

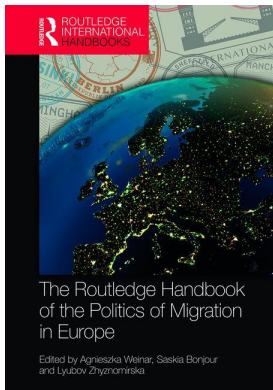
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### Apples and oranges?

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# 34

## APPLES AND ORANGES?

### Politics of data sources on international migration in Europe

*Anna Di Bartolomeo*

#### Introduction

Measuring international migration globally has proven to be a thorny issue. In many cases, data are not shared or simply not collected. And when data are both collected and available, their quantitative interpretation is undermined by reliability and comparability issues.

Since emigration and immigration are widely connected with issues of identity and nationhood, even agreeing on ‘what a migrant is and is not’ is an intrinsically subjective issue. The European continent is not an exception but, on the contrary, is a major example of how international migration statistics are susceptible to differences between countries and over time. And this is regardless of presumed cultural affinities in the region.

European states have measured, described and conceptualised migration in a large heterogeneous manner depending on their national and international histories, citizenship laws, societal evolution and historical migration experiences. In addition, because statistics are produced on the basis of data that are routinely collected by state administrations, and because migration implies not one but two geographical ends to be considered, data collection and dissemination is difficult and multifaceted by nature. Consequently, while international migration is today a key issue in all European societies, the availability, reliability and comparability of statistics (even very basic) on this phenomenon are extremely poor and hardly allow for making informed decisions. This heterogeneity partially reflects differences between the historical experience, cultural characteristics and national values of individual European countries.

This chapter addresses the following questions. To what extent is international migration differently conceived and conceptualised in European states? How are these differences reflected by national data collection systems? What is the role played by identity and nationhood in this process? What are the main limitations when trying to harmonise or simply aggregate these statistics?

In an attempt to answer these questions, the chapter analyses European approaches with respect to *three key concepts* in the measurement of international migration: who, what and how we measure. Migrant definitions, contents and data sources are thus reviewed while major cross-country European differences are highlighted.

In sum, the chapter identifies four country groups sharing similar approaches, constraints and categories in the collection of international migration data in view of their identity and historical

common backgrounds: (a) European countries with a long and significant colonial history which mainly attracted migrants from their former colonies; (b) southern European countries which have recently evolved from being emigration to immigration countries; (c) countries characterised by guest-worker labour migration recruitment schemes which all received significant inward labour migration in the post-war period until the oil crisis of 1974; and (d) European post-Soviet countries which experience intense ethnic and labour migration exchanges.

The final chapter presents conclusions as well as discusses recent efforts and future steps for fostering a better conceptualisation and harmonisation of European international migration statistics.

### Measuring international migration: who, what and how?

The frame of European international migration statistics is shaped by how three key concepts are conceptualised and employed: *who*, *what* and *how* are we measuring? Table 34.1 well summarises some issues that may emerge by indiscriminately mixing such concepts.

In France, in 2005, according to *official* sources, the *stock* of Moroccan migrants living in France did vary from a minimum of 461,465 to a maximum of 1,036,909 persons. Such a huge data discrepancy depends on a variety of factors that have to do with who we mean by ‘migrant’ (definition) and how migrants are counted (source).

The first three estimates reflect three different criteria that can be used to define migrants. The lowest number (461,465) identifies Moroccan migrants by the ‘country of citizenship’ criterion, i.e. people holding only Moroccan citizenship. The foreign population, however, cannot be considered a good *proxy* of international migration because as soon as migrants acquire the citizenship of the country of destination, they simply disappear from this category. This is a serious limitation in France and, more generally, in all countries characterised by fast citizenship acquisition procedures. In Europe, for instance, this is frequently the case for countries with a long colonial history, as well for post-Soviet states, where some migrant groups benefit from facilitation procedures for getting citizenship. Adopting this criterion in such contexts is thus challenging because it results in a severe *underestimation* of international migration. A much higher estimate (837,840) identifies Moroccan migrants by the ‘country of birth’ criterion, i.e. as people born in Morocco. Although this estimate allows for capturing naturalised people in the data, it is also not exempt from limitations. In France, the *born-abroad* population also includes a high number of people who were born abroad with French nationality and later returned to

Table 34.1 Moroccan migrants in France, 2005

<i>Stock vs. Flow: what?</i>	<i>Source: how?</i>	<i>Criterion: who?</i>	<i>Number</i>
Stock	French source (Census)	Country of citizenship	461,465
		Country of birth	837,840
		Immigrés	663,985
Flows	Moroccan source (consular records)	Country of citizenship (incl. naturalised people)	1,036,909
		ANAEM (*)	Country of citizenship

Note

(\*) ANEAM stands for *Agence Nationale de l'Accueil des Etrangers et des Migrations*.

France. They are the children of the so-called *rapatriés*, i.e. people who a) were residing in a former French colony before its independence; b) were French citizens at the moment the state became independent and c) had fled the colony because of political reasons linked to the independence. Conceptually, their presence in France cannot be seen as a consequence of immigration *stricto sensu* but rather of emigration flows related to specific administrative and economic relations during the colonial times. This is, again, relevant for all big colonial powers that made it easier for their own citizens to participate in the colonial governance system (by sending government officials for long-term assignments and rotating them) and in economic ventures (by facilitating the movement of business people and workers between the colonies for various ventures). Those dynamics resulted in whole families moving through colonial networks (Dufoix *et al.* 2010). To overcome these estimation problems, French statistical authorities created a new category of people that could be used to proxy *real* international migrants. They are the *immigrés*: people who were *born abroad* with a *foreign nationality at birth*. This new ad hoc category allows the data to capture those who have acquired French citizenship during their life and to exclude children of *rapatriés*. In so doing, it gives a highly accurate and up to date estimate of French immigration in consequence of its colonial recent past.

At the same time, more than one million Moroccans are persons registered by Moroccan consular records. In this case, the data discrepancy is due not to the criterion (who) but to the source (how) that is used. This is the highest estimate, as it likely includes Moroccan descendants of second and third generation as well as a portion of irregular migrants who are willing to be in a regular position at least with their country of origin's authorities (Fargues 2005).

In addition, we should add that when looking at *flows* (last row, Table 34.1) – that is, the annual number of Moroccan migrants moving from Morocco to France in 2005 – the number clearly drops to around 20,000 people. Unlike stock measures – which denote the (cumulated) story of migration from country *x* to country *y* – flow statistics identify the propensity to migrate in a specific period of time, normally one year.

This example shows that official and validated migration statistics may vary without necessarily giving wrong estimates. Data discrepancies depend on how these three concepts (who, what and how) are used and mixed. The following paragraphs will focus upon these concepts while also highlighting cross-country differences.

### ***Who do we measure? Definitional issues in international migration statistics***

Deciding 'who is and who is not' an international migrant is not straightforward. European states do show a high degree of cross-country heterogeneity while – even within countries – definitions have been frequently changed and adapted to evolving historical situations.

Overall, there are two main approaches for defining who an international migrant is: the *geopolitical* and the *duration* approaches. Within the former, three main criteria are used: (a) country of usual residence; (b) country of birth; and (c) country of citizenship. A highly controversial criterion that is sometimes adopted to complement the previous ones is ethnicity.

In Europe, the *country of usual residence* is not used because it does not allow for distinguishing between first-time and return migrants, the latter being emigrants who later return home. Instead, both the *country of birth* and the *country of citizenship* criteria are usually collected in population statistics, though to a different extent between countries depending on national histories, needs and migration characteristics. In particular, as recommended by the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs Statistics Division (UNDESA, 1998), the country of birth is preferred since migrants continue being migrants (with all the related challenges and benefits) independently of whether he/she becomes a naturalised citizen of their host country.

Rules and practices for acquiring citizenship differ across European countries, as well. Though a better choice, considering the population born abroad as the migrant population is still problematic in some national and regional contexts.

For instance, in those countries that have only recently evolved from emigration to immigration countries, the born-abroad population also includes a significant portion of children of emigrants who were born in traditional European emigration countries and later returned to the country of origin of their parents. Accordingly, they are a product of emigration rather than immigration dynamics. These flows are quite significant and cannot be ignored: see for instance the case of emigrants' children returning to Italy from Germany or Switzerland (Bonifazi and Heins 1996) or to Poland from post-Soviet states (Fihel *et al.* 2008, Gońda 2017). Here, the country of citizenship criterion has long been preferred over the country of birth criterion. Overall, states' recognition of their diasporas worldwide and their attempts to maintain links with their members in order to boost economic and political development at home largely explain their approaches.

The adoption of the country of birth criterion is also problematic for countries with a long colonial history. Here – as noted above in the French case – this population is indeed likely to include the born-abroad descendants of people who emigrated from the country during the colonial period.

Another controversial case for the application of this criterion is when political borders are contested or have changed. The most relevant example is that of post-Soviet countries, where the born-abroad population scarcely reflects the reality of international migration movements. Let's take the example of Russia. In 2010, international migrants are estimated at over 12 million (population born abroad) and less than one million people (foreign citizens) according to, respectively, United Nations (UN) estimates (UNDESA 2012) and Russian official statistics (i.e. the Census). The former estimate is composed primarily of: people of Russian descent who were born in the USSR and who, after the dissolution of the USSR, returned *en masse* to their parents' home country; and other ethnic groups who migrated during the post-Soviet period. These people are perceived as *ethnic* Russians, rather than international migrants. The same applies, for instance, to Poland. In a recent study, Barrett (2012) reports that this country appears to have the highest proportion of non-EU immigrants (of the total population) receiving welfare provisions. This figure does, however, include all pensioners who were born before 1945 in parts of Ukraine and Belarus, which were then part of Poland, and who moved with their families to post-1945 Poland as ethnic Poles. They were simply following the changing border. This is the main reason why in this region authorities collect data on 'ethnicity' in most statistical sources. This category, sometimes regarded with suspicion by western statisticians due to its high degree of subjectivity, is thus fundamental in Eastern European statistical assets.

The country of citizenship variable is also widely collected in most European countries. In spite of its limitations, this criterion allows the identification of the population who do not necessarily have social and economic rights, i.e. the target of integration policies. Its main drawbacks, however, include the fact that migrants disappear from statistics as soon as they get citizenship. This leads to a huge underestimation of international migrants, especially in those countries characterised by fast or simplified procedures for getting citizenship. In Russia, for instance, some foreign groups can easily acquire Russian citizenship. In addition, the foreign population often includes a portion of people who have never migrated, i.e. second-generation migrants, especially in those countries with a rigid *jus sanguinis* law.

When looking at the duration criterion, other issues and discrepancies between European states emerge. In particular, according to the UN definition, short-term migrants are those people who changed their country of usual residence for a period between three and 12 months,

whereas those who stay more than 12 months are long-term migrants. In this case, European countries pursue many different approaches, which reflects their differing views of what temporary and permanent migration is. There is no common agreement from a statistical perspective either.

A major limitation of this criterion is, in fact, the difficulty of standardising it. Normally, migration statistics are generated from a population register (a file of persons residing in the country). To be registered in it, a person coming from outside the country must intend to stay for more than a specified *minimum period*. This period varies widely between countries – ranging from one week in Germany, to three months in Belgium and 12 months in Sweden. This implies that in countries where the duration threshold is lower, more short-term movements will be counted while the opposite will occur where this threshold is higher. In Sweden, paradoxically, no short-term movements are registered. Another limitation of this approach is that different categories are put together and therefore they do not reflect migration realities. Temporary migrants with a permit for less than 12 months can be family members as well as students. However, while international students or seasonal workers intend to stay on a temporary basis, family members do not. This is reflected by the fact that permits for the former are renewable for a limited number of times – if at all – and are indefinitely renewable for the latter. As mentioned above, substantial differences are observed between countries.<sup>1</sup> Another major problem with counting temporary migrants concerns all cases where bilateral agreements exist for visa-free circulation.

### ***What and how are we measuring? Contents and data sources***

The issue of *what* and *how* international migrants are measured is also not straightforward. With regard to the former, one can measure migrants' stocks or flows. While stocks target lifetime migrants and denote the (cumulated) history of migration from country *x* to country *y*, flows express the propensity to move between two countries in a given period of time (normally one year). Stocks and flows are nevertheless linked to each other by the population balance of the international migrant population within a year.<sup>2</sup>

Concerning the latter, data sources denote a 'specific data set, metadata set, database or metadata repository from which data or metadata are available'.<sup>3</sup> Demographically speaking, data sources target a) the resident or *de jure* population, i.e. people regularly domiciled in the country at the time of the Population Census; and b) the present or *de facto* population, i.e. people who are actually present in the country on the date of the Population Census (even if domiciled somewhere else).

Data sources can also be classified according to different criteria and this explains the high degree of heterogeneity between countries in this regard. They can be classified in primary vs. secondary; administrative vs. statistical; etc. Of particular interest for migration studies in Europe is the classification between migration sources' direct and indirect measurement. The same person can indeed be counted as an 'emigrant' from the origin country and an 'immigrant' from the destination country. Although getting direct estimates is certainly straightforward (Fargues 2005; UNDESA 1998), indirect methods are valid substitutes in certain cases.

For instance, in the case of semi-open border regimes – such as the Commonwealth of Independent States area – circular migrants do not need to apply for work permits when performing seasonal or temporary jobs. This leads to the paradoxical situation in which their numbers and profiles are simply unknown. In response to these challenges, Moldovan authorities for instance have developed an ad hoc module on emigration in their annual Labour Force Survey (LFS). The LFS contains a section in which family members of an emigrant are asked to answer a

battery of questions on the international mobility of their family members and other contextual aspects (remittances, etc.). This instrument is a powerful tool for a variety of reasons. First, it is a longitudinal study that is useful for studying migration circularity patterns and detecting causality. Second, it is rich with information from the individual and contextual level. Third, and most importantly, it allows for capturing a large part of ‘invisible’ migrants from a statistical viewpoint. Conversely, a major drawback is that it does not capture migrants with no family members left behind. In other words, it is a powerful tool for estimating *temporary* rather than *permanent migration*. This is exemplified by Table 34.2, which shows the number of Moldovan migrants living in Russia (a) and Italy (b) in 2010 as counted by Russian, Italian and Moldovan data sources.

Russia and Italy are the two major destinations of Moldovan migrants. While Russia is home to seasonal and circular Moldovan male migrants performing seasonal activities in construction and manufacturing industries, Italy has long been a primary destination for female – but also male – Moldovans on a more permanent basis. As a matter of fact, Moldovan sources give a much more up to date – and larger – estimate of migrants living in Russia than of those living in Italy, where instead they tend to underestimate their presence (Table 34.2). A major reason for this discrepancy is the character of Moldovan migration, which is typified by temporary work in Russia and permanent settlement in Italy.

### Differences and commonalities within Europe: an attempt at classification

The way that migration is perceived and data are collected is extremely heterogenous in the European continent, not only between states but also within the same state at different points in time. Despite this heterogeneity, we make an attempt at classification and, in line with previous works (see e.g. Fassmann *et al.*, 2009), we identified four ‘European statistical groups’, all of which share similar approaches, issues, needs and priorities in terms of conceptualising, modelling and collecting international migration statistics.

The first group includes European countries with a long colonial history, namely Belgium, France, the Netherlands and the UK. All of these countries are characterised by massive inflows of labour migration during the 1960s, originating in their former colonies. Today, with the

Table 34.2 Moldovan migrants living in Russia (a) and Italy (b) according to different sources, 2010

2.a		
Source	Russian source	Moldovan source
Population Census	34,000	
Work Permits	72,233	
Labour Force Survey		195,700
2.b		
Source	Italian source	Moldovan source
Population Register	174,129	
Labour Force Survey		60,300

exception of the UK, family-related migration is the major channel of entry for new migrants. As a consequence of these legacies and smooth citizenship acquisition laws, acquiring the citizenship of these countries is a quite straightforward procedure, in particular for nationals coming from their former colonies. The acquisition of citizenship is here perceived as a requisite to facilitating a smooth and effective integration of migrants. As a consequence, in all of these states, the foreign population is not a good *proxy* for identifying international migrants. At the same time, the country of birth also has some notable limitations. For instance, there is a risk that the children of nationals who emigrated at the time of the colonial period will be considered immigrants as well.

Each of these states has tried arranging its statistical system to better reflect the reality of immigration. French statistical authorities invented the *immigrés* category for these purposes, as we have already discussed. In spite of its advantages, however, this category has certain limitations: people originating in the French Overseas Departments and Territories and their descendants are not included; third generation migrants are lost; and it does not allow for capturing *visible minorities* (Simon and Clément 2006). In the Netherlands, statistical authorities introduced the notion of ‘Dutch’ vs. ‘foreign background’. The former group includes persons whose parents were both born in the Netherlands while the latter includes people having at least one parent who was born abroad. In addition to the country of birth and citizenship variables, this information allows for better circumscribing the immigrant population. The UK is a case in point. While there is no specific definition of who a migrant is, the law makes a clear distinction between those who have the ‘right of abode’ in the UK (all British citizens *plus* a small minority of Commonwealth citizens) and those who do not have this right. In addition, data sources are extremely heterogeneous. The ‘foreign-born’ population criterion is normally used by the LFS and the Annual Population Survey. This definition is consistent, and corresponds to a common understanding of migration. However, many foreign-born people are also British citizens, and thus would not count as migrants if defined by nationality. Nor are they subject to immigration control. A migrant may be alternatively defined as a ‘foreign national’ using, for instance, data obtained from National Insurance Number (NINo) applications. A crucial peculiarity that makes the UK data collection system unique in the western European continent is the collection of the variable ‘ethnicity’. The interest in the ethnic composition of the population is an Anglo-Saxon inheritance and – despite the huge debate existing around its substantive meaning (Aspinall 2002), its connection with the category ‘race’ (Kertzer and Arel 2002) and its ‘stability’ over time (Simpson and Akinwale 2007) – remains a powerful category in the monitoring of discrimination and ethnic relations within British society. On the opposite side, Belgian statistics are the most restrictive. Migrant definitions and sources only focus on the foreign population and the country of citizenship criterion, although some limited attempts on collecting data on ethnic minorities has been observed over time (see e.g. Hanquinet *et al.* 2006).

The second group is composed of countries that recently evolved from being emigration countries to being immigration countries. As countries with a very long emigration tradition, the main mode of automatic acquisition of nationality in all these countries is *jus sanguinis*, so as to support an easy and fast acquisition of nationality by descent (rather than by birthplace). For example, the Spanish Civil Code embraces an unqualified *jus sanguinis* in favour of those born of a Spanish mother or father who become nationals regardless of whether they were born in Spain or outside of the country. However, certain *jus soli* elements are observed (Marín *et al.* 2015). Similarly, Greek nationality law is based on the automatic acquisition of the father’s citizenship at birth, irrespective of where the child is born. In Italy, due to its late national unity and its policy of nurturing relationships with the Italian communities abroad, the Italian Citizenship Act does put a major emphasis on the *jus sanguinis* principle, too. Moreover, just after



the promulgation of the (new) Citizenship Act in 1992, a special temporary programme made it possible for the descendants of Italian emigrants to claim their Italian nationality (Zincone and Basili 2013). Conversely, the rules for getting Italian citizenship for immigrants are extremely restrictive (ibid.). In Portugal, by contrast, the long tradition of favouring *jus soli* mechanisms of citizenship acquisition was interrupted by the 1981 Act that, in the context of a large Portuguese emigration, introduced the prevalence of the *jus sanguinis* principle. In 2006, this principle was reinforced by a reform that broadened the modes for the acquisition of Portuguese citizenship (Piçarra and Gil 2012).

National statistical assets reflect these approaches. On the one hand, statistical sources have been slowly adapted to focus on inward migration rather than outward migration, for instance by inserting the question about citizenship. On the other hand, the immigrant population is strictly identified as people who have a foreign nationality, regardless of where they were born. Crossing a border does not imply necessarily 'being a migrant', as emigrants' descendants are still seen as integral parts of their nationhood. With regard to harmonising European statistics, this has certainly been a huge limitation. For instance, only very recently, Greek, Portuguese and Italian statistics started to disseminate information on the foreign-born under the Eurostat statistical category 'Demography and Migration'.<sup>4</sup>

A third group identifies those countries that developed significant post-1945 guest-worker schemes attracting southern European migrants first, and workers from non-European Communities later. In Austria, Germany and Switzerland, immigration and its consequences has always been perceived as 'temporary'. Migrants were supposed to arrive, work and later return to their home countries. Migrants have long been perceived as temporary workers without access to citizenship and rights. In these highly segmented societies, access to citizenship has been conceived as a very final process of integration rather than a way to facilitate it (Reeger and Sievers 2009). Accordingly, not only are their citizenship laws all strictly based on the *jus sanguinis* principle but also, they all set highly restrictive rules – albeit alleviated over time – for the not-at-birth acquisition of citizenship.

Statistical definitions and data sources reflect this policy of 'exclusion'. Migrants are strictly identified as the foreign population and are recorded in special temporary registers, namely in the 'guest-worker register' in Austria (now abolished), the 'Central Register of Foreign Nationals' (Ausländerzentralregister) in Germany and a 'special register' in Switzerland.

When measuring international immigration, the fourth group, which includes EU (Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland, Slovakia and Romania) and non-EU (Belarus, Moldova, Russia and Ukraine) post-Soviet states, faces a number of issues that concern both definitions and sources.

As regards the former, the dissolution of the Soviet Union created an exceptional number of 'statistical migrants' (Mansoor and Quillin 2006) for two sets of reasons. First, despite the fact that migration to the west was formally prohibited, living and working in a Soviet republic other than the place of birth was common in the communist period. As soon as the Soviet Union dissolved and borders were reshuffled in 1992, these people become international migrants overnight, lost in 'accidental diasporas' (Brubaker 2000) even though they had *never crossed* an international border. Second, in the 1990s, we saw massive return migrations of people descended from parents in a post-Soviet state who simply returned to their parents' home country. These people were called 'ethnic migrants', as they were perceived as part of the nationhood rather than as foreigners. This is why – in contrast with western European statistical tradition – the variable 'ethnicity' has acquired a high value in framing the notion of migration within the area. Indeed, in all of these states, the majority of population sources ask for ethnic origins as well as birth and nationality.

In addition to these inheritances, the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) region is challenged by two other issues that make measuring international migration problematic. From a cultural, linguistic and historical viewpoint, this region remains a common area for most of the population (Tishkov *et al.* 2005). As a consequence, there are no visa requirements for crossing internal CIS borders. In addition, when migrating for work reasons on a seasonal or circular basis, people do not have to obtain a permit. Again, they are perceived as guests – or simply internal migrants – moving within consolidated historical legacies. This implies that temporary migrant workers are simply invisible to destination countries' statistics since no administrative data source has been established to count them. This is the reason why 'counting migrants at origin' through ad hoc surveys (e.g. LFS) is frequently advocated as a powerful method for estimating international migration within the CIS region (Makaryan 2015).

## Conclusions

This chapter delved into the complex issue of how international migration has been measured in the European continent. It showed that measuring international migration is problematic and that any attempt to harmonise statistics is challenging. Basic issues include the establishment of who is a migrant (a definitional issue), what is measured (stock or flows?) and how the movements are measured (i.e. which is the best source to capture whom and what we are interested in?). These basic concepts show a high degree of heterogeneity between countries and across time within the same country.

This complexity depends on the fact that both emigration and immigration are widely connected with issues of identity and nationhood. In this framework, the European continent represents a major example of the extent to which national histories, cultural and historical legacies, citizenship laws and political frameworks may have an impact on what – at least in principle – should be objectively determined: the number and profiles of international migrants originating in country *x* and living in country *y*. Even defining 'what a migrant is and is not' intrinsically represents a subjective issue that is seen differently by law experts, social scientists and policy makers.

More importantly, this chapter shows that even 'objective' sciences – such as statistics – encounter a number of problems when trying to circumscribe populations. Developing data collection methods and defining data sources greatly depends on different national approaches and histories. With this in mind, we showed the extent to which the frame of European international migration statistics is shaped by how three key concepts – *who*, *what* and *how* are we measuring? – are conceptualised and employed across the continent.

Overall, the statistical heterogeneity in the measurement of international migration is a central issue not only for the whole European continent but also for the EU. Notwithstanding its continuous efforts to provide technical guidance, standardising concepts, definitions<sup>5</sup> and data sources,<sup>6</sup> the measurement and comparison of international migration in Europe is still a major issue, and a victim of other political and statistical priorities. It is becoming even clearer now, in the wake of the EU migrant crisis, that a century of ignored recommendations cannot be solved in a day.

## Notes

- 1 This is why the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) proposed the introduction of a new criterion that would allow the consideration of whether or not these persons are on a 'migration track' that normally leads to permanent residence. Concretely, the idea is to switch from a 'time-basis' approach to a criterion that combines stay and residence rights and tries to capture

- the nature of the movement. In particular, the OECD suggests distinguishing between permanent type migration permits for persons granted the right of permanent residence upon entry and for those with a permit of limited duration that is indefinitely renewable, and temporary type migration permits which would instead include temporary visitors and persons granted a permit of limited duration that is not renewable on a limited basis (Lemaitre 2005).
- 2 For instance, we consider the population born abroad, the stock of migrants at time  $t$  (31/12/2010) equals the stock of migrants at time  $t-1$  (1/1/2009) – deaths born abroad within 2009 (flows) + immigrants (flows) – emigrants (flows).
  - 3 <https://stats.oecd.org/glossary/detail.asp?ID=7045>.
  - 4 <http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database>.
  - 5 See, for instance ‘UN Recommendations on Statistics of International Migration, Revision I, 1998’; the 2004 EC-project ‘Towards Harmonised European Statistics on International Migration’; the ‘European Parliament and Council Regulation (EC) No 862/2007’ on Community statistics on migration and international protection and repealing Council Regulation (EEC) No 311/76 on the compilation of statistics on foreign workers; the ‘Commission Regulation (EU) No 351/2010’ implementing Regulation (EC) No 862/2007 of the European Parliament and of the Council on Community statistics on migration and international protection as regards the definitions of the categories of the groups of country of birth, groups of country of previous usual residence, groups of country of next usual residence and groups of citizenship.
  - 6 See indicators, variables and metadata of the Eurostat database (<http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database>) and of the main ad hoc EU surveys (EU-LFS and EU-SILC).

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