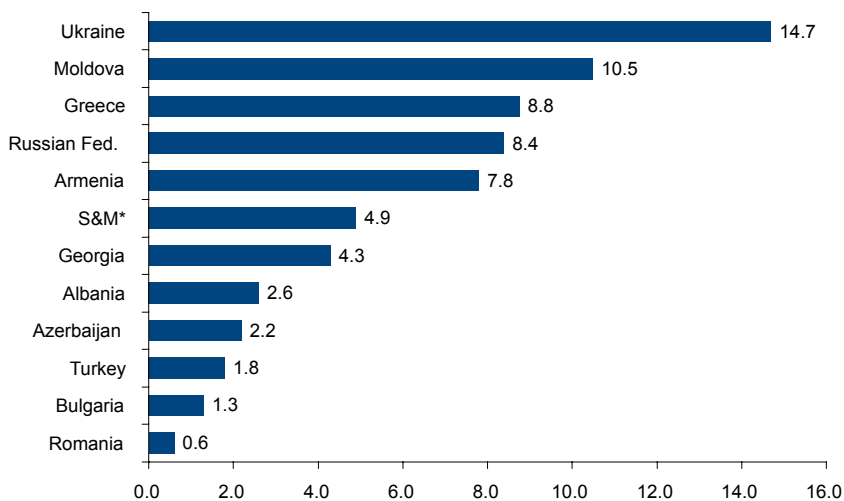
Compared to 2000, there is equal number of countries that have seen an increase and a decrease in immigration in absolute terms. As a region, 2005 shows a slight increase in the number of immigrants (95.7 thousand) compared to 2000 (see Chart 2), but no quintennial variation as a percentage of total population.

The regional analysis of the gender ratio of immigrants (F/M*100) shows that a higher proportion of women (133.4) immigrated to the region in 2005. In terms of percentage, this means that 57.1 per cent of immigrants were female

Chart 1: Stock of immigrants, 2005
A. In thousands

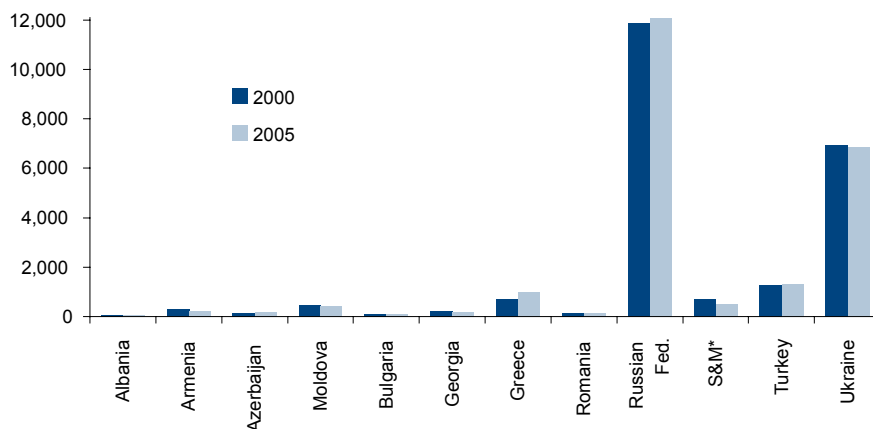


B. As a percentage of total population



Note: *Serbia and Montenegro
Source: UNPD, 2005.

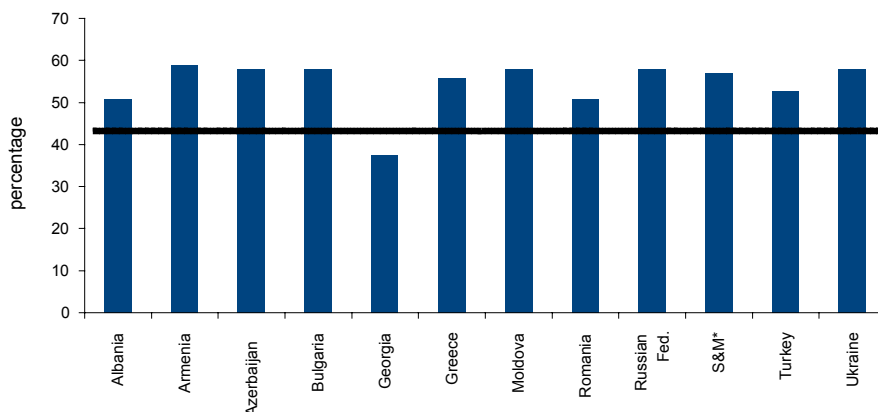
Chart 2: Stock of migrants, 2000 and 2005
(In thousands)



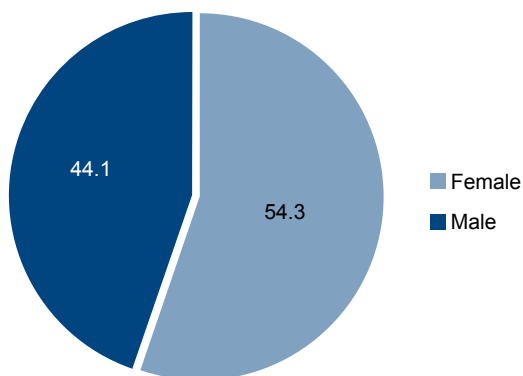
Note: *Serbia and Montenegro
Source: UNPD, 2005.

and 42.9 per cent were male in that year (see Chart 3). In national terms, Armenia is the top country for female migration (58.9%) and Georgia is the only country having a higher proportion of male immigrants (62.6%). It is important to take into account that these figures show simply the proportion of women and men immigrating to the region and not a more active role of women immigrants. In order to carry out a deeper analysis regarding the feminization of migration, it would be necessary to analyse the role men and women play in migration; who is migrating for work purposes and who, for example, is accompanying family. Unfortunately, no detailed information of this kind has been provided by the countries for this type of analysis.

Chart 3: Gender analysis of migration (%), 2005
A. Female migration (%)



B. Black Sea Region



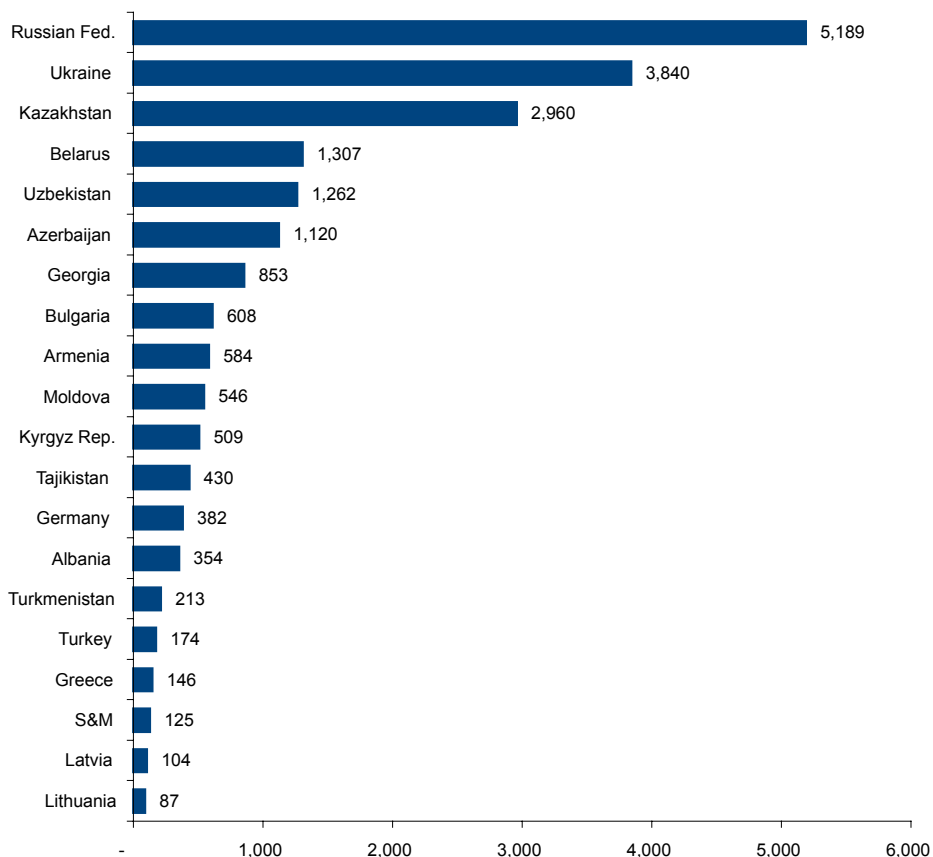
Note: *Serbia and Montenegro
Source: UNPD, 2005.

Countries of origin of immigrants

In terms of countries of origin of immigrants in the region, a partial regional analysis of the countries, from which this information was available, shows that intra-regional migration accounts for 59 per cent (13.6 million migrants) of the total immigration to the Black Sea. Russia is the top country of origin of immigration in the region with 5.2 million migrants accounting for 22.5 per cent of total immigration in the Black Sea (see Chart 4). However, the number of Russians living abroad is not distributed equally across the countries in the region; 92.3 per cent of them (4.7 million Russian migrants) are to be found in Ukraine. The same occurs with immigrants coming from Ukraine and Kazakhstan, the second and third top countries of origin of migrants in the region; 94 per cent of Ukrainians and 88 per cent of Kazakhs living abroad are located in the Russian Federation. Chart 4 shows the top 20 countries of origin of immigration in the Black Sea. For more detailed information on the countries of origin of the individual countries analysed please refer to Annex I.

Analysing the amount of immigration coming from CIS countries, the figure increases reaching 19.1 million migrants and 83 per cent of total immigration in the Black Sea. The reason for this high immigration rate from CIS countries is of course related to the geographic proximity and prevalent ties from the Soviet Union era, but it might also be related to the visa free movement existing in the CIS region inherited from that time. However, a large share of the foreign-born population in the region reflects the changed geopolitical status of their countries of birth, following the breakup of the Soviet Union, rather than international migration to these countries.

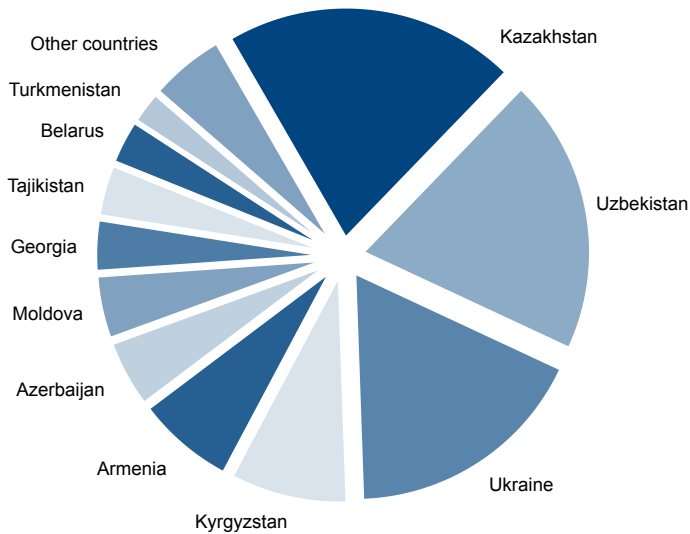
Chart 4: Immigration to the Black Sea* by to 20 countries of origin, 2005
(In thousands)



Note: *The figures in this chart do not include data on immigration to Azerbaijan and Serbia and Montenegro (S&M), since the breakdown by countries of origin is not available for these two countries.
Source: Ratha and Shaw, 2007

Even though individual figures may vary when comparing national with international statistics, national data provided by Russia (Goskomstat, 2006), shows similar patterns to international migration. This data shows that the top countries of origin of immigrants in the Russian Federation in 2006 were the CIS countries of Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan and Ukraine. These countries accounted for 19.5 per cent, 18.8 per cent, and 16.5 per cent of total immigration flows to the country, respectively (see Chart 5).

Chart 5: The Russian Federation: Annual immigration flows by country of origin, 2006

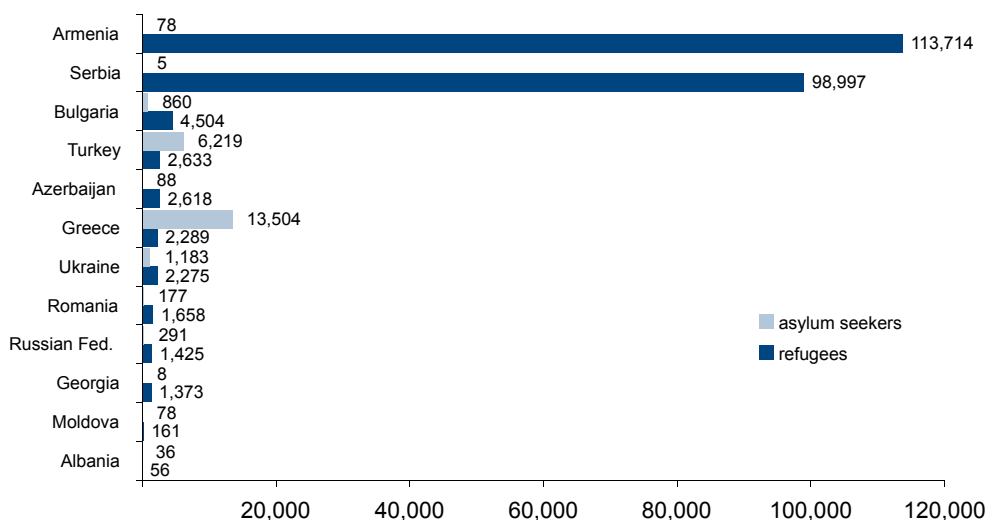


Source: Goskomstat, *Demographic yearbook of Russia, 2006*

Refugees and Asylum seekers

At the end of 2006, the number of refugees and asylum seekers concentrated in the countries of the Black Sea region totaled 231.7 and 22.5 thousand people, respectively. By far the leading receiving countries for refugees are Armenia (113.7 thousand) and Serbia (98.9 thousand) (see Chart 6) accounting for 92 per cent of the total number of refugees in the region. Regarding the number of asylum seekers, Greece leads the group with 13.5 thousand requests for asylum, followed by Turkey with 6.2 thousand requests.

Chart 6: Refugees and asylum seekers by country of destination, 2006

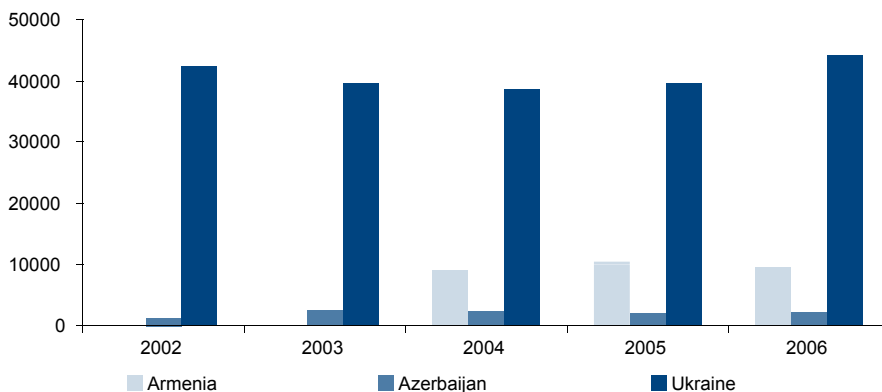


Source: UNHCR, 2007

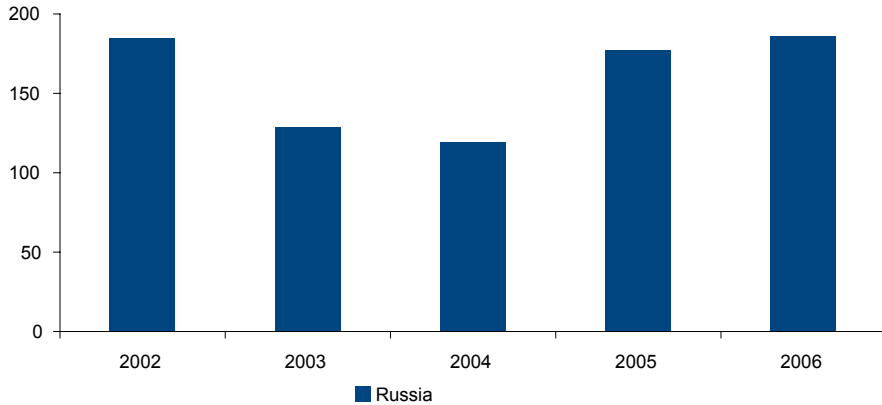
Flows of immigrants

In terms of flows of migrants, national information was provided by Armenia, Azerbaijan, Ukraine and Russia. Chart 7 shows migration flow trends in these countries and the difference in levels across them, which confirms what is presented above on the stocks of immigrants. Trends seem to be stable with the exception of Russian during 2005.

Chart 7: Flow of migrants to Armenia, Azerbaijan and Ukraine and Russia, 2002-2006
A. Armenia, Azerbaijan and Ukraine



B. Russia (in thousands)



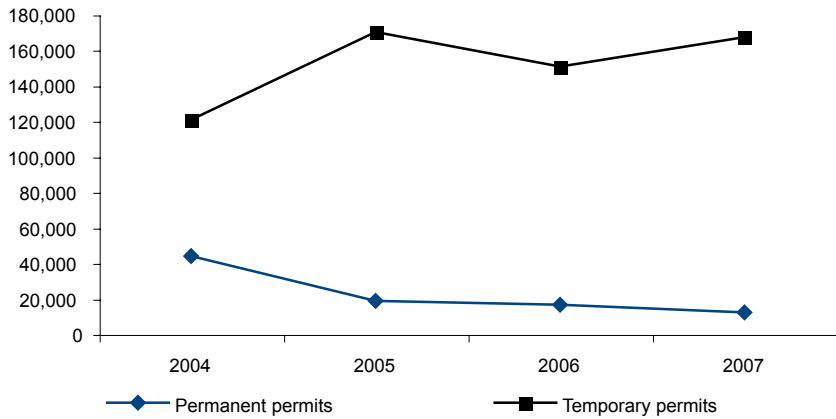
Source: National Statistical Service of the Republic of Armenia, 2007a; State Statistics Committee of the Republic of Azerbaijan, 2007; IOM Kiev, 2007; Goskomstat, Demographic yearbook of Russia, 2006.

Another indicator of flows of regular immigrants in a country is the data on residence permits. Even if this indicator is partial and therefore not the most accurate to measure levels of immigration, it records additional information on migrants that is very useful for a more in depth analysis on migration.

For example, Chart 8 illustrates the trends on residence permits granted by Russia from 2004 to 2007. The data shows an important difference in the level of temporary and permanent residence permits granted by the country. In addition, while temporary permits have increased, permanent permits have seen a slight decrease during the timeline analysed. Chart 9, on the other hand, shows the different reasons for granting residence permits in Serbia in 2007. It is possible to imply from the data provided that most of the residence permits granted by Serbia (89%) are for long term stay; 38 per cent for work-related reasons and 51 per cent as accompanying family.

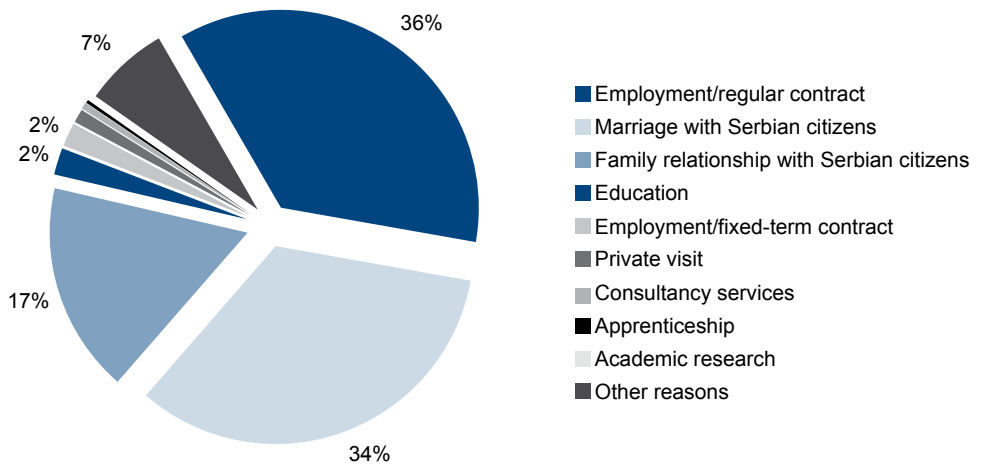
These two charts show additional information which is valuable since it might add a deeper understanding of other more qualitative aspects of migration such as the duration of stay of migrants, the opportunities they have in destination countries, the contribution of migration to the countries of origin, etc.

Chart 8: Residence Permits granted by Russia, 2004 – 2007



Source: Russia Federal Migration Service, 2007

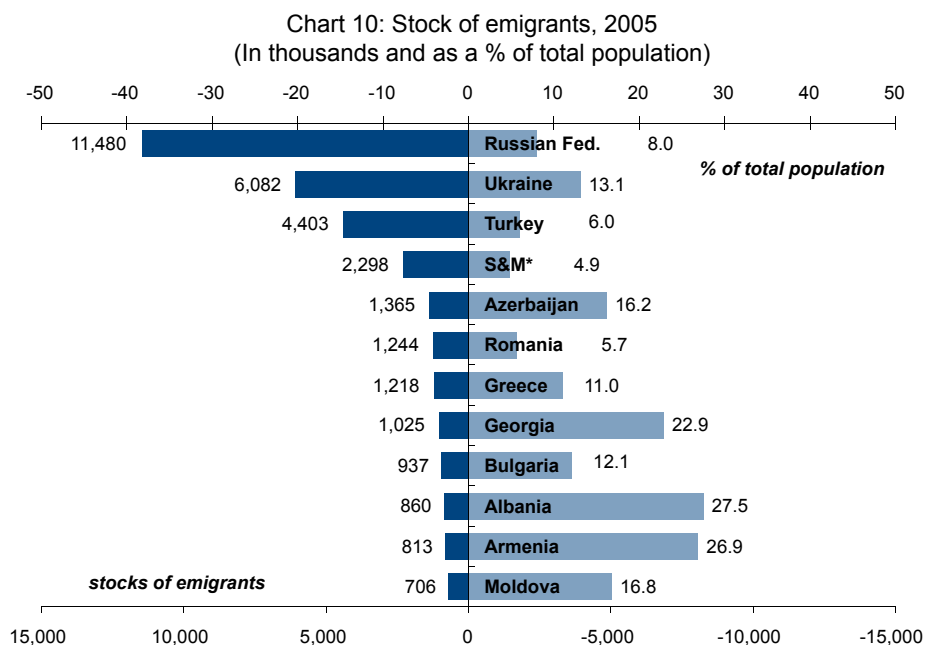
Chart 9: Serbia: Reasons for granting residence permits, 2007



Source: Ministry of Interior of the Republic of Serbia, 2008

B. Emigration

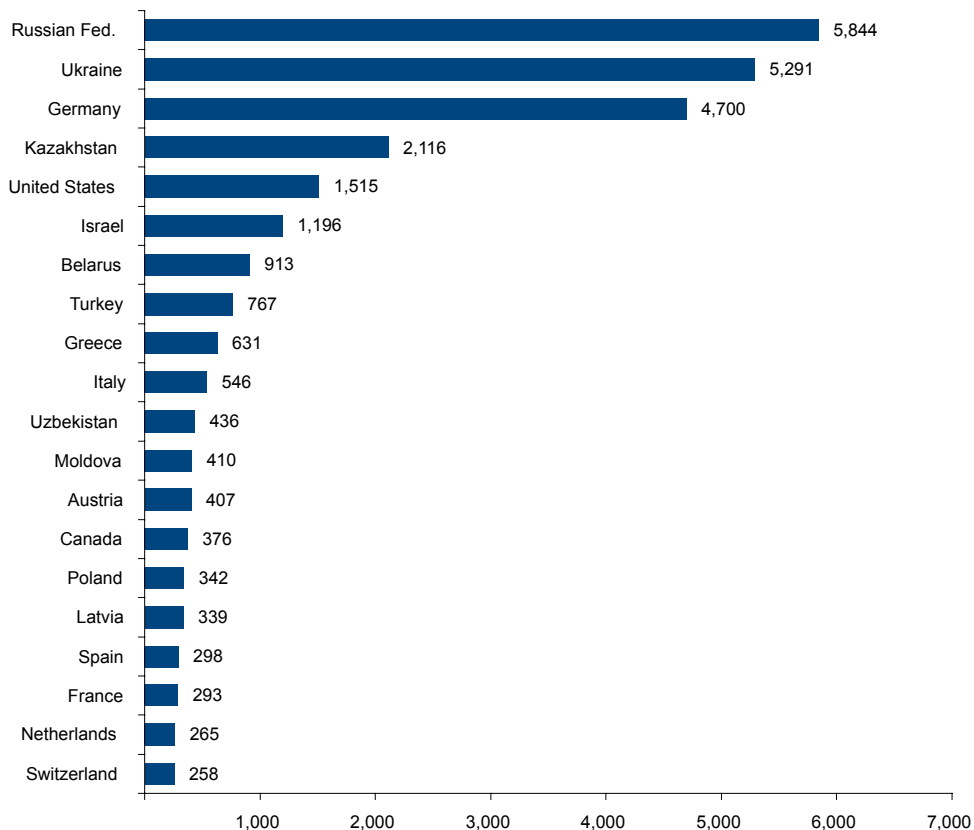
In 2005, there were 32.4 million emigrants from the Black Sea Region. Russia not only has the highest numbers of immigrants as shown in Section II.A., but also the highest total number of emigrants in the region totaling 11.5 million. This is followed by Ukraine at 6.1 million and Turkey at 4.4 million (Ratha and Shaw 2007; see Chart 10). However in terms of emigrants as a percentage of the total population, the Russian figure represents only 8 per cent of the total population and only 6 per cent for Turkey. Ukraine is slightly higher at 13 per cent but not among the highest in the region. On the other hand, Albania, Armenia and Georgia have the highest numbers of emigrants as a percentage of total population in the region with 27.5 per cent, 26.9 per cent and 22.9 per cent respectively (see Chart 10 below). Therefore, when analysing emigration (and immigration) figures it is important to not only consider total numbers but also what the numbers mean in terms of percentage of the total population.



Note: *Serbia and Montenegro
Source: Ratha and Shaw, 2007.

In terms of countries of destination of emigrants from the region, Russia is at the top of the list with 5.8 million migrants accounting for 18 per cent of total emigration from the Black Sea (see Chart 11). As in the case of immigration, Ukrainians account for 61 per cent (3.6 million persons) of the total number of foreign nationals living in Russia. In terms of net migration, Russian then hosts more migrants than the ones it sends abroad. The second and third top countries of destination of migrants from the Black Sea are Ukraine and Germany with 5.3 and 4.7 million migrants, respectively. While nearly 60 per cent of the numbers of migrants that Germany hosts are Turkish nationals, 90 per cent of the foreign nationals established in Ukraine come from Russia. Chart 11 shows the top 20 countries of destination of emigrants from the Black Sea. For more detailed information on the countries of destination of emigrants from the individual countries analysed please refer to Annex II.

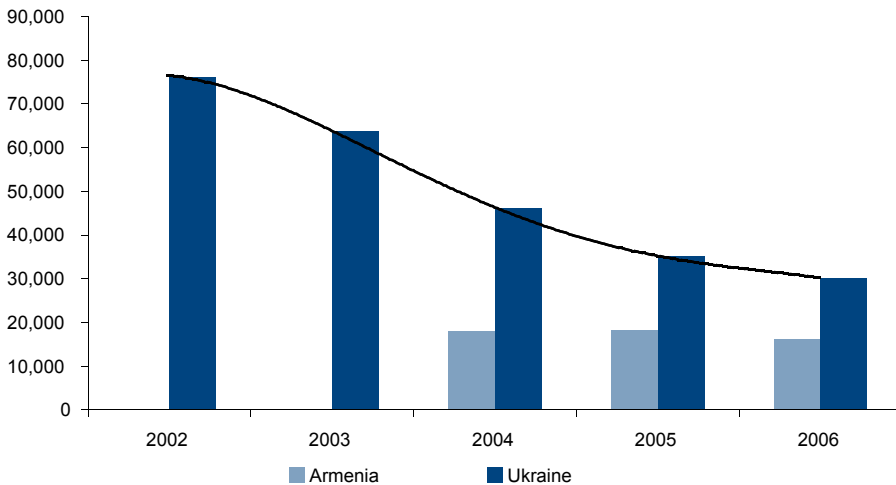
Chart 11: Emigration from the Black Sea by top 20 countries of destination, 2005
(In thousands)



Source: *Ratha and Shaw, 2007*

Flows of emigrants vary in volume and geographic distribution throughout the Black Sea region (see Section II.C. Labour Migration for further detail). National data is generally collected more systemically with regard to inflows of migrants as opposed to outflows of nationals. In the Profiles prepared for the Black Sea, only Armenia and Ukraine provided this data. In the case of the Ukraine we observe a steady decrease in flows between 2002 and 2006 from 76,264 in 2002 to 29,982 in 2006. In Armenia, flows of emigrants have been stable between 2004 and 2006 ranging between 17,885 in 2004 and 16,087 in 2006 (see Chart 11).

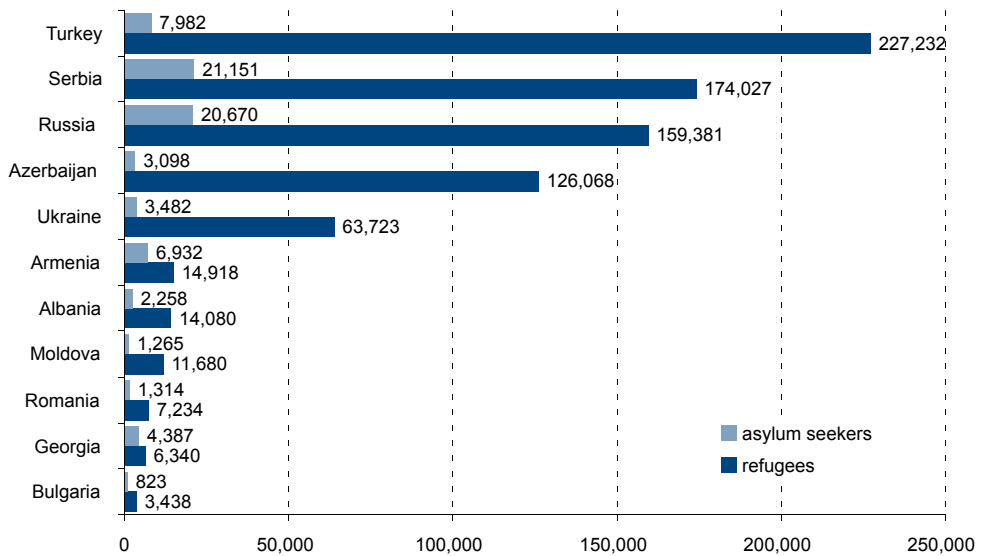
Chart 12: Flow of emigrants from Armenia and Ukraine, 2002-2006



Source: National Statistical Service of the Republic of Armenia, 2007a; IOM Kiev, 2007.

Refugees and asylum seekers originating from the Black Sea region continue to be a population of concern for the region. There are certain countries in the region which continue to be countries of origin for refugees mainly due to continued areas of conflict. In the case of Turkey, due to statistical corrections, revisions and/or verification exercises in Germany the global figures for Turkish refugees increased by 33 per cent, totaling 227,232 in 2006 (UNHCR 2006). Serbia (174,027), Russia (159,381) and Azerbaijan (126,068) continue to have comparatively higher numbers of refugees originating from their countries in the Black Sea region (see Chart 13). Refugees originating from Azerbaijan have seen a decrease of 46 per cent compared to 2005 (UNHCR 2006). Similar to the refugee figures, the highest numbers of asylum seekers also come mainly from the same countries but in lower numbers: Serbia (21,151), Russia (20,670), and Turkey (7,982) with the exception of Azerbaijan (3,098). The following countries have higher numbers of asylum seekers: Armenia (6,932), Georgia (4,387) and Ukraine (3,482).

Chart 13: Refugees and Asylum seekers by country of origin, 2006

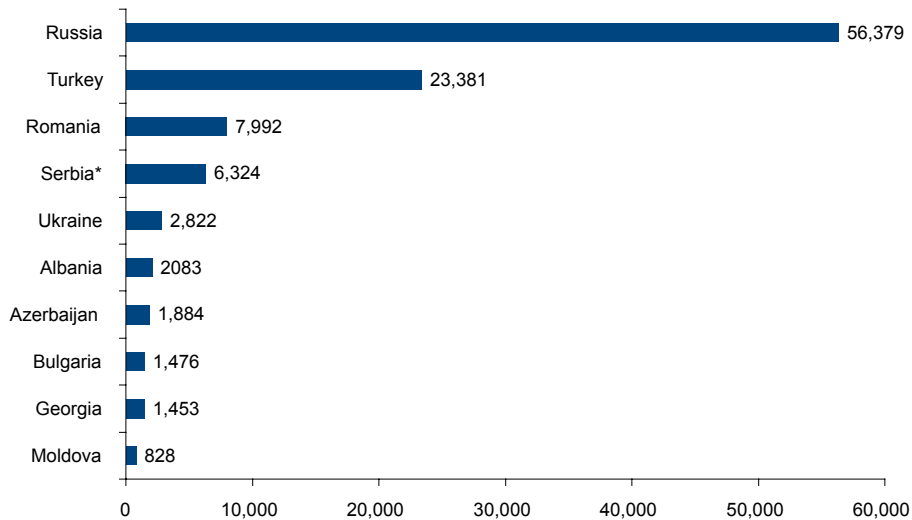


Source: UNHCR, 2007

C. Labour Migration

Inequality in job opportunities, future job prospects as well as the need to secure an income for oneself and family are at the core of labour migration. At the same time, the demand for cheap labour and constraints in the domestic labour market are part of the structural reasons in the migration process. For example the demand for cheap labour in the Russian labour market has been one of the driving forces of migration to Russia in the Black Sea region (Patzwaldt, 2004). As illustrated in Chart 14 below, in 2006 Russia granted the most work permits (53,379). Moldova, Ukraine, Georgia and Bulgaria whose economies are weaker are mainly sending countries in the region. Labour migration in the region also occurs along ethnic and linguistic lines such as in migration of Russian speaking populations from the CIS countries in the region toward Russia and in terms of social networks and established migrants communities as in the case of migration from Turkey to Germany (see Chart 18).

Chart 14: Annual flows of labour migrants/work permits granted, 2006



Note: *Data for Serbia corresponds to 2007

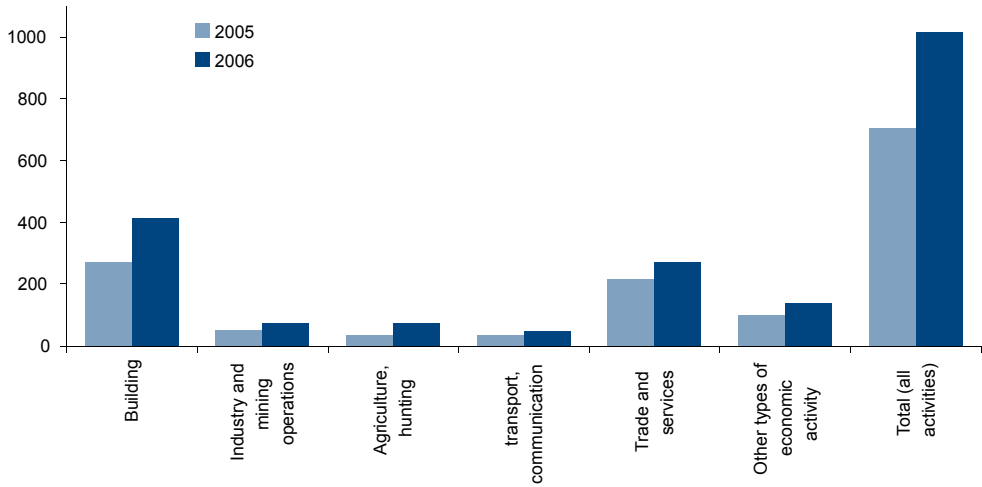
Sources: IOM Kiev, 2007; Ministry of Interior and Administrative Reform, Romania, 2007; Ministry of Interior, Bulgaria, 2007; Ministry of Interior, Moldova, 2007, 2008; Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities, Albania, 2008, Ministry of Justice (Georgia); Aliyev Alovzat, 2006; Federal Migration Service, Russia, 2007, Directorate General of Security, Department of Foreigners, Borders and Asylum, Turkey, 2007.

The level of economic and social development of the countries in the region varies and therefore their position as either sending or receiving countries largely depends on this. Labour migration movement from the poorer to richer countries in the region as well as outside the region is occurring. As mentioned, Russia is one of the main receiving countries of labour migrants in the region, but is also a sender as exemplified in Chart 18 below. Countries such as Moldova, Georgia, Ukraine, Bulgaria and Romania are mainly sending countries.

Inflows

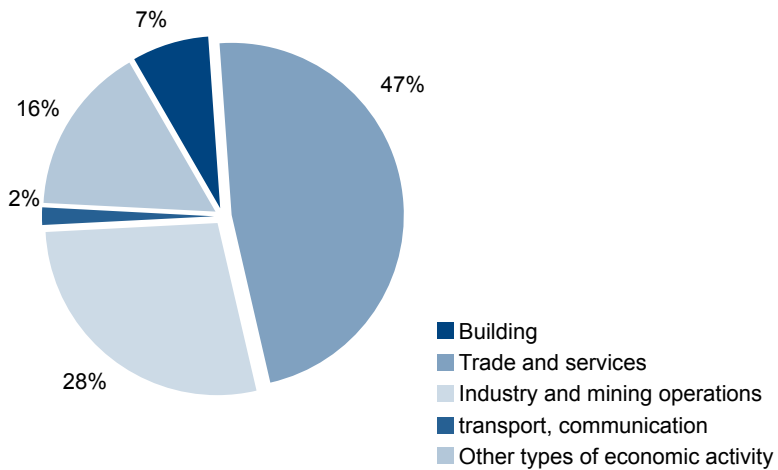
The types of economic activities carried out by foreign workers tend to be in lower skilled, often lower paid, labour intensive sectors such as construction, agriculture, hotels and restaurants, and domestic work. The distribution of foreign workers by type of economic activity in Russia in Chart 15 shows that in both 2005 and increasingly in 2006, building is the main activity followed by trade and services. In Romania, the majority of foreign workers are involved in trade and service jobs (47%) and in industry and mining (28%) (see Chart 16).

Chart 15: Russia: Distribution of foreign workers by type of economic activity, 2005 - 2006



Source: Federal Migration Service, Russia, 2007

Chart 16: Romania: Distribution of foreign workers by type of economic activity, 2006

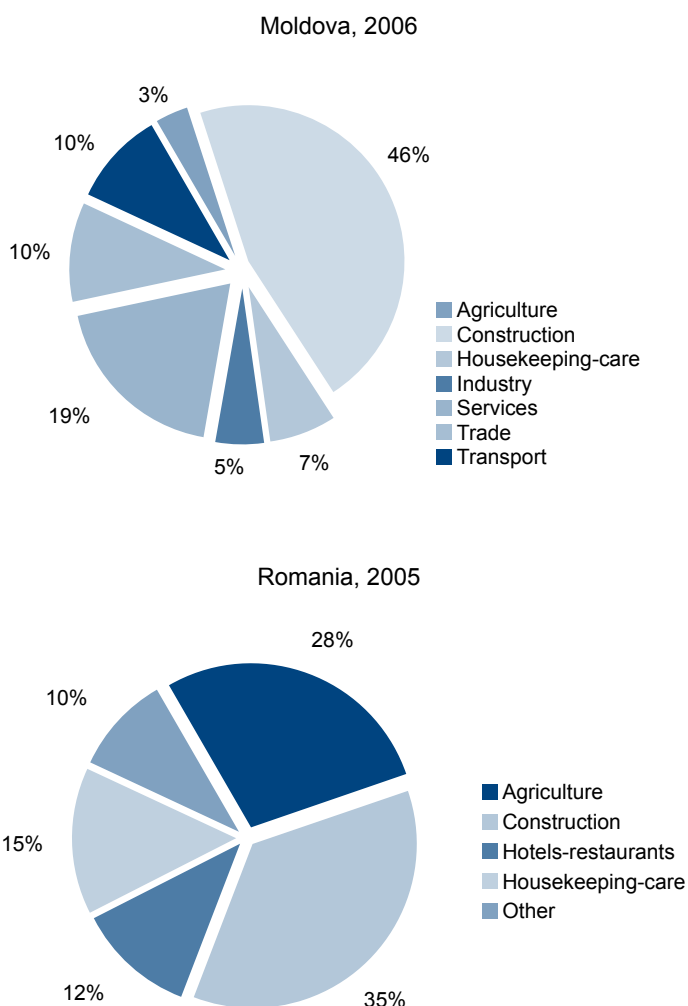


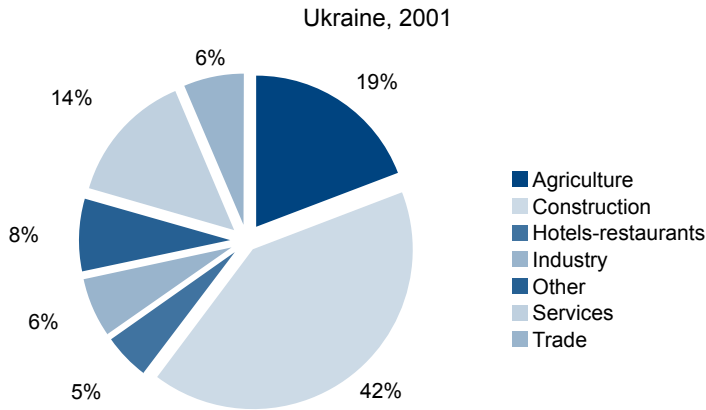
Source: Ministry of Interior and Administrative Reform, Romania, 2007

Outflows

In terms of outflows of migrants by economic activity, similar patterns are observed as above. Construction is the main occupation of labour migrants from Moldova, Romania and Ukraine with 46 per cent, 35 per cent and 42 per cent of migrants working in this sector respectively. In both Romania and Ukraine this is followed by agriculture (28% and 19%), while in Moldova services is the second largest category (19%) (see Chart 17).

Chart 17: Labour emigrants by type of economic activity, Moldova, Romania and Ukraine

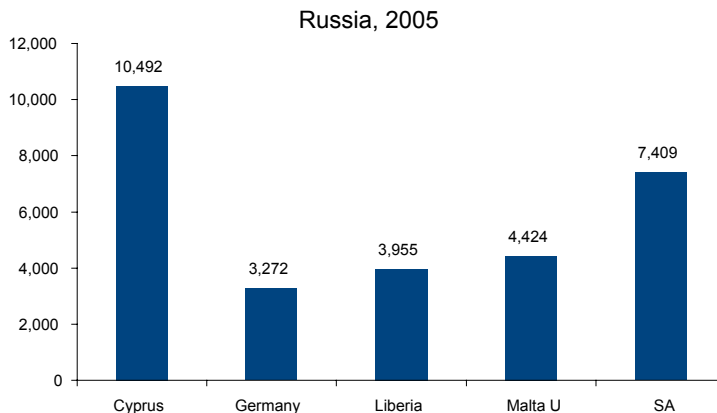




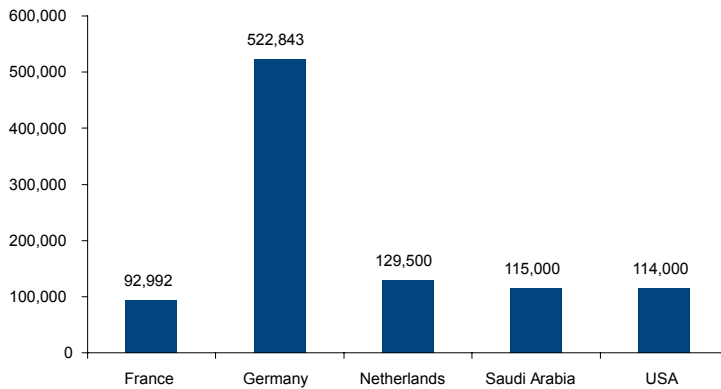
Source: Lücke et al., 2007; CURS, 2005 ; Libanova and Poznyak, 2002.

As mentioned previously, the choice of destination countries of labour migrants from the Black Sea region is based on several factors including level of economic development, cultural ties and migrant networks abroad. Russian speaking populations in both Eastern Ukraine and Eastern Moldova tend to seek employment in Russia, while the western regions tend to look toward the west for employment. In 2002, the majority of labour migration from Ukraine was to Russia (1,000,000) followed by migration to other countries of Eastern Europe such as Poland (300,000) and the Czech Republic (200,000) as well as to Italy (200,000) and Portugal (150,000) in Western Europe (see Chart 18). In the case of Turkey, ties to migrant communities abroad can be one explanation for the high numbers of Turkish labour migrants migrating to Germany (522,943) compared to other destinations; the second largest destination in 2005 being the Netherlands (129,500) (see Chart 18). According to the Russian Federal Migration Service, the main countries of destination for Russian labour migrants in 2005 were Cyprus (10,492), the United States (7,409) and Malta (4,424), see Chart 18.

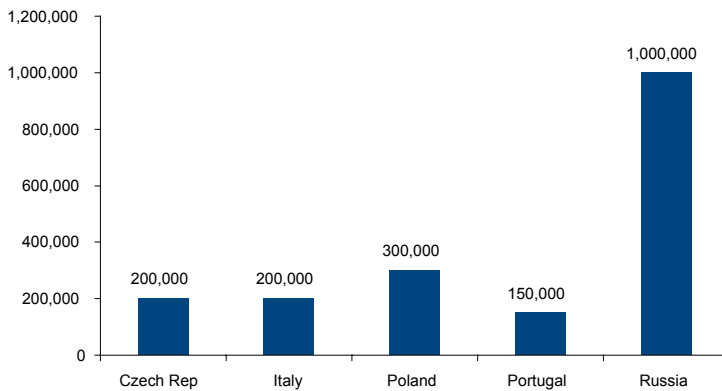
Chart 18: Labour emigrants by country of destination, Russia, Turkey and Ukraine



Turkey, 2005



Ukraine, 2002



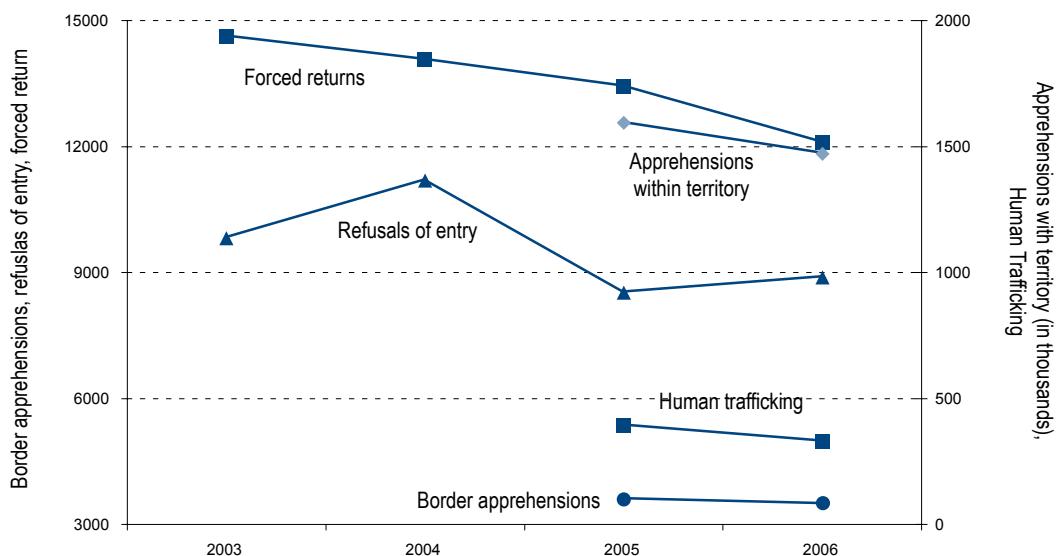
Source: Russia: Federal Migration Service; Ministry of Labour of the Republic of Turkey, 2005; Karpachova, 2003.

D. Irregular Migration

There are several different indicators of irregular migration from, through and to the countries of the Black Sea region. Not all indicators point in the same direction and there is considerable variation between the countries in the region. Generally speaking the data presented here do not suggest that there has been a sharply upward increase in irregular migration. The data suggests a decline in the number of border apprehensions, and apprehensions within a country; a fall between 2004 and 2005 and then subsequent rise in the number of persons refused

entry; and a decrease in the number of forced returns and human trafficking. The data in Chart 19 should however be interpreted with care as not all of the 12 countries reported data on each of these indicators and national definitions may vary. More generally, indicators of irregular migration need to be analysed with care as decreases in one indicator such as border apprehensions may not signify overall decreases in irregular migration as movements may shift as methods change: i.e., increased crossings at “green borders.” In addition, in order to capture the full extent of irregular migration, information on overstay would be necessary. As overstay is generally indicated through regularization programmes or specific information gathered for apprehensions within a territory, these figures are not readily available for most countries.

Chart 19: Trends in Border apprehensions, Forced returns, Apprehensions within the territory, Refusals of entry and Human trafficking in selected countries of the Black Sea, 2003-2006



Note: The countries analysed vary from indicator to indicator: border apprehensions (Romania and Bulgaria), forced return (Bulgaria, Moldova and Ukraine), apprehensions within the territory (Albania, Romania, Russia, Turkey and Ukraine), refusal of entry (Albania and Turkey), human trafficking (Greece, Turkey and Ukraine).

Apprehensions within territory for Russia defined as “violations of migration regulations or stay (residence)”.

This graph shows general trends and is not an indication of the exact levels of each indicator.

Sources: Ministry of Interior, Albania, cited in IOM, 2007; Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Turkey, ; Information Analysis Center of the MIA of Russia; SDCIRNP of the Ministry of Interior of Ukraine, State Department on Citizenship, Immigration and Registration of Persons of the Ministry of Interior Ukraine in “Migration trends 2004–2006 in Söderköping process countries” Irina Pribytkova and Juris Gromovs, 2007 , <http://soderkoping.org.ua/page70.html> (for apprehensions within the Ukrainian territory); IOM Kiev (2007) Migration Bulletin, International Organization for Migration, Kiev (for trafficking figures); Romania: IOM (2006) Compilation for the EU/DG JLS on Irregular Migration (unpublished) and figures refer to the first half of 2006 (for apprehensions within the territory); 2006 Yearbook on Illegal Migration, Human Smuggling and Trafficking in Central and Eastern Europe, ICMPD (for border apprehensions).

Irregular Migration Routes

The routes used by irregular migrants vary enormously according to the country of origin of the migrant, the country of destination targeted and the type of irregular migration. The Black Sea Region is a meeting point of many irregular migration routes leading further west: the Eastern Mediterranean route, the Balkan and the Central and Eastern European routes all at some point cut through the Black Sea region. Due to the expansion of the EU, the Central and Eastern European route has become crucial as part of the EU border is now established on the Black Sea.

- **The Balkan Route:** overland route from the Middle East and Asia via Turkey to Bulgaria, Romania, Hungary Slovakia, Czech Republic through to the Schengen area (Germany or Austria). Sub route through Albania or Serbia and Montenegro to Italy or through the western Balkans to Slovenia and on to Italy or Austria (ICMPD, 2006).
- **The Central and Eastern European Route:** origins in Russia, Belarus or Ukraine passing Belarus, Poland or Czech Republic to the Schengen area (Austria or Germany) or through the Ukraine to Slovakia or Hungary onto the Schengen area (ICMPD, 2006).
- **Baltic Route:** from Russia via the Baltic states to Poland through to Germany directly or through the Czech Republic to Schengen area (ICMPD, 2006).

Human trafficking

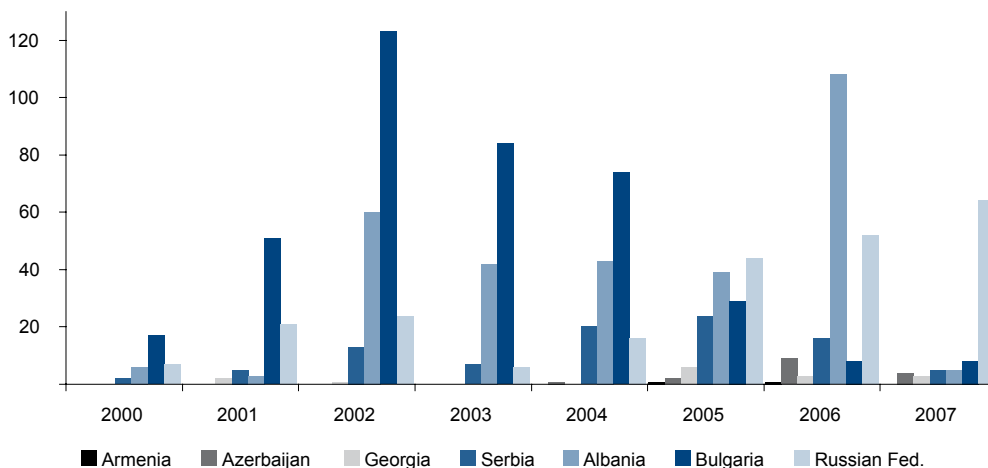
According to IOM's Global Human Trafficking database 4,857 persons were trafficked *to* the Black Sea Region and 7,891 *from* the Black Sea region, between 1999 and the end of February 2008. The IOM database only collects information on VoT assisted by IOM. However, it is currently the largest global victim centred database. In addition to serving its case management function, it also serves as a knowledge bank, from which statistical and detailed reports can be drawn as presented here.¹²

The top 5 countries of destination in the region between 2000 and 2007 were Russia (1,860), Turkey (1,157), Moldova (696), Albania (348) and Serbia (233) (see Chart 20 below).

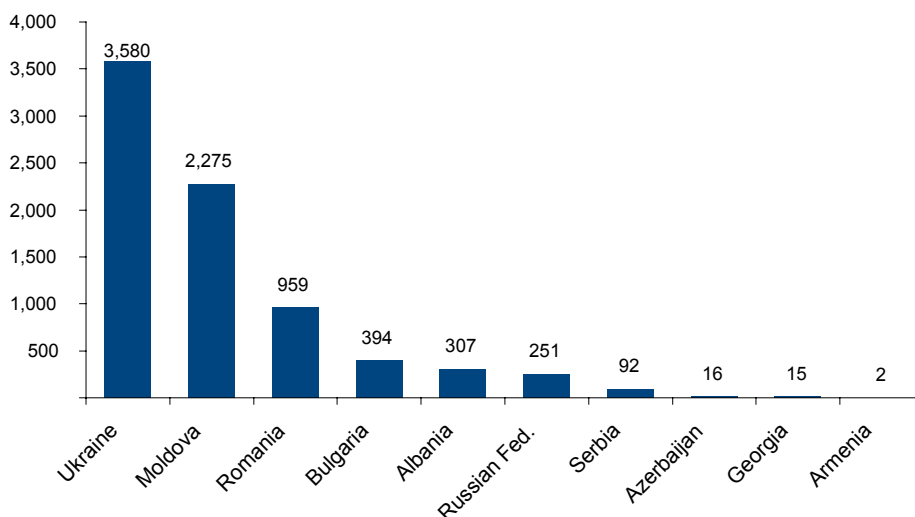
¹² Please see Surtees (2005) Second Annual Report on Victims of Trafficking in South-Eastern Europe 2005 which drew upon the data held within the CTM as the primary dataset.

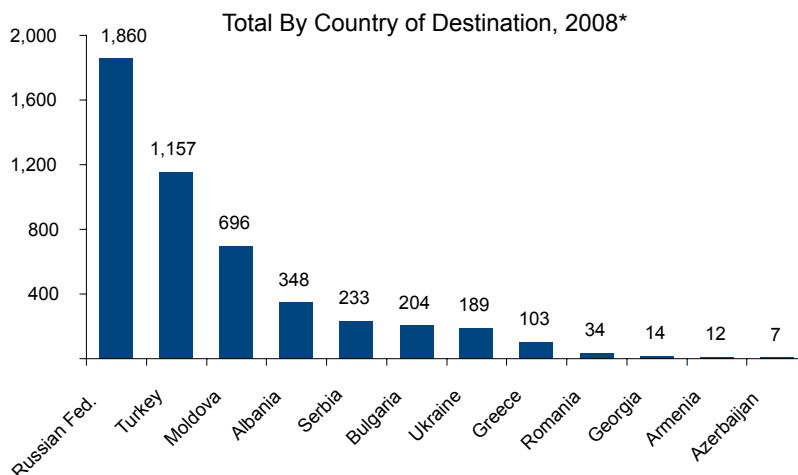
Countries of destination are often also countries of origin and/or transit. With the exception of Greece and Turkey all the other countries in the region also appear as countries of origin. The top 5 countries of origin in the region during this period were Ukraine (3,580), Moldova (2,275), Romania (959), Bulgaria (394) and Albania (307) (see Chart 20 below).

Chart 20: Regional Overview IOM Assisted Victims of Trafficking by Country of Origin 2000-2007



Total By Country of Origin, 2008*



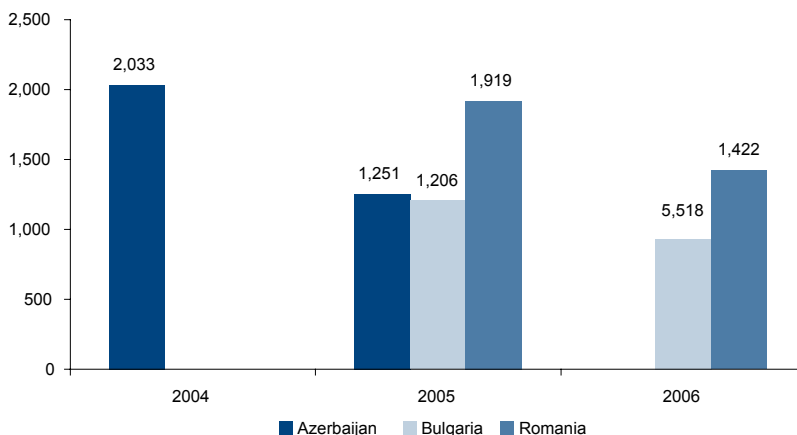


Note: *The totals of IOM assisted VoTs are calculated from 1999 to end of February 2008; Please note that the data for Serbia has been disaggregated and does not account for Montenegro for all years.
Source: IOM GVC Database, 2008.

Border Apprehensions

As explained in Section I, border apprehension data should be one of the key indicators to estimate irregular migration. However, data quality and definitions vary across countries making this data not easily comparable. The data presented in the country profiles suggests that the number of border apprehensions has been falling since 2005 in Romania and Bulgaria (see Chart 19). The breakdown in Chart 21 also shows a slight decline in not only Romania and Bulgaria (between 2005-2006) but also Azerbaijan (between 2004-2005). As figures were not readily available for other years, a trend can not be observed in this case.

Chart 21: Number of aliens apprehended at national borders, 2004 - 2006

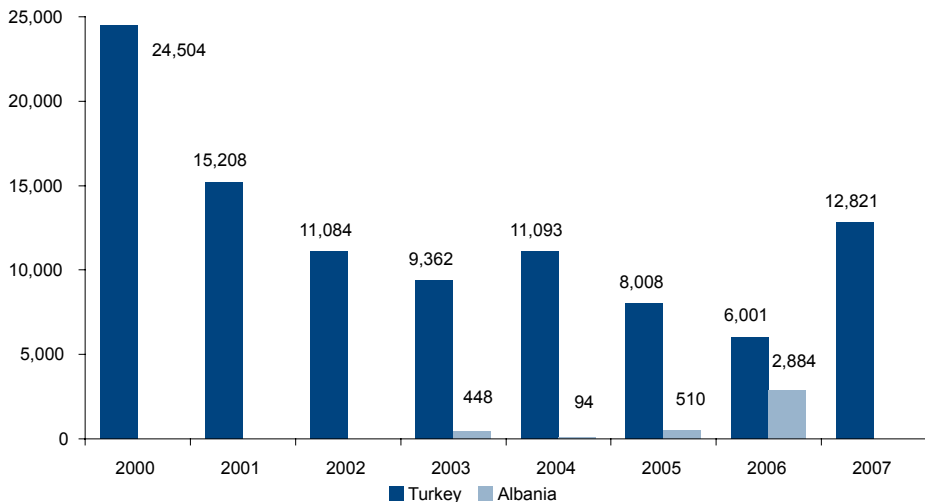


Source: ICMPD, 2006; ICMPD, 2007

Refusals of entry

Data on refusals of entry does not (only) count attempts at illegal entry. For example, EU data on refusals refer to everybody refused entry at the border for whatever reason (Jandl and Kraller, 2006). Detailed statistics on refusals indicate that the majority of people “refused entry” at official border posts could easily enter the country legally, but at the moment of counting they did not fulfill the relevant criteria (for example, they had forgotten their passports). Therefore the numbers of persons refused entry at borders can be very high. Turkey reported that 24,504 persons were refused entry in 2000. However this figure fell to 12,821 in 2007 which though lower than the 2000 figure shows an increase of refusals since 2006 which reported 6,001 refusals (see Chart 22). Albania on the other hand has experienced an increase in refusals though overall figures in comparison to Turkey are much lower; 448 in 2003 increasing to 2,884 in 2006 (see Chart 22).

Chart 22: Turkey and Albania: Aliens refused entry in national territory, 2000 – 2007

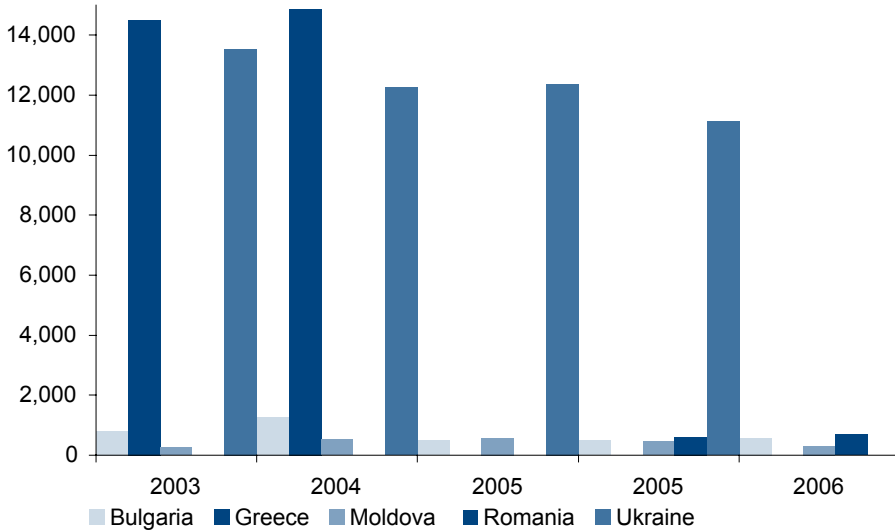


Source: Ministry of Interior, Albania, cited in IOM, 2007; Directorate General of Security, Department of Foreigners, Borders and Asylum, Directorate General of Security, Turkey

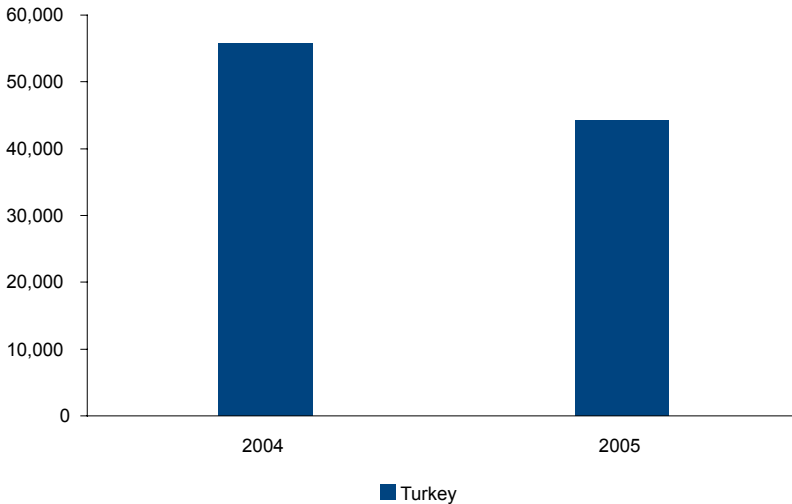
Returns

As mentioned previously in Section I, a general problem with return data is that often forced and voluntary returns are not sufficiently distinguished and in regards to forced removals the reasons for removal and where the person was removed to are often not given.

Chart 23: Aliens Removed from National Territory
Bulgaria, Greece, Moldova, Ukraine, Romania 2003-2006



Turkey, 2004-2005

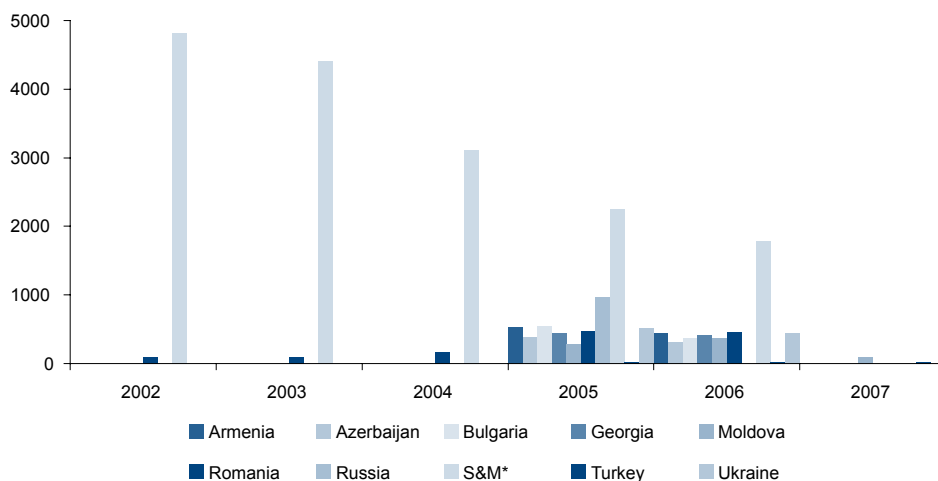


Source: European Commission, 2006; ICMPD, 2007; Ministry of Interior, Moldova, 2008; Ministry of Interior, Ukraine, State Department on Citizenship, Immigration and Registration of Persons of the Ministry of Interior Ukraine in Migration trends 2004–2006 söderköping process countries Irina Pribytkova and Juris Gromovs, 2007 <http://soderkoping.org.ua/page70.html>

Assisted Voluntary Returns (AVR)

According to data provided in the country Profiles based on the IOM AVR database, 23,880 persons from the Black Sea Region (Armenia, Azerbaijan, Bulgaria, Georgia, Moldova, Romania, Russia, Serbia and Montenegro, Turkey and Ukraine provided data) have participated in IOM AVR programmes between 2002-2007. Of this total 16,386 alone are from Serbia and Montenegro (see note in Chart 24 below). The breakdown of the rest of the countries is as follows: Romania (1286), Russia (977), Armenia (975), Ukraine (966), Bulgaria (912), Georgia (867), Moldova (760), Azerbaijan (694), Turkey (57). The figures are reflective of the programmes which are operational.

Chart 24: IOM Assisted Voluntary return to the Black Sea Region, 2002-2007



Note: *S&M refers to Serbia and Montenegro; Figures provided are based on IOM AVR database where and as reported in the individual country migration profiles. Please also note that not all countries may have had operational AVR programmes across all years (i.e., Ukraine AVR projects started in late 2004; Serbia and Montenegro are combined for 2006 as well. The AVR project resumed there in 2005 after a brief suspension).

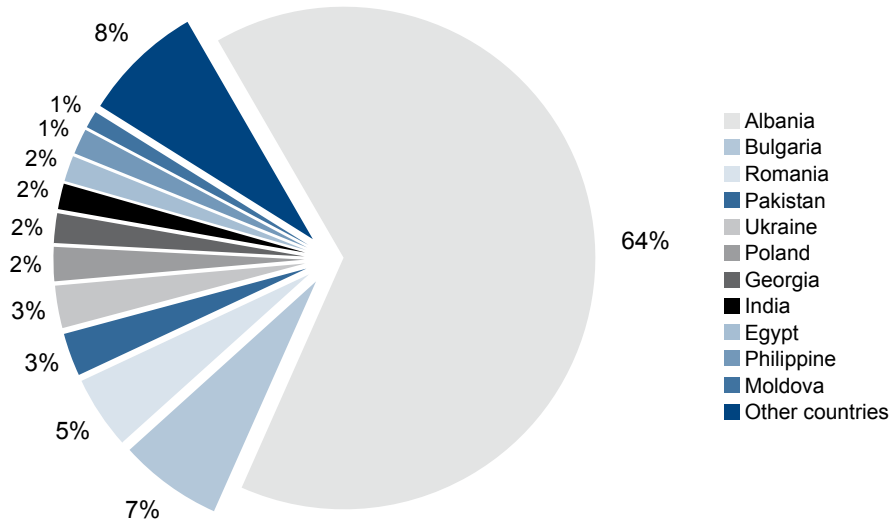
Source: IOM AVR database

Readmission- regularization

An increasing number of Readmission agreements have been signed between EU Member States, bordering countries and countries in the Black Sea region. For example Romania has signed 27 readmission agreements with 29 countries (Belgium, Luxembourg and the Netherlands in one agreement). Of these 22 have been signed with EU member states and Switzerland; two with Black Sea countries (Moldova and Albania); the remaining three with Croatia, India and Lebanon.

Regularization programmes carried out in certain countries can serve as another indicator of irregular migration. Though these do not distinguish between those who entered irregularly or overstayed, it does indicate who was in an irregular status in the territory at the time of the programme. For example, the regularizations carried out in Greece in 1998, show that the highest numbers of applicants came from Albania (64%), followed by Bulgaria and Romania in much smaller percentages, 7 per cent and 5 per cent respectively (see Chart 25).

Chart 25: Applicants to Regularization Programme in Greece 1998, by nationality, %



Source: Manpower Employment Agency (OAED) cited in Kanellopoulos, 2005.

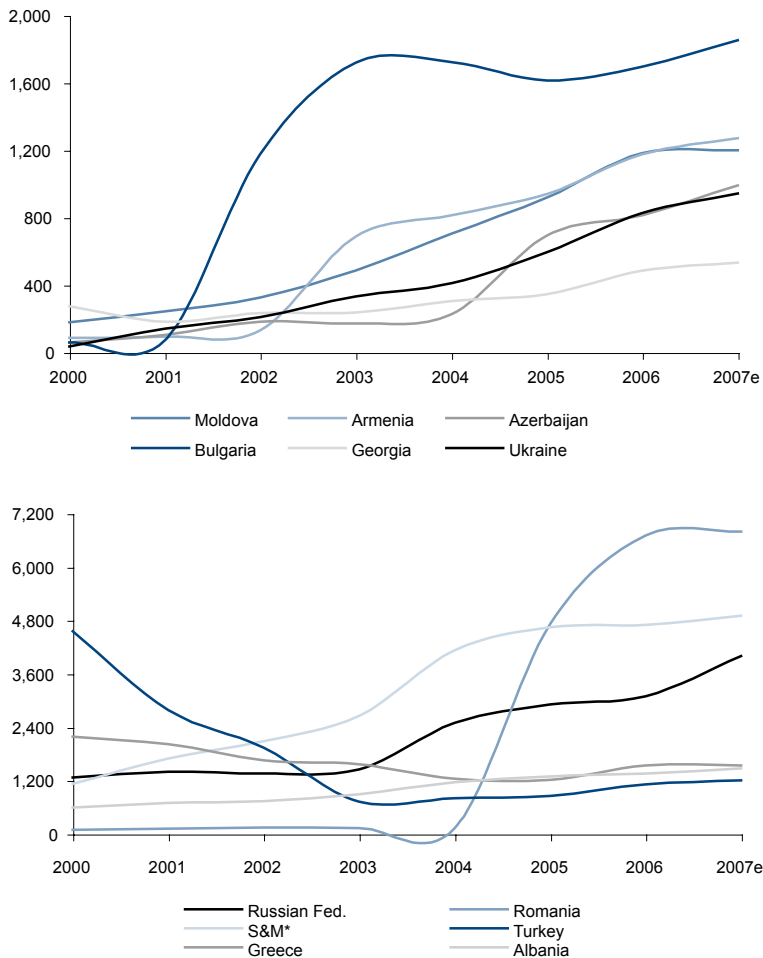
E. Remittances

An important migration issue in the Black Sea is the increasing role of remittances in economic development. According to the WB (2008), in 2007¹³ the countries of the Black Sea received USD 26.7 billion in remittances, 1.5 times more than in 2000. This amount reflects only officially recorded transfers; the actual amount including unrecorded flows through formal and informal channels is believed to be significantly larger. This figure shows that this region received 25.7 per cent of the total remittances sent to Europe and Central Asia and 8.4 per cent of the worldwide flows of remittances in 2007. At the national level, the country with the highest remittance flows in the region is Romania (25.4% of total flows), which is estimated to have received USD 6.8 billion in 2007, making it the tenth largest recipient of remittances of the world after India, India, China, Mexico, Philippines, France, Spain, Belgium, Germany and the U.K. (Ratha et al, 2007).

¹³ Data for 2007 should be considered as an estimate.

In terms of the evolution of remittance trends, all countries with the exception of Greece and Turkey have seen an increase in remittances during the period 2000-2007 (see Chart 26). Romania shows the highest increase in the region with an annualized growth rate of 84 per cent, followed by Bulgaria (64%), Ukraine (62%), Azerbaijan (50%), Armenia (47%), Moldova (31%), Serbia and Montenegro (23%), the Russian Federation (18%), Albania (14%) and Georgia with an annualized growth rate of 10 per cent. On the opposite line, Turkey has seen its remittances decrease at 17 per cent annually and Greece at 5 per cent.¹⁴

Chart 26: Remittance inflows, 2000 – 2007 (In millions USD)

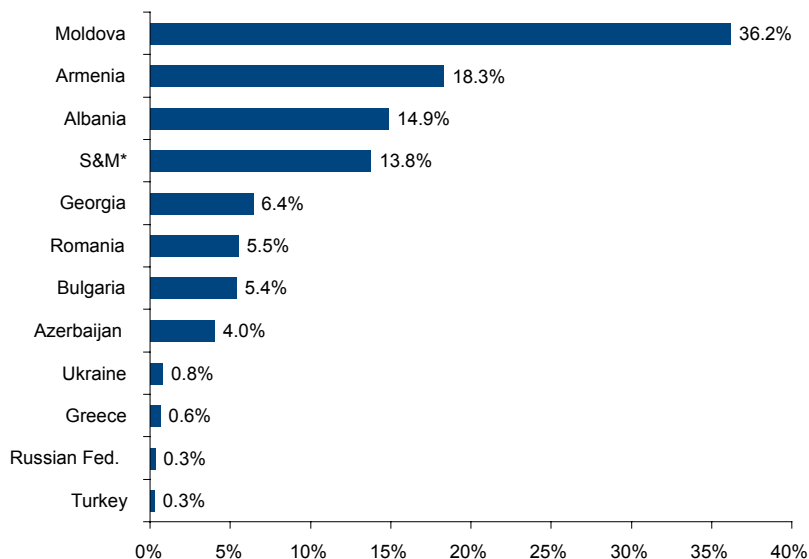


Source: World Bank, 2008

¹⁴ All annualized variation rates in this section are calculated using the compound annual growth rate (CAGR).

In addition, in 2007, in four countries in the region remittances accounted for more than ten per cent of gross domestic product (GDP) (see Chart 27): Moldova (36.2%), Armenia (18.3%), Albania (14.9%) and Serbia and Montenegro (13.8%) (World Bank, 2008). Compared to other countries in the world, Moldova is the top recipient country in terms of the share of remittances as a percentage of GDP together with Tajikistan (Ratha et al, 2007).

Chart 27: Remittance inflows, 2006
(As a % of GDP)



Note: *Serbia and Montenegro
Source: World Bank, 2008

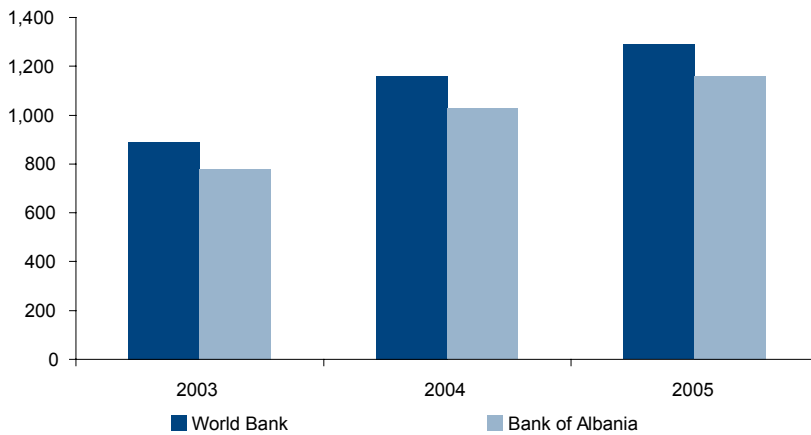
A comparison between the remittance trends from the two sources is shown in Chart 28 for Albania, Armenia and Georgia. It is interesting to see that for Albania and Armenia the figures coming from the WB are higher than the ones provided by the government, which can be explained by a difference in the definition of remittances but also implies that the latter do not take into account flows unrecorded by the IMF coming from informal channels. Data from Georgia, on the other hand, shows a reversal in the national remittance trend, which overpasses the WB/IMF one over the last two years. This may be explained by an improvement in the data collection system in the country which started gathering information from informal sources.

As explained in the first part of this regional overview, six of the countries analysed (Albania, Armenia, Bulgaria, Georgia, Romania and Turkey) provided

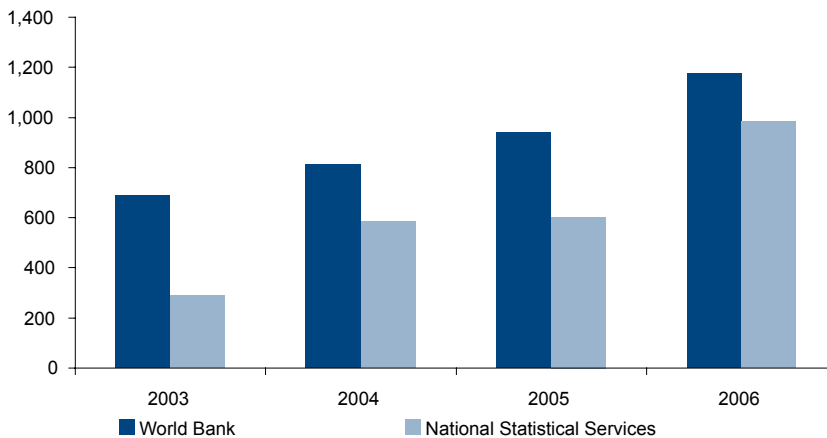
information on remittances from national sources (see Chart 28). As stated before, the advantage of having this information is that depending on the methodologies used for retrieving this information, it can be a better estimate of the amount of remittances received by the country. However, in general the national central banks do not provide descriptions of the methodologies used for collecting such data and therefore it is difficult to analyse what the figures account for.

Chart 28: Remittance inflows, World Bank and National Sources
(In millions USD)

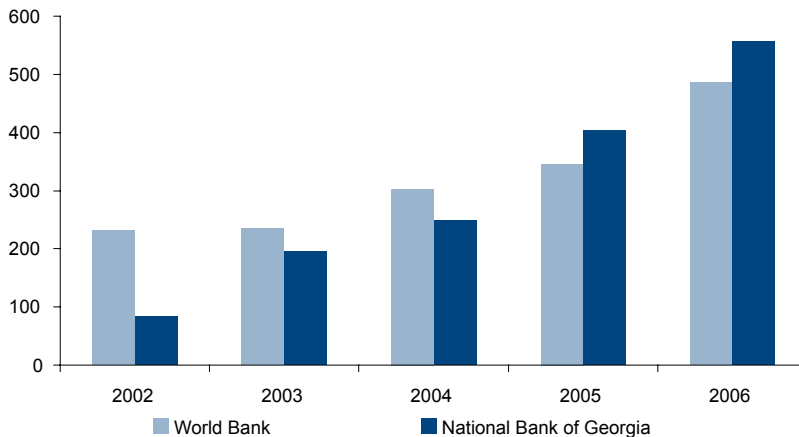
Albania, 2003-2005



Armenia, 2003-2006



Georgia, 2002-2006



Source: World Bank, 2008; Bank of Albania, 2004; National Statistical Services of the Republic of Armenia, 2004, 2007b; National Bank of Georgia, 2007a, 2007b, 2006.

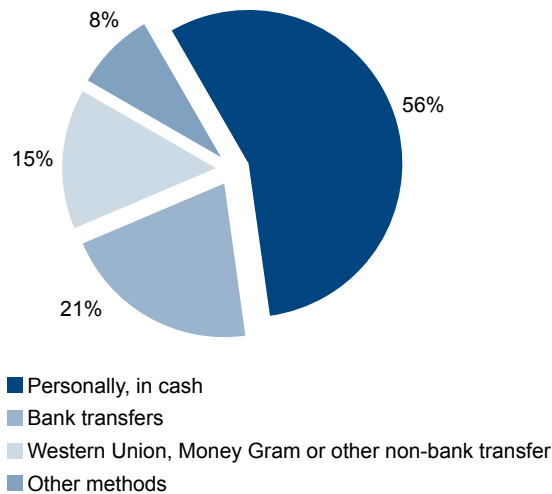
As explained earlier, compilation of accurate data on remittances remains a major challenge. In order to address the need of collection information from informal channels, a request was prepared by the G7 nations in June 2004, which encouraged the WB, the IMF and the UN, to lead an international working group to improve remittance statistics. This working group, now functioning as the “Luxembourg Group”, has recommended that three new items (personal remittances, total remittances, and total remittances and transfers to nonprofit institutions serving households) be added to the Balance of Payments Manual, 6th Edition (BPM6)¹⁵ (Ratha et al, 2007). However, in addition to collecting information from remittance service providers, nationally representative surveys of recipients and senders may have to be conducted for estimating the real flow of remittances.

Information on the different channels operating in the remittance receiving countries would be necessary to assess the extent of unrecorded flows. Even if information is not available for all the countries of the Black Sea, information shown for Bulgaria and Georgia in Chart 29 might be a good indicator of the reality of the region. This chart illustrates that in Bulgaria, 56 per cent of the money sent by migrants was remitted through informal channels in 2006 (in cash personally or through friends). The same is shown for Georgia, where 50 per cent of the

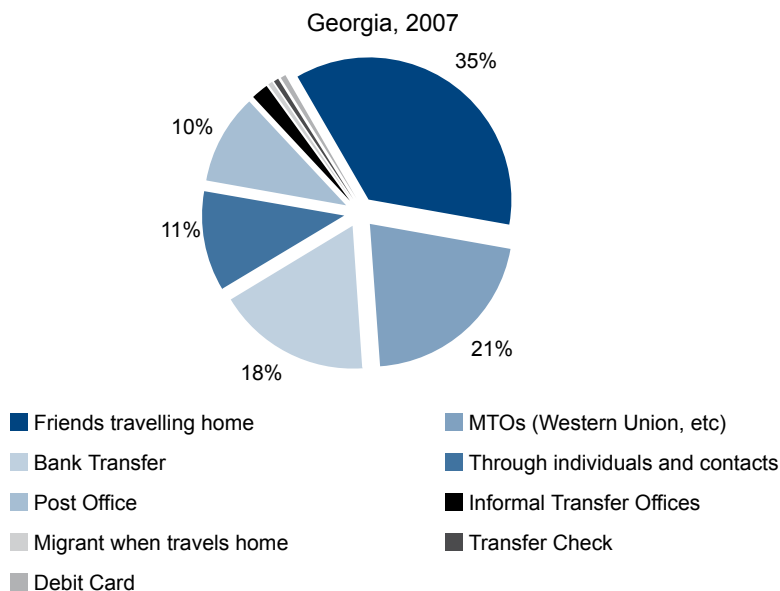
¹⁵ The Balance of Payments Manual is the international source of information on remittances to date. The new edition of this Manual, including the new items recommended by the G7 will be available by the end of 2008. For more information on this updated Manual please refer to: <http://www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/bop/2007/bopman6.htm>

remittances received by the country in 2007 were brought by migrants personally or sent with friends or individuals traveling home or through informal transfer offices. In addition to the need for improved methodologies to capture the real extent of remittances, this information underlines the importance of putting in place policies encouraging a shift in remittance sending from informal to formal channels. The development of remittance-linked financial products for better serving migrants, reducing the prices of transferring money and enhancing the impact of remittances are vital in this region. These changes may imply a shift from cash-based remittances to account-based remittances in the future, which according to some actors may also enhance the development impact of the transfers.¹⁶

Chart 29: Channels of remittance transfer, %
Bulgaria, 2006

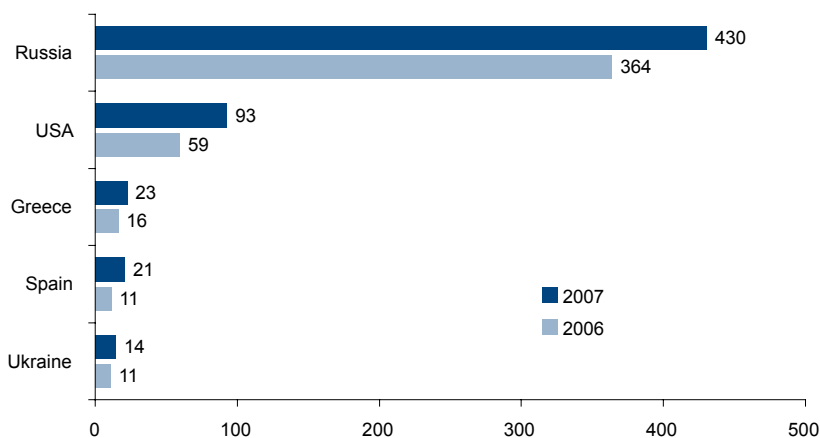


¹⁶ Account-to-account remittances can encourage more saving and better matching of available saving with investment opportunities, resulting in the benefits of financial deepening. Remittance services are often provided for free or for a low fee (as a “loss leader”) by banks as they gain the migrants as clients for their deposit, credit and other financial products. For example, Banks in Mexico, El Salvador, India, and the Philippines offer transnational consumer loans and mortgage loans. The World Council of Credit Unions provides remittance customers access to additional financial services. Ratha et al, 2007.



Data on remittances by sending countries, such as the one provided for Georgia in Chart 30 is also an important source of information for policy makers aiming at improving services for transferring money send by nationals abroad. Establishing multilateral and bilateral agreements with the main sending countries is one of the possible solutions for improving the efficiency of the formal transfer channels.

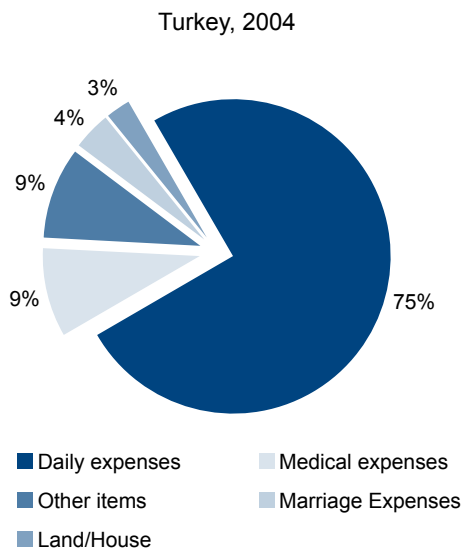
Chart 30: Georgia: remittance inflows, top 5 sending countries, 2006 - 2007
(In millions USD)



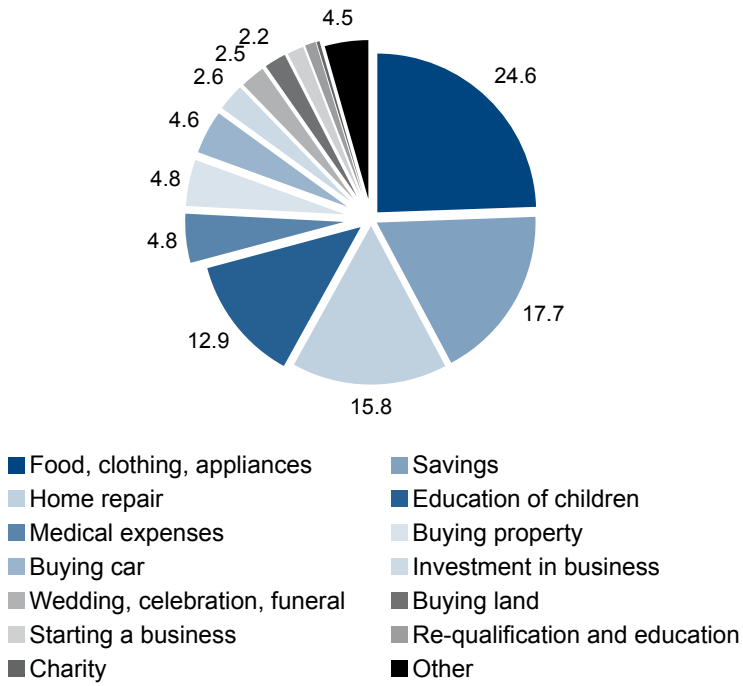
Source: National Bank of Georgia, 2007b.

Finally, in order to measure the development impact of remittances in the Black Sea region, information on the use of the received remittances will have to be collected in the first place. This information is not available from internationally comparable sources and therefore nationally representative surveys may have to be conducted of the recipients of remittances for estimating the effect of the received flows. Chart 31 gathers this type of information for Turkey and Romania. In Turkey a study produced by Koc and Onan (2004) shows that 84 per cent of the remittances sent home is spent on consumption, 9 per cent in social services and only 3 per cent in investment. It is possible to imply from this information that at this stage remittances in Turkey are not being used for development purposes and even though they may be improving the living standards of those left behind, remittances are far from becoming a sustainable source of development. In Romania, the figures released by CURS (2005) are more encouraging. Even if consumption still accounts for almost a third (27%) of the remittances sent home, investment is given the first priority by Romanians (32%). In addition, 19 per cent of the remittances received are used in social services (either in education or medical expenses) and 17.7 per cent in savings.

Chart 31: Use of remittances, %



Romania, 2005



Source: Koc and Onan, 2004; CURS, 2005.

V. MIGRATION POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE BLACK SEA REGION¹⁷

SUMMARY COMPILATION BASED ON THE 2008 COUNTRY PROFILES ON MIGRATION

Main considerations

- Migration touches all countries and requires a multidisciplinary approach that comprises various areas such as border security and crime prevention, economic and labour market developments, regional economic integration and protection of human rights;
- this kind of multidisciplinary approach for migration management in the BSEC region requires an effective fight against irregular migration flows and simultaneous facilitation of legal ones;
- coherence of national migration policies requires coordination and active cooperation among involved authorities.

Specific recommendations

1. Comprehensive, multiannual National Migration Strategies and Action Plans should be developed and migration issues should be included in national development strategies.
2. Where applicable, BSEC Member States are invited to ratify existing international instruments related to migration and the protection of migrant right.
3. Further dialogue and exchange of information should be developed – including the negotiation of bilateral labour migration agreements, rapid administrative procedures, quotas – among the BSEC Member States on their needs for labour force and possibilities for facilitated labour migration schemes.

¹⁷ As approved by the Black Sea Economic Cooperation Council of Ministers of Foreign Affairs at its Nineteenth meeting, held in Tirana on 23 October 2008.

4. Countries in the BSEC region which are attracting substantial immigrant flows are invited to introduce efficient and rapid immigration procedures for legal entry and stay of foreign citizens.
5. Free movement and visa-free zones, where they exist, should be respected and considered for further extension to include more countries in the region.
6. Support mechanisms for expatriates, including protection of their rights as foreigners and/or workers, and facilitation of their links with the home communities should be developed – including remittance transfer and the development of scientific, business and other types of networks.
7. Consular cooperation and access to consular support and counselling of expatriate workers abroad should be ensured and facilitated.
8. Productive investment of remittances in the countries of origin should be enhanced. For example, increasing opportunities for remittance recipients to start entrepreneurial activities, including entrepreneurial training and financial services to ensure access to micro-credit, soft loans and grants, insurance and cost effective transfer of remittances.
9. Partnerships among governmental and local authorities, diaspora, and international organizations should be enhanced and linked to the development agenda of the country of origin with a view to create opportunities for social investment and collective remittance projects and programmes. Governments are invited to put in place policies that encourage migrants to send remittances through formal channels.
10. BSEC Member States are invited to co-operate in combating irregular labour migration and undocumented employment of migrants, through monitoring mechanisms for migrant workers and the agencies carrying out recruitment and employment services, to prevent labour exploitation/trafficking and abusive practices of some of these operators including excessive charging of the workers for getting a job abroad.
11. Root causes leading to irregular migration as well as ways to address them should be considered and identified respectively.
12. Increased coordination in the compilation and regional exchange of data

on migration is needed. To better inform the knowledge base of policy-making, BSEC Member States are invited to:

- a. Harmonize and enhance the comparability of existing data, taking into consideration existing international standards on data collection;
 - b. improve the reliability and accurate interpretation of the data collected by clarifying definitional and source issues;
 - c. build capacity of government institutions involved in data collection and analysis such as statistical offices;
 - d. extend the scope of data collection and analysis to include categories such as of irregular employment of foreigners and emigrant flow indicators;
 - e. build the capacity of research institutions and civil society to monitor, collect data, and conduct research on migration issues;
 - f. produce regular updates of Migration Country Profiles, on a triennial basis, preferably updated every year.
13. Dialogue and cooperation between governments on migration issues should be enhanced at regional level, for instance through either the expansion of the Working Group on Combating Organized Crime or the creation of a new Working Group on Migration, within the BSEC framework. Participation of specialized international intergovernmental Organizations such as IOM should be encouraged.
14. The BSEC Liaison Officers Network on Combating Crime should be further used to address issues of main concern such as trafficking in human beings and smuggling.
15. The BSEC Member States are invited to emphasize the reintegration of returnees and implementation of reintegration programmes in negotiations of future readmission agreements between countries within the region, and between them and EU Member States.

16. The BSEC Member States are invited to consider asylum and refugee issues in the region as a clear priority for their governments' action. There is a need to facilitate and assist refugees and displaced in the region and to ensure effective identification of asylum seekers and protection of their rights to access asylum procedures.

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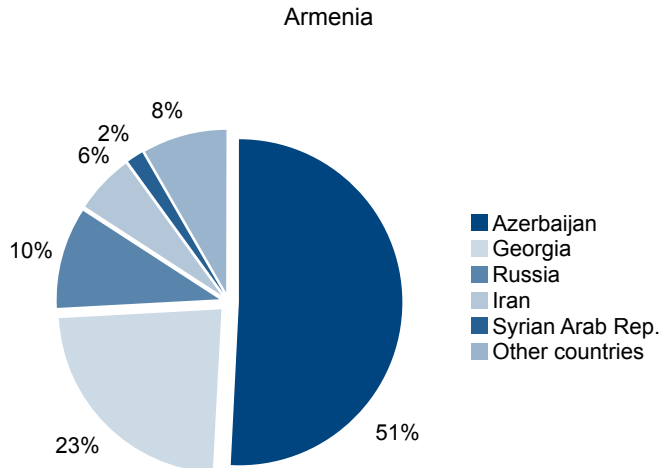
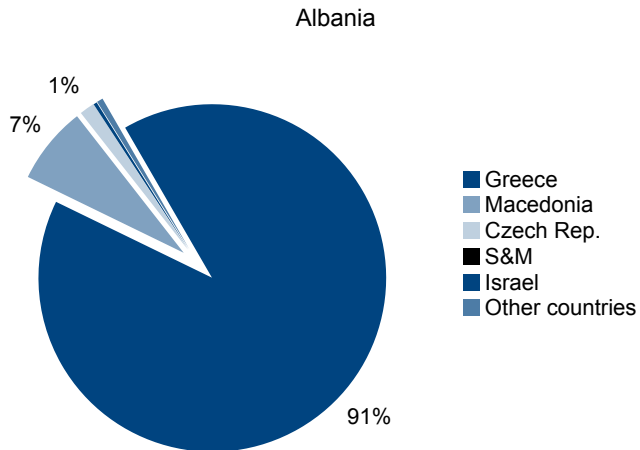
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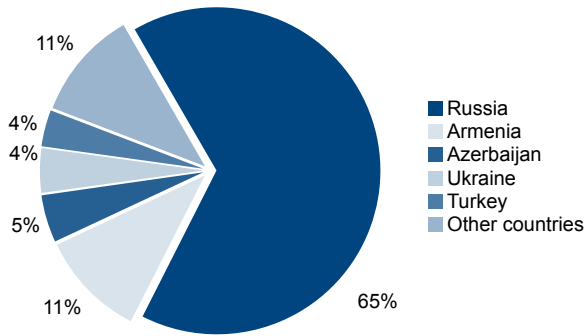
ANNEXES

ANNEX I

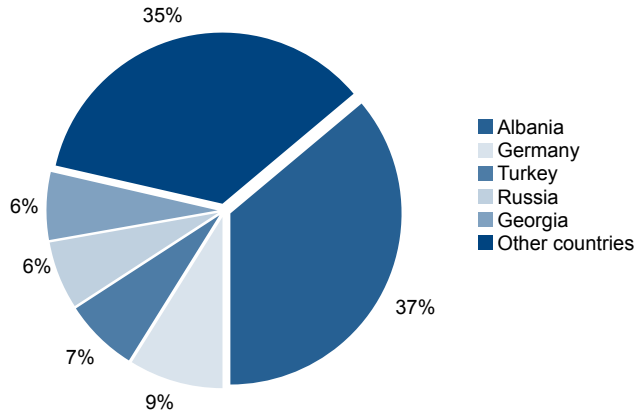
Immigrants by top 5 countries of origin, 2005



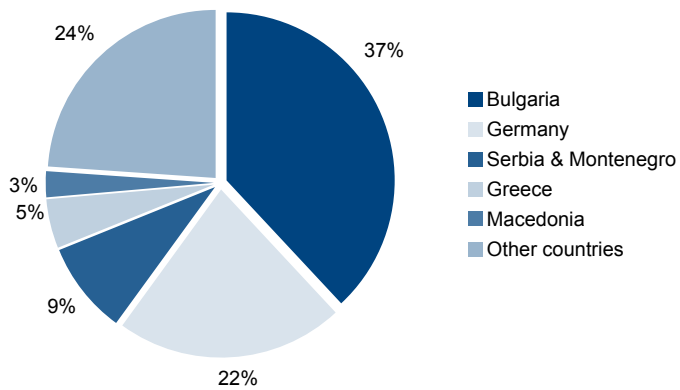
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Greece



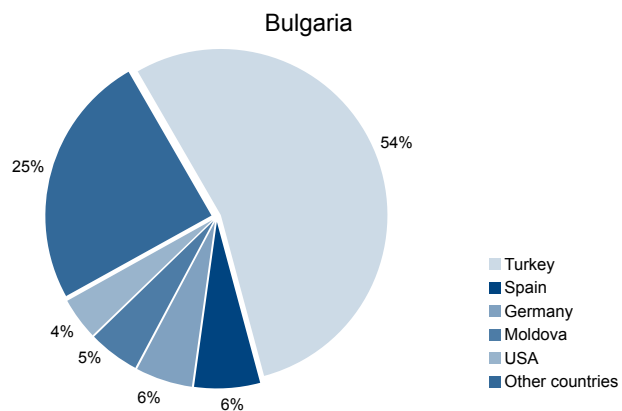
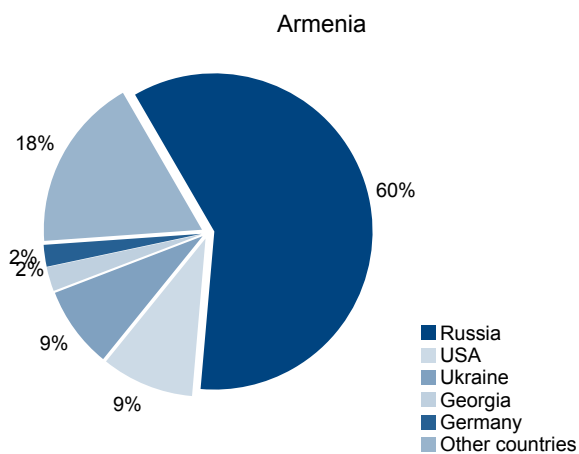
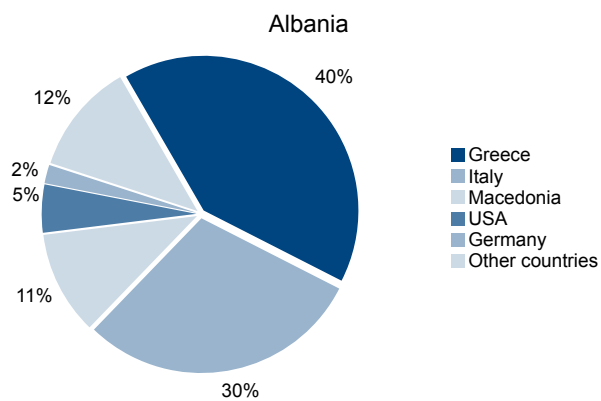
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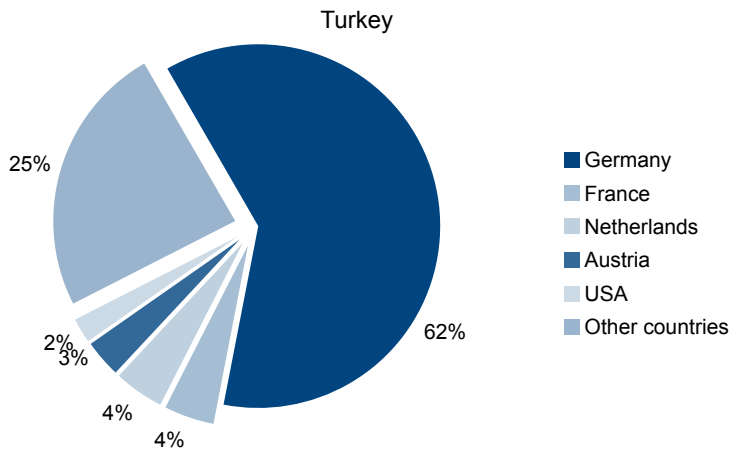
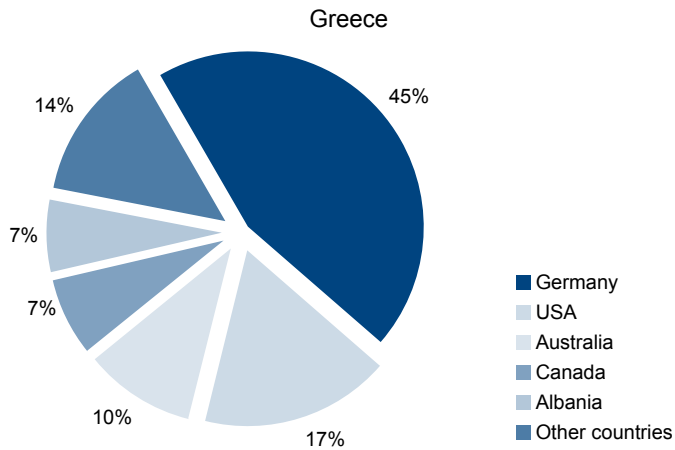
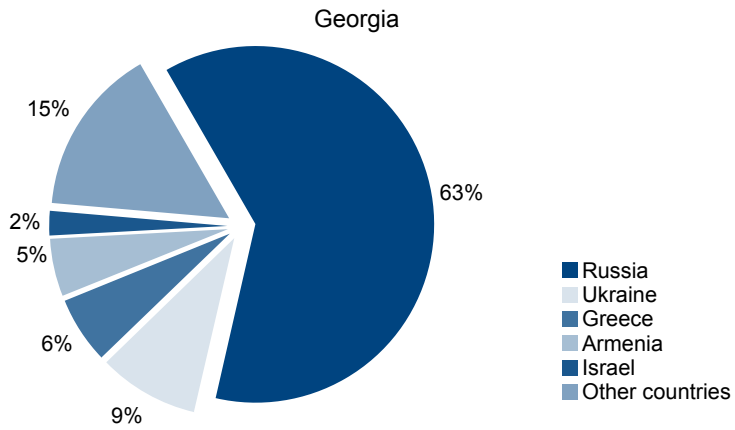


Source: Ratha and Shaw, 2007

ANNEX II

Emigrants by top 5 countries of destination, 2005





Source: Ratha and Shaw, 2007

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