

International Migration Outlook



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ORGANISATION FOR ECONOMIC CO-OPERATION AND DEVELOPMENT

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Foreword

For the past thirty years, the OECD's Continuous Reporting System on Migration (known by its French acronym SOPEMI) has been producing an annual report. In 1992, the report first appeared as a flagship publication of the OECD, under the title Trends in International Migration. The thirtieth report broadens its analytical scope and its new title, International Migration Outlook, better reflects the growing importance of international migration in a context of accelerating economic globalisation and population ageing.

The current report is divided into four parts and a statistical annex. Part I describes overall trends in international migration. For the first time, the report presents harmonised statistics on long-term international immigration flows for most OECD countries. It underlines the growing importance of recent entries from Russia, the Ukraine, China and Latin America, as well as trends in increasing feminisation of the flows. Family migration still dominates, while asylum requests continue to decline. Meanwhile, migration for employment is on the increase. Immigrants present a growing share of the labour force, but some have difficulties integrating into the labour market. Particular attention is paid to the employment of immigrant women and the report proposes specific measures to facilitate their integration into the labour market. Part I finishes with an overview of migration policies, especially those which aim to regulate migration flows, assist immigrants to integrate into host countries, and reinforce international co-operation between sending and receiving countries.

Parts II and III are devoted to topical issues. The first addresses the question of the management of migration inflows through quotas and numerical limits, and evaluates the efficiency of such tools. The second analyses the links between migration, remittances and development. Part IV contains re-designed country notes with new standardised tables describing recent developments in migration movements and policies in OECD countries, and in some non-member countries. Finally, a statistical annex presents the latest data on foreign and foreign-born populations, foreign workers, migration flows and naturalisations.

This book has...



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Editorial

Managing Migration – A Delicate Balancing Act

With an increase in migration and developing labour shortages, migration has jumped up the policy agenda in OECD countries...

International migration has jumped up the policy agenda in most OECD countries over the past decade. There are several reasons for this. First, immigration flows grew rapidly during the 1990s and are now growing again, using at times irregular or unconventional channels (asylum seeking, tourism overstaying). There are currently close to three million long-term immigrants entering OECD countries legally every year, and even more temporary movements, if international students are included (see Chapter 1). And this does not count unauthorised movements. Secondly, with ageing populations and falling interest in certain occupations in OECD countries (sciences, building trades), it is expected that there will be need for more worker immigration in the near future.

This will only be possible if past and current immigrants, who are more and more numerous, are seen to be integrating without difficulty in the host country. Immigrant performance on the labour market, however, for both past and recent arrivals in many countries and even for their offspring, is not as favourable as in the past.

... but managing migration has become a difficult balancing act

Governments are thus faced with the delicate task of achieving a balance between openness to international migration with the hope of attracting the required skills to satisfy domestic needs, firmness in managing migration inflows to demonstrate to public opinion and to potential migrants that unauthorised movements are not tolerated, and the implementation of effective policies to ensure immigrant integration.

The right balance is difficult to achieve. It requires getting the right mix of selected and non-selected migrants, of temporary and permanent migrants, of high-skilled and low-skilled, and more generally of openness and control.

Selection of migrants is not straightforward, and not all migrants can be selected

First, the selection of migrants is not always straightforward. Indeed in all countries, there are significant immigration movements over which governments have limited discretion. This is because of recognised human rights (the right of residents to live with their families, or to marry or adopt whom they wish), or signed international agreements (such as the Geneva Convention on refugees, or free movement treaties). Such “non-discretionary” movements (see Chapter 2) are already sources of labour for host countries, but not always for occupations in demand. Satisfying the latter means increasing the total levels, to attract the right people with the right skills.

In some countries the selection is carried out on the basis of language proficiency, work experience, education and age...

How are immigrants to be chosen and in what numbers? Should immigrants be selected on the basis of their characteristics, with points given for language proficiency, work experience, education, age, and only those selected who have the required minimum number of points? This is what is done in Australia, Canada and New Zealand, and the

migration regimes of these countries are often pointed to as models for other OECD countries to follow. Some 60% or more of immigrants (including family members) are in the skilled migrant stream in these countries.

... while in others, employers do the selecting, so workers have jobs upon arrival

In practice, aside from persons moving under free movement regimes such as the European Union, legal immigrant workers are selected in all countries. The difference with Australia, Canada and New Zealand is that they are selected by employers, rather than national administrations. Governments, however, sometimes impose salary, occupational or educational criteria that limit the possibilities. And when they are selected by employers, immigrants have a job upon arrival, rather than having to fend for themselves in a new country. Historically, introducing selected immigrants into the labour market without prior jobs has worked for Australia and Canada. Recently, however, it is showing its limits, as employers attribute less and less value to foreign work experience and qualifications. So even these countries have started to give points to potential immigrants for job offers and to select persons already in the country on a temporary status.

Deciding on the number to let in is not obvious...

Letting in the right number of immigrants is another challenge: let too many in and some of them will have difficulty finding work; let too few in and labour market conditions may become tight. Some countries manage this by fixing numerical targets or limits (see Chapter 2). How these targets are determined is not always clear. They appear to reflect in part demographic objectives and in part past experience and political judgments about what the labour market and public opinion can absorb.

... and some countries do it by fixing pre-ordained targets or limits, to which they hold to themselves

Targets and limits have the advantage of demonstrating to public opinion that movements are being managed. But they need to be carefully fixed to ensure that they meet domestic labour requirements, not always a simple task. One risk is the possibility of backlogs, if the number of eligible applicants exceeds the number of available places. Backlogs can be a source of frustration, make the migration system less flexible and serve as an inducement to irregular entry or stay for otherwise eligible candidates.

Temporary migration is one way to solve some labour needs...

Some labour requirements can be filled through temporary movements and there have been successful past experiences in this area. These suggest that temporary migration can be managed if the work to be carried out is itself temporary in nature, if all stake-holders including employers are involved in recruitment, and if workers and employers have the chance to link up again in future years.

... but not those that are regular and on-going

Because it is easier to sell to a sceptical public opinion, most countries would prefer to have temporary migration for low-skilled workers. Such workers tend to be less adaptable in the face of a changing economy and their integration takes longer. But it is unlikely that on-going, regular labour needs can reasonably be satisfied by a cycling in and out of temporary workers. Employers want to keep reliable workers, not forever train new cohorts. So some low-skilled worker migration needs to be permanent.

If work permits are kept low in the face of strong demand, there is a high risk of irregular movements

If there is little possibility for low-skilled workers to enter, and no other source of labour supply can satisfy needs for low-skilled workers, there is a high risk that irregular movements will be generated. This is especially the case if control of irregular migration and work is weak. In some countries, the unauthorised immigrant population is estimated at over 3% of the total population. Illegal employment, however, is not inevitable. The experience of regularisation programmes suggests that employers, who often must supply proven job offers to potential candidates, do not necessarily have a preference for illegal workers. With an adequate work permit programme which ensures that permits are delivered quickly and in sufficient numbers, their needs could be met.

The migration of highly skilled persons may represent a serious loss to sending countries in the developing world

All countries want high-skilled immigrants. With virtually all OECD countries having become receiving countries, the competition to attract and retain the highly skilled in particular will increase. Language is clearly going to be a problem for countries whose national languages have no basin outside their own borders. And even high-skilled migrants have been encountering problems in the labour markets of OECD countries, often working in jobs for which they are overqualified. There is a growing trend towards the recruitment of finishing students, who may represent serious losses to source countries, especially in small countries, even if this is tempered by significant remittances (see Chapter 3). OECD countries need to weigh the benefits of this kind of recruitment (rapid integration) against any brain drain effects they may induce.


Public policy and discourse with respect to international migration need to be even-handed...

Difficulties in integrating immigrants in some countries have led to restrictions on entry and stay and, at times, a public discourse on migration that is ambivalent. The restrictions and discourse, if unbalanced, may have adverse impacts on attempts to attract the kind of migrants which the country needs, as well as on the integration of current immigrants and their offspring. Potential immigrants have many receiving countries to choose from, on the one hand, while labour market and educational outcomes may suffer in an atmosphere in which immigrants are not made to feel welcome.

... and countries that can manage the balancing act will come out ahead

In sum, receiving countries that demonstrate an even-handed management of migration movements that is at once welcoming but firm, and in accordance with national needs, will be in a more favourable position to profit from the benefits of international migration.

John P. Martin



Director for Employment, Labour and Social Affairs

Introduction

The annual report is now entitled “International Migration Outlook”.

For the past thirty years, the OECD’s Continuous Reporting System on Migration (known under by its French acronym SOPEMI) has been producing an annual report. In 1992, the report first appeared as a flagship publication of the OECD, under the title *Trends in International Migration*. This report, the thirtieth, broadens its analytical scope and its new title, *International Migration Outlook*, better reflects the growing importance of international migration in a context of accelerating economic globalisation and population ageing.

To improve the international comparability of migration statistics...

Until now, it has been difficult to provide an accurate overview of immigration flows in OECD countries, because inflow data vary from country to country. Indeed, commonly used national data sources do not all define international migration in the same way. For example, some countries include short-term entries in the flow statistics, while others only cover permanent entries.

... the report this year focuses on long-term entries.

The current report attempts to make up for some of these gaps by presenting, for the first time and for the majority of OECD countries, harmonised statistics on long-term immigration flows in receiving countries. The emphasis on the flow statistics this year complements the contribution of last year’s report, which described a new OECD database on the immigrant population by country of residence, country of birth and educational attainment.

The harmonised entries are lower than those usually published.

The harmonisation process essentially amounts to excluding from national statistics on immigration flows, categories of migrants (in particular students) with residence permits that are not renewable or are renewable only on a limited basis. The harmonisation of the data results in only a moderate increase in the overall annual change in the inflows for the countries covered, but reduces the level of entries compared to those usually published by about one million.

Switzerland, New Zealand, Australia and Canada have relatively high immigration levels.

Among countries for which harmonised data have been produced, the level of legal long-term entries as a percentage of the total population is highest in Switzerland, New Zealand, Australia and Canada, whereas low levels are observed in Finland and Japan. In Portugal and Italy, the large number of irregular migrants can explain the relatively low levels observed in those countries. In the United States, which also has high levels of unauthorised immigration, the number of legal entries as a percentage of the total population is relatively modest compared to many other OECD countries.

Temporary worker movements are increasing in response to labour shortages.

Almost all OECD countries also have temporary worker migration programmes, which have been growing over the past decade (temporary workers, seasonal workers, working holidaymakers, contract workers). There are also other temporary-type movements, such as intra-company transfers of managers within multinational enterprises, traineeships and cross-border service provision. Temporary worker entries increased by about 7% between 2003 and 2004, reaching 1.5 million entries, and this includes only OECD countries for which there are detailed data and excludes movements of students who can work (on a limited basis) during their studies.

There are more immigrants from Russia, the Ukraine, China and Latin America.

As each year, the report analyses the trends in migration movements and policies. Migration to neighbouring countries and to countries with which there are historical links tends to predominate. The report underlines the growing importance of certain nationality groups and in particular, of recent flows from Russia, the Ukraine, China and Latin America (especially to Spain) to European OECD countries. Outside of Europe, the movements are more diverse, with persons from countries in Asia, Latin America, but also from the United Kingdom, figuring among the top source countries in North America, Oceania, Japan and Korea. The significant presence in the migration flows of women from the Dominican Republic, the Philippines and the Ukraine suggests an increasing feminisation of the flows, but the trend is not a general one.

Family migration continues to dominate.

Family migration (accompanying family of workers and family reunification) is predominant in most OECD countries, even in countries where worker entries are relatively more common than in the past, as in Portugal, Denmark, Switzerland and the United Kingdom.

*Asylum requests continued to decline,
while international student flows increased.*

The trend decline in the number of asylum seekers observed since 2000 continued with a decrease of 20% between 2003 and 2004. In relative terms, requests for asylum remain high in Austria, Norway, Sweden and Switzerland. France is the country which had the highest number of requests in 2004, while the strongest declines between 2000 and 2004 were observed in Australia, Denmark, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom. The increase in the number of foreign students was significant, in particular in New Zealand, Japan, Australia, France and Germany.

*Immigrants represent a growing share
of the labour force...*

Immigrants represent a growing share of the labour force in OECD countries, although there are important differences from one country to another. For example, they represent less than 1.5% of the working population in Japan, around 12% in Germany, but 25% in Switzerland and in Australia. A detailed analysis of the situation of immigrants on the labour market shows the spread of immigrant employment to the service sectors in most OECD countries while self-employment among immigrants is growing, in particular in Belgium and the United Kingdom.

*... but some have difficulties integrating into
the labour market.*

Notwithstanding progress in employment of the foreign-born during the last decade, the latter encounter difficulties in most of the receiving countries in integrating into the labour market, as illustrated by a lower rate of employment compared to the native-born and a higher unemployment rate. In the countries of southern Europe and Ireland, as well as non-European OECD countries, this pattern is less apparent, indeed, one observes the opposite.

*Younger and older workers are particularly
vulnerable...*

In certain OECD countries, the young, older workers and women encounter specific difficulties. Immigrants in these groups are even more at risk because they combine the disadvantages associated with their demographic group and with their origin. For example, in Belgium, France and Sweden, while unemployment among young people 15-24 born in the country exceeds 15%, the figure for young immigrants is twice as high. In a number of member countries, older immigrant workers have to contend with a similar situation in accessing the labour market. In Belgium, fewer than a quarter of 55-64 year olds born abroad are working, while in Germany and Denmark, the figure is a little over 35%.

... as are women, in particular those from non-OECD countries.

The 2006 edition of *International Migration Outlook* looks in particular at the labour market integration of immigrant women in OECD countries. In most of them, foreign-born women have a lower employment rate compared to the native-born, generally below 60%. Moreover, the gap tends to widen with the level of education. This is partly attributable to problems with the recognition of foreign diplomas and qualifications. Women originating from non-OECD member countries are likely to find themselves in an even worse situation in the majority of countries.

Measures are needed to facilitate access to employment of immigrant women.

A Seminar organised by the OECD and the European Commission (Brussels, September 2005) focused on the identification of obstacles encountered by immigrant women and on specific measures for facilitating their access to the labour market. These measures concern vocational training programmes and language training, the recognition of qualifications, and labour demand in domestic services sector and care for children and the aged. They also concern the promotion of women's entrepreneurship and efforts to eliminate all forms of discrimination.

Migration policies are focusing on labour recruitment and the fight against irregular migration...

This report also presents an inventory of the principal migration policies adopted by OECD member countries. Several countries have taken new measures aimed at facilitating the recruitment of highly qualified immigrants, by means of the implementation or improvement of selective policies, and by attracting a larger number of international foreign students, considered as potential qualified workers with strong links to their receiving countries. The report also considers the impact of EU enlargement on labour migration flows within Europe. The increased need for temporary immigration of low skilled workers is a matter for concern in several OECD countries. Security and the fight against irregular migration are at the heart of policies aimed at a better management of migration flows.

... as well as on the integration of immigrants.

In parallel, new measures have been adopted to develop or improve integration programmes for new arrivals. Particular attention is paid to compulsory language courses, accompanied by initiatives, which are also addressed to already settled migrants, for promoting employment, increasing diversity in enterprises and the fight against discrimination and for equal opportunities.

Two special chapters deal with topical issues. The first addresses the question of the management of migration inflows through quotas and numerical limits...

This year two special chapters deal with topical issues. The first concerns the fixing of quotas and numerical limits in the context of the management of migration and evaluates the efficacy of such measures. The chapter highlights their limits and the risks associated with levels that are fixed too high or too low, if non-discretionary migration entries (family or humanitarian migration, for example) are not taken into account, and if irregular migration persists and remains at a high level. Fixing numerical limits or target levels is one of a number of methods for managing migration.

... and the second takes another look at the links between migration, remittances and development.

The second chapter analyses the links between migration, remittances and development. This was the background document for the Marrakech Conference co-organised by the OECD (February 2005) which sought to identify the necessary conditions for remittances to play a greater role in the economic development of the country of origin. Remittances have indisputably contributed to improving the living conditions of migrants and their families although it seems less evident that these transfers have had a positive impact on the economic development of the country of origin.

The report also includes country notes describing recent developments in migration movements and policies and introducing new standardised tables. The statistical annex at the end of the publication contains statistics on flows of the number of immigrants and foreigners, and on naturalisations.

PART I

Recent Trends in International Migration

The first part of the current report *International Migration Outlook* is divided in three sections describing the principal developments observed this last three years. The first of these sections looks at changes in migration movements (I.A); the second focuses on the status of immigrants in the labour market (I.B), while the third provides an overview on migration policies (I.C).

A. Developments in Migration Flows

This issue of the *International Migration Outlook* contains, for the first time, statistics on long-term international migration inflows that have been harmonised by the OECD Secretariat, to the extent possible, for a majority of OECD countries. Up to now, such statistics have not generally been available, because commonly used national data sources on migration movements do not use the same definitions of international migration and it has proven impossible in practice to produce harmonised statistics from these sources (see www.oecd.org/dataoecd/60/44/36064929.pdf). Although ideally, one would like to get a full accounting of migration flows, for the attempt described here the focus has been on those which can be expected to have a long-term impact on receiving countries.

Before presenting the current picture with regard to international migration movements, some background may be helpful. Current flows in OECD countries need to be seen against a backdrop of a number of developments, some quite recent and some going back a decade and more. The fall of the Iron Curtain in 1989 opened up possibilities for movement on the part of many populations whose mobility had been restricted for many years. The end of communist regimes across the world and the introduction of market and semi-market economies in some countries and their reinforcement in others enhanced the globalisation of economic activity already under way and the movements of persons associated with increased commercial activity and economic opportunities. However, some border and regime changes led to increased civil and ethnic conflict, resulting in large movements of people fleeing persecution, war and economic hardship.

With limited possibilities for migration to OECD countries at the beginning of the nineties, the flight of refugees to OECD countries quickly focused attention on asylum seeking as a means of entry, if not always of permanent stay, by persons seeking a better life outside their home countries. The nineties saw a large increase in this form of migration, although a relatively low proportion saw their claims for asylum recognised by host countries. At the same time, unauthorised migration, whether through illegal or fraudulent entry or overstaying on the part of legal entrants, has been expanding in all countries, stimulated in part by demand for low-skilled and low-paid labour in the face of limited possibilities for migration and sometimes of limited means of control and verification. Policy in the United States in particular has been embroiled in debates concerning the large numbers of unauthorised immigrants (some 10.3 million in 2004) and the continuing high levels of unauthorised migration.

The countries of southern Europe, formerly countries of emigration, were introduced to high volumes of international movement in the latter half of the nineties, largely through irregular migration. Policies have been struggling to adapt, with repeated regularisations taking place. At the same time, the traditional settlement countries of Australia, Canada and New Zealand have increased their targeted levels of migration while Switzerland, the United Kingdom and now Ireland have increased their intake of highly skilled migrants. Switzerland has also opened up its labour market to free circulation of workers from the European Union. Germany, while continuing a restrictive policy towards worker migration, has admitted considerable numbers of ethnic Germans from Eastern Europe and the republics of the former Soviet Union over the past fifteen years. In the Nordic countries, long-term migration has been largely humanitarian in nature, with subsequent family reunification. In most countries of Europe, worker migration has remained restrictive. More recently, the entry of the new accession states into the European movement has seen substantial movements of workers from these countries into Ireland and the United Kingdom in particular, but also into Norway, Sweden and Italy (see below, Section C, the movements associated with EU enlargement).

The rise of anti-immigration political parties and the perception that the integration of immigrants has not always been adequate have led in some countries to more restrictive policies with respect to family reunification and in all, to targeted introduction programmes and stronger enforcement measures with respect to unauthorised entry and stay. Although there is evidence or signs of an opening up to skilled migration in most countries, particularly with expected shortages as a result of aging populations, movements in this direction thus far have been small. There is a general reluctance in all countries to open up to low-skilled migration, except for temporary stays (often through bilateral agreements), because such migration is viewed as resulting in a fiscal burden to the receiving countries. For potential immigrants from low-income countries, however, the prospect of a working stay in an OECD country, even a relatively short one, at the higher wages prevailing there, remains a powerful drawing card.

1. Towards harmonised statistics of long-term migration flows

Against this general background, inflows of foreign nationals into OECD countries continued to increase in 2004, but the picture was a mixed one. It has generally been difficult to provide an overall view with any certainty, because the data on immigrant inflows were not comparable from country to country, with some countries counting many shorter term entries and others only permanent immigrants. In addition, developments for the OECD as a whole can be heavily influenced by what happens in only a few countries. This issue of the International Migration Outlook, with the presentation of, reasonably harmonised data on long-term immigrants for a majority of OECD countries and almost all of the larger ones, addresses these points (see Box I.1).

The countries in Table I.1 have been divided into two groups. For the first, the statistics presented are based on residence permits and, to the extent possible, cover comparable populations of long-term immigrants across countries.¹ The harmonisation process essentially means excluding from statistics of immigrants international students and certain other temporary migrants with permits that are either not renewable or renewable only on a limited basis. For the countries in the second half of the table, harmonisation is not yet possible and the data continue to be based on national definitions which vary from country to country. Although summing up the flows of the countries in the second panel is

Box I.1. New comparable statistics on inflows of foreign nationals

The statistics on the inflows of foreigners and on the foreign-born population in this chapter are, for the most part, from the same sources and based on the same definitions as in past editions of *Trends in International Migration*. There are, however, two exceptions: the statistics of total inflows of foreign nationals and their distribution by category of entry.

For the first time in this publication, the statistics on inflows of foreigners compiled for a large number of OECD countries cover “long-term” migration and to the extent possible, have been made comparable across countries. What constitutes “long-term” migration here is perhaps best defined by exclusion. Entries of temporary visitors are of course excluded, but also persons admitted with a permit that is not renewable or that is renewable only on a limited basis. Examples of these exclusions are seasonal workers, international students, trainees, au-pairs, service providers, in short persons admitted on a temporary basis, for whom the receiving state does not recognise the right of indefinite presence on its territory. Included, on the other hand, are persons who have been granted the right of permanent residence upon entry, some entering persons with the right of free movement (such as EU citizens within with the European Union) and persons admitted with a permit of limited duration that is more or less indefinitely renewable. Also included are persons present in the country who may have entered during a previous year but were accorded “long-term” status in the country during the reference year. Persons in this group are said to be “status-changers”. Recognised asylum-seekers fall in this group, as do regularised persons and foreign graduating students who receive the right to settle in the host country. For almost all countries considered, producing statistics according to the above definition has meant in practice resorting to statistics on residence permits, because they are generally the only ones which have information on the category of entry, as identified by the receiving state. This information is required in order to identify precisely the target population and to exclude certain persons such as international students who are sometimes included as immigrants in official national statistics. Although population registers are generally considered the best available source for information on immigration and emigration in many countries, in practice it has turned out to be exceedingly difficult to produce data according to a common international definition using this source.* In a number of cases, however, population register data have been used for the new statistics presented in this chapter to cover off inflows of persons for whom residence permits are not required, such as persons entering under a free movement regime. Finally, by definition, only legal or authorised migration is covered; including the latter is beyond the scope of what is possible at the current time.

There are a number of limitations generally associated with the use of residence permit statistics. For example, the statistics may be elaborated on the basis of grants of permits and the permits may never actually be taken up by the persons to whom they have been granted. The year of entry into the country may not be the same as the year the permit is granted or a person may receive more than one permit in a given year. However, these are not inherent deficiencies in the statistics produced from permit data systems; they simply mean that some processing is required to ensure, for example, that immigrants are only counted once if they have two permits, that permits that are not used are not counted, etc. In the statistics shown in this chapter, it is not certain that this has always been done. However, it is believed that the distortions introduced in the statistics as a result of this are relatively minor compared to the differences across countries in the coverage of immigration statistics.

Box I.1. New comparable statistics on inflows of foreign nationals (cont.)

For certain countries the statistics on inflows in this chapter according to the definition described above are based on the same sources and coincide with those that have been published previously. This, for example, is the case for Canada, France and the United States. For many other countries, however, the usual source of information on inflows of foreigners is the population register or some other source and this source has been foregone in favour of the permit-based statistics. For some countries the differences between the level of inflows compiled according to the definition above and that according to the national definition is substantial. For example, for the United Kingdom the statistics presented here show an approximate level of inflows of foreign nationals of about 266 000, compared to the official figure of 494 000; for Germany, it is 202 000 compared to 602 000. In the case of the United Kingdom, the difference is largely due to the exclusion of international students and working holidaymakers. For Germany, persons arriving in the country are supposed to be registered if they are entering a private household to stay for more than one week. Thus, many shorter term flows are counted in the official statistics.

The harmonisation effort whose outcome is shown in this chapter is a first preliminary effort. It undoubtedly incorporates some errors and omissions. For example, it is not certain that for every country, changes in status are incorporated in the statistics shown here. In addition, persons moving under the free-movement regime of the European Union are assumed to be long-term immigrants if they cannot be excluded on the basis of the permit they hold (e.g. students). In practice, however, some may be short-term and will be returning to their countries of origin. Generally, however, discrepancies in this regard would appear to be small relative to the level of total inflows.

In all cases, the categories of migrants that are counted for each country and the sources used are documented at www.oecd.org/els/migration/imo2006, which also contains information on the methodology underlying any estimates that have been made.

* See www.oecd.org/dataoecd/60/44/36064929.pdf.

not justified, it has nevertheless been carried out here to give an approximate indication of overall trends.

On the whole, the new data show overall flows progressing by about 15% in countries for which harmonised data are available (see Table I.1), which amounts to over 330 000 persons for the countries concerned taken together. Most of this is attributable to a large increase in the United States and to increases in Australia, Canada, Italy and the United Kingdom. In the United States, attribution of green cards rose by about 240 000 after a decline almost as large in 2003 as a result of constraints introduced following the September 11th attacks. The increase reflected a take-up of an accumulated backlog and a return to normal processing rates. Note that the change shown in the upper panel of Table I.1 does not include the impact of the 2003 regularisation programme in Italy. This witnessed the granting of residence permits to almost 635 000 persons. Such persons tend to show up as inflows in the year in which the regularisation takes place, although the immigrants concerned have generally entered over several years. They have not been included in Table I.1, to avoid distorting the statistics.

In the lower half of Table I.1, virtually all of the observed change is accounted for by Spain. This country saw an increase in municipal registrations of foreign nationals of almost 220 000 in 2004, to a total level of close to 650 000.² This was the first significant

Table I.1. Inflows of foreign nationals, 2003-2004
Long-term inflows (harmonised statistics)

Receiving country	2003	2004	2003-2004	Per cent change
Finland	7 500	5 600	-1 900	-25
Germany	238 400	202 300	-36 100	-15
New Zealand	48 400	41 600	-6 800	-14
Netherlands	60 800	57 000	-3 800	-6
Denmark	16 200	15 900	-300	-2
France	173 100	175 200	2 100	1
Japan	85 800	88 300	2 400	3
Switzerland	79 700	82 600	2 900	4
Sweden	38 400	40 700	2 300	6
Canada	221 400	235 800	14 500	7
Australia	150 000	167 300	17 300	12
Norway	18 800	21 400	2 600	14
Austria	51 000	59 600	8 600	17
Portugal	11 100	13 100	2 000	18
United Kingdom	214 600	266 500	51 900	24
Italy	121 800	156 400	34 600	28
United States	705 800	946 100	240 300	34
Total less United States	1 536 900	1 629 200	92 300	6
Total above countries	2 242 700	2 575 300	332 600	15

Inflows according to national definitions (usually published statistics)

Receiving country	2003	2004	2003-2004	Per cent change
Czech Republic	57 400	50 800	-6 600	-11
Hungary	19 400	18 100	-1 300	-7
Luxembourg	11 500	11 300	-200	-2
Ireland	33 000	33 200	200	1
Turkey	152 200	155 500	3 300	2
Belgium	68 800	72 400	3 600	5
Korea	178 300	188 840	10 540	6
Poland	30 300	36 800	6 500	21
Spain	429 500	645 800	216 300	50
Slovak Republic	4 600	7 900	3 300	72
Total above countries	985 000	1 220 640	235 640	24

Notes: For information on the compilation of the harmonised statistics, see www.oecd.org/els/migration/imo2006. Note that because the data have not been harmonised in the bottom half of the table, the total may be adding up flows of different kinds across countries. Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/282186485188>

increase in registrations since 2001 and preceded the regularisation programme implemented in 2005. Since this programme was announced in the autumn of 2004 and since candidates had to show residence in Spain from at least early August 2004, the announcement of the regularisation itself seems unlikely to have produced this increase. However, there had been some public speculation about the possibility of a regularisation for some months previously and this may have acted as a drawing card for some potential migrants.

Among smaller countries, which can undergo significant changes that have only a marginal effect on the statistics as a whole, Norway and Portugal saw significant increases from 2003 to 2004. Inflows of foreign nationals in these countries increased by 14% and 18% respectively in 2004 compared to 2003. Countries showing significant declines (more than 10%), on the other hand, were Finland, Germany and New Zealand.

In practice, the harmonisation process increases the overall observed year-to-year change in the inflows only marginally for the countries covered, compared to the usual statistics presented, but the harmonised data show a level that is over 1 million immigrants lower. The difference reflects largely the impact of the harmonisation for Germany, Japan, the United Kingdom and Italy, whose statistics include a significant volume of shorter term movements.

The statistics on inflows here do not cover unauthorised arrivals, which can be substantial in certain countries. Net unauthorised immigration to the United States is estimated to be in the vicinity of about 500 000 persons per year (http://uscis.gov/graphics/shared/aboutus/statistics/III_Report_1211.pdf), or about one-half of current annual levels for issues of green cards. This amounts to about 0.15-0.20% of the total population per year. In Italy, the 2002 regularisation programme elicited about 700 000 applications. If all of the persons concerned entered in the years since the previous regularisation (1998), this would amount to unauthorised entries of about 175 000 per year over the period, which is higher than the recorded levels of legal long-term migration to Italy over the same period. In practice, however, some persons previously regularised may have lapsed back into illegality and been regularised again. Finally, although statistics for 2005 are not shown here, the 2005 regularisation for Spain brought out close to 690 000 unauthorised immigrants as well, yielding averaged-out unauthorised inflows over the period since the previous regularisation of about the same annual level as Italy.

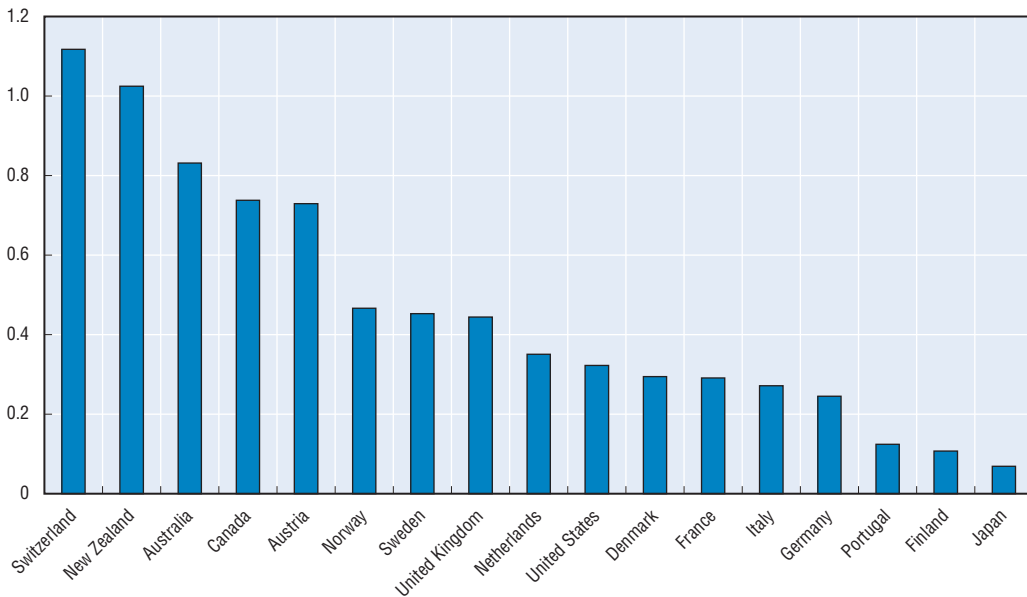
The number of applications for regularisation is a lower bound for the total number of unauthorised immigrants because it concerns only persons who in principle satisfy the conditions for regularisation, which often include the fact of having an employment contract with a recognised employer. In practice, it is exceedingly difficult to obtain estimates of unauthorised inflows and indicative numbers are available for few countries. They are thus not included in the inflow statistics shown here, with the exception of Spain.

The harmonised data presented here are preliminary and may be subject to revision and correction. As they stand, there are significant differences with respect to the usual published statistics on immigration (see www.oecd.org/els/migration/imo2006 for an overview and assessment). The harmonised series allow a comparison across countries, for the first time, of the relative level of long-term legal migration (Chart I.1).

Switzerland, New Zealand, Australia and Canada are the OECD countries with the highest relative level of long-term legal migration. At the other end of the spectrum, Finland and Japan appear to be the countries with the lowest relative levels. Portugal and Italy also come in at relatively low levels, but have been subject in recent years to significant unauthorised immigration. The United States has high absolute levels of legal migration, but on a per-capita basis, the amount of long-term legal immigration is modest, compared to many other countries.

The statistics shown here include not only entries of long-term immigrants but also “changes in status” where possible. More and more in OECD countries, long-term immigration permits are being granted to persons already in the country on another status. This is the case by default for recognised asylum seekers and for persons accorded permits under a regularisation scheme.³ But it is also becoming more common for certain categories of temporary workers (for example, live-in care-givers in Canada or skilled workers on an H1B visa in the United States), international students and indeed, even persons in the country for family visits. For countries doing some form of selection of

Chart I.1. **Inflows of foreign nationals as a percentage of the total population, selected OECD countries, 2004, harmonised data**



Note: For details on sources, please refer to www.oecd.org/els/migration/imo2006.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/051406730326>

immigrants, whether through a point system or by specifying a minimum level of qualification or pay for immigrant workers identified by employers, choosing from among persons who have been studying, living and/or working in the host country for several years offers some guarantees in terms of knowledge of the language and ability to live and function in the society.

2. International migration by country of origin and entry category

Stability in the principal origin countries...

The major source countries for migration show a remarkable stability in recent years. Movements in Europe show a significant impact of geographic proximity (Table I.2). The Russian Federation and the Ukraine have appeared since the year 2000 as major new source countries. Italy and Spain are significant destination countries for Moroccans, Romanians and Ukrainians, whereas Turkey is the destination of choice for Bulgarians. Spain also attracts immigrants from Germany and the United Kingdom, many of whom are retirees.

Outside of Europe, in North America, Oceania, Japan and Korea, the picture is more mixed with countries from Asia and Latin America as well as the United Kingdom appearing among the top ten source countries. Here too there is stability in the top source countries, with only one replacement (the Russian Federation by the Dominican Republic) between 2000 and 2004. Japan is prominent as a destination for Brazilians (ethnic Japanese), Koreans and more and more, Filipinos. Nationals of China and India are well represented in all of the settlement countries, Vietnamese and Mexicans in the United States, British citizens in Australia and citizens of the United States in Japan.

Table I.2. **Ten top source countries for immigration, 2000 and 2004, OECD Europe and OECD outside of Europe, usually published statistics**

OECD Europe			
In thousands			
2000		2004	
Morocco	96	Romania	196
Ecuador	95	Poland	169
Poland	94	Morocco	121
Bulgaria	81	Bulgaria	88
Turkey	79	Turkey	73
Romania	76	Ukraine	68
United States	64	United Kingdom	67
Germany	60	Germany	65
France	60	Russian Federation	65
Italy	56	United States	50
	761		964

OECD outside of Europe			
In thousands			
2000		2004	
China	238	China	195
Mexico	176	Mexico	178
Philippines	145	Philippines	173
India	78	India	110
Korea	49	United Kingdom	61
United States	47	Korea	49
Brazil	46	Viet Nam	43
United Kingdom	43	United States	32
Viet Nam	42	Brazil	32
Russian Federation	35	Dominican Republic	30
	899		904

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

Source: See Table I.A1.1 in the Statistical Annex.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/850843028414>

... but inflows from Latin America, Asia and Central and Eastern Europe have increased

Despite the relative stability in recent years for the top countries of origin, the last decade has seen the emergence of Latin America as a significant source region for migration to Europe, in particular to Spain.

From a situation in 1995 in which migration from Latin America to Europe was negligible, movements to Europe from Latin America have ranged between 150 000 and 250 000 persons per year since the year 2000. Most of this is to Spain, with some movements to Italy and Portugal as well.

The presence of the Dominican Republic, the Philippines and the Ukraine, countries for which the migration of women has generally been important, among the top countries of migration cited above would seem to point to an increased presence of women among immigrants. The shift in the sex composition of the immigrant population, although present, has not been a strong one, however. Already in 1960, fully 48.5% of immigrants in Europe and 49.8% in North America were women. By the year 2000, the corresponding

percentages had risen to 52.4 and 51.0%, respectively, a fairly modest increase. The stock figures, however, because they reflect the accumulated effect of past movements, mask a greater increase in the current presence of women in the flows. Still, even among persons having arrived in the previous 10 years, the per cent of women rarely exceeds 55% in European countries in 2004 (OECD, 2005a). In short, if families do not necessarily migrate as a unit, the current sex composition of the immigrant population would seem to suggest either that family reunification is not long delayed or that the female spouse is as likely to be the initial migrant as her husband.

Family and employment migration dominate...

Immigrants migrate for various reasons. For some, the motivation is primarily economic, with the prospect of better wages or working conditions or more simply, of employment. Some come with their families with the aim of permanent settlement, others bring them in when they are themselves settled and are able to satisfy host country requirements for family reunion. As noted above, humanitarian migration has become more prevalent over the last fifteen years as a result of increased civil and ethnic conflict. Other reasons may include movement for marriage, adoption, retirement or by aged parents of adult children. The reasons supplied by a potential migrant to host country authorities, however, may not always coincide with the real reasons for moving. Nonetheless, whatever the real reason, the host country normally grants a permit on the basis of stated intentions and the conditions for entry and stay as well as the nature of the residence permit formally reflect these declared intentions. In practice, the reason recorded by the receiving state does matter with respect to the labour market, because access to the latter may vary as a function of entry reason and because even if there is full access, labour market outcomes have been observed to vary as a function of migration category (OECD, 2004a).

The use of permit data to measure long-term inflows and the harmonisation of these across countries make it possible to compare the distribution of immigrants by entry category for a larger number of countries than has been the case previously (Chart I.2). However, before doing so, a number of observations are in order with respect to the data presented here.

First of all, for persons moving under free-movement regimes (the European Union or Australia/New Zealand), permits may not be required and even when they are, the reason for migration may not always be explicitly identified in the permit system. In such cases, after eliminating movements of students and other temporary flows from the data, where possible, the per cent of persons under the free-movement regime who are in the labour force has been taken to be the per cent migrating for work reasons, with the balance considered as (accompanying) family migration.

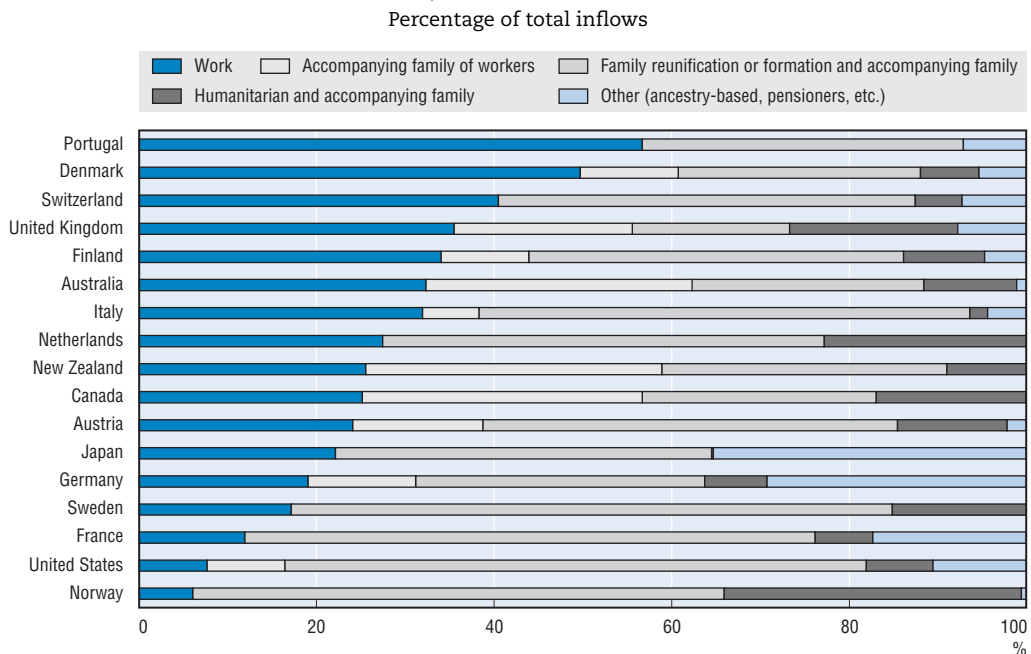
Secondly, it has not been possible in some countries to distinguish between family members accompanying and those arriving to join a worker. In settlement countries (Australia, Canada, etc.), all persons accompanying a skilled migrant are generally grouped under the "skilled" rubric, even if some have no intention of working and others may be children. Since persons tend to marry persons of similar educational attainment, there is some justification in considering spouses of "skilled" persons as also skilled.⁴ In cases where the family does not accompany the migrant but comes later, members of the family are considered family migrants by all receiving countries. Thus, in order to maintain some consistency of treatment with respect to family members of persons selected for work

(whether by the employer or by the receiving state), all family members, whether or not they accompany the worker initially, are considered family migrants in this chart.

Thirdly, although persons identified under the “work” rubric were the only ones admitted specifically on this basis and in many cases may have a job upon arrival, generally it is possible in OECD countries for any long-term migrant to access the labour market. The distinction between “work” reasons and other reasons here is based purely on the category of entry as specified by the receiving state, independently of what the eventual labour market participation will be. Exceptions concern persons moving under a free movement regime, for whom actual behaviour is used as a proxy for category of entry when there is no reason recorded at the time of entry or registration.

Finally, once again the numbers underlying this chart, like the overall harmonised statistics on flows, do not include unauthorised worker movements, which have been substantial in southern Europe in recent years and may also be non-negligible elsewhere.

Chart I.2. International migration by category of entry, selected OECD countries, 2004, harmonised data



Note: For details on sources, please refer to www.oecd.org/els/migration/imo2006.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/687844657628>

Chart I.2 shows, first of all, that work-related categories of entry were in the minority in all countries in 2004 and exceeded 40% only in Switzerland, Denmark and Portugal. The first two of these countries are characterised by low unemployment rates, high participation rates and a relatively low proportion of humanitarian migrants. In addition, Denmark in recent years has introduced restrictions on family migration, reducing the numbers in this category. Portugal is a recent immigration country and movements for new migration countries tend to be heavily work-based in the early stages. Ancestry-based migration is prominent in Germany and Japan (under “other”), whereas the Netherlands and Norway are identifiable by the high proportion of humanitarian migrants. Norway has

little long-term worker migration, but considerable temporary work migration (see next section).

Although intra-EU migration might be expected to add significantly to worker movements in European countries, it remains limited. However, it does tend to be significant in relative terms in some countries for which extra-EU work migration is small, such as Finland, the Netherlands and Switzerland. Green card worker migration in the United States is also limited, as is evident from Chart I.2 The United States permanent migration regime is heavily family-oriented, with a broader definition of “family” than found in other countries. In particular, it allows for immigration of adult sons and daughters as well as siblings of United States citizens, subject to numerical limits (see below Part II).

Overall labour market outcomes vary according to the reason for migration, with family and humanitarian migrants tending to have lower employment and higher unemployment rates than persons arriving as worker migrants. As a consequence, the nature of migration flows can affect public perceptions of immigration, if they are predominantly composed of groups whose outcomes tend, for whatever reason, to be less favourable than for persons migrating essentially for economic reasons. This is not the whole story, however, because outcomes also depend on the state of the labour market, on the qualifications and occupations of immigrants, on work incentives and disincentives and on the prevalence of discriminatory hiring practices (OECD, 2004a; and 2005b).

... and asylum requests continue their downward trend

The number of asylum seekers arriving in OECD countries continued its downward trend, with a decline of over 20% from 2003 to 2004 and a fall of about 35% since 2000. Current levels stand at about a little less than half of the peak level of 850 000 in 1992. Most likely as a result of the Dublin convention, which established the safe-country-of-transit rule within the European Union,⁵ increases within the EU have been observed largely in countries that are on the periphery, such as Finland, Poland and the Slovak Republic (Table I.3). However, the same phenomenon has not been observed in Hungary, another new EU country with an extensive land border with non-EU countries. France and Luxembourg are exceptions to this rule, with France in particular showing an increase of close to 40% since the year 2000. With requests in 2004 running at over 60 000, France has received more requests than any other country in the OECD, including the United States and the United Kingdom. The reasons for this are not entirely clear, but may reflect a transfer of requests to France following the implementation of more stringent controls at entry and during processing in the United Kingdom.

In relative terms, requests remain high in Austria, Norway, Sweden and Switzerland, although there were declines in all four countries from 2003 to 2004. The incidence of requests varies greatly across countries with Canada, for example, receiving roughly five times the number of requests per person as the United States and Switzerland five times as many as Germany. In all countries, recognition rates remain low, generally significantly below 20% and often less than 10. In other words, many asylum seekers do not satisfy the criteria to be recognised as refugees from their home countries, although some are allowed to stay on humanitarian grounds. Currently, refugees, other persons admitted for humanitarian reasons and accompanying family account for less than 10% of long-term migration in OECD countries. With the continuing fall in asylum seekers, this proportion is likely to decline as well.

Table I.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers in OECD countries, 2000-2004**

Trends and levels

	Index of the number of asylum seekers			Total number	Number per million population
	2000	2003	2004	2004	2004
Australia	100	33	25	3 200	159
Austria	100	177	135	24 600	3 010
Belgium	100	40	36	15 400	1 477
Canada	100	93	75	25 800	806
Czech Republic	100	130	62	5 500	535
Denmark	100	38	27	3 200	599
Finland	100	102	122	3 900	739
France	100	134	138	58 600	973
Germany	100	64	45	35 600	432
Hungary	100	31	21	1 600	158
Ireland	100	71	43	4 800	1 179
Italy	100	86	62	9 700	169
Japan	100	156	197	400	3
Korea	100	200	337	100	3
Luxembourg	100	249	254	1 600	3 489
Netherlands	100	31	22	9 800	601
New Zealand	100	54	37	600	117
Norway	100	147	73	7 900	1 730
Poland	100	151	176	8 100	212
Portugal	100	39	50	100	11
Slovak Republic	100	666	732	11 400	2 116
Spain	100	75	70	5 500	130
Sweden	100	192	142	23 200	2 575
Switzerland	100	118	81	14 200	1 928
Turkey	100	70	69	3 900	54
United Kingdom	100	61	41	40 600	680
United States	100	91	65	52 400	178
Total	100	83	65	371 700	355

Source: UNHCR database (www.unhcr.org).Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/361357536664>

Although one would expect origin countries to change over time as a consequence of shifts in the loci of civil and ethnic conflicts, eight of the ten countries that yielded the most asylum seekers in 2000 were still present in the top ten in 2004. Requests from nationals of Afghanistan and Iraq have dropped to 20% of their 2000 levels, while those from the Russian Federation have more than doubled. Serbia and Montenegro, Turkey, China, India and Iran remain important source countries.

Strong increase in the number of international students...

Recent years have seen a large increase in the number of international tertiary students in OECD countries. From 1998 to 2003 the increase was about 45%, with much of it occurring after 2001. The total numbers stood at about 2 million in 2003, with the United States, France, Germany, the United Kingdom and Australia with close to 200 000 or more. The increases are not limited to countries whose national language is widely spoken outside the country. The Nordic countries have also seen large increases, as have Italy, Japan and the Netherlands (see Table I.4 and Chart I.3).

Many OECD countries have introduced special provisions allowing foreign students to stay on to work after the completion of their studies, in particular in areas where there are

Table I.4. **Total stock of international tertiary level students, 1998-2003**
Trends (1998 = 100) and levels

	Index of the stock of international tertiary students			Number of international students
	1998	2001	2003	2003
New Zealand	100	187	446	26 400
Korea	100	152	309	7 800
Czech Republic	100	190	306	12 500
Iceland	100	217	299	600
Japan	100	178	242	86 500
Sweden	100	209	203	25 500
Spain	100	138	185	53 600
Hungary	100	169	184	12 200
Australia	100	111	172	188 200
Finland	100	145	170	7 400
Denmark	100	114	164	18 100
Italy	100	126	156	36 100
Netherlands	100	122	151	20 500
France	100	100	150	221 600
Ireland	100	119	148	10 200
Norway	100	153	142	8 200
Germany	100	116	141	240 600
Poland	100	122	140	7 600
Portugal	100	..	139	15 500
United States	100	110	136	586 300
Switzerland	100	114	135	32 800
United Kingdom	100	108	122	255 200
Belgium	100	106	116	41 900
Austria	100	111	109	31 100
Slovak Republic	100	106	103	1 700
Turkey	100	89	84	15 700
Mexico	100	85	83	1 900
Luxembourg	100	700
Canada	100	..	122	40 000
Greece	100	12 500
Total above countries	100	114	145	1 976 400

Notes: For Belgium, Mexico, the Netherlands and the Slovak Republic, 1999 = 100; for Portugal, 2000 = 100; for Canada, data for 2003 actually refer to 2000. Data include resident foreign students for some countries.

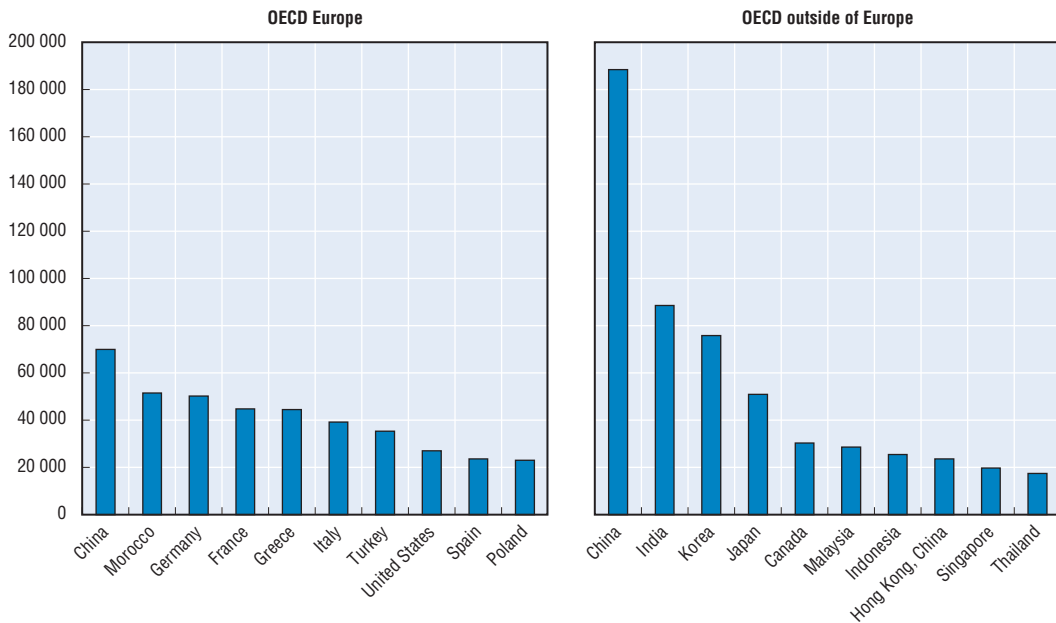
Source: OECD Education Database.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/841141442710>

labour shortages. Although the allowed period of work may be temporary, there are sometimes passageways to settlement in some countries, without the necessity of a return to the home country. With more skill shortages expected in coming years, especially in science, medical and ICT occupations, it is likely that these practices will continue and expand.

An extended period of residence, study and often, (part-time) work, in a host country is often a guarantee of a smooth transition into the labour market, without the problems of non-recognition of foreign qualifications or experience that some and perhaps many immigrants encounter (Ferrer, Green and Riddell, 2004). Indeed, countries that assess applicants for admission through a points system such as Australia, Canada and New Zealand attribute extra points for a qualification earned in the host country. Close to one half of the principal applicants in Australia's skilled migration stream in recent years, for example, have had an Australian qualification.

Chart I.3. **International tertiary students in OECD Europe and outside of Europe, by country of origin, 2003**



Note: Data include resident foreign students for some countries.

Source: OECD database on Education.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/505105338664>

Even if a return to the home country is required before an application for immigration can be lodged, it is clear that international study can prepare the terrain for eventual emigration. With expanded international study, the pool of potential candidates for emigration is expanding, with the possibility of significant losses of human capital in some countries. Recent analyses have shown that the per cent of persons with tertiary education born in certain African and Caribbean countries who are living in OECD countries exceeds 50% (OECD, 2005c). Although there may be remittances, technology and know-how transferred to host countries by this Diaspora, it is clear that expatriation on this scale represents a serious loss of human capital.

The recent large increases in the number of international students seem likely to continue in the near future, especially if OECD countries continue to send out signals that international study is a gateway for entry, notably in fields where there are labour shortages. The expansion of university programmes provided in English in many countries will contribute to this as well, because English-speaking countries are currently the main receiving countries for labour migrants, especially for highly educated ones. However, although a 2-million stock of international students seems large, the potential for additional migration from this group does not seem overwhelming. For example, if one fourth of international students complete their studies every year and 25% of them decide to stay on,⁶ less than 5% is added to current levels of international migration and less than 20% to current migration of the highly educated. In short, without a large increase in international students in OECD countries and a significant increase in expatriation rates, it seems likely that most highly qualified immigrants will continue to arrive with qualifications earned in their home countries.

Table I.5. Entries of temporary workers in selected OECD countries by principal categories, 1992, 2002-2004

Thousands

	1992	2002	2003	2004		1992	2002	2003	2004
Australia					New Zealand⁴				
Skilled temporary resident programme ¹	14.6	43.3	47.4	..	Business	..	1.8	0.8	0.7
Working Holiday Makers (offshore)	25.2	85.2	88.8	93.8	General work permit	..	29.8	35.6	37.7
Total	39.8	128.5	136.1	..	Trainees/Working Holiday Makers	..	21.5	22.8	23.8
	(40.3)	(36.1)	(38.5)	(51.5)	Special highly qualified (medical, teaching, research, specialist)		6.1	3.9	5.4
Canada²					Other		5.2	3.9	7.7
Total	60.6	79.5	70.8	74.8	Total		64.5	67.0	75.2
	..	(137.9)	(121.0)	133.7)		(13.6)	(30.4)	(20.6)	(29.8)
France					Norway				
Intracompany transferees	0.9	1.8	1.5	1.4	Seasonal workers ⁵	4.6	15.7	17.9	4.9
Researchers	0.9	1.6	1.7	1.6	Seasonal workers (Transitional Scheme to EU-8)	-	-	-	16.3
Other holders of an APT ³	2.8	6.4	7.0	6.9	Sweden				
Seasonal workers	13.6	13.5	14.6	15.7	Temporary permits granted on labour market grounds	..	9.7	9.9	8.3
Total	18.1	23.4	24.7	25.7	Of which: Seasonal workers	4.9
	(42.3)	(21.0)	(20.7)	(20.8)		(0.2)	(0.4)	(0.3)	(0.2)
Germany					Switzerland				
Workers employed under a contract for services	115.1	45.4	43.8	34.2	Seasonal workers (status abolished in 2002)	126.1	-	-	-
Seasonal workers	212.4	298.1	309.5	324.0	Persons with a short-term residence permit				19.0
Trainees	5.1	4.9	5.9	..	Trainees	1.6	1.0	0.8	0.4
Total	332.6	348.4	359.2	358.2	Total	127.8	-	-	-
						(39.7)	(40.1)	(35.4)	(40.0)
Italy					United Kingdom				
Seasonal workers	1.7	..	68.0	77.0	Highly skilled migrant programme (from February 2002)	-	1.2	4.9	7.4
Japan					Sectors Based Scheme (from May 2003)	-	-	7.8	16.9
Highly skilled workers	..	136.9	147.1	150.2	Seasonal agricultural workers ⁶	3.6	19.4	..	19.8
Trainees	..	58.5	64.8	75.4	Working Holiday Makers	24.0	41.7	46.5	62.4
Total	..	203.6	211.9	225.6	Total	27.6	62.3	..	106.4
Korea					United States⁷				
Highly skilled workers	3.4	40.5	Highly skilled workers				
Trainees	4.9	97.2	Specialists (visa H-1B)	35.8	118.4	107.2	139.0
Total	8.3	137.7	Specialists (visa H-2B)	..	62.6	79.0	76.2
Netherlands					Intracompany transferees (visa L1)	..	57.7	57.245	62.7
Temporary work permits (WAV)	..	34.6	38.0	44.1	Specialists (NAFTA, visa TN)	-	0.7	0.4	0.9
					Workers of distinguished abilities (visa O-1 and O-2)	3.0	8.0	8.6	9.0
					Seasonal workers (visa H-2A)	7.2	31.5	29.9	31.8
					Industrial trainees (visa H-3)	1.8	1.4	1.4	1.4
					Total	47.8	280.3	283.7	321.0
						(147.0)	(175.0)	(82.1)	(155.3)

Table I.5. **Entries of temporary workers in selected OECD countries by principal categories, 1992, 2002-2004** (cont.)

Thousands

Note: The categories of temporary workers differ from one country to another. Only the principal categories of temporary workers are presented in this table. The figures in brackets indicate the number of entries of permanent workers.

| Indicates a break in series.

1. The data cover the fiscal year (from July to June of the indicated year) and include accompanying persons. From 2000 on, the data are on and offshore and include the Long Stay Temporary Business Programme.
2. Flow of foreign workers entering Canada for the first time (according to CIC, Citizenship and Immigration Canada), including seasonal workers on their initial entry.
3. Beneficiaries of provisional work permits (APT).
4. Fiscal years. Data refer to permits and visas granted to persons who came to New Zealand to work. Humanitarian and family migration are therefore excluded. Other contains "arts, culture and sports", special work permits and the category "job search".
5. Data in the 1992 column relate to 1993. Excluding new EU citizens in 2004.
6. Seasonal work concerns students in full time education aged between 18 and 25.
7. The data cover the fiscal year (October to September of the indicated year). Data in the 1992 column refer to 1993. Figures refer to non-immigrant visas issued.

Sources: Australia: Department of Immigration and Ethnic Affairs (DIEA); Canada: Citizenship and Immigration Canada; France: National Agency for receiving foreigners and for Migration (ANAEM); Germany: Bundesanstalt für Arbeit; Italy: Ministry of Labour; Japan: Ministry of Justice; Korea: Ministry of Justice; Netherlands: Centre for Work and Income; New Zealand: Immigration Service; Norway: Statistics Norway; Sweden: Ministry of Labour; Switzerland: Office fédéral des étrangers; United Kingdom: Department of Employment; United States: United States Department of State, Bureau of Consular Affairs.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/161503167446>

... and renewed interest in temporary worker migration

Although public attention tends to be focused on long-term immigration, most OECD countries have temporary worker programmes and these programmes have been expanding over the past decade. Indeed temporary work is often seen as one way for OECD countries to satisfy certain labour shortages, especially low-skilled ones, without the need to admit large numbers of migrants in sectors which may eventually be subject to significant structural change. On the other hand, there are also certain standard forms of temporary labour migration, such as intra-corporate transfers, traineeships or temporary assignments abroad that have more to do with enhanced cross-border trade, investment and cultural exchange than with the existence of labour shortages in host countries.

Service provision has been advanced as one convenient form of temporary migration which can achieve the objective of satisfying temporary labour shortages. Service providers do not become employees of local establishments in the host country; rather they remain based in the country of origin or retain a relationship to an employer there and are only present in the host country for the period needed to provide the required service. However, as recent controversy over the European Union directive on cross-border service provision has shown, many receiving countries are reluctant to allow free access to foreign service providers, without some assurance that minimum domestic wages, working conditions and work regulations are respected and that administrative procedures for monitoring that this is the case are complied with. With normal temporary labour migration, which is the predominant way in which temporary labour shortages are currently met through migration, foreign workers are hired for fixed periods by domestic employers, with work contracts according to the laws of the country of the employer.

Table I.5 indicates that, if one cumulates temporary workers over all countries and over all categories of workers, entries for temporary work increased by about 7% from 2003 to 2004, to reach levels of over 1.5 million entries for the countries indicated. This is a lower bound, because not all types of temporary entries for work are included (for example, free movement entries are not shown here), nor do all OECD countries figure in the table. In addition there are other forms of movement which do not figure here, such as international study, for which governments may provide the possibility of some limited work in the host country during the period of study.

The types of workers and contracts shown in Table I.5 vary considerably. Working holiday workers are generally limited to part-time low-skilled jobs for one or two years, depending on the country. Seasonal work can be as short as three months (Germany) or as long as nine months in some other countries. H1B visas in the United States, on the other hand, concern skilled workers and are granted for three years, with the possibility of a renewal for a further three years. "Traineeships" are especially common in Japan and Korea, but sometimes reflect a disguised form of temporary lower skilled worker migration in those countries. Intra-corporate transfers appear as a sizable group in the United States (63 000 in 2004), but are not generally visible in the statistics for other countries.

Generally, it would be fair to say that virtually every category of temporary worker listed in Table I.5 is found in every country, but that the published permit statistics do not always explicitly identify them. In addition there are certain other types of movements, such as academic or research exchanges or, for that matter, cross-border service provision, which do not show up anywhere but also are found everywhere, if not necessarily in significant numbers.

Some of the forms of temporary migration shown here, such as seasonal work, traineeships or working holiday making are often the object of bilateral agreements between sending and receiving countries (see OECD, 2004b), which may facilitate the recruitment process as well as help ensure return of the temporary migrant to the home country at the end of the work period.

3. The immigrant population

In the previous issue of this publication (published as *Trends in International Migration*), statistics on the immigrant population on a comparable basis appeared for the first time for almost all OECD countries. The statistics presented were generally taken from the 2000 round of population censuses. They showed, among other things, that immigrant populations were larger than is generally revealed by statistics on the foreign population and that certain European countries, such as Austria, Germany and Sweden have immigrant populations that are as large in relative terms as that of the United States. Other countries such as Luxembourg and Switzerland are among those with the largest foreign-born populations among OECD countries. Clearly, international migration has been part of the recent if not always the more distant history of many countries and the challenge of welcoming and integrating significant numbers of immigrants is one that extends beyond the settlement countries of Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States (OECD, 2004c).

Immigrants account for more than 10% of the total population in a large number of OECD countries...

This section presents an update on the series on the foreign-born published last year, using a number of estimation methods developed for the occasion, for a number of countries for which no current estimates were available (See Box I.2). The foreign-born population has increased by about 14% overall from 2000 to 2004, covering all countries for which data for both years are available, with increases of over 20% for Austria, Finland, Ireland and the United States. Increases have been lower (less than 10%) for Australia, Canada, Germany, Hungary, Luxembourg and the Netherlands. Over two thirds of the countries shown had foreign-born populations in 2004 that exceeded 10% of the total population (Chart I.4)

... more and more countries are able to estimate the unauthorised population within their borders

The statistics presented here do not necessarily cover the unauthorised immigrant population. Some of the statistics are aggregated from municipal population registers and one normal requirement for registration is the holding of a valid residence permit, which excludes unauthorised immigrants. In population censuses, on the other hand, it is possible in principle for unauthorised immigrants to be counted, because the census is not restricted to legal residents. Whether or not unauthorised immigrants fill in a census form will depend on a number of factors, among them how confident they feel about census enumeration in the light of their residency status, the possibilities for concealing their presence in a private household and the efficacy of enumeration and follow-up procedures.

In certain countries, in particular the United States, it is clear that the population census does record considerable numbers of unauthorised immigrants, because the census numbers have yielded population increases that were far in excess of what was expected

Box I.2. Current estimates of the foreign-born population

In the last issue of *Trends in International Migration*, statistics of the foreign-born population were published, for the first time, for almost all OECD countries.* For the most part, these statistics were based on the 2000 round of population censuses. For a certain number of countries, the population census is the only reliable data source for statistics on the immigrant population. However, it has the disadvantage of being available on an infrequent basis.

To compensate for this, the Secretariat has developed up-to-date estimates on the foreign-born population for a number of countries for whom such estimates do not exist. Two methods have been used to produce these.

The first relies on the fact that there is generally a substantial overlap between the foreign and foreign-born populations and that most of the significant differences between the two populations can be accounted for by keeping track of the components of change (births, deaths, naturalisations, net movements, as applicable) in native-born foreigners (part of the foreign population but not of the foreign-born) and foreign-born nationals (part of the foreign-born population but not of the foreign). For some countries, the data needed to keep track of the most important of the components are available, which makes it possible to generate up-to-date estimates on the foreign-born.

The second method of estimation is based on a simple parametric method that, starting with a census figure for the foreign-born population, adds in inflows and subtracts outflows and deaths, where the latter are assumed to be a constant proportion of the previous year's stock. Estimates are thus produced year by year, with the constraint that the estimate for the year of the next census has to agree with the observed value. Statistics for the years after the census year are produced using the parameter so estimated.

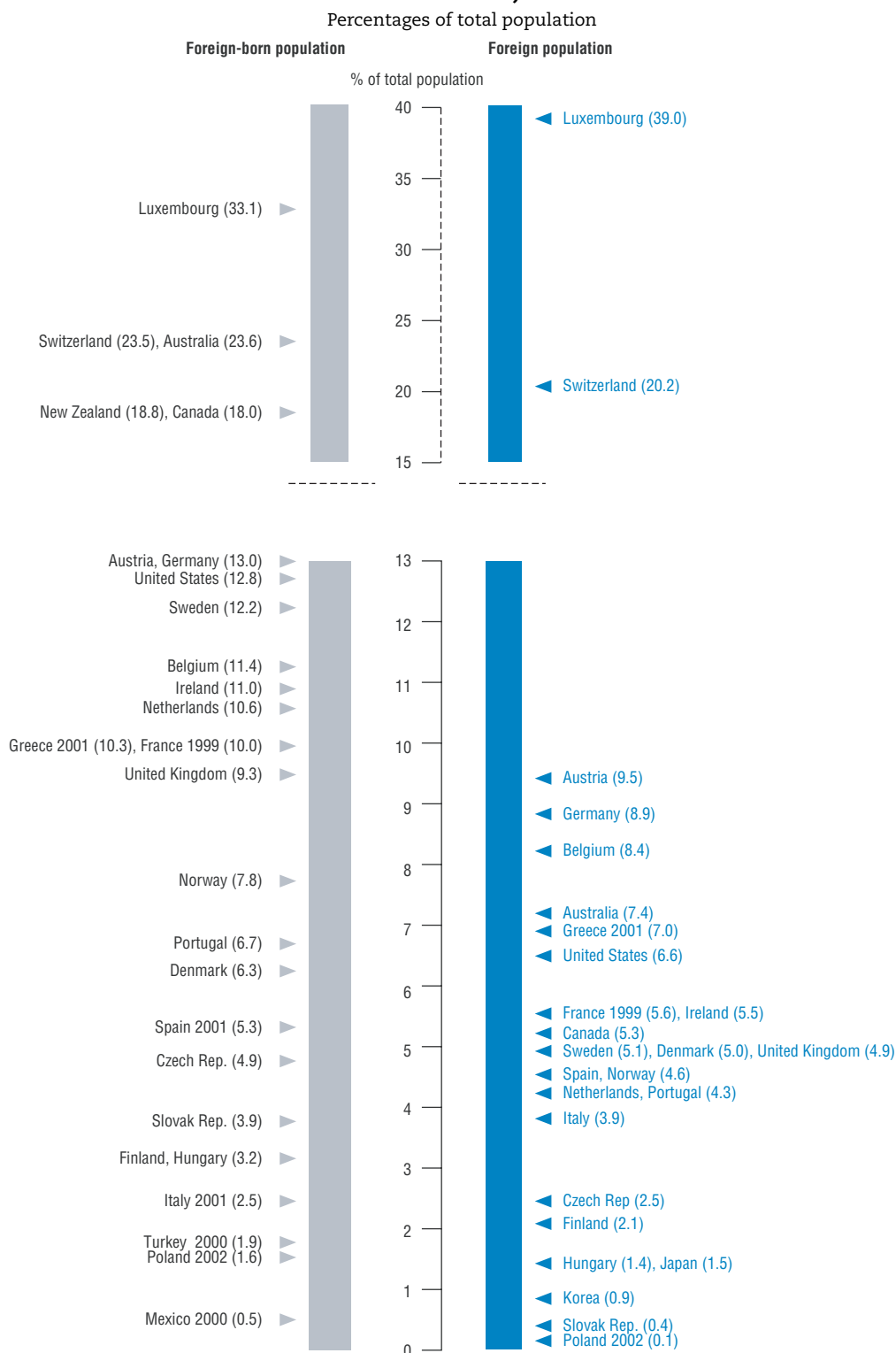
A description of the methods of estimation, as well as an evaluation of their accuracy, can be found at www.oecd.org/els/migration/imo2006.

* See www.oecd.org/dataoecd/27/5/33868740.pdf.

on the basis of population changes due to births, deaths and net legal migration. If the census also compensates for over- and under-coverage,⁷ in particular of unauthorised immigrants, then it can be used to estimate the unauthorised population residually. This has been done for the United States by subtracting from the total resident foreign-born population, the legally resident foreign-born population. The result yields an estimate of 10.4 million persons (Van Hook, Bean and Passel, 2005) for 2004, or about 3.6% of the total population.

For more and more countries, estimates of the unauthorised population are available, through various techniques (see Tapinos, 1999 for a more complete description of these). Table I.6 provides estimates for a number of these, using the specific methods used specified in the table. One involves the use of double entry-cards, in which persons entering a country fill out a card, one half of which is surrendered to the local authorities upon entry and the other half given up upon departure from the country. The number of total accumulated non-matches, after accounting for deaths and changes in status, represents the number of unauthorised immigrants. This method is used by Australia and Japan. It clearly requires a good control over borders, which is facilitated in these two countries by virtue of their being islands.

Chart I.4. **Stock of foreign and foreign-born populations in selected OECD countries, 2004¹**



1. 2004 unless otherwise stated.

Sources: Foreign-born population: estimates by the Secretariat for Canada, the Czech Republic, Germany, Ireland, Luxembourg, New Zealand, Portugal, Switzerland and the United Kingdom; for the other countries, please refer to the metadata for Table A.1.4. of the Statistical Annex. Foreign population: please refer to the metadata for Table A.1.5. of the Statistical Annex.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/311311808382>

Estimates for the Netherlands are based on a technique known as capture/recapture borrowed from animal ecology, where it is used to estimate the number of animal species in a particular area or lake. For example, a certain number of fish in a lake are netted over a specific period, tagged and returned to the lake. A second capture is then carried out and based on the per cent of newly captured fish that are found to be tagged, an estimate of the total number of fish in the lake can be made. In the case of the Netherlands, the estimate is based on police records of unauthorised immigrants identified through identity checks in two successive periods (Snel *et al.*, 2005).

For Switzerland, the Delphi method was used (GFS, 2005). For this, estimates are obtained locally and independently from a group of informed experts who must justify their figures. They are then fed back to the entire group for confrontation and discussion before a second round. The process continues until there is convergence of views. In the Swiss case, estimates were produced for six urban agglomerations and extrapolated to the rest of the country.

Finally, regularisations provide another way of obtaining data on unauthorised migration which are necessarily incomplete, because they cover only the population eligible to be regularised or which applies. Generally, candidates have to have lived in the country continuously from a specified date; this is to prevent uncontrolled influxes following the announcement of the programme. In addition, a regularisation programme will normally cover stays which began during the time interval since the previous regularisation, and any persons present not previously regularised or who were but have fallen back into illegality.

Table I.6. **Estimates of the unauthorised immigrant population, selected OECD countries**

	Number	% of total population	Year	Method of estimation
Australia	50 000	0.2	2005	Double card system
Japan	210 000	0.2	2005	Double card system
United States	10 300 000	3.6	2004 (18)	Residual method
Netherlands	125 000-230 000	0.8-1.4	2004	Capture/recapture
Switzerland	80 000-100 000	1.1-1.5	2005	Delphi method
Spain	690 000	1.6	2005 (4)	Regularisation
Italy	700 000	1.2	2002 (4)	Regularisation
Portugal	185 000	1.8	2001 (6)	Regularisation
Greece	370 000	3.4	2001 (3)	Regularisation

Note: The number in parentheses indicates the number of years since the previous major regularisation. The regularisation numbers cover only persons applying and thus are a lower bound for the number of unauthorised immigrants.

Sources: Australia, Japan, southern European countries: national SOPEMI reports. United States: Van Hook, Bean and Passel 2005. Netherlands: Snel *et al.* 2005. Switzerland: GFS 2005. Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/828518448448>

With the exception of Australia and Japan, where geography acts as a major filter and the proportion of unauthorised migrants is quite low, the percentage of unauthorised immigrants in countries for which documented estimation methods are available varies between 1% and almost 4% of the total resident population (see Table I.6). Greece and the United States, the countries with highest recorded percentages, are both characterised by an extensive land border with a country with a much lower GDP/capita. In both cases, persons from these neighbouring countries (Albania and Mexico, respectively) constitute a large majority of unauthorised immigrants in the country.

In some cases, unauthorised immigrants may be family members or relatives of legal residents and eligible for family reunification or sponsoring by residents. Indeed, some may eventually legalise their status in this way. Others become legal residents through marriage with a resident or citizen of the host country. For the majority, however, some form of regularisation is the only way to obtain the legal right of residence in the host country.

4. The contribution of migration to human capital in receiving countries

Currently and indeed historically as well, persons with tertiary education tend to be overrepresented among international migrants.⁸ Indeed in most countries, the per cent of immigrants with a tertiary education exceeds the corresponding percentage in the native-born population. There are a number of reasons for this. Persons with a tertiary education are more attuned to international labour markets and have a higher likelihood of possessing the means to carry out their plans than do persons with less education. In addition, returns to tertiary tend to be high in OECD countries, adding a further inducement to move. What is true for persons outside the OECD area, however, tends also to be true for persons moving within the OECD zone, that is, expatriates from an OECD country tend to be very highly educated relative to the population remaining behind (OECD, 2004c).

However, not every OECD country can be a “winner” with regard to intra-OECD movements. Some countries receive more tertiary graduates than depart to other OECD countries, others are in the opposite situation. The “losses”, however, can be compensated for by immigration from non-OECD countries, so that there can be a net gain.

Table I.7 summarises the situation for the current immigrant population in OECD countries, which represents the accumulated effect of several decades of population movements. Note, first of all that movements of the highly educated from the rest of the world exceed those from OECD countries (6% versus 4% of all tertiary educated in OECD countries). In addition, only the settlement countries of Australia, Canada and the United States and Luxembourg, Sweden and Switzerland gain significantly from migration of the highly educated within OECD countries. All other countries lose more graduates than they gain or show a small net balance. The picture also does not reflect current movements and policies, because Finland, Ireland and the United Kingdom, for example, who have been attracting persons from other OECD countries in recent years, show strong negative balances. Also showing a negative balance are the Central European countries, Germany, the Netherlands, Mexico, New Zealand and Portugal.

Factoring in immigration from the rest of the world substantially reduces the negative balances or makes them strongly positive in many countries. Canada, France, Sweden and the United States become strong net gainers while Belgium, Greece and the United Kingdom manage to turn a deficit situation into one that is neutral or somewhat positive. Because of limitations in the data (see Table I.7 notes), the picture is not a complete one. One does not know, for example, what proportion of the foreign born arrived young and obtained most of their education in the host country. Or how many were educated in the host country and how many in the country of origin or elsewhere. Still, even with these provisos the picture conveyed is undoubtedly a reasonably accurate one and illustrate that high historical outflows are not necessarily a permanent handicap.

Table I.7. **Foreign-born persons with tertiary attainment in OECD countries, circa 2000, as a percentage of all residents**

	Immigrants from other OECD countries	Emigrants to other OECD countries	Net migration within the OECD zone	Immigrants from the rest of the world	Total "net" foreign-born persons with tertiary attainment
	A	B	A – B	C	A – B + C
As a per cent of all residents with tertiary attainment					
Australia	16.8	2.4	14.4	12.1	26.5
Austria	9.1	13.8	-4.7	5.2	0.5
Belgium	5.9	6.4	-0.5	4.2	3.7
Canada	10.3	5.4	4.9	15.5	20.4
Czech Republic	4.1	8.7	-4.5	2.2	-2.3
Denmark	4.4	7.3	-2.9	3.2	0.3
Finland	0.9	6.8	-5.9	1.3	-4.6
France	4.2	4.4	-0.2	8.2	8.0
Germany	2.7	8.9	-6.2	2.3	-3.9
Greece	4.8	9.4	-4.6	7.3	2.7
Hungary	1.4	9.7	-8.3	4.5	-3.8
Ireland	14.0	26.1	-12.1	4.0	-8.1
Italy	2.8	7.3	-4.5	3.3	-1.2
Japan	0.2	1.1	-0.9	0.5	-0.4
Korea	0.2	1.4	-1.2	0.2	-1.0
Luxembourg	43.1	15.4	27.7	5.8	33.5
Mexico	0.8	6.9	-6.1	0.5	-5.6
Netherlands	3.3	8.9	-5.6	4.4	-1.2
New Zealand	14.6	24.4	-9.8	10.0	0.2
Norway	5.2	4.9	0.3	3.0	3.2
Poland	0.4	10.2	-9.8	2.3	-7.6
Portugal	4.1	11.2	-7.0	11.2	4.1
Slovak Republic	3.3	16.0	-12.8	0.9	-11.9
Spain	2.7	2.3	0.5	3.8	4.2
Sweden	6.9	5.4	1.5	7.3	8.8
Switzerland	20.0	10.8	9.1	7.3	16.4
Turkey	3.4	4.9	-1.5	2.7	1.2
United Kingdom	6.5	14.9	-8.4	9.4	1.0
United States	4.2	0.7	3.5	9.2	12.7
Average (simple)	6.9	8.8	-1.9	5.2	3.3
OECD zone	4.0	4.0	-	6.0	6.0

Notes: Data are largely from the 2000 round of population censuses in OECD countries. Tertiary attainment is classified according to the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED). The education in question may not have been received in the origin country. "Net" appears in quotes in the fifth column heading because emigration to non-OECD countries is not included. This would have required collecting census data from these countries. For more details, see "Counting Immigrants and Expatriates in OECD countries: A New Perspective" in *Trends in International Migration, 2004* (pp. 115 to 149) (www.oecd.org/els/migration).

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/117272383658>

B. Immigrants and the Labour Market

This section begins by describing the situation of immigrants – that is to say, persons born abroad irrespective of their nationality – in the labour market in OECD countries in 2003-2004. The second part analyses in greater detail the case of female immigrants.

1. The situation of foreigners and immigrants in OECD member country labour markets

Despite a vigorous upturn in growth in the OECD area, +3.4% real GDP growth in 2004, the labour market remained sluggish, even in those countries which had recorded the best macroeconomic figures. On average, employment rose by only 1.1% in the OECD countries in 2004, a mediocre result coming in the wake of a year of stagnation. The aggregate unemployment rate fell very slightly, by two-tenths of a percentage point to 6.7% in 2004, but remains high in a number of member countries and especially in Poland and the Slovak Republic and, to a lesser extent, in Greece, Spain, Turkey and France (see *OECD Employment Outlook*, 2005).

Immigrants represent a large and growing share of the labour force in the majority of OECD countries...

Foreigners and immigrants accounted in 2004 for a large proportion of the total labour force in the OECD countries (see Table I.8). Where persons born abroad are concerned, the numbers have increased by over 10% over the past five years in almost all the OECD countries (except for France). The increase is especially large in the countries of southern Europe, particularly in Italy, where the number of foreign-born workers rose sixfold over the period in question, and in Spain where they were 3.5 times more numerous. The increase also reached 46% in Ireland, 42% in Sweden and nearly 30% in the United States. The number of foreign workers, however, is rising less rapidly, or even decreasing, in two countries (Belgium and France), because of the scale of naturalisations. In Asia, and more especially Korea, on the other hand, there has been a steep rise in the number of foreign workers over the past five years.

In view of current demographic trends and because immigrants (particularly recent arrivals) tend generally to have a younger age structure than that of the native population, the increase in their share in the labour force can be expected to continue and to grow.

In 2004, foreign born workers accounted for less than 1.5% of the labour force in Korea, Japan and the central European OECD countries, but some 25% in Switzerland and Australia (45% in Luxembourg). In Canada, the United States and New Zealand, at least 15% of the working population were born abroad. This percentage is, however, close to or in excess of 12% in several European OECD countries such as Austria, Sweden, Germany and Belgium.

... even though their participation rate is on the whole lower than that of the native population

In 2003-2004, the immigrant participation rate was generally lower than that of nationals (see Chart I.5). This was particularly true in the case of Poland, where the gap was as much as 30 percentage points, but it was also appreciable, notably in Denmark and the Netherlands, where the immigrant participation rate was on average respectively 20 and 10 points lower than that of the native population. In the countries of southern Europe and Luxembourg however the participation rate of immigrants was considerably higher than that of the native population, due to the scale of employment-related migration and also the relatively low participation rates among the overall population (except in Portugal).

Table I.8. **Foreign and foreign-born labour force in selected OECD countries, 1999 and 2004**

Thousands and percentages

	Foreign-born labour force			Foreign labour force			Source data
	1999	2004	% of total labour force	1999	2004	% of total labour force	
	Thousands			Thousands			
Australia	2 242	2 474	24.9	HS (1999), LFS (2004)
Austria	470	585	15.3	367	320	8.4	LFS
Belgium	450	512	11.5	380	357	8.0	LFS
Canada	..	2 567	17.8	LFS
Czech Republic	..	109	1.2	26	36	0.7	LFS
Denmark	133	161	5.9	97	107	3.9	R
Finland	54	70	2.6	31	41	1.5	LFS
France	3 013	2 987	11.3	1 587	1 444	5.4	LFS
Germany	4 241	4 800	12.2	3 446	3 539	9.0	LFS
Greece ¹	284	402	8.5	171	303	6.4	LFS
Hungary	69	85	2.1	..	30	0.7	LFS
Ireland	129	188	10.0	57	112	5.9	LFS
Italy	213	1 350	5.6	224	759	3.2	LFS
Japan ²	126	192	0.3	WP
Korea ³	93	298	1.3	WP
Luxembourg ⁴	73	88	45.0	75	88	45.0	LFS
Netherlands	684	929	11.1	268	299	3.6	LFS
Norway	124	167	7.1	68	88	3.8	LFS
Portugal	230	379	7.3	64	150	2.9	LFS
Spain	645	2 241	11.2	359	1 852	9.3	LFS
Sweden	428	606	13.3	179	204	4.5	LFS
Switzerland	..	1 022	25.3	805	889	22.0	LFS
United Kingdom	2 293	2 759	9.6	1 116	1 557	5.4	LFS
United States	17 058	21 985	15.1	9 957	12 978	8.9	LFS

Note: Data based on Labour Force Surveys cover labour force aged 15 to 64 with the exception of the United States (labour force aged 15 and over). Data from other sources cover the labour force aged 15 and over.

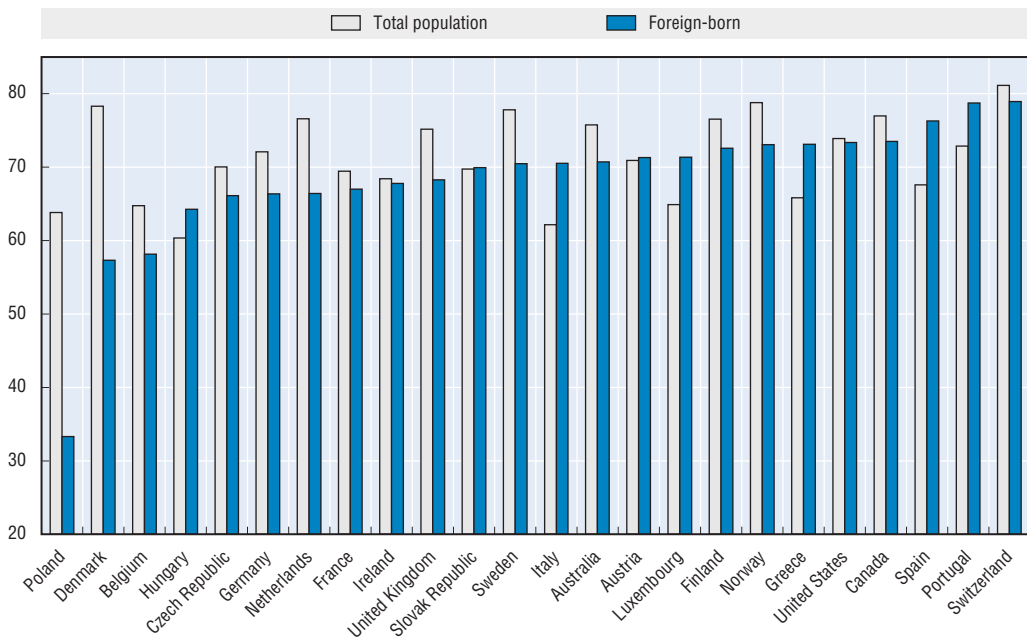
1. Data refer to foreigners who entered Greece for employment purposes.
2. Foreign residents with permission of employment. Excluding permanent and long-term residents whose activity is not restricted. Overstayers (most of whom are believed to work illegally) are not included either.
3. Overstayers are included.
4. Resident workers (excluding cross-border workers).

Sources: HS: Household survey;
LFS: Labour Force Survey;
R: Population register or register of foreigners;
WP: Work permits.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/274073437771>

The immigrant participation rate has increased over the past ten years in the majority of countries, though often more slowly than the rate for the native population, which gives a contrasting, even paradoxical impression of the increases recorded. In the Netherlands, for example, nearly 42% of immigrants were unemployed in 1994, compared to 34% in 2004, a reduction of 7.8 percentage points. At the same time, the participation rate for the native population rose by 8.2 points to 78.2% in 2004. Although immigrant participation in the labour market improved in absolute terms, the situation in relation to the native population therefore deteriorated slightly. Similar observations may be made concerning Austria, Belgium, Ireland and, to a lesser extent, France. Undeniable progress has however been made in Spain and Portugal.

Chart I.5. Participation rate by birth status in some OECD countries, 2003-2004



Sources: European Union Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat) except for Denmark (Population Register), 2004; Australia: Survey of Education and Work; Canada: Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics; United States: Current population survey March supplement. Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/033836513570>

Trends in foreign employment: progress has been significant but still not sufficient to reduce the disparities

Notwithstanding a recent slowdown, the past decade has been notable for a relatively sharp increase in employment in several member countries. Net job creations totalled over 5 million in Spain, 2.5 million in France, 2.1 million in Italy, 1.9 million in the United Kingdom, 1.5 million in Australia and 1.3 million in the Netherlands. In the United States, net job creation over the period in question totalled over 15.5 million jobs, of which 9 million are occupied by persons born abroad. Immigrants have in many other countries as well contributed substantially to this trend (Table I.9). The employment of both immigrants and natives has increased in all the countries concerned, with the exception of Austria and Sweden. In the United Kingdom, immigrants contributed to and benefited from over 30% of net job creation, while in Spain, the Netherlands, Portugal, Italy and Sweden, the percentage was equal to or in excess of 20%.

While the overall picture as regards progress in immigrant access to employment is relatively positive, it should not mask the scale of the disparities *vis-à-vis* the native population in a lot of OECD countries (see Annex to Part I). Moreover, these exist at all skill levels (see Table I.10). Skilled immigrants have employment rates which are systematically higher than immigrants whose studies have been of shorter duration, implying that education facilitates their entry into the labour market but the difference in the participation rate with the native population remains negative in almost all countries where higher education graduates are concerned. In Denmark, Germany and Finland, the difference is more than 15 percentage points.

The obstacles hindering skilled immigrants' access to employment are also reflected in their greater exposure to overqualification, i.e. occupying a less skilled job than their

Table I.9. **Employment change, total and foreign-born, 1994-2004**

	Employment (thousands)				Relative change over the period (%)		Increase in employment (Thousands)	
	Foreign-born		Total		Foreign-born	Total employment	Foreign-born	Total
	Average 1994-1995	Average 2003-2004	Average 1994-1995	Average 2003-2004				
Australia	1 876	2 336	7 879	9 385	24.5	19.1	460	1 506
Austria	424	494	3 630	3 645	16.5	0.4	70	15
Belgium	310	423	3 748	4 074	36.6	8.7	113	326
Canada	2 007	2 343	12 636	14 352	16.8	13.6	336	1 716
Czech Republic	..	97	..	4 639
Denmark	79	141	2 501	2 636	79.5	5.4	62	135
Finland	1	55	1 994	2 374	7 611.4	19.0	54	380
France	2 337	2 474	21 616	24 065	5.9	11.3	137	2 449
Germany	4 199	4 038	37 593	35 273	-3.8	-6.2	-161	-2 320
Greece	144	335	3 676	4 223	132.6	14.9	191	546
Hungary	..	78	..	3 884
Iceland	3	8	133	151	136.2	13.9	5	18
Ireland	66	175	1 203	1 780	163.8	48.0	109	577
Italy	125	527	19 764	21 892	322.4	10.8	402	2 128
Luxembourg	64	81	162	186	26.0	15.0	17	24
Netherlands	505	829	6 687	8 028	64.3	20.0	324	1 341
Norway	88	151	2 007	2 229	71.9	11.1	63	222
Poland	..	48	..	13 400
Portugal	170	330	4 227	4 800	94.6	13.5	160	572
Slovak Rep.	..	21	..	2 151
Spain	273	1 752	12 221	17 441	541.6	42.7	1 479	5 220
Sweden	227	525	3 981	4 260	131.0	7.0	298	279
Switzerland	..	935	..	3 861
United Kingdom	1 796	2 503	25 397	27 304	39.4	7.5	707	1 907
United States	10 831	20 142	116 801	132 499	86.0	13.4	9 311	15 698

Notes: 1994-1995 average and 2003 for Canada; 1994 and 2004 for Australia and the United States.

Sources: European Union Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat) except for Denmark (Population Register); Australia: Labour Force Survey; Canada: Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics; United States: Current Population Survey March Supplement.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/842418347054>

level of education would theoretically entitle them to expect. The overqualification ratios (see Table I.11) show that immigrant overqualification compared to the native population is substantial in the countries of southern Europe (Italy, Greece and, to a lesser extent, Portugal and Spain) and in some northern European countries (Norway and Sweden). In southern Europe, immigration is recent, made up mainly of workers who are ready to accept unskilled jobs when they arrive, in the hope of moving upwards at a later date. The Scandinavian countries are in a different situation, the proportion of migrants entering for work purposes being small and the proportion of refugees large. These refugees are relatively skilled, but have specific problems because of their status (they did not choose or plan to migrate, have no administrative documents corroborating their level of education and occupational skills, are uncertain how long their stay abroad will last, have been uprooted and have psychological problems, etc.), which may be made worse by severe language problems.

Table I.10. **Employment and unemployment rates of native- and foreign-born populations by level of education, 2003-2004**

Percentages

	Natives						Foreign-born					
	Employment rate			Unemployment rate			Employment rate			Unemployment rate		
	Low	Medium	High	Low	Medium	High	Low	Medium	High	Low	Medium	High
Australia	59.7	80.0	85.7	8.9	5.1	2.3	51.4	68.8	78.4	7.5	5.3	4.6
Austria	43.6	73.1	84.1	8.6	3.8	2.2	54.3	68.5	77.5	12.7	9.4	5.1
Belgium	41.9	66.3	83.9	10.0	6.8	3.0	33.9	53.5	73.7	22.6	16.1	9.6
Canada	53.1	76.2	83.7	10.9	5.9	3.8	51.0	69.1	75.4	10.4	8.2	9.0
Czech Republic	22.9	72.0	85.6	24.0	7.2	2.2	36.9	62.4	86.4	27.1	10.1	1.3
Denmark	61.0	81.8	87.9	7.0	4.5	3.5	44.3	57.5	64.2	16.0	11.6	9.8
Finland	47.7	72.3	85.0	18.7	10.3	4.3	39.1	64.1	69.5	31.5	18.8	15.3
France	47.1	70.6	78.7	12.2	7.9	5.8	47.8	62.1	70.8	18.4	14.4	11.8
Germany	40.2	69.1	84.5	15.6	10.4	4.4	45.1	62.4	68.1	20.3	14.7	12.5
Greece	49.2	59.5	82.1	8.7	12.4	7.0	64.4	64.4	68.7	9.0	12.1	13.2
Hungary	27.9	66.2	82.3	12.5	5.4	1.8	25.8	66.5	82.2	7.0	4.1	2.1
Ireland	48.0	71.5	86.5	7.3	3.7	2.2	44.4	63.8	76.5	10.5	6.4	4.3
Italy	45.6	65.9	81.4	10.2	7.7	5.4	59.5	67.4	78.8	9.6	8.3	5.3
Luxembourg	33.7	61.9	82.8	6.0	2.9	1.9	63.9	64.7	78.4	4.2	6.9	5.9
Netherlands	63.9	80.9	88.1	3.3	1.8	1.5	50.7	69.9	78.3	6.5	7.3	3.3
Norway	52.6	77.9	87.5	8.0	3.6	2.9	43.9	67.9	79.8	15.0	8.9	5.6
Poland	22.8	56.4	80.6	30.4	20.4	7.4	11.0	24.6	51.6	15.4	29.3	3.0
Portugal	66.5	62.3	87.6	6.7	6.4	4.6	67.5	70.0	83.6	11.2	7.5	7.5
Slovak Republic	14.3	66.6	84.3	49.8	16.4	5.2	31.1	53.4	85.0	43.6	23.8	5.7
Spain	53.4	60.2	79.5	12.6	11.1	7.9	61.2	68.9	73.2	15.3	13.0	11.9
Sweden	57.7	80.4	87.4	8.0	5.3	2.9	45.9	66.8	76.0	18.3	11.6	8.8
Switzerland	57.1	80.4	92.4	4.8	3.1	1.9	63.4	74.1	81.9	10.4	8.2	5.7
United Kingdom	52.5	77.5	88.1	8.8	4.7	2.3	39.3	66.9	81.8	12.2	7.9	4.2
United States	35.9	71.0	83.0	15.5	6.7	3.2	58.6	70.0	77.6	9.1	5.7	4.3

Note: Data refer to 2002 for the Netherlands, 2003 for Canada and to 2004 for Australia, Denmark and the United States.

Sources: European countries: European Union Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat) except Denmark (Population Register); United States: Current Population Survey March Supplement; Australia: Survey of Education and Work; Canada: Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/142486051538>

Whether young or old, immigrant workers have to contend with specific difficulties when entering the labour market

In some OECD countries, certain categories of immigrants of working age encounter specific difficulties in entering the labour market. This is the case of women, young people and elderly workers in particular. However, the factors responsible for this vary from one group to another (and depending on the country), therefore justifying the introduction of targeted and/or specific active policies.

Better links between training and employment and the development of apprenticeships are recognised as ways of encouraging youth employment, while financial incentives and life-long training are advocated as ways of keeping older people in work. Subsidies for child-care systems, the introduction of more balanced taxation and measures to combat discrimination are being stressed where women are concerned (OECD-2006 *Live Longer, Work Longer*, OECD-2002 "Women at Work: Who Are They and How Are They Faring?", in *OECD Employment Outlook*).

Table I.11. **Overqualification rates of the native- and foreign-born populations in some OECD countries, 2003-2004**

Percentages

	Total	Native-born (A)	Foreign-born (B)	B/A
Australia	20.4	19.0	24.6	1.3
Austria	11.5	10.3	21.1	2.0
Belgium	16.2	15.6	21.6	1.4
Canada (2003)	7.2	5.9	13.2	2.2
Czech Republic	5.2	5.2	10.0	1.9
Denmark	10.9	10.4	18.6	1.8
Finland	14.4	14.3	19.2	1.3
France	11.6	11.2	15.5	1.4
Germany	12.3	11.4	20.3	1.8
Greece	11.3	9.0	39.3	4.4
Hungary	6.4	6.3	9.7	1.5
Ireland	16.6	15.7	23.8	1.5
Italy	7.0	6.4	23.5	3.6
Luxembourg	5.5	3.4	9.1	2.7
Norway	9.2	8.4	20.3	2.4
Portugal	9.0	7.9	16.8	2.1
Spain	25.5	24.2	42.9	1.8
Sweden	7.6	6.5	16.1	2.5
Switzerland	10.5	10.0	12.5	1.3
United Kingdom	15.5	15.3	17.8	1.2
United States (2002)	14.0	13.4	18.1	1.4

Note: Rates for the European countries do not take into account small entrepreneurs.

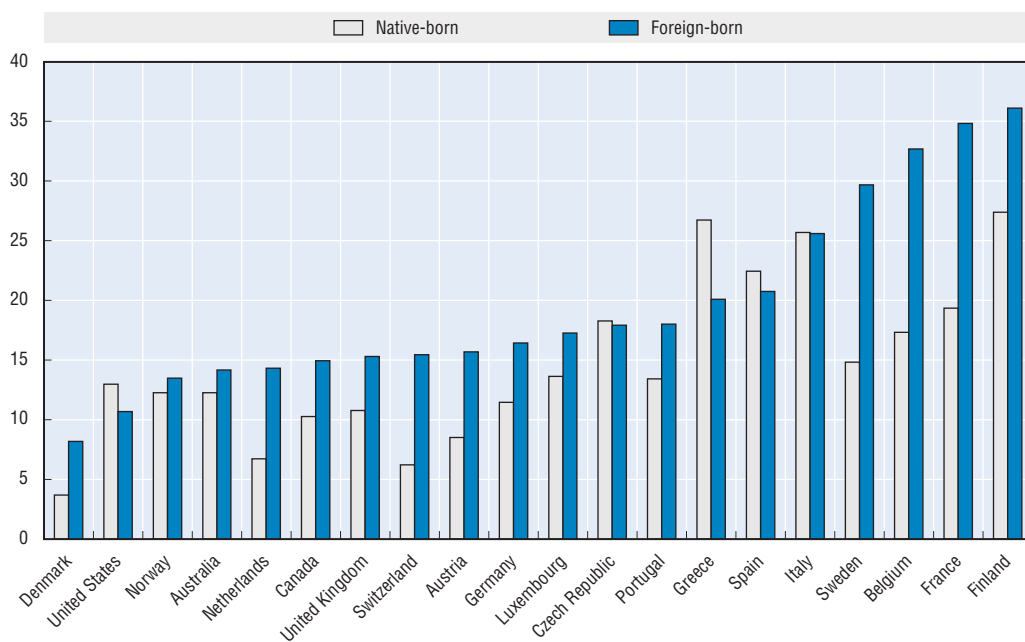
Sources: European countries: European Union Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat); United States: *Current Population Survey March Supplement*; Canada: Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics; Australia: Household, Income and Labour Dynamics. Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/564745030646>

It is important in this connection to emphasise that immigrants in these groups are unequally affected by the difficulties of gaining access to employment. For example, young people born abroad are significantly more exposed to unemployment than are their native counterparts in the majority of OECD countries, with the exception of Greece, Spain, the United States, Italy and the Czech Republic (see Chart I.6). In France, for example, while unemployment among young people born in that country is nearly 20%, the figure for young immigrants is 35%. All told, nearly 50 000 immigrants aged between 15 and 24 are looking for work in France. Much the same can be said about Belgium and Sweden, where unemployment among young immigrants is at least twice that of the native population.

There are a number of explanations for this phenomenon, in particular the fact that it is those who attended school outside the country of residence who have the greatest difficulty in having their skills and competencies recognised. For those who immigrated recently, language can be an additional obstacle. In any event, in view of the scale of the difficulties observed and the possible risks of social unrest in these countries, there is an urgent need to gauge the problem and introduce policies that promote access to employment for young people and the development of their professional careers, including taking more vigorous measures to combat discrimination.

In a number of member countries, older immigrant workers have to contend with much the same situation as that facing young people; they combine the difficulties specific to their age group with those stemming from their immigrant past (see Chart I.7). In Belgium, fewer than a quarter of 55-64 year olds born abroad are in work, while in

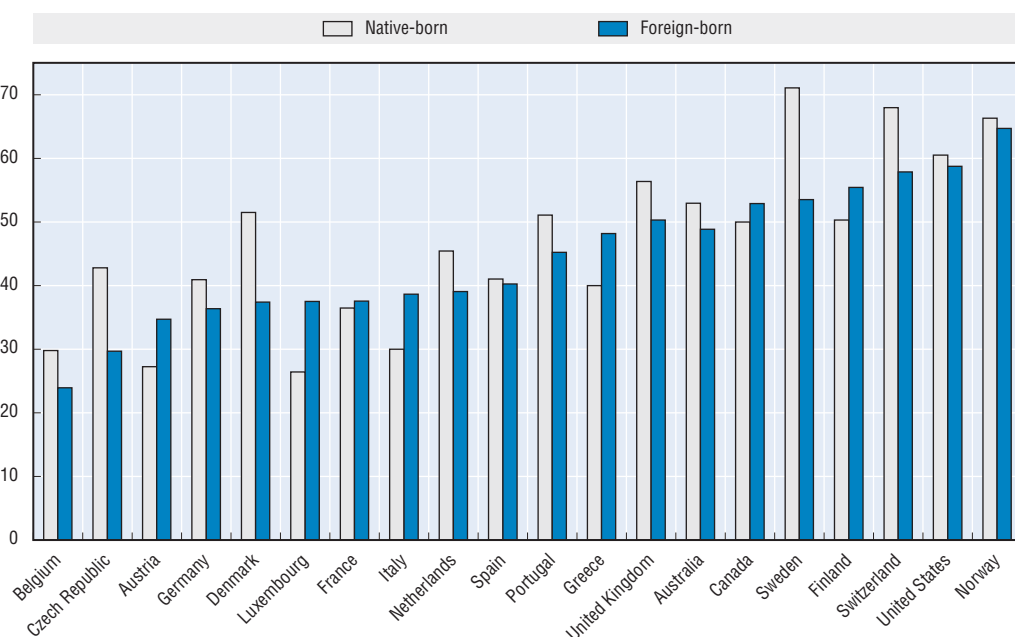
Chart I.6. **Unemployment rate of young workers (15-24) by birth status, 2003-2004**



Sources: European Union Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat) except for Denmark (Population Register), 2004; Australia: Survey of Education and Work; Canada: Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics; United States: Current population survey March supplement.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/506247236014>

Chart I.7. **Unemployment rate of older workers (55-64) by birth status, 2003-2004**



Sources: European Union Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat) except for Denmark (Population Register), 2004; Australia: Survey of Education and Work; Canada: Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics; United States: Current population survey March supplement

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/28422552242>

Germany, in Denmark and the United Kingdom the figures are approximately 35, 37 and 50%, respectively. The European situation is in contrast with that found in North America, where the employment rate among older people is higher and does not really depend on their place of birth.

To understand the situation prevailing in some of the most affected European countries, it is important to look at the history of migration. Workers who immigrated at the age of 20 between 1965 and 1975 to work in the automobile, metal-working, chemical or construction industries in Germany, Belgium, France and Switzerland are now aged between 55 and 65. The major restructuring which affected some of these sectors in the last few decades in many cases put an end to the working careers of these immigrant workers. Their chances of reconversion were all the more limited because they had not benefited from occupational training opportunities, and the requirements of the labour market had changed radically with the gathering pace of technical progress and the expansion of the services sector. The question nevertheless arises as to whether the above facts are attributable mainly to the specific characteristics of the cyclical shocks that marked the late 20th century, or whether they are more structural and due to the relative failure of the process of integration.

The situation of immigrant women is also worrying and is the subject of a more thorough analysis in Section I.B.2 of this publication.

Immigrant employment is spreading to the service sectors...

Table I.12 shows the sectoral breakdown of immigrant employment in 2003-2004 in OECD countries. Immigrants are generally over-represented in the construction, hotel and restaurant sectors, and also in the healthcare and social services sectors, where their share in employment is on the whole larger than their share in the overall labour force.

The sectoral breakdown however varies considerably from one country to another. Some 6% of immigrants work in agriculture in Spain, 32% work in the mining and manufacturing industries in Germany, 27% are in construction in Greece, 15% in the wholesale and retail trade in Switzerland, 13% in hotels and restaurants in Ireland, over 16% in education in the United States, 21% in health care and social services in Sweden, and 33% in other services in Canada.

Tertiary activities nowadays account for a preponderant share of employment in general and immigrant employment in particular in the majority of OECD countries. This is true especially in the United Kingdom, Norway and Sweden, where over 75% of immigrants are employed in services, not including public administration and extraterritorial organisations,⁹ but the figure is now over 60% in almost all countries.

Immigrant employment in education and health is becoming increasingly significant in a number of countries. Persons born abroad account, for example, for over 14% of total employment in the health sector in Sweden, and for 10% in education in Ireland. Between 20 and 30% of immigrants work in one of these two sectors in Finland, Switzerland, Sweden and the United Kingdom.

However, a far from negligible proportion of the service jobs held by immigrants are unskilled jobs, particularly in hotels and restaurants, where immigrants are over-represented in 14 of the 19 member countries selected. This finding reflects the persisting unfilled demand for labour in this area which remains generally unattractive to the native-born, given the working conditions and the remuneration. In a number of countries, the

Table I.12. **Employment of foreign-born by sector, 2003-2004 average**
Percentage of total foreign-born employment

	Agriculture and fishing	Mining, manufacturing and energy	Construction	Wholesale and retail trade	Hotels and restaurants	Education	Health and other community services	Households	Admin. and ETO	Other services
Austria	1.2	22.3	8.8	14.4	12.0	4.2	8.8	(0.4)	2.9	25.0
Belgium	1.2	17.3	6.9	13.6	7.4	6.2	10.7	0.6	9.1	27.1
Canada (2003)	1.2	19.8	6.0	14.1	7.8	5.5	9.6	..	3.6	32.5
Czech Republic	3.7	29.9	8.8	18.2	4.6	5.1	6.1	..	4.5	18.9
Finland	..	20.1	5.1	14.5	8.9	6.8	13.6	26.9
France	1.9	14.6	10.3	11.9	5.9	6.0	9.7	5.8	6.8	27.2
Germany	1.3	32.0	6.4	12.9	7.6	3.9	10.1	0.7	3.3	21.9
Greece	6.1	16.3	27.3	11.4	9.2	2.7	2.4	13.4	1.4	9.7
Ireland	2.2	16.6	8.4	11.5	13.2	6.4	12.5	..	2.9	25.4
Japan ¹	0.5	58.7	1.8	13.1	(¹)	25.9
Luxembourg	1.0	10.5	16.0	12.2	6.0	1.9	6.3	4.2	12.2	29.8
Netherlands (2002)	1.5	20.4	4.5	15.0	8.2	5.4	12.2	..	4.6	28.2
Norway	..	13.7	4.5	12.6	8.6	8.0	20.7	..	3.7	27.0
Spain	6.0	13.6	16.3	12.2	12.0	3.6	3.7	12.2	2.0	18.5
Sweden	0.6	17.2	2.7	12.1	6.6	10.8	18.6	..	3.9	27.5
Switzerland	1.1	19.7	8.4	15.2	7.3	6.1	13.4	1.3	3.4	24.1
United Kingdom	0.4	11.8	4.3	13.6	9.0	8.4	14.5	1.0	5.2	31.9
United States	2.5	14.3	9.6	13.0	11.9	16.4	2.5	26.6

Note: The numbers in bold indicate the sectors where foreign-born are over-represented (i.e., the share of foreign-born employment in the sector is larger than the share of foreign-born employment in total employment). The sign “..” indicates that the estimate is not reliable enough for publication.

1. Data refer to June 2002. The “Hotels and restaurants” sector is included in the “Wholesale and retail trade” sector. Sources: European countries: European Union Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat) except Denmark (Population Register), 2004; Australia, Japan: Labour force surveys; Canada: Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics; United States: Current Population Survey March Supplement.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/636251543631>

same could be said of child-minding and caring for old people, as well as cleaning services. Domestic services account, for example, for over 12% of immigrant employment in Spain, and 13% in Greece.

... while self-employment is growing...

In almost all countries for which data are available, self-employment among immigrants has increased over the past five years, both in numbers and as a percentage of overall self-employment (see Table I.13). In some countries, the increase has been particularly apparent. Foreign-born persons accounted in 2004 for some 11% of total self-employment in France and the United Kingdom, 12% in Belgium and nearly 14% in Sweden – figures which are generally higher than the share of immigrants in the total labour force.

This finding could reflect an improved position in the host-country society, but it could also be an illustration of the fact that, to contend with the growing difficulty of labour market entry (insufficient social capital, language difficulties, problems with the recognition of qualifications), some categories of immigrant worker are using self-employment as a fall-back solution.

Table I.13. **Foreign-born in self-employment in some OECD countries, 1999 and 2004**

Percentages

	Share of foreign-born in total self-employment		Share of self-employment in total foreign-born employment	
	1999	2004	1999	2004
Australia	..	26.7	..	12.7
Austria	6.0	9.2	3.9	7.6
Belgium	10.0	12.4	7.6	15.2
Czech Republic	..	3.1	..	24.3
Denmark	5.2	8.4	12.0	9.7
France	10.4	11.2	5.2	10.4
Germany	9.2	10.3	4.0	9.2
Greece	1.9	2.6	7.2	9.7
Ireland	7.5	8.0	11.0	14.2
Luxembourg	31.7	38.7	4.2	6.9
Netherlands	7.2	8.7	5.1	9.8
Norway	6.1	8.0	6.1	8.4
Portugal	2.8	3.8	10.5	13.8
Spain	2.7	4.5	10.5	12.5
Sweden	9.9	13.7	6.4	11.2
Switzerland	..	17.5	..	10.3
United Kingdom	10.2	10.9	8.3	15.0
United States	..	13.1	..	9.2

Sources: European countries: European Union Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat) except Denmark (Population Register), 2004; United-States: Current Population Survey; Australia: Survey of Education and Work, 2004.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/541122430563>

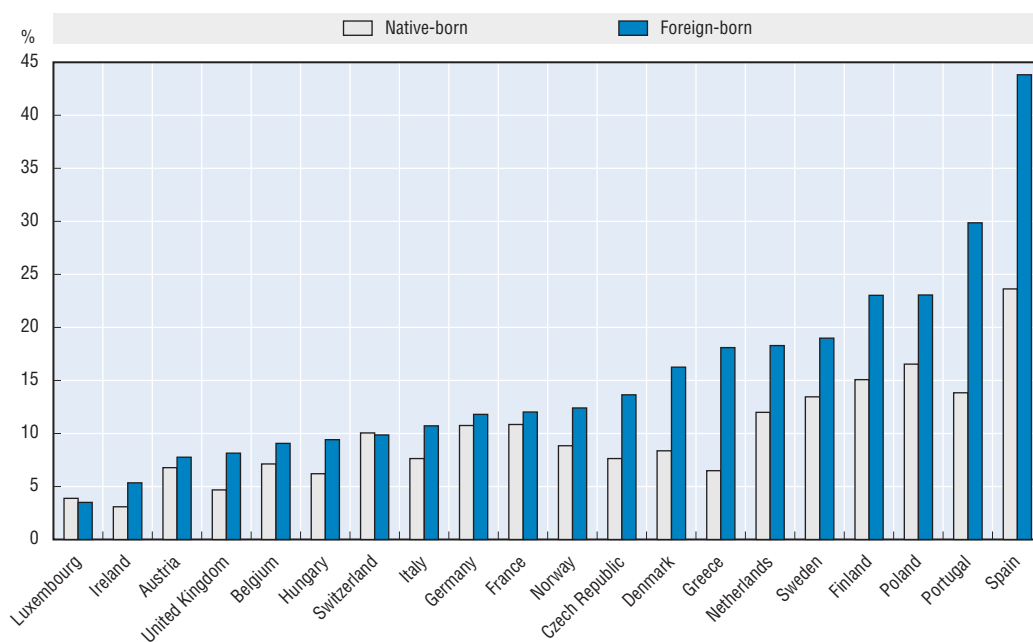
... as are “atypical jobs”

Chart I.8 shows that, in almost all the countries under consideration, with the exception of Ireland, the probability of being in a temporary job is appreciably greater for immigrants than for the native population. The differential appears to be all the greater the more widespread temporary work is in the country considered. The share of temporary jobs among immigrants is nearly 45% in Spain and almost 30% in Portugal, i.e. 20 and 16 percentage points more, respectively, than for the native population. In some countries, though, this finding is influenced by the predominance of trainee jobs for young labour market entrants. This is true, in particular, in Germany, Switzerland and, to a lesser extent, the United Kingdom. In some cases, however, it is indicative of job insecurity, which hits immigrants to a disproportionate degree. The results regarding the prevalence of part-time work, which are in any case more difficult to interpret, do not point to any particular imbalance due to the place of birth.

Immigrants and foreigners are often more exposed to unemployment than the native population or nationals

In 2003-2004, immigrants in the majority of European OECD countries were relatively harder hit by unemployment than was the native population (see Chart I.9). It is in the Netherlands that the share of foreigners in unemployment relative to their share in the labour force is highest, but it is also significant in Denmark and Belgium. In the latter two countries, immigrants are at least twice as numerous among the unemployed as they are in the labour force (in other words, their rate of unemployment is at least double that of the native population). Compared with previous years, the situation has improved appreciably

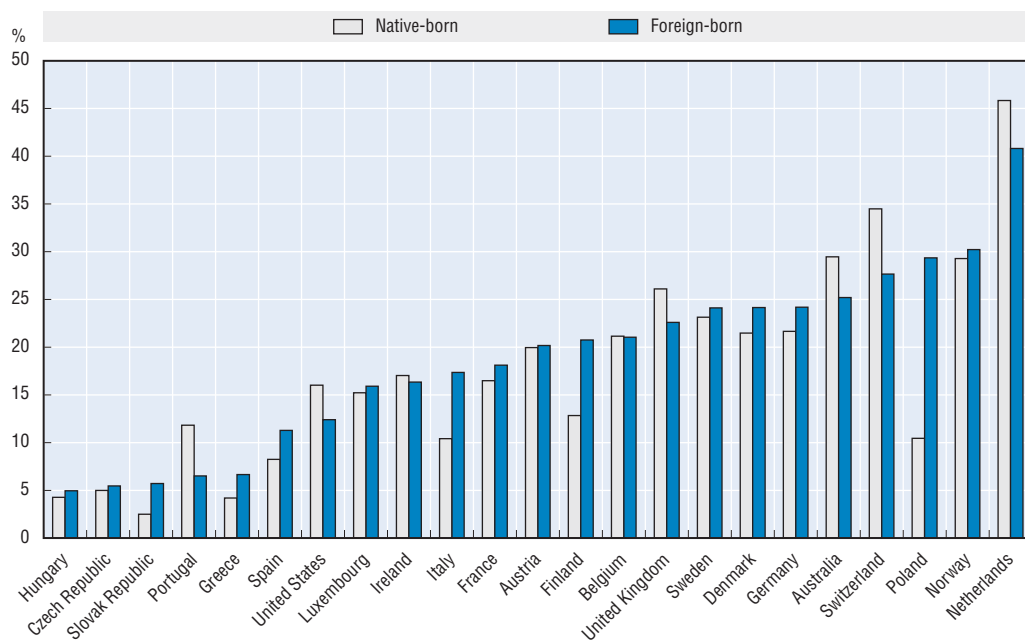
Chart I.8a. **Share of temporary employment in total employment, by birth status, 2004**



Source: European Union Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat).

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/220642645357>

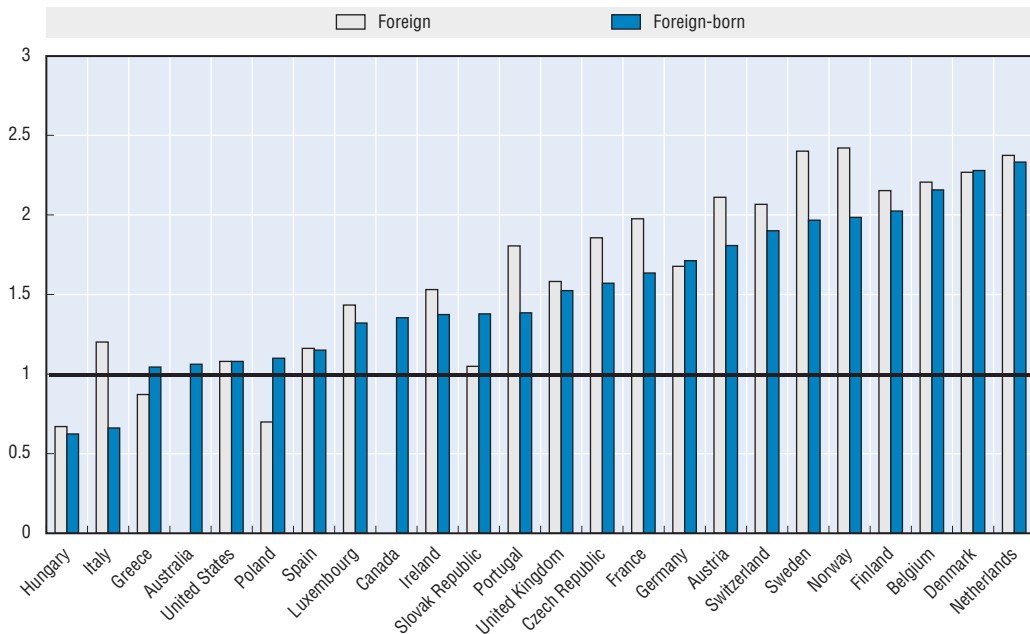
Chart I.8b. **Share of part time jobs in total employment, by birth status, 2004**



Sources: European Union Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat); Australia: Survey of Education and Work; United States: Current population survey March supplement.

Chart I.9. **Proportion of foreign and foreign-born in total unemployment, relative to their share in the labour force**

2003-2004 average



Sources: European Union Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat) except for Denmark (Population Register), 2004; Australia: Survey of Education and Work; Canada: Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics; United States: Current population survey March supplement.

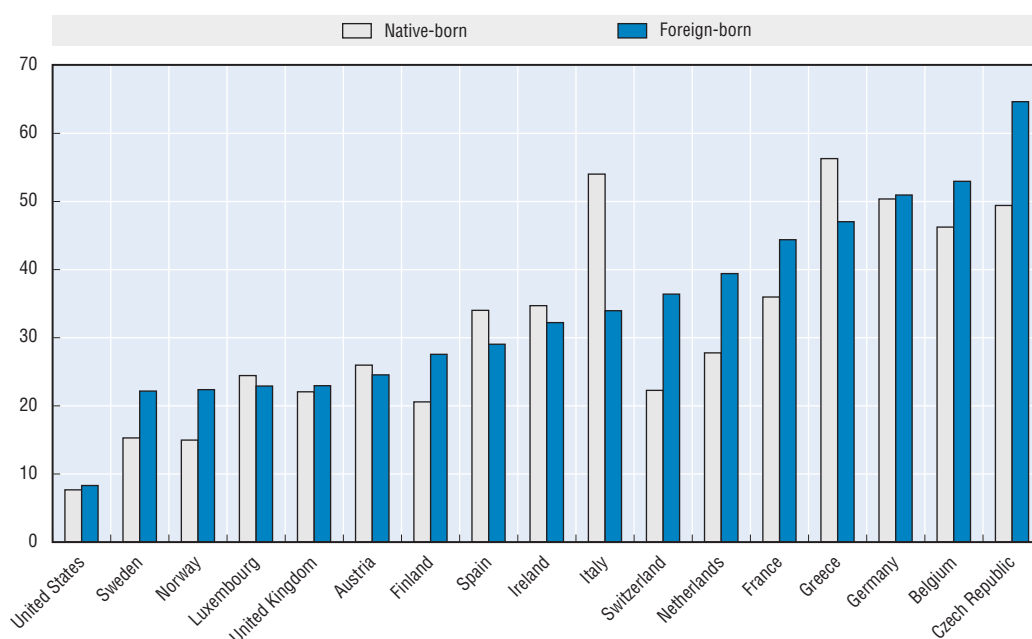
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in Sweden and, to a lesser extent, in Switzerland. In a number of OECD countries, however, especially the main settlement countries (Australia, Canada, the United States) and recent immigration countries (Italy, Spain, Greece, Hungary, Poland), the unemployment rate does not vary much by place of birth.

As a general rule in terms of unemployment, the situation of foreigners is relatively less favourable than it is for persons born abroad. This is especially true in the Nordic countries, in Italy and Portugal and in France. In the latter two countries, some of the findings for immigrants are influenced by the fact that repatriates constitute a large group which tends to do well on the labour market. More generally, the discrepancy between foreigners and foreign-born persons may be partly due to the fact that acquiring the nationality of the host country reflects a *de facto* integration and that, in some countries, certain categories of job are not open to certain categories of foreigner (e.g. public service jobs for nationals of third countries in the majority of European OECD countries).

In approximately half of the countries for which data are available, immigrants are relatively more exposed to long-term unemployment than are natives (see Chart I.10). In Switzerland and the Netherlands, the gap is in excess of 10 percentage points (14 and 13 points, respectively), while it is also substantial in France, Belgium and, to a lesser extent, Norway and Sweden. In Belgium, more than half of all unemployed immigrants or foreigners have been looking for work for more than a year, whereas they receive proportionately less unemployment benefit than do nationals (OECD *Economic Survey of Belgium*, 2005).

Chart I.10. **Share of long-term unemployed in total unemployment, by birth status**
2003-2004 average



Sources: European Union Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat); United States: Current population survey March supplement.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/222628387354>

2. Overview of the labour market integration of immigrant women on the labour market in OECD countries

As has been emphasised, certain groups of immigrants face specific difficulties in integrating into the labour market in certain OECD countries. Among them, women immigrants are particularly affected, as they accumulate a number of obstacles and face multidimensional discrimination.

Access of immigrant women to the labour market: a lower employment rate than their native-born counterparts

In all countries under consideration, except in the Czech Republic, foreign-born women have lower employment rates than their native-born counterparts (Table I.14 and the Annex). Less than 60% of immigrant women aged between 15 and 64 have a job, except in Norway, Portugal and Switzerland.

The differences between native and immigrant women increase with the level of education. Among those who have pursued post-secondary education, the gap exceeds 19 percentage points in Denmark, Germany and Greece. For those with lower education attainment, the differences are lower on average, and more heterogeneous. In 9 of 21 countries for which data are available, low-skilled immigrant women have higher employment rates than native born. In other countries, the employment rates of immigrant women is lower than that of native-born women at all education levels.

These figures conceal the sometimes sizeable differences according to the migrants' region of origin. Taking into account only immigrants from non-OECD member countries, it can be seen that they have proportionally even lower employment rates. The difference

Table I.14. **Employment and unemployment rates for foreign-born women (15-64), by level of education, 2004**

	Foreign-born								Foreign-born non-OECD	
	Secondary and under		Upper secondary		Tertiary		Total		Total	
	Unemployment rate	Employment rate	Unemployment rate	Employment rate	Unemployment rate	Employment rate	Unemployment rate	Employment rate	Unemployment rate	Employment rate
Australia	7.3	42.2	5.6	59.1	4.6	71.7	5.6	57.6	7.2	63.7
Austria	16.7	41.3	8.6	60.3	–	69.4	10.7	53.7	11.4	55.7
Belgium	23.5	25.0	13.7	42.8	8.4	67.3	15.0	40.1	20.2	37.1
Canada	10.7	44.1	9.9	61.9	9.4	69.9	9.8	60.7
Czech Republic	28.9	32.9	8.9	54.9	–	82.6	13.5	49.9	8.2	49.8
Denmark	17.6	38.1	11.4	53.1	9.0	62.9	12.7	44.8	15.3	38.5
Finland	46.5	24.0	17.7	53.7	–	65.6	25.3	47.1	28.6	41.0
France	20.9	39.3	15.0	54.4	13.6	63.0	17.4	47.9	21.7	43.9
Germany	17.0	35.6	14.5	54.8	14.3	60.0	15.2	46.5	20.4	38.4
Greece	16.6	43.1	20.8	46.7	19.4	56.5	19.1	47.2	17.9	48.3
Hungary	–	22.9	–	56.7	–	67.6	6.4	50.8	–	50.8
Ireland	–	31.2	–	54.6	–	69.7	5.3	54.0	–	25.2
Italy	16.4	40.1	12.1	53.5	8.2	68.8	13.2	49.1	14.6	49.1
Luxembourg	7.3	54.2	13.1	48.9	7.2	67.1	9.6	54.8	16.3	49.1
Netherlands	10.6	50.1	11.8	47.5
Norway	–	41.8	–	62.4	–	74.7	7.3	62.2	–	54.4
Poland	–	–	52.1	14.8	–	42.8	29.3	19.0	35.0	17.6
Portugal	12.8	58.3	–	59.0	–	82.4	9.6	64.1	9.5	66.9
Slovak Republic	–	38.9	38.6	39.9	–	–	30.5	43.3	–	79.0
Spain	19.9	44.8	15.4	60.5	15.8	62.4	17.1	54.1	18.3	54.4
Sweden	17.8	42.1	13.7	63.2	7.6	75.6	12.6	59.1	17.9	49.4
Switzerland	12.4	54.7	8.5	66.7	6.5	72.5	9.2	63.8	14.4	59.9
United Kingdom	9.3	30.0	8.3	59.2	4.9	76.5	7.3	55.0	8.3	51.1
United States	12.1	39.5	6.0	59.6	4.6	68.4	6.8	56.2	6.0	61.0

Notes: “–” indicates that the figure is not significant and “..” indicates that it is not available. Data for Canada refer to 2003. Sources: European countries: European Union Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat) except Denmark (Population Register); Australia: Survey of Education and Work; Canada: Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics; United States: Current Population Survey March Supplement. Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/032014542005>

relative to the rate for all immigrant women is particularly pronounced in the case of Ireland, but is also large in Sweden, Germany and Denmark.

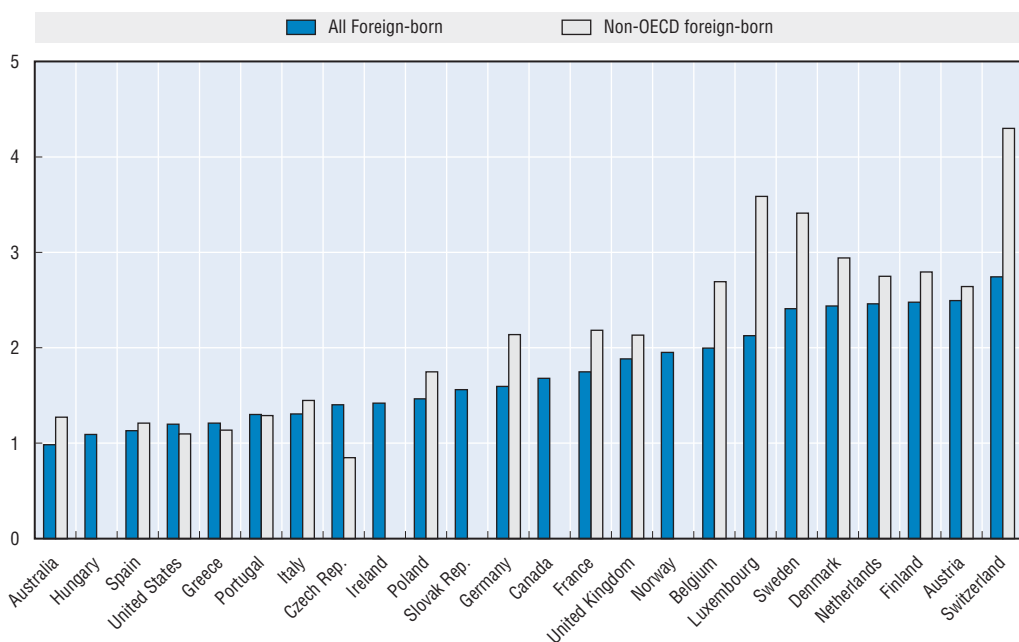
Highly qualified immigrant women from non-OECD member countries are particularly disadvantaged. In Germany, for example, the employment rate of this group is only 43% (compared to 60% for all highly qualified immigrant women and 81% for native-born women with the same level of education). Similar results hold for most receiving countries and notably for Switzerland, Luxembourg and the Nordic countries, where the gap with the natives reaches 20% or more. It is likely that this is partly attributable to the problems of the recognition of foreign qualifications, and more generally of their training, but also to factors such the impact of attitudes and behaviour “imported” from the country of origin, or to language problems.

Even though such obstacles are not restricted to immigrant women, the fear is that they may be more affected, because of the fields in which they tend to be concentrated. Highly qualified immigrant women are in effect largely over-represented with respect to their male counterparts, in education and medical professions, i.e. in occupations which are generally regulated, but very largely under-represented in engineering-type occupations. Immigrant

women are also systematically over-represented, both with respect to native-born women and immigrant men, in the arts and humanities.

An analysis of the unemployment rates shows results similar to those observed for employment rates. More than 15% of immigrant women in the labour force are seeking employment in Belgium, Germany, Spain, Greece, Spain, Finland, France, the Slovak Republic and Poland. In relative terms, the unemployment rate of immigrant women is at least twice as high as that of natives in Austria, Denmark, Finland, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Sweden and Switzerland (Chart I.11). The difference in levels vis-à-vis the native-born is systematically positive, but does not generally increase with the level of qualifications.

Chart I.11. **Ratio of unemployment rate of foreign-born women to that of native-born women (15-64), 2004**



Note: Data for Canada refer to 2003.

Sources: European countries: European Union Labour Force Survey (Eurostat) except Denmark (Population Register), 2004; United States: *Current Population Survey March Supplement*; Canada: *Labour Force Survey*; Australia: *Survey of Education and Work*.
Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/876404068235>

Immigrant women tend less frequently to occupy skilled jobs...

When in employment, immigrant women tend less frequently to occupy skilled jobs (Table I.15). This phenomenon is particularly pronounced for women from non-OECD member countries. The gap is particularly high in Spain, Greece, Italy, but also in Germany and Austria. However, exceptions to this rule are Poland, Hungary, Portugal, the United Kingdom, Ireland, and, to a lesser extent, Belgium.

However, it is not possible to make a judgement based on this result, because it is not independent of the relative qualification structure of immigrant women. Table I.16 presents the rates of overqualification by country of birth, i.e. the proportion of women who, according to their education level, should be exercising a more skilled profession. These figures show without ambiguity that immigrant women are systematically more

Table I.15. **Percentage of women in highly skilled (HS) occupations, native- and foreign-born (15-64), 2004**

	Native-born	<i>Of which:</i> HS occupations (ISCO = 1)	Foreign-born	<i>Of which:</i> HS occupations (ISCO = 1)	Foreign-born non-OECD	<i>Of which:</i> HS occupations (ISCO = 1)
Austria	38.2	3.7	25.3	3.3	18.6	2.9
Belgium	42.9	6.9	41.6	14.3	42.5	12.4
Czech Republic	41.3	4.1	32.4	4.9	29.6	–
Denmark	43.3	3.8	38.6	–	33.9	–
Finland	42.8	5.4	32.5	–	21.9	–
France	37.7	5.9	30.5	7.2	31.1	6.8
Germany	46.0	3.7	30.5	2.7	..	–
Greece	36.6	7.5	13.5	2.2	6.8	–
Hungary	40.8	5.4	42.7	8.3	40.8	–
Ireland	40.0	11.6	47.9	13.8	–	–
Italy	43.9	7.7	29.2	6.3	20.4	5.9
Luxembourg	51.3	4.0	38.5	5.0	26.3	–
Norway	42.2	4.6	38.9	–	23.8	–
Poland	39.0	4.5	57.1	–	57.4	–
Portugal	25.7	6.8	33.6	6.0	31.3	–
Slovak Republic	43.9	4.8	39.9	–	–	–
Spain	36.2	6.2	21.6	4.1	12.3	2.5
Sweden	45.4	3.3	38.3	3.1	25.7	–
Switzerland	44.1	3.6	38.0	4.1	29.2	3.3
United Kingdom	36.2	10.5	43.7	10.2	39.8	8.5
United States	43.8	8.8	36.4	6.4	40.9	6.1

Note: “–” indicates that the figure is not significant.

Sources: European countries: European Union Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat); United States: Current Population Survey March Supplement.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/286453240753>

Table I.16. **Percentage of women (15-64) in jobs for which they are overqualified, by birth status, selected OECD countries, 2003-2004**

	Native-born	Foreign-born	Foreign-born non-OECD
Austria	9.3	24.8	32.8
Belgium	17.7	24.6	27.2
Czech Republic	6.6	12.8	22.0
Denmark	10.5	19.7	31.0
Finland	18.8	26.2	38.0
France	14.2	18.8	19.8
Germany	9.9	23.6	32.3
Greece	9.0	53.4	62.0
Hungary	7.3	10.5	8.9
Ireland	15.6	23.9	38.2
Italy	7.1	27.4	34.0
Luxembourg	3.2	14.1	31.0
Norway	10.6	25.1	35.9
Portugal	8.9	16.2	18.7
Spain	24.4	47.6	56.7
Sweden	7.2	15.3	23.2
Switzerland	7.6	13.8	19.8
United Kingdom	14.9	17.0	18.7

Source: European Union Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat).

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/058547576021>

exposed to overqualification than native-born women. The differences are particularly large in southern Europe. Taking into account only immigrant women from non-OECD countries, the differences are even more marked.

The preceding analysis suggests a vertical segmentation in the labour market for women to the disadvantage of immigrant women, similar to that observed along gender lines. Table I.17 presents in more detail for the European OECD countries, the types of jobs held by immigrant and native women. It can be observed, notably, that the two groups are generally over-represented in the same occupations, i.e. in professional and associate professional occupations in the health sector, as well as in secretarial and sales occupations. An analysis of the distribution of employment among occupational sectors confirms, however, that women immigrants are much more frequently employed in low-skilled occupations, and particularly as “manual and unskilled workers” (20% versus 9.2%). Women, whatever their origin, are largely under-represented in engineering and associated occupations.

... and are largely under-represented in the public sector...

The sectoral analysis leads to similar results, with the exception of “administrations and extraterritorial organisations”, where it appears that foreign-born women are largely under-represented (see Table I.18). In contrast, more than 17% of immigrant women in European OECD member countries work in the health sector, i.e. a percentage similar to that observed for native-born women. This figure reaches about 30% in the Scandinavian countries (32% in Norway, 29% in Sweden, 27% in Denmark and 24% in Finland) and 23% in the United Kingdom. This reflects the importance of immigrant women labour in this sector, where there are labour shortages, notably of nurses and carers. In certain countries, a substantial percentage of immigrant women are also employed in education. In Sweden and the United Kingdom, for example, education accounts for about 15% and 13%, respectively, of the total employment of immigrant women.

... and over-represented in the household sector...

Relative to the native-born, immigrants are much more often employed in the household sector where they are four times overrepresented compared to the native-born. They are also twice as concentrated as native-born women in hotels and restaurants.

An evaluation of the conditions of integration into the labour market of immigrant women also needs to take into account the characteristics of the jobs occupied, and notably permanent or temporary contracts, and the kind of work, full or part-time. Table I.19 presents a fairly mixed picture in these domains.

... and in temporary employment

The prevalence of *temporary employment*, to the extent that it is associated with greater precarity and often more limited employment protection, constitutes a qualitative indicator of labour market integration. However, temporary employment may also constitute a first step into the labour market, particularly in the presence of information asymmetries, which may be the case with immigrants. Accordingly, in all countries under consideration, with the exceptions of Switzerland and Luxembourg, immigrant women are over-represented compared to the native-born in temporary work. The differences are particularly pronounced in Poland, the Czech Republic, the United Kingdom, Norway,

Table I.17. **Female employment by occupation and birth status (15-64), 2003-2004, data pooled over EU countries**

	Foreign-born		Native-born	
	Occupational share of total employment of foreign-born women	Over-represented	Occupational share of total employment of native-born women	Over-represented
100-Legislator, senior officials and managers				
110-Legislators, seniors officials and managers	–	–	0.1	No
120-Corporate managers	2.7	No	2.9	No
130-General managers	2.5	No	2.5	No
200-Professionals				
210-Physical, mathematical and engineering science professionals	1.3	No	1.1	No
220-Life science and health associate professionals	2.0	Yes	1.9	Yes
230-Teaching professionals	4.0	Ind.	6.1	Yes
240-Other professionals	3.9	Ind.	4.0	Ind.
300-Technicians and associate professionals				
310-Physical and engineering science associate professionals	1.5	No	1.6	No
320-Life science and health associate professionals	4.6	Yes	4.9	Yes
330-Teaching associate professionals	1.5	Yes	2.2	Yes
340-Other associate professionals	7.1	No	10.2	Yes
400-Clerks				
410-Office clerks	10.2	Ind.	15.1	Yes
420-Customer service clerks	2.6	Yes	3.5	Yes
500-Service workers and shop and market sales workers				
510-Personal and protective service workers	15.3	Yes	12.5	Yes
520-Models, sales persons and demonstrators	6.2	Yes	8.2	Yes
600-Skilled agricultural and fishery workers				
610-Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	–	–	2.4	No
700-Craft and related trade workers				
710-Extraction and building trade workers	–	–	0.4	No
720-Metal, machinery and related trade workers	–	–	0.4	No
730-Precision, handicraft, craft printing and related trade workers	–	–	0.5	No
740-Other craft and related trade workers	1.5	No	1.9	No
800-Plant and machine operators and assemblers				
810-Stationary plant and related operators	–	–	0.4	No
820-Machine operators and assemblers	3.3	Ind.	2.7	No
830-Drivers and mobile plant operators	–	–	0.3	No
900-Elementary occupations				
910-Sales and services elementary occupations	17.6	Yes	7.4	Yes
920-Agricultural, fishery and related labourers	–	–	0.5	Ind.
930-Labourers in mining, construction, manufacturing and transport	2.5	Ind.	1.3	No

Notes: Columns do not sum to 100 because not all employed women indicate their occupation. “–” indicates that the figure is not significant. Overrepresentation occurs when the share of foreign- or native-born women in one particular occupation is more important than their share in total employment. Sectoral over-representation is supposed to be undetermined (Ind.) if the share of foreign- or native-born women in the employment divided by their share in total employment is higher than 0.9 and lower than 1.1.

Source: European Union Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat).

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/116635726855>

Table I.18. Female employment by sector and birth status (15-64), 2003-2004, data pooled over EU countries

	Share of total employment of foreign-born women	Over-represented	Share of total employment of native-born women	Over-represented
Agriculture and fishing	1.1	No	3.3	No
Mining, manufacturing and energy	12.1	No	12.8	No
Construction	1.0	No	1.5	No
Wholesale and retail trade	12.6	Ind.	15.6	Yes
Hotels and restaurants	8.1	Yes	4.4	Yes
Education	8.1	Yes	11.2	Yes
Health and other community services	17.0	Yes	16.5	Yes
Households	6.2	Yes	1.6	Yes
Administration and ETO	4.7	No	7.5	Ind.
Other services	23.2	Ind.	21.2	Ind.

Notes: Columns do not sum to 100 because not all employed women indicate their sector of activity. Overrepresentation occurs when the share of foreign- or native-born women in one particular sector is more important than their share in total employment. Sectoral over-representation is supposed to be undetermined (Ind.) if the share of foreign- or native-born women in the employment divided by their share in total employment is higher than 0.9 and lower than 1.1.

Source: European Union Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat).

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/277180413166>

Table I.19. Share of temporary and part-time employment in total employment, by birth status, women (15-64), 2004

	% temporary employment		% part-time employment	
	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born
Australia	41.8	47.5
Austria	9.0	8.6	36.9	41.9
Belgium	14.7	11.2	38.5	41.2
Canada	21.4	26.9
Czech Republic	19.2	10.4	8.1	7.9
Denmark	16.5	10.3	29.9	33.9
Finland	34.5	20.6	32.6	17.5
France	14.7	13.8	33.6	29.6
Germany	13.7	12.1	46.8	40.6
Greece	24.7	13.3	13.3	8.0
Hungary	8.9	5.9	7.4	5.9
Ireland	5.4	3.7	29.7	31.9
Italy	16.9	14.8	36.2	23.9
Luxembourg	3.9	7.7	39.5	40.9
Netherlands	20.8	15.4	67.1	75.7
Norway	20.1	11.5	43.5	45.5
Poland	51.5	21.2	–	12.5
Portugal	28.2	20.5	11.3	13.1
Slovak Republic	–	4.9	–	4.0
Spain	53.1	31.8	22.2	17.5
Sweden	22.9	16.7	35.2	36.1
Switzerland	11.6	13.0	51.9	60.2
United Kingdom	10.6	5.7	34.8	44.5
United States	14.7	18.6

Notes: “–” indicates that the figure is not significant. Data for Canada refer to 2003.

Sources: European countries: European Union Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat); Australia: Survey of Education and Work 2004; Canada: Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics; United States: Current Population Survey March Supplement.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/401640128008>

Box I.3. Migrant women into work: What are the best practices?

A desk-based research study was undertaken of six OECD countries (Australia, Canada, Germany, the Netherlands, Sweden and the United Kingdom) in 2005, to identify good practices amongst projects to support migrant women moving into work. It involved a survey of 15 successful work preparation projects of differing sizes. These provided services exclusively or largely to migrant women with less than tertiary level education. In addition, all participants had arrived for family reunion, or as refugees or asylum seekers but not as labour migrants. The key features across projects were the following: i) supported work experience; ii) childcare provision; iii) linking work experience with training and language acquisition; iv) confidence building; v) good links with the local labour market; vi) client participation for six months or more.

Supported work experience enhanced opportunities for finding work, language acquisition and improving self-confidence.

Support was provided by: classroom-based language and skills teaching in parallel with work experience, or contact between a project employee, the client and the employer during work experience.

Assisting project participants with their childcare needs was an obvious measure to enhance participation and retention. All the projects surveyed attempted to help with this but where projects did not provide childcare themselves, and the national system was not comprehensive, some problems relating to retention appeared to occur.

Confidence building is one hard-to-measure factor in identifying why projects succeeded. But it was mentioned as essential by virtually all projects – and provided by them in a variety of ways, including: i) mentoring schemes; ii) engaging with participants'; iii) families; iv) support during the initial period in work; v) outreach work; vi) less traditional job opportunities; vii) diversity management training.

Mentoring was offered in 2 projects which considered it assisted clients significantly in retaining work. In one, mentors were volunteers from outside the workplace and in the other, they were co-workers. Both projects trained mentors in their roles. Apart from workplace integration, mentoring can create social networks amongst the host country population as well as mobilise community goodwill.

Evaluating project success

Projects usually measured their success by numbers of clients completing training, achieving employment and/or entry into further education or training. Occasionally, an independent qualitative examination of outcomes was commissioned. These often provided useful insights about why particular strategies appeared to be working (*e.g.* the importance of bilingual workers). Only one project engaged in an experimental evaluation. It worked side-by-side with a control group, compared to which its outcomes were significantly better.

Unsurprisingly, project outcomes were varied. Influences included the state of the local job market as well as participants' individual characteristics. Some projects, for example, had minimum language requirements. Others targeted those with the least language skills and little labour market experience. When it comes to seeking work, discrimination is also likely to affect outcomes. Project links with local employers appeared invaluable in negotiating this. Projects also required a considerable, often full-time, commitment from participants – who might also be managing a household in economically difficult circumstances and caring for children whose own settlement experiences might not be straightforward. But overall, all the projects in their local contexts had positive outcomes.

Box I.3. Migrant women into work: What are the best practices? (cont.)

Increased provision for experimental evaluations to identify more clearly what is working would be invaluable. Evaluation strategies also need to identify difficult-to-measure qualitative issues. These include the training and continuity of project staff and issues such as engaging with participants' family members.

Much has been written about language acquisition. Early availability of host country language classes together with free and accessible childcare is particularly important. If language classes are free and childcare is not, this may be problematical for immigrant women. Linking language classes with work experience – or forms of mentoring or social interaction – also appears to improve effectiveness.

It was noticeable that several projects ran diversity management training for local employers and/or negotiated informally with employers in what were obviously situations of cultural misunderstanding. Some of the countries in the survey have some mandatory active employment equity requirements. They may be one way in which workplaces can be encouraged to act to remove barriers to workforce participation by migrant women.

Source: Heron, A. (2005) *Migrant women into work: What is working?* for OECD and European Commission Seminar on "Migrant Women and the Labour Market: Diversity and Challenges", Brussels, September 2005.

Finland, Greece and Spain. The gaps are however, negligible in Austria, France and, to a lesser extent, in Germany.

The analysis of employment rates may tend to overestimate the integration of women into the labour market, as they are more often in part-time employment. Although this general observation also holds for foreign-born women, no significant difference has been observed for the native-born. Large differences have been recorded, for example, in Finland (+15 percentage points) and Italy (+12 points); the contrary is observed in the United Kingdom, Austria, the Netherlands and Switzerland (around -10, -9, -9 and -8 percentage points, respectively).

From this overall picture of the employment of immigrant women in OECD countries, the image that emerges is essentially of a segmented labour market where foreign-born women tend to share the same characteristics of employment as women in general, but generally in a more pronounced fashion. The situation of women born in non-member countries of the OECD appears to be even more critical in the majority of OECD countries.

The cumulative difficulties which generally face the immigrant population (lack of domestic labour market experience and human capital specific to the receiving country, language problems, lack of recognition of foreign qualifications, discrimination, etc.), combined with problems of integration into the labour market for women (lower appreciation of their human capital, difficulties to pursue a professional career, etc.), are the prime reasons for putting into place specific measures to overcome these obstacles (see Box I.3).

Annex Table I.A1.1. Labour market situation of foreigners and nationals in selected OECD countries, 1995, 2000 and 2003-2004

	Participation rate (%)								Unemployment rate (%)								Employment/population ratio (%)							
	Nationals				Foreigners				Nationals				Foreigners				Nationals				Foreigners			
	1995	2000	2003	2004	1995	2000	2003	2004	1995	2000	2003	2004	1995	2000	2003	2004	1995	2000	2003	2004	1995	2000	2003	2004
Men																								
Austria	80.3	79.5	78.9	76.8	85.6	85.2	84.2	78.9	3.7	4.4	4.7	4.6	6.2	8.6	9.3	10.0	77.3	76.0	75.2	73.3	80.3	77.9	76.4	71.0
Belgium	72.6	73.7	73.0	73.0	68.7	73.9	68.3	70.2	6.1	4.3	6.5	6.0	19.8	15.1	17.4	14.5	68.2	70.6	68.2	68.6	55.0	62.7	56.4	60.0
Czech Republic	..	78.9	77.8	77.6	..	90.1	79.4	83.1	..	7.4	5.8	7.2	..	7.7	7.1	2.5	..	73.1	73.2	72.0	..	83.2	73.8	81.0
Denmark	84.1	83.5	82.2	82.5	58.1	59.8	58.7	60.3	6.6	3.6	3.9	4.8	23.2	10.1	8.9	11.5	78.6	80.5	79.0	78.5	44.6	53.8	53.5	53.4
Finland	75.0	79.3	79.1	78.3	58.2	82.0	80.8	84.3	17.9	10.2	10.9	10.1	-	28.6	-	21.4	61.6	71.3	70.4	70.4	45.4	58.6	65.5	66.2
France	74.7	75.1	75.4	75.2	76.0	76.5	74.8	77.4	9.3	7.9	7.6	8.2	20.2	18.0	18.6	16.6	67.8	69.2	69.7	69.1	60.7	62.7	60.9	64.6
Germany	79.7	79.0	79.2	79.2	79.0	77.2	77.6	76.8	6.2	7.1	9.4	10.4	15.1	13.6	17.9	19.5	74.8	73.4	71.7	70.9	67.0	66.7	63.7	61.9
Greece	77.1	76.6	76.3	78.5	86.7	89.4	89.7	88.3	6.3	7.5	5.9	6.6	-	7.4	5.8	4.8	72.2	70.9	71.8	73.3	77.7	82.8	84.5	84.1
Hungary	67.7	67.0	77.3	78.6	6.2	5.9	1.0	63.5	63.1	75.8	77.8
Ireland	76.2	79.3	78.6	79.3	73.4	74.5	74.9	76.4	12.1	4.4	4.8	5.0	-	-	6.7	7.1	66.9	75.8	74.8	75.3	60.6	70.1	69.9	71.0
Italy	72.4	84.6	9.3	-	65.6	78.7	82.6
Luxembourg	73.6	75.8	71.9	72.3	80.1	77.4	80.7	78.4	-	-	1.9	2.2	-	-	4.4	4.7	72.2	75.0	70.5	70.7	78.0	75.0	77.2	74.7
Netherlands	80.8	84.6	84.8	84.5	63.9	70.1	72.1	71.5	5.4	2.0	3.2	4.2	23.2	-	9.2	9.1	76.5	82.9	82.0	80.9	49.0	66.3	65.5	65.0
Norway	..	84.9	82.3	81.8	..	82.5	81.3	80.6	..	3.6	4.2	4.3	12.3	12.9	..	81.9	78.9	78.3	..	78.1	71.2	70.1
Portugal	76.4	78.9	79.2	79.0	64.3	80.1	87.7	83.7	6.8	3.2	5.4	5.9	-	12.7	71.3	76.4	75.0	74.5	59.3	74.1	78.8	73.1
Slovak Republic	..	76.4	76.6	76.5	..	81.1	-	-	..	19.5	17.0	17.8	5.2	..	61.6	63.5	62.9	88.7
Spain	74.2	78.4	79.1	79.6	84.0	84.4	89.1	89.4	18.1	9.6	7.8	7.9	20.3	13.8	12.3	11.4	60.8	70.9	73.0	73.4	66.9	72.7	78.1	79.2
Sweden	82.6	78.0	80.3	80.2	69.7	63.1	71.6	71.7	8.3	5.5	5.7	6.8	23.5	16.1	15.8	17.2	75.8	73.7	75.7	74.8	53.3	52.9	60.3	59.4
Switzerland	..	89.6	88.5	88.2	..	88.5	88.0	87.4	..	1.4	2.7	2.9	..	5.0	7.7	7.6	..	88.3	86.1	85.7	..	84.0	81.3	80.7
United Kingdom	83.6	83.4	82.7	81.9	75.8	75.9	77.2	77.2	10.0	6.0	5.3	4.8	16.6	11.7	8.5	7.3	75.3	78.5	78.3	77.9	63.2	67.0	70.6	71.5

Annex Table I.A1.1. **Labour market situation of foreigners and nationals in selected OECD countries, 1995, 2000 and 2003-2004 (cont.)**

	Participation rate (%)								Unemployment rate (%)								Employment/population ratio (%)							
	Nationals				Foreigners				Nationals				Foreigners				Nationals				Foreigners			
	1995	2000	2003	2004	1995	2000	2003	2004	1995	2000	2003	2004	1995	2000	2003	2004	1995	2000	2003	2004	1995	2000	2003	2004
Women																								
Austria	62.1	62.4	64.0	64.0	64.2	64.4	63.6	57.4	4.7	4.1	4.0	4.4	7.8	9.1	7.1	13.7	59.2	59.8	61.4	61.2	59.1	58.5	59.1	49.5
Belgium	53.0	58.1	57.2	58.6	38.0	41.3	41.3	49.0	11.0	7.8	7.3	7.5	31.5	16.4	19.8	18.1	47.1	53.6	53.0	54.2	26.0	34.5	33.2	40.2
Czech Republic	..	63.6	62.7	62.2	..	52.8	60.8	58.3	..	10.6	9.6	9.7	13.9	9.9	..	56.9	56.6	56.1	..	49.3	52.3	52.5
Denmark	75.7	77.0	76.3	77.1	44.3	45.5	45.2	47.2	8.5	4.4	4.3	5.3	25.5	11.3	9.6	12.9	69.2	73.6	73.0	73.0	33.0	40.4	40.8	41.1
Finland	69.4	74.2	74.7	74.4	65.9	61.9	63.7	56.6	16.2	11.8	9.9	10.3	30.4	–	–	31.3	58.2	65.4	67.3	66.7	45.9	43.4	52.5	38.9
France	61.5	63.4	64.3	64.4	46.8	48.6	51.5	51.8	13.6	11.5	9.5	10.2	24.4	25.6	19.3	21.6	53.1	56.1	58.2	57.9	35.4	36.2	41.5	40.7
Germany	62.3	64.4	66.4	66.6	50.6	49.7	52.0	51.0	9.3	8.1	8.9	9.7	14.9	11.6	14.7	15.6	56.5	59.2	60.5	60.1	43.1	43.9	44.3	43.0
Greece	44.1	49.5	50.7	54.0	56.3	55.8	56.6	57.1	14.0	16.9	13.8	16.0	18.2	17.6	13.8	16.7	37.9	41.1	43.7	45.3	46.1	46.0	48.8	47.6
Hungary	53.8	53.6	49.7	51.8	5.4	5.9	6.3	50.9	50.5	44.5	48.6
Ireland	47.1	55.8	57.9	58.2	44.6	53.5	55.2	53.1	11.9	4.2	3.9	3.7	–	..	–	6.3	41.5	53.4	55.6	56.1	36.1	49.7	51.8	49.8
Italy	42.5	50.1	49.3	60.5	16.3	10.1	22.8	15.4	35.6	45.1	38.1	51.2
Luxembourg	40.2	47.8	49.9	50.6	51.2	56.8	61.1	59.3	–	–	3.2	4.2	–	..	6.4	10.0	38.7	46.7	48.3	48.5	48.5	54.6	57.2	53.4
Netherlands	59.2	66.7	69.2	70.1	39.8	46.1	52.0	49.5	8.2	3.3	3.6	4.8	24.3	9.7	9.9	11.3	54.3	64.5	66.7	66.8	30.1	41.6	46.8	43.9
Norway	..	76.7	76.1	75.9	..	68.3	62.8	66.8	..	3.3	3.9	3.8	–	8.3	..	74.2	73.1	73.0	..	65.3	58.3	61.2
Portugal	59.2	63.7	66.5	66.7	35.1	68.8	71.0	68.6	8.0	4.8	7.5	7.4	–	14.1	54.4	60.6	61.5	61.8	28.0	61.9	62.1	58.9
Slovak Republic	..	62.9	63.2	63.0	..	43.6	..	76.7	..	18.6	17.3	19.7	15.5	..	51.2	52.3	50.6	64.9
Spain	44.9	51.7	54.2	55.9	48.6	58.2	65.0	65.7	30.6	20.6	15.8	15.2	27.0	17.6	18.2	16.2	31.2	41.0	45.6	47.4	35.5	48.0	53.2	55.1
Sweden	79.2	74.2	76.8	76.2	60.2	60.3	63.3	64.6	7.1	4.6	4.8	5.8	15.6	13.0	10.3	15.1	73.6	70.8	73.1	71.8	50.8	52.4	56.8	54.8
Switzerland	..	72.8	74.9	74.9	..	66.4	70.1	70.2	..	2.4	3.1	3.3	..	6.5	10.3	10.8	..	71.1	72.6	72.4	..	62.1	62.9	62.6
United Kingdom	66.5	68.5	68.8	69.1	55.5	56.2	57.8	59.6	6.8	4.8	3.9	4.0	11.8	8.0	7.2	7.6	62.0	65.2	66.1	66.3	49.0	51.7	53.7	55.0

Annex Table I.A1.1. Labour market situation of foreigners and nationals in selected OECD countries, 1995, 2000 and 2003-2004 (cont.)

	Participation rate (%)								Unemployment rate (%)								Employment/population ratio (%)							
	Nationals				Foreigners				Nationals				Foreigners				Nationals				Foreigners			
	1995	2000	2003	2004	1995	2000	2003	2004	1995	2000	2003	2004	1995	2000	2003	2004	1995	2000	2003	2004	1995	2000	2003	2004
Men and women																								
Austria	71.1	70.9	71.4	70.4	75.5	74.7	74.0	68.6	4.1	4.3	4.4	4.5	6.8	8.8	8.3	11.5	68.2	67.9	68.2	67.2	70.4	68.2	67.8	60.6
Belgium	62.8	66.0	65.1	65.8	54.8	58.3	55.6	59.8	8.2	5.8	6.9	6.7	23.5	15.6	18.2	15.9	57.7	62.1	60.6	61.4	42.0	49.2	45.5	50.3
Czech Republic	..	71.2	70.2	69.9	..	73.0	69.6	70.6	..	8.8	7.5	8.3	..	7.3	10.2	5.6	..	64.9	64.9	64.1	..	67.6	62.5	66.6
Denmark	79.9	80.3	79.3	79.8	51.4	52.6	51.7	53.6	7.5	4.0	4.1	5.1	24.2	10.6	9.2	12.1	74.0	77.1	76.0	75.8	39.0	47.0	47.0	47.1
Finland	72.2	76.8	76.9	76.4	61.9	72.9	71.5	69.8	17.1	11.0	10.4	10.2	26.3	29.0	18.3	25.6	59.9	68.4	68.9	68.6	45.6	51.8	58.4	52.0
France	68.0	69.2	69.8	69.8	62.3	63.0	63.3	64.8	11.3	9.6	8.5	9.2	21.7	20.9	18.8	18.5	60.3	62.6	63.9	63.4	48.8	49.8	51.4	52.8
Germany	71.0	71.7	72.8	72.9	66.2	64.3	65.2	64.3	7.5	7.5	9.2	10.1	15.1	12.9	16.7	18.0	65.6	66.3	66.1	65.5	56.3	56.0	54.4	52.8
Greece	60.0	62.7	63.3	66.1	70.2	71.8	73.4	72.9	9.2	11.3	9.1	10.4	13.8	11.6	8.8	9.3	54.4	55.6	57.5	59.2	60.5	63.5	66.9	66.1
Hungary	60.6	60.1	61.6	64.8	5.8	5.9	57.0	56.6	58.1	62.7
Ireland	61.7	67.6	68.3	68.8	58.2	64.4	65.3	64.8	12.0	4.3	4.4	4.4	18.1	6.4	6.5	6.8	54.3	64.6	65.3	65.7	47.7	60.2	61.0	60.4
Italy	57.3	66.7	11.9	12.9	50.4	58.1
Luxembourg	57.2	62.6	61.0	61.6	65.9	66.7	70.9	68.9	2.5	1.6	2.4	3.0	3.6	3.4	5.2	7.0	55.7	61.6	59.6	59.8	63.5	64.4	67.2	64.1
Netherlands	70.1	75.8	77.1	77.4	53.1	58.1	62.2	60.5	6.5	2.6	3.4	4.4	23.6	7.2	9.5	10.0	65.5	73.8	74.5	73.9	40.6	53.9	56.3	54.5
Norway	..	80.8	79.2	78.9	..	75.5	71.9	73.4	..	3.4	4.1	4.1	10.1	10.7	..	78.1	76.0	75.7	..	71.8	64.7	65.5
Portugal	67.5	71.1	72.7	72.7	49.9	74.7	79.6	75.6	7.3	3.9	6.4	6.6	..	-	11.2	13.3	62.6	68.3	68.1	68.0	43.8	68.3	70.7	65.6
Slovak Republic	..	69.6	69.8	69.7	82.4	83.6	..	19.1	17.1	18.6	56.3	57.8	56.7	-	..
Spain	59.4	65.0	66.7	67.8	65.9	70.7	76.9	77.6	22.9	13.9	11.0	10.9	22.8	15.5	14.8	13.4	45.8	56.0	59.4	60.4	50.8	59.8	65.5	67.2
Sweden	81.0	76.2	78.5	78.3	64.7	61.7	67.4	68.1	7.7	5.1	5.3	6.3	19.7	14.6	13.2	16.2	74.7	72.3	74.4	73.3	52.0	52.7	58.5	57.1
Switzerland	..	81.1	81.6	81.4	..	78.3	79.7	79.3	..	1.9	2.9	3.1	..	5.6	8.8	8.9	..	79.6	79.2	78.9	..	74.0	72.7	72.2
United Kingdom	75.1	76.1	75.9	75.4	65.0	65.4	67.1	67.7	8.6	5.4	4.7	4.5	14.4	10.0	7.9	7.5	68.7	71.9	72.3	72.1	55.6	58.9	61.8	62.6

Note: “..” means not available and “-” means non significant at B threshold.

Sources: European Union Labour Force Survey, population aged 15 to 64 (data provided by Eurostat) except for Denmark (Population Register).

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Annex Table I.A1.2. Labour market situation of foreign- and native-born populations in selected OECD countries, 1995, 2000 and 2003-2004

	Participation rate (%)								Unemployment rate (%)								Employment/population ratio (%)							
	Native				Foreign-born				Native				Foreign-born				Native				Foreign-born			
	1995	2000	2003	2004	1995	2000	2003	2004	1995	2000	2003	2004	1995	2000	2003	2004	1995	2000	2003	2004	1995	2000	2003	2004
Men																								
Austria	80.4	79.6	78.8	76.7	84.0	83.3	83.8	79.1	3.6	4.3	4.4	4.3	6.6	8.7	9.7	11.2	77.5	76.2	75.3	73.4	78.5	76.1	75.6	70.2
Belgium	72.4	73.9	72.9	73.0	70.9	72.9	70.0	70.8	6.3	4.2	6.0	5.6	16.9	14.7	18.3	14.9	67.8	70.8	68.5	68.9	58.9	62.2	57.2	60.3
Czech Republic	77.9	77.7	74.7	73.5	5.8	7.0	9.0	12.4	73.4	72.3	68.0	64.5
Denmark	84.2	83.8	82.5	82.9	64.4	65.2	63.8	63.3	6.4	3.4	3.8	4.6	20.5	9.5	8.8	11.8	78.9	80.9	79.4	79.1	51.2	59.0	58.2	55.8
Finland	75.1	79.4	79.0	78.2	..	78.9	80.6	83.4	17.7	10.3	10.9	9.9	..	-	18.4	21.3	61.8	71.2	70.4	70.5	..	50.4	65.8	65.7
France	75.0	75.6	75.3	75.1	78.8	78.0	75.8	77.3	9.1	7.7	7.3	8.0	16.6	14.5	15.4	13.8	68.2	69.8	69.8	69.1	65.7	66.7	64.4	66.6
Germany	..	79.3	79.3	79.2	..	76.2	77.1	77.7	..	6.9	9.3	10.3	..	12.9	16.9	18.3	..	73.8	71.3	70.4	..	66.3	64.1	63.5
Greece	77.0	76.6	76.1	78.4	81.9	86.3	89.8	87.1	6.1	7.4	5.8	6.5	14.0	9.5	6.5	6.5	72.3	70.9	71.7	73.3	70.4	78.1	84.0	81.4
Hungary	..	67.5	67.6	66.9	..	71.8	76.5	76.1	..	7.3	6.2	5.9	..	-	..	2.0	..	62.6	63.4	62.9	..	69.4	74.8	74.6
Ireland	76.0	79.1	78.5	79.1	76.7	79.2	77.7	79.6	12.0	4.4	4.8	4.9	16.8	-	6.6	6.7	66.9	75.6	74.7	75.3	63.9	74.9	72.6	74.3
Italy	72.4	73.6	74.5	74.6	84.8	88.2	89.8	86.0	9.3	8.4	7.0	6.4	-	6.5	3.8	6.2	65.6	67.4	69.2	69.8	78.9	82.4	86.4	80.7
Luxembourg	72.2	74.2	70.9	70.5	83.0	80.2	82.6	81.2	-	-	2.3	2.4	-	-	3.9	4.4	70.7	73.2	69.3	68.8	81.3	78.1	79.4	77.6
Netherlands	81.0	85.5	85.5	85.0	69.9	74.0	75.3	76.2	4.9	1.8	2.8	3.6	19.5	5.4	9.1	10.3	77.0	84.0	83.1	81.9	56.2	69.9	68.4	68.4
Norway	..	85.2	82.3	82.1	..	80.0	82.2	77.5	..	3.4	4.0	4.3	..	6.8	11.1	8.9	..	82.3	79.0	78.6	..	74.6	73.1	70.6
Portugal	76.5	78.0	79.0	78.6	73.0	83.7	85.5	85.5	6.6	3.1	5.3	5.7	-	3.9	7.9	9.8	71.5	75.5	74.8	74.2	65.4	80.5	78.8	77.1
Slovak Republic	76.5	76.5	82.3	81.2	17.0	17.8	-	17.9	63.5	62.9	63.0	66.7
Spain	74.2	78.3	79.0	79.4	78.9	85.9	87.8	89.0	18.0	9.5	7.9	7.8	24.4	12.4	10.4	11.4	60.8	70.8	72.8	73.2	59.7	75.2	78.7	78.8
Sweden	82.7	79.9	80.7	80.7	73.3	69.9	74.4	74.5	7.9	5.1	5.2	6.2	24.8	12.3	12.7	14.2	76.2	75.9	76.5	75.7	55.1	61.3	64.6	63.6
Switzerland	88.5	88.1	87.8	87.8	2.8	2.9	7.2	7.5	86.1	85.6	81.6	81.2
United Kingdom	83.7	83.5	82.8	82.0	78.5	78.7	78.5	78.5	9.9	5.9	5.2	4.7	14.2	9.6	8.1	7.3	75.4	78.6	78.5	78.1	67.4	71.1	72.2	72.8
Australia	85.3	84.3	83.7	85.3	80.1	77.8	79.3	80.6	8.4	6.6	6.0	5.6	10.6	6.5	6.5	5.5	78.2	78.7	78.7	80.6	71.6	72.7	74.1	76.2
Canada	83.0	82.1	82.6	..	84.4	82.0	82.0	..	8.6	5.7	6.5	..	10.4	6.1	7.8	..	75.9	77.4	77.2	..	75.6	77.0	75.6	..
United States	81.6	80.8	79.0	78.4	83.8	85.9	85.4	85.2	6.2	4.5	7.0	6.9	7.9	4.5	7.2	5.8	76.5	77.2	73.5	73.0	77.2	82.0	79.2	80.2

Annex Table I.A1.2. Labour market situation of foreign- and native-born populations in selected OECD countries, 1995, 2000 and 2003-2004 (cont.)

	Participation rate (%)								Unemployment rate (%)								Employment/population ratio (%)							
	Native				Foreign-born				Native				Foreign-born				Native				Foreign-born			
	1995	2000	2003	2004	1995	2000	2003	2004	1995	2000	2003	2004	1995	2000	2003	2004	1995	2000	2003	2004	1995	2000	2003	2004
Women																								
Austria	62.3	62.5	63.8	64.1	62.0	62.8	64.8	60.1	4.6	4.2	4.0	4.3	7.3	7.2	6.6	10.7	59.4	59.9	61.3	61.4	57.5	58.3	60.5	53.7
Belgium	52.9	58.1	57.4	59.3	41.8	45.2	45.5	47.2	11.2	7.4	6.9	7.5	23.8	17.5	17.3	15.0	46.9	53.8	53.5	54.9	31.9	37.3	37.7	40.1
Czech Republic	62.7	62.2	59.8	57.7	9.6	9.6	15.7	13.5	56.7	56.2	50.4	49.9
Denmark	75.9	77.3	76.6	77.6	52.4	53.4	53.0	51.3	8.4	4.3	4.2	5.2	20.7	9.6	8.7	12.7	69.5	73.9	73.4	73.5	41.5	48.3	48.4	44.8
Finland	69.6	74.2	74.8	74.5	..	-	65.5	63.1	16.1	12.0	9.7	10.2	20.0	25.3	58.4	65.3	67.5	66.8	-	-	52.5	47.1
France	62.0	63.8	64.4	64.5	54.4	56.8	57.3	58.0	13.6	11.3	9.2	9.9	19.0	19.7	16.4	17.4	53.6	56.6	58.5	58.1	44.1	45.6	48.0	47.9
Germany	..	64.8	66.7	66.9	..	53.0	55.4	54.9	..	8.0	8.8	9.6	..	12.1	14.0	15.2	..	59.6	60.2	60.5	..	46.6	43.4	46.5
Greece	43.8	49.2	50.6	53.8	53.7	56.9	57.3	58.3	13.7	16.6	13.7	15.7	20.8	21.1	15.7	19.1	37.8	41.1	43.7	45.3	42.5	44.9	48.3	47.2
Hungary	..	52.5	53.7	53.6	..	52.3	56.1	54.3	..	5.8	5.4	5.9	6.4	..	49.4	50.8	50.4	..	49.8	53.7	50.8
Ireland	46.9	55.5	57.8	58.1	49.5	58.8	57.3	57.0	11.9	4.2	3.8	3.7	15.4	-	6.0	5.3	41.3	53.1	55.6	56.0	41.9	55.2	53.9	54.0
Italy	42.5	46.2	48.6	50.1	49.1	51.4	55.0	56.6	16.3	14.9	12.0	10.1	23.5	21.2	10.5	13.2	35.6	39.3	42.7	45.0	37.5	40.5	49.2	49.1
Luxembourg	40.3	48.0	50.4	49.9	51.7	57.2	60.8	60.6	-	-	3.6	4.5	-	-	5.9	9.6	38.8	46.5	48.6	47.6	48.8	55.3	57.2	54.8
Netherlands	59.5	67.6	70.3	71.2	47.8	52.8	56.5	56.0	7.7	3.0	3.2	4.3	19.8	7.6	8.6	10.6	54.9	65.6	68.0	68.1	38.4	48.8	51.6	50.1
Norway	..	77.1	76.3	76.2	..	67.1	66.0	67.1	..	3.2	3.8	3.7	-	7.3	..	74.6	73.4	73.4	..	63.5	61.8	62.2
Portugal	59.1	63.3	66.0	66.4	58.0	66.5	74.8	70.9	7.8	4.9	7.4	7.4	-	5.4	10.4	9.6	54.5	60.3	61.1	61.5	49.9	62.9	67.1	64.1
Slovak Republic	63.3	63.0	61.9	62.2	17.2	19.5	-	30.5	52.3	50.7	48.6	43.3
Spain	44.8	51.6	54.0	55.7	51.5	57.9	64.2	65.2	30.5	20.5	15.8	15.1	30.5	20.7	17.2	17.1	31.1	41.0	45.5	47.3	35.8	45.9	53.2	54.1
Sweden	79.5	76.6	77.7	76.9	64.0	63.4	66.4	67.7	6.6	4.2	4.4	5.2	18.5	10.8	9.5	12.6	74.2	73.4	74.4	72.9	52.2	56.6	60.1	59.1
Switzerland	75.5	75.2	69.5	70.3	3.0	3.4	9.1	9.2	73.3	72.7	63.2	63.8
United Kingdom	66.8	68.9	69.3	69.6	57.7	57.5	58.3	59.3	6.7	4.6	3.9	3.9	10.9	7.8	6.3	7.3	62.3	65.7	66.6	66.9	51.4	53.0	54.6	55.0
Australia	66.7	68.1	70.0	69.9	57.1	58.2	59.7	61.0	7.7	5.8	6.1	5.7	9.6	7.0	6.5	5.6	69.8	71.4	72.3	65.9	61.8	63.5	64.9	57.6
Canada	68.8	70.4	73.1	..	63.4	65.3	65.7	..	9.8	6.2	5.9	..	13.3	8.7	9.9	..	62.0	66.0	68.8	..	55.0	59.6	59.2	..
United States	69.5	71.4	69.9	69.2	58.4	61.1	61.7	60.3	5.3	4.2	5.7	5.5	8.2	5.5	8.0	6.8	65.8	68.4	65.9	65.4	53.6	57.7	56.8	56.2

Annex Table I.A1.2. Labour market situation of foreign- and native-born populations in selected OECD countries, 1995, 2000 and 2003-2004 (cont.)

	Participation rate (%)								Unemployment rate (%)								Employment/population ratio (%)							
	Native				Foreign-born				Native				Foreign-born				Native				Foreign-born			
	1995	2000	2003	2004	1995	2000	2003	2004	1995	2000	2003	2004	1995	2000	2003	2004	1995	2000	2003	2004	1995	2000	2003	2004
Men and women																								
Austria	71.4	71.1	71.3	70.5	72.8	72.7	73.9	69.2	4.1	4.3	4.2	4.3	6.9	8.0	8.3	11.0	68.5	68.0	68.3	67.5	67.8	66.8	67.7	61.5
Belgium	62.7	66.0	65.3	66.2	56.3	59.0	57.3	58.9	8.4	5.6	6.4	6.4	19.5	15.8	17.8	14.9	57.5	62.4	61.1	62.0	45.3	49.7	47.1	50.1
Czech Republic	70.3	70.0	66.9	65.3	7.5	8.2	12.1	12.9	65.0	64.3	58.8	56.9
Denmark	80.1	80.6	79.6	80.3	58.5	59.3	58.3	57.3	7.3	3.9	4.0	4.9	20.6	9.5	8.7	12.2	74.2	77.5	76.5	76.3	46.4	53.6	53.3	50.3
Finland	72.4	76.8	76.9	76.4	..	65.8	72.5	72.6	17.0	11.1	10.3	10.1	..	-	19.2	23.1	60.1	68.3	69.0	68.7	..	45.1	58.6	55.8
France	68.4	69.6	69.8	69.8	66.7	67.4	66.4	67.5	11.2	9.4	8.2	9.0	17.6	16.7	15.8	15.4	60.7	63.1	64.1	63.5	55.0	56.2	55.9	57.1
Germany	..	72.1	73.0	73.0	..	64.8	66.3	66.3	..	7.4	9.1	10.0	..	12.6	15.7	17.0	..	66.7	66.4	65.8	..	56.7	55.9	55.1
Greece	59.9	62.6	63.1	66.0	66.0	70.3	73.1	72.4	9.0	11.1	9.0	10.3	17.1	14.6	10.2	11.6	54.5	55.6	57.4	59.3	54.7	60.0	65.7	64.0
Hungary	..	59.9	60.5	60.1	..	61.0	64.6	64.0	..	6.6	5.9	5.9	..	-	-	-	..	55.9	57.0	56.5	..	58.5	62.4	61.4
Ireland	61.6	67.3	68.2	68.7	62.6	68.9	67.5	68.1	12.0	4.3	4.4	4.4	16.2	5.7	6.3	6.1	54.2	64.4	65.2	65.7	52.4	64.9	63.2	63.9
Italy	57.3	59.8	61.5	62.3	66.7	69.3	72.5	70.0	11.9	10.9	9.0	7.9	13.1	12.1	6.3	9.3	50.4	53.3	56.0	57.4	58.0	60.9	68.0	63.5
Luxembourg	56.4	61.6	60.8	60.4	67.7	68.4	71.8	70.9	2.6	2.0	2.9	3.3	3.4	2.9	4.8	6.7	54.9	60.4	59.0	58.4	65.4	66.4	68.4	66.2
Netherlands	70.4	76.7	78.0	78.2	59.0	63.4	65.8	66.0	6.0	2.3	2.9	3.9	19.6	6.3	8.9	10.4	66.1	74.9	75.7	75.1	47.4	59.4	59.9	59.1
Norway	..	81.2	79.3	79.2	..	73.5	74.1	72.2	..	3.3	3.9	4.0	..	6.1	9.0	8.1	..	78.5	76.2	76.0	..	69.0	67.5	66.4
Portugal	67.5	70.4	72.4	72.5	65.2	75.8	79.9	77.6	7.2	3.9	6.3	6.5	12.1	4.5	9.1	9.7	62.7	67.6	67.9	67.8	57.3	72.4	72.7	70.1
Slovak Republic	69.8	69.7	70.2	69.7	17.1	18.6	22.4	24.7	57.9	56.8	54.5	52.4
Spain	59.4	64.9	66.6	67.6	64.2	71.4	75.7	76.8	22.8	13.9	11.0	10.8	27.0	15.9	13.3	13.8	45.8	55.9	59.2	60.3	46.8	60.0	65.6	66.2
Sweden	81.1	78.3	79.3	78.9	68.3	66.6	70.7	71.4	7.3	4.7	4.8	5.7	21.7	11.6	11.1	13.4	75.2	74.6	75.5	74.4	53.5	58.9	62.3	61.3
Switzerland	82.1	81.7	78.5	78.8	2.9	3.1	8.0	8.3	79.7	79.2	72.2	72.3
United Kingdom	75.3	76.3	76.2	75.7	67.7	67.7	68.1	68.4	8.5	5.3	4.6	4.3	12.8	8.8	7.3	7.3	68.9	72.2	72.7	72.4	59.0	61.8	63.1	63.4
Australia	76.0	76.2	76.9	77.6	68.8	68.1	69.4	70.7	8.1	6.2	6.0	5.6	10.2	6.7	6.5	5.6	69.8	71.4	72.3	73.2	61.8	63.5	64.9	66.8
Canada	75.9	76.2	77.9	..	73.7	73.3	73.5	..	9.1	6.0	6.2	..	11.7	7.3	8.7	..	68.9	71.7	73.0	..	65.1	68.0	67.1	..
United States	75.4	76.0	74.3	73.7	71.1	73.6	73.7	73.0	5.8	4.4	6.4	6.2	8.0	4.9	7.5	6.2	71.1	72.7	69.6	69.1	65.4	70.0	68.2	68.5

Note: The sign “..” means not available and “-” means non-significant at B threshold.

Sources: European countries: European Union Labour Force Survey, population aged 15 to 64 (data provided by Eurostat) except for Denmark (Population Register); United States: Current Population Survey; Australia: Labour Force Survey; Canada: Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics.

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C. An Overview of Migration Policies

In 2004 and 2005, OECD member countries confirm their interest in migration policies for employment and their determination to tighten controls over immigration flows. At the same time many countries adopted new measures to improve the reception of new immigrants and enhance the integration of those already settled. This part also contains a section on the role of remittances in the economic development of sending countries and on the international co-operation on the management of immigration flows and in the field of labour migration (with a special focus on the impact of EU enlargement on inflows of immigrant workers to European countries).

1. Migration policy and labour market needs

The growing interest in migration for employment focuses on two specific policy areas. First, the recruitment of highly skilled immigrants, by selective policies in a context of international competition to attract and retain these workers; and second, the recourse to temporary, often seasonal, low-skilled immigrants, to alleviate labour shortages. Countries also continue to implement measures to attract foreign students as potential skilled workers who already have strong links with the receiving country. Finally, there is a tendency in some OECD member countries to better distribute immigrants according to the needs of the local labour markets and in order to avoid integration problems caused by a very high concentration of migrants in certain areas.

Facilitating the immigration of the highly skilled: implementation and enhancement of selective policies

In order to facilitate the immigration of highly skilled workers in several OECD countries, a variety of measures have been adopted. In Finland, the new Aliens Act of 1 May 2004 broadens the right to work without a work permit for some skilled occupations. Among the proposed measures are the immigration of foreign researchers and self-employed persons, and new possibilities for students and family members to enter the labour market. In Japan, a new plan, part of the E-Japan Strategy, was created to bring in 30 000 information technology (IT) engineers by the end of 2005. Moreover, facilitated procedures were introduced for the issue of permanent residence permits for highly skilled workers. In Austria, quotas for the settlement of non-EU citizens and their families are open exclusively to the highly skilled.

The United States, without changing the current annual quota system on H-1B visas (65 000 temporary visas for skilled immigrants), adopted in 2005 the Omnibus Appropriations Act, which make available another 20 000 temporary skilled worker visas, by exempting from the H-1B visa programme foreigners with Master's or Higher Degrees obtained in United States educational institutions. In 2005, the E-3 visa was also established, making available an additional 10 500 visas annually for professionals in specialty occupations. As far as the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) is concerned, starting from 1 January 2004, most of the transitional restrictions applying to Mexican professionals wanting to enter the United States are no longer in force.

New Zealand recorded an increase in the number of skilled/business permits granted in 2004-2005 (61% of the total), mainly due to the improvements made to the Skilled Migrant Category (SMC) policy since December 2004. Increased points were allocated to

applicants with work experience and qualifications, the range of occupations considered as skilled was broadened, and additional points were given for those with close family relatives in New Zealand. In Australia, the skilled stream of the migration programme will also increase in the next eight years, providing an additional 20 000 places. Meanwhile, the system will become more selective by an increase of the passmarks. In Canada, one of the five priorities of the November 2005 Strategic Directions for Immigration will consist in improving selection, by a multi-year level planning and a better promotion of the system.

Some European OECD member countries have shown a growing interest in selective policies (see also Box I.4). In Ireland, a new Employment Permits Bill was approved in October 2005. A Green Card was established for a list of skill shortage occupations. It will be very restricted for occupations in the annual salary range inferior to EUR 30 000 (average industrial salary for the unskilled), less restricted from EUR 30 000 to 60 000, and more extensive for salaries above EUR 60 000. The Green Card will be issued for two years in the first instance, with a possibility of obtaining long-term residence thereafter. Green Card holders are allowed to bring their spouses and families into the country, and spouses will have the right to work.

In the United Kingdom, as part of the government proposal of February 2005 for a new, managed migration system a strategy concerning labour migration is outlined in the document *Selective Admission: Making Migration Work for Britain* (July, 2005). The core proposal of the document is to move from the existing two-tier work permit system to a five-tier labour immigration management system. The five tiers are:

1. Highly skilled immigrants (existing Highly Skilled Migration Programme – HSMP). Selection will be based on a point system. There will no need for employer sponsorship.

Box I.4. European Commission guidelines on labour migration

In January 2005, the European Commission published a Green Book on a common approach to the management of labour migration. In the following December, the Commission proposed a programme of action concerning migrants in a regular situation, in answer to a decision taken by the European Council on The Hague Programme. An Executive Directive was issued which proposed a single permit combining the right to work and residence, and the rights of third country nationals once they are legally admitted by a member state for employment, before they can benefit from the status of long-term resident. Four category-specific Directives will govern the conditions and admission procedures of third country nationals as highly qualified workers, seasonal workers, inter-company transferees, and paid trainees. The category of most interest is that of highly qualified workers, whose entry process needs to be accelerated, and for whom the Commission is considering the creation of an EU work permit (Green Card), delivered by a member state, but that would be valid in the whole EU area. The Commission also proposes to update information on labour migration by the end of 2007, by creating a European Internet portal on the mobility of EURES employment, by specific information campaigns, as well as various studies, and on the other hand, co-operation with the countries of origin would carry out, by way of feasibility studies of the different ways to encourage temporary migration, circular migration, and return. It envisages also to increase the provision of vocational training and language courses in the country of origin, in order to help migrants, before their departure, to develop their competences and to better adapt to the needs of the European labour markets.

2. Skilled workers with a job offer and workers recruited to meet specific requirements not filled by United Kingdom or European Economic Area (EEA) citizens. The selection will be based on a point system and a sponsor (employer) will be required.
3. A limited number of workers to fill low skill shortages. This tier will be similar to the existing Sector Based Scheme (SBS) introduced in May 2003 to provide a certain number, of low-skilled workers, decided by quota, to fill shortages in sectors like hospitality and catering.
4. Students.
5. Other temporary categories.

Tiers 1 and 2 could open the way to permanent residence, after five years of initial residence. The other tiers will not. The proposed scheme is a point system, and a new application process in two stages is proposed. The prospective migrants would make an initial self-assessment in order to establish whether they can qualify for one of the five tiers, and if so, to which tier. If the self-assessment was successful in one of the tiers, the formal application can then be lodged overseas or in the United Kingdom.

The Netherlands are also developing a selective labour migration system. New legislation came into force on 1 October 2004, aiming at stimulating highly qualified labour immigration, by introducing simplified procedures. Labour migrants who are able to earn more than EUR 45 000 (for immigrants under 30 years of age the wage criterion is EUR 32 600) in the Dutch labour market, are eligible for residence permits for a maximum of five years and can work without a work permit. After five years of residence, they can obtain a permanent residence permit. In Switzerland, the 2002 project for a new Federal law on the entry and stay of foreigners was approved by the *Conseil national* on 28 September 2005, and will be voted in the second chamber (*Conseil des Etats*) at the end of 2005. Among its main objectives, it introduces a more selective policy for the admission of non-EU25 citizens: only very highly skilled people capable of integrating and of benefit to the Swiss economy in the long term will be accepted. Quotas have not been established and the selection will be made by assessment on a local level.

In the Czech Republic, a project of Active Selection of Qualified Workers, aimed at attracting young qualified people interested in permanent settlement, launched in 2003 with a few countries, is being implemented with a number of new countries (Belarus, Bulgaria, Canada, Croatia, Kazakhstan, Moldova, Serbia and Montenegro, and the Ukraine). The project offers the immigrants and their families the possibility to obtain a permanent residence permit after a short stay (two and a half years). The applicants must have previously been granted a long term-visa and be in possession of a document proving a level of at least secondary education. They are selected on the basis of a point system. The criteria for obtaining points are previous employment in the Czech Republic, level of education, experience of life in the Czech Republic, language skills, and family. This project still concerns only a very small number of people and at the end of September 2005, only 308 persons were selected according to this procedure.

An increase in the recruitment of low-skilled temporary foreign workers in response to labour market needs

The need for temporary low-skilled immigration is also an issue of concern in a number of OECD countries.

In Canada, new procedural measures and agreements were adopted to facilitate the entry of temporary workers to alleviate shortages in the domestic labour market. In Ireland, the new Employment Permits Act put into place a revised work permits system for occupations not included in Green Card lists (see above), and for which there is a significant labour shortage. The new system will allow both the employee and the employer to apply for a work permit based on an offer of employment.

In Korea, measures were adopted to rationalise and simplify the temporary work permits scheme that has become, after the abolishment in May 2005 of the industrial trainee system for helping small and medium-sized industries, the only scheme to bring foreign workers into Korea. The foreign worker and the employer will be exempted from payments to the national pension plan and employment insurance. The government is considering signing agreements with sending countries concerning social welfare. In order to simplify the procedures to hire migrant workers, an institution supporting Korean enterprises in recruiting migrant workers was established. Moreover, an electronic visa scheme will be introduced.

The United States, in order to face their need for temporary workers without altering the related quotas, approved in 2005 the Save our Small and Seasonal Businesses Act (SOS), concerning low-skilled temporary visas (H-2B). While the cap remains, the SOS Act significantly widened the programme by altering the manner in which H-2B visas are counted. During its period of applicability (1 October 2004 through 1 October 2006), H-2B workers who were admitted in any of the three fiscal years prior to their current application may be readmitted under the programme without counting against the current year's cap. Hence, during fiscal years 2005 and 2006, as many as 198 000 workers annually could be admissible under this programme.

In Finland, the new Aliens Act introduces the right for horticultural workers (mainly berry-pickers) to work without work permits for a period of three months. In Greece, as a result of the new law on Entry and Stay of Foreign Nationals on Greek Territory of 2005 a new seasonal work permit was created. In Hungary, new regulations on seasonal work in agriculture came into effect. In New Zealand, where a general trend towards an increase in the need for temporary workers is being registered, and as a consequence of the number of work permits granted (+12% in 2004-2005), a pilot scheme was launched in July 2004 that allows horticultural employers to recruit overseas workers for seasonal work.

There has also been an increase in the number of places in the Working Holiday Scheme (WHS) (which allows young people aged between 18 and 30 from partner countries to spend 12 months in New Zealand and undertake work of a temporary nature): 31 000 in 2004-2005, 36 000 in 2005-2006, 40 000 in 2006-2007. Two new countries became partners in 2004-2005 (Norway and Thailand). Australia, in order to reduce labour shortages during the harvest period without introducing a temporary worker permit, opted for an enlargement of the Working Holiday Makers (WHM) Programme. From 1 November 2005, Working Holiday Makers who have done at least three months seasonal harvest work in regional Australia may apply for a second Working Holiday visa.

Finally, in Switzerland, the new Federal law on the entry and stay of foreigners did not introduce a specific programme for temporary low-skilled immigrants, however, as the access to the labour market has been freed for the new EU member states, it is intended to alleviate labour shortages, if necessary, with the citizens of these countries.

Attracting international students as potential skilled workers with strong links with the receiving country

Many countries are continuing to introduce and implement programmes aimed at attracting international students, seen as a resource for the society and the economy, especially because they are potentially skilled workers (see also Box I.5).

Canada is consolidating its general strategy by increasing access to the Canadian labour market during the period of study, enhancing post-graduation employment opportunities and expediting the process of study permit applications. In this framework, and in a perspective of regionalisation, agreements with several Provinces were signed, to enable students to work there after their graduation. In April 2005, two Citizenship and Immigration Canada (CIC) projects were announced, whose aim is to better attract, integrate and retain international students in regions throughout the country, in partnership with the Provinces. The first programme allows international students to work off-campus during their studies; the second allows them to work for a period of two years after their graduation.

New Zealand, from September 2005, allows students who have graduated with a qualification that would gain points under the Skilled Migrant Category (SMC) to apply for a six-month open work permit. In addition, the number of hours students are able to work part-time while studying has been increased. Partners accompanying students who are studying in areas of absolute skill shortage, and partners of all postgraduate students, can apply for an open work permit valid for the duration of their partner's course of study.

Since October 2004, in the Czech Republic, the Active Selection of Qualified Labour Force project is also open to foreign students newly graduated from Czech universities. Since July 2005, the same measures have been extended to foreigners who have completed Czech secondary school education. However, the effective number of selected foreign students remains very small. Up to September 2005, only 27 students had been chosen. Greece introduced eased conditions to obtain a student permit. In Japan, since 2004,

Box I.5. EU Directives for migration policies on students and researchers

The European Union adopted recently a harmonised legislative framework concerning migration policies on students and on researchers. The Directive of December 2004 regarding the conditions of admission of third country nationals to study, student exchanges, non-paid trainees or volunteers, aims, among other things, at favouring the mobility of students in the European Union, once they have already been admitted by a member state, to offer students access to the labour market for a minimum of 10 hours per week. In addition, it provides a legal basis for the generalisation of good practices aiming at accelerating the admission procedures for students and school children on the basis of a convention concluded between the educational establishments and the competent authorities who issue residence permits.

Following the decision to invest 3% of GDP in research and in order to contribute to alleviate the related labour shortages of highly qualified personnel, the European Commission has adopted a series of three texts aimed at encouraging the admission of third country national researchers. The most important Directive is that of October 2005 on an admission procedure specific to third country nationals for the purpose of scientific research, aimed at facilitating and accelerating their admission by co-operation between the competent immigration authorities and the research institutions.

foreign nationals with the residence status of college student can be granted a status of temporary visitor for a maximum period of six months after their graduation, in order to look for a job.

Growing attention is being paid to the regionalisation of immigration flows

In some OECD countries, the emphasis in migration policy is oriented towards a better distribution of migrants in the receiving countries, according to the needs of the local labour markets, and in order to avoid integration problems due to a very high concentration of migrants in certain areas. This entails a growing role for local authorities in immigration policies (see in *Trends in International Migration*, OECD, 2004, the special chapter on “Regional Aspects of Migration”).

Australia promotes new initiatives to encourage skilled migrants to settle in regional areas via the Skilled Independent Regional (SIR) visas (lower passmarks, additional points allocated to candidates sponsored by regions, facilitated procedures to obtain SIR visas for trainees and Working Holiday Makers), and migrants with business skills to set up enterprises in regional, rural or low-growth areas. In Canada, the number of migrants selected by the Provincial Nominee Program (migrant selection made by the Provinces) registered an increase of 25% between 2003 and 2004, and, as can be seen above, many programmes concerning international students are only implemented in the Provinces with less immigrants.

In Greece, applications for entry permits to work will have to be lodged at a regional level. It will be the responsibility of each region to accept or refuse applications based on conditions in the local labour market, and to issue the unified residence-work permits.

Regularisation programmes concern mainly the southern European countries

Regularisations remain common in southern European countries (see Table I.20). Spain started a new regularisation programme in February 2005 that launched a process of normalisation of the situation of foreign workers in illegal employment. It was up to employers to lodge the applications, except in the case of domestic workers. The results show 83% of successful applications, of which one-third were in the domestic sector.

In Portugal, a new regularisation process also took place between April and mid-June 2004 for the non-EU foreign workers who could prove they were working in Portugal before 12 March 2003 (date on which the new Decree on Entry, Stay and Exit of non-EU Foreigners entered into force). Forty thousand applications were lodged, but only 3 000 had been accepted up to spring 2005. In Italy, the 2002 regularisation process was closed at the beginning of 2004, with the issue of approximately 650 000 permits.

Depending on the countries, new measures implement restrictive or more liberal policies concerning family-related immigration

Although some OECD countries continue to implement restrictive policies concerning family related immigration (see *Trends in International Migration*, OECD, 2004), others have introduced new measures to better grant immigrants the right to family reunification, to more simplified procedures and to facilitate the integration of their relatives.

In Poland, the new Aliens Act introduced a regime on settlement and residence permits, which is more favourable to spouses and children. Settlement permits can be granted to minor children born in Poland of a foreigner with a settlement permit, and to the

Table I.20. **Main regularisation programmes in selected OECD countries, by nationality**

Thousands

Belgium		France				Greece					
(2000) ¹		(1981-1982) ²		(1997-1998)		(1997-1998) ³		(2001) ⁴			
Dem. Rep. of Congo	8.8	Tunisia	17.3	Algeria	12.5	Albania	239.9				
Morocco	6.2	Morocco	16.7	Morocco	9.2	Bulgaria	24.9				
		African countries	15.0	China	7.6	Romania	16.7				
		Portugal	12.7	Dem. Rep. of Congo	6.3	Pakistan	10.8				
		Algeria	11.7	Tunisia	4.1	Ukraine	9.8				
		Turkey	8.6			Poland	8.6				
Other	36.9	Other	39.1	Other	38.1	Other	60.3				
Total	52.0	Total	121.1	Total	77.8	Total	371.0	Total	351.0		
Italy											
(1987-1988)		(1990)		(1996) ⁵		(1998) ⁵		(2002) ⁶			
Morocco	21.7	Morocco	49.9	Morocco	34.3	Albania	39.0	Romania	132.8		
Sri Lanka	10.7	Tunisia	25.5	Albania	29.7	Romania	24.1	Ukraine	100.1		
Philippines	10.7	Senegal	17.0	Philippines	21.4	Morocco	23.9	Albania	47.1		
Tunisia	10.0	Former Yugoslavia	11.3	China	14.4	China	16.8	Morocco	46.9		
Senegal	8.4	Philippines	8.7	Peru	12.8	Senegal	10.7	Ecuador	34.0		
Former Yugoslavia	7.1	China	8.3	Romania	11.1	Egypt	9.5	China	32.8		
Other	50.1	Other	97.1	Other	120.8	Other	93.2	Other	241.0		
Total	118.7	Total	217.7	Total	244.5	Total	217.1	Total	634.7		
Portugal											
(1992-1993)		(1996)		(2001) ⁷		2004					
Angola	12.5	Angola	6.9	Ukraine	63.5						
Guinea-Bissau	6.9	Cape Verde	5.0	Brazil	36.6						
Cape Verde	6.8	Guinea-Bissau	4.0	Rep. of Moldova	12.3						
Brazil	5.3	Sao Tome and Principe	1.2	Romania	10.7						
Sao Tome and Principe	1.4	Brazil	2.0	Cape Verde	8.3						
Senegal	1.4			Angola	8.1						
Other	4.8	Other	3.7	Other	39.8						
Total	39.2	Total	21.8	Total	179.2	Total	3.0				
Spain											
(1985-1986) ⁸		(1991)		(1996)		(2000) ⁹		(2001) ¹⁰		2005	
Morocco	7.9	Morocco	49.2	Morocco	7.0	Morocco	45.2	Ecuador	52.3	Ecuador	122.4
Portugal	3.8	Argentina	7.5	Peru	1.9	Ecuador	20.2	Colombia	40.8	Morocco	95.8
Senegal	3.6	Peru	5.7	China	1.4	Colombia	12.5	Morocco	31.7	Romania	64.5
Argentina	2.9	Dominican Rep.	5.5	Argentina	1.3	China	8.8	Romania	20.4	Colombia	48.3
United Kingdom	2.6	China	4.2	Poland	1.1	Pakistan	7.3			Bolivia	37.2
Philippines	1.9	Poland	3.3	Dominican Rep.	0.8	Romania	6.9			Bulgaria	21.3
Other	21.1	Other	34.7	Other	7.8	Other	63.1	Other	89.4	Other	
Total	43.8	Total	110.1	Total	21.3	Total	163.9	Total	234.6	Total	548.7
Switzerland		United States									
(2000) ¹¹		(1986) ¹²		(1997-1998) ¹³		(2000) ¹⁴					
Sri Lanka	8.9	Mexico	2 008.6								
Fed. Rep. of Yugoslavia	4.9	El Salvador	152.3	El Salvador/Guatemala	300.0						
Bosnia-Herzegovina	0.6	Caribbean	110.5	Haiti	50.0						
Turkey	0.3	Guatemala	64.0	Nicaragua	40.0						
		Colombia	30.3	Eastern Europe	10.0						
		Philippines	25.7	Cuba	5.0						
Other	0.5	Other	293.5								
Total	15.2	Total	2 684.9	Total	405.0	Total	400.0				

Table I.20. **Main regularisation programmes in selected OECD countries, by nationality**
(cont.)

Thousands

1. A regularisation programme started in January 2000. Asylum seekers who were residing in Belgium in October 1999 and who fill certain conditions could apply. Figures indicate the number of persons who applied (including dependents). A total of 35 000 dossiers have been received.
2. Excluding seasonal workers (6 681 persons) and around 1 200 small traders not broken down by nationality.
3. Persons who were granted a white card (first stage of the regularisation). Data by nationality are preliminary.
4. Number of applications of work and residence permits according to the October 2001 law. A new programme has been launched in 2004.
5. Number of permits granted based on estimates done by M. Carfagna, "I sommersi e i sanati. Le regolarizzazioni degli immigrati in Italia" in *Stranieri in Italia: Assimilati ed esclusi*, A. Colombo and G. Sciortino (eds.), Mulino, Bologna, 2002.
6. Data refer to the number of permits issued at the beginning of 2004.
7. The new foreigners act (January 2001) allowed the regularisation of undocumented Non-EU citizens in possession of registered work contracts. The figures indicate the number of one-year residence permits delivered between January 2001 and March 2003. In 2003, around 10 000 Brazilians benefited from a specific programme.
8. Number of applications received.
9. Regularisation programme held from 23 March to 31 July 2000.
10. "Arraigo" programme. Excluding 24 600 other applications which have not yet been examined.
11. Programme called "Action humanitaire 2000." People accepted should have been in Switzerland since 31 December 1992 and have encountered big troubles.
12. Data refer to all persons granted a permanent residence permit (excluding their dependents) during the period 1989-1996 following the 1986 Immigration and Reform Control Act. Data are broken down by country of birth.
13. Includes some estimates of foreigners who are eligible for the Nicaraguan Adjustment and Central American Relief Act (November 1997) and for the Haitian Refugee Immigration Fairness Act (October 1998).
14. Estimates of applications for legalization under the Legal Immigration Family Equity (LIFE) Act.

Sources: Switzerland: Office des étrangers; France: Agence nationale d'accueil des étrangers et des migrations (ANAEM); Greece: National Employment Observatory; Belgium, Italy, Portugal and Spain: Ministry of the Interior; United States: Immigration and Naturalization Service.

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foreign spouse of a Polish citizen who has been married for at least three years, and who has held a temporary residence permit for at least two years. The procedure is simplified (no need for a stable and regular source of income, and accommodation). Moreover, minor foreigners born in Poland, and staying in Poland without a legal guardian, and family members of a foreigner residing in Poland who are entitled to individual procedures of legalisation of stay, are granted a temporary residence permit on an obligatory basis. Finally, the required length of stay of a foreigner who wants to enter under the family reunification procedure (a spouse and minor children) has been shortened from four to three years. The amendment also introduced the right to family reunification for family members who are already in Poland. They are granted a temporary residence permit for two years. After five years, the family members are entitled to obtain their own settlement permit.

In the Czech Republic, the first amendment to the Act on Stay of Foreigners transposed in Czech law the European directive on the right of family reunification. It determines the conditions for the implementation of family reunion with nationals of third countries who reside legally in a member state. In Greece, the conditions for family reunion and the immigrants' family members are more clearly defined (spouse of more than 18 years of age and minor children).

According to the new Settlement and Temporary Residence Law, in Austria, family reunion is essentially unregulated and uncapped for third country origin citizens who are partners of or are dependent children of an Austrian or other EU citizen. Concerning third country citizens, partners or dependants of third country citizens, a new quota has been introduced for people who have a permanent residence permit on the basis of family

reunification (without access to the labour market), and who want to work. This new quota aims at speeding up labour market integration of family members of long-term residents.

In Canada, welcoming family class immigrants sponsored and supported by close family members remains one of the main focuses of immigration policy. A two-year plan has been financed to increase the processing of applications from parents and grandparents, and to cover integration costs once they are in Canada. In 2004-2005 a public policy has been developed to permit spouses and common-law partners without legal temporary status in Canada to be eligible for consideration in the "spouse and common-law partner in Canada class". More specific policies for the facilitation of family reunification are also carried out (towards people of Vietnamese origin who remained in the Philippines without legal status after the fall of Saigon in 1975, and the victims of the south Asian tsunami of December 2004).

Changes in policies for refugees and acceleration in the processing of asylum requests

Some countries are experiencing the effects of recent restrictive policies concerning asylum. This is the case in Ireland and the Netherlands, where as a consequence of the changes introduced for the former in 2003-2004, and for the latter in 2000, with the new Alien Act, the number of applicants for asylum has significantly decreased. In the Netherlands, following some criticisms of the excessive restrictiveness of this policy, some changes were introduced in 2004: the temporary residence for humanitarian reasons has been extended from three years to five years. On the contrary, claims of solitary asylum seekers under the age of twelve are no longer assessed by the accelerated procedure.

Other countries, on the contrary, are experimenting with policies which are more favourable to asylum seekers. In Canada, the number of refugee landings in 2004 rose (+20% over the figures of the previous three years), as a consequence of the Immigration and Refugee Board Chairperson's Action Plan (increasing efficiency, among others, by streamlining the refugee determination system). Measures were also introduced to reunite the family members of protected individuals in Canada and to promote sponsorship initiatives for refugees.

Finland increased the number of favourable decisions during the last year, and in Norway, the quota of refugees accepted for resettlement has been increased to 1 000 (instead of 750) in 2005. In Sweden, two new government bills were approved in September 2005. The first allows residence permits for witnesses before international courts and tribunals, and will allow them and their close family to obtain protection in Sweden. The second establishes that people who have well-founded fear of persecution because of their gender or sexual orientation shall be granted refugee status.

In France, the 2004 reform of asylum legislation has extended the refugee status to people menaced by other entities than a state, and has introduced a subsidiary protection status (which replaces the previous territorial asylum). People who do not fill the conditions to be granted refugee status, but who are nonetheless exposed to a severe danger in their country (tortures, inhuman penalties, death penalty, generalised violence due to internal or international conflicts perpetrated by the public authority or other actors), can benefit from a subsidiary protection which entitles them to a one-year renewable residence permit, giving them the right to work.

In Japan, the amended Immigration Act, establishing a new refugee recognition system, entered into force on 16 May 2005. Foreign nationals in an irregular situation who

are applying for the recognition of refugee status are permitted a provisional stay, and a stable legal status for foreign residents in an irregular situation who have been recognised as refugees is introduced. In addition, the appeal system has been overhauled, by the creation of a refugee counsellors system, to ensure fairness and impartiality in the decisions.

Despite the national differences, some general trends can be recognised in the evolution of asylum policies. Several countries have introduced or are planning to introduce measures aimed at simplifying and accelerating procedures concerning asylum.

On 17 June 2005, the Australian government announced that all primary protection visa applications will be decided within three months of receipt. This time limit also applies to decisions by the Refugee Review Tribunal (RRT), when reviewing protection visa decisions. Norway introduced measures to make procedures more efficient. The most important consists of the early distribution of asylum applications into different procedures: applications that may be rejected with no need for further investigation; applications that may be approved with no need for further verification, and applications that need further inquiries. Moreover, Norway concluded six new readmission agreements with countries where return is currently difficult and has focused on the need for harmonised procedures with other receiving countries.

In France, the reform of asylum has entitled the *Office français de protection des réfugiés et apatrides* (OFPRA) to become the only institution processing asylum demands, unifying procedures that were previously shared between the OFPRA and the Ministry of Interior. Decisions will be taken, both on the form and on the substance, by the same institution, the OFPRA and a new independent judicial authority, the *Conseil du contentieux des étrangers*, will be in charge of appeal procedures. Once the new procedure is in place, decisions will be given in less than one year.

Another common concern among OECD member countries is an improvement in the management of the refugee determination process, in order to ensure national security and avoid the fraudulent use of humanitarian protection. This trend is particularly evident in North America. In the United States, the Real ID Act of 2005 restricted the terms under which asylum may be granted, and limited judicial review of asylum claims that had failed. It also expanded the grounds on which aliens involved in terrorist activities may be deported or denied admission. At the end of 2004, the Safe Third Country Agreement was implemented between Canada and the United States, as part of the Smart Border Declaration signed in December 2001.

European Union policy legislation concerning asylum goes in the same direction, especially with the Directive on minimum standards for the reception of asylum seekers, the Dublin I and Dublin II Agreements and Eurodac. New accession countries are making great efforts in order, not only to integrate the *acquis communautaire* in this field, but also to harmonise their own asylum policies with the EU requirements (see Box I.6). For example, the Slovak Republic envisaged new measures concerning asylum. In order to prevent the misuse of the asylum status and to make procedures more efficient, new methods for establishing identity, nationality, age, conditions in the home country of asylum seekers, are to be used, and the procedure will be shortened. In Bulgaria, in the perspective of accession to the EU, new amendments to the law on Asylum and Refugees were made in March 2005, in order to complete the legislative alignment with the 1951 Geneva Convention.

Box I.6. *Acquis communautaire* and the harmonisation of migration policies in the new EU member countries

The majority of the new EU accession countries have taken various measures concerning reception and housing facilities, comprehensive integration programmes and access to the labour market. In 2005, two amendments were made to the Czech law on Stay of Foreigners by the Ministry of the Interior, and submitted to the government and the parliament. The first contains a section on the improvement in the conditions of detention and expulsion of foreigners. More specifically, it sets out special conditions for the detention of children between 15 and 18 years old residing on the territory of the Czech Republic, not accompanied by their statutory representatives, and it suggests an improvement in the conditions (e.g. compulsory school attendance for children under 15 years of age). The second makes important changes in the granting of permanent residence permits (the requested period of residence is reduced from ten to five years), and introduces the status of long-term residence.

In Poland, the amended Aliens Act was passed in April 2005 and enacted in October, incorporating six directives of the Council of the European Union. They concern the status of third country nationals who are long-term residents; the right to family reunification; the minimum conditions for admission of asylum seekers; entry permits for third country nationals who are i) victims of human trafficking, and/or ii) involved with networks organising undocumented migration and who co-operate with the authorities; assistance to persons in the process of deportation; temporary protection standards in case of a mass influx of displaced persons and co-operation between the EU member states in this area. The most important changes include the introduction of the EU long-term residence permit, restrictions in the category of people who can apply for a residence permit and the facilitation of the related procedures, the expansion of the category of people who are granted a temporary permit on an obligatory basis (especially in favour of family members and victims of human trafficking), measures concerning family reunion, and asylum seekers.

In January 2005, the Slovak Republic has adopted new measures concerning the entry and stay of foreigners in accordance with European Union policy and priorities. The main objectives are improving resources (human, material, financial) and co-ordination among the competent institutions, and developing an institutional framework for the implementation of the policies; engaging actively in European Union legislative action in the field of migration, and increasing harmonisation with EU law. In the short term, the Slovak Republic intends to join the Schengen information system and to implement the Dublin agreements.

2. Enforcement strategies, security and the fight against irregular migration

Even if the number of irregular entries is generally decreasing in OECD countries, security and the fight against irregular immigration are still considered as central issues, inspiring policy reforms in most countries.

Re-enforcement of border control

The Irish discussion document *Outline Policy Proposals for an Immigration and Residence Bill*, released in April 2005, indicates as one of its two main objectives “to maintain the safety and security of the state and its residents”. It contains several policy proposals concerning visas and pre-entry clearance, border control and removal from the state. In

Italy, the Planning Document on Immigration 2004-2006, which is intended to govern the quota system and guide overall migration policy, is strongly security-oriented. The National Commission on Terrorist Attacks on the United States released its final report on 22 July 2004. It contained a series of recommendations concerning immigration controls and the sharing of information among Federal agencies. There were a number of changes in visa processing and passport procedures.

Border control apprehension seems to be decreasing with the diminished number of illegal entries. An important exception concerns the new European Union (EU) accession countries and the candidate countries for future entry. These are now countries that are making efforts to better manage and secure what has become the new external border of the EU. In the Concept of Migration Policy document adopted by the government in January 2005, the Slovak Republic, which is a transition country for irregular migrants trying to reach other EU countries, points out that better protection of the borders is needed in order to meet the Schengen requirements, and that European visa policy must be efficiently implemented. Romania and Bulgaria have also been very active in this field. In Romania the Decision of 1 April 2004 on the National Strategy of Romania's State Borders Integrated Management sets out the conditions for Romania to meet the preliminary requirements to take part in the Schengen Agreement.

As regards the combat against irregular migration, different measures are envisaged, among others, the systematic implementation of the Schengen rules related to visas. In Belgium, the European Directive (2001/51/CE) was transposed in December 2004. It contains measures against transporters introducing foreigners in an irregular situation. The transporter becomes responsible for returning irregular immigrants to their country of origin. In Spain, following the Royal Decree December 2004, transporters have become guarantors as they are required to check the documents of their passengers, and to inform the authorities of any unused return tickets. If they fail to do so, they may be obliged to pay fines. In the Netherlands, the Memorandum for Return Migration (2003) proposed, among other measures, to improve border control, and to enforce the responsibilities of transporters to remove foreigners who have been intercepted at the border. Advanced Passenger Screening (APS) was introduced in New Zealand in July 2003. As part of this scheme, a control on the validity of passengers' passports and visas is made by the airlines at their check-in desks, on the basis of Department of Labour Immigration systems data. This became compulsory for all airlines flying to New Zealand in July 2004.

Mexico has initiated measures to create an integrated migration policy proposal for its southern border. Three forums were held in 2005, in order to reflect on and debate this proposal. Four strategic directions were elaborated: facilitation of documented migrants, whose temporary and final destinations are the states along Mexico's southern border; protection of the rights of immigrants entering through Mexico's southern border; contributions to security on the border, and permanent updating of migration flow management.

The use of new technologies in the fight against the fraudulent use of identity documents

Another important point in several new measures has been the fight against the fraudulent use of identity, especially through biometric technologies. The United States has an extensive programme on this issue. Authorities took action to implement the US Visitor and Immigration Status Indicator Technology (US-VISIT) programme from

October 2004. Under US-VISIT, consulates abroad began to require nearly all foreign nationals requesting a visa to enter the United States to establish their identity by having their two index fingers scanned and a digital photograph taken. This information would then be verified when the individual approached a US port of entry. The programme also requires travellers from all 27 Visa Waiver Program countries to present machine-readable, biometric passports to gain entry without a US visa. The Department of Homeland Security also began enrolling visa waiver travellers through US-VISIT. All visa-adjudicating consular posts abroad are now equipped with fingerprint-scanning equipment.

In May 2004, the US State Department announced that the United States would participate in a new programme intended to contribute substantially to worldwide travel document security. All participating countries must submit information on lost and stolen passports to Interpol, which is accessible to border authorities worldwide. The REAL ID Act of 2005 had a significant impact in the United States by prohibiting Federal agencies from accepting State-issued driver's licenses and other identification cards, unless the States satisfied new Federal standards for issue. Each State must also provide all other States with electronic access to their Department of Motor Vehicles database. These new Federal standards, which will necessitate a complete overhaul of licensing procedures throughout the country, have been strongly resisted by the States.

In Canada, Citizenship and Immigration Canada (CIC) has begun to develop a comprehensive Identity Management Framework that will enhance their capacity to systematically address the risks of theft and fraudulent use of identity and related documents. CIC also continues to work with the CBSA to investigate how biometrics and other technologies might further strengthen client identification. In Australia, the implementation of biometric technologies to support and improve identity management began in July 2005 and should be completed by 2009. In Japan, the system for examining travel documents has been reinforced with high-performance devices. Biometrics research has been developed.

More active repatriation policies...

The enforcement of return policies of immigrants in an irregular situation is gaining more and more importance in the management of migration flows in most OECD member countries. Repatriation agreements seem to be the means preferred by most countries, which demonstrates a certain increase in international co-operation in this field.

In the Netherlands, a Memorandum on Return Migration was published in late 2003 by the Minister of Immigration and Integration, containing measures aiming at assuring a more effective implementation of return procedures. The rejected asylum seekers or the irregular migrants are responsible for their own departures. In the implementation of this policy, a difference is made between asylum seekers who submitted their initial asylum request before 1 April 2001 (Project Return provides them with extra help from authorities in order to facilitate their departure and reintegration in the country of origin). If this facility does not lead to departure, they are obliged to leave their residence. If deportation is possible, they are detained either in a deportation centre, or a departure centre, where they can stay for eight weeks, after which, it is their own responsibility to leave the country.

In Belgium, forced repatriations have sharply increased since 1999, as a consequence of the stricter policy put in force by the Belgian authorities. Moreover, many effective readmission agreements have been signed in the last few years by Belgium, the

Netherlands and Luxembourg. In September 2004, the 2001 European Directive on the mutual recognition of removal decisions was transposed into Belgian law. A foreigner who should have been removed from one member state but was not, can be removed by another member state. The costs are paid by the state that takes the removal decision. A report on removal conditions was released at the beginning of 2005, aiming to make the removal policy more humane and effective.

Denmark also has a very active repatriation policy. In 2004, the number of repatriations was the highest ever recorded. Repatriates receive financial support. The same trend was registered in France – the number of expulsions has been increasing since 2001 (+33% between 2003 and 2004), in accordance with the will of the French government to fight against irregular migration, and with the orientations provided by the law of November 2003. More precisely, this law extended the detention period before the expulsion takes place, in order to make this measure more efficient, and limited the rules concerning the expulsion of irregular migrants who have close personal or family links with France.

In Japan, as part of the amended Immigration Control Act, two new systems came into force in December 2004: the departure order system (obliging foreign nationals in an irregular situation to leave Japan immediately), and the status of residence revocation system.

Hungary and Norway both introduced stricter rules on expulsion. In Norway, they concern particularly foreigners convicted for acts of violence or harassment; in Hungary, appeal is no longer possible in case of an expulsion decision, and detention in preparation for expulsion was introduced. Hungary has also been very active concerning bilateral re-admission agreements, signed with 21 countries. Negotiations are taking place with a number of other countries. Sweden is also continuing negotiations with a number of countries for readmission agreements. Greece has introduced new provisions aiming at making the process of expulsion more humane and fair. In case of expulsion, the immigrant has the right to appeal to the Public Order Ministry and to benefit from judicial protection. Expulsion is forbidden in the following situations: minor child whose parents live legally in Greece, parent of a child of Greek nationality, person aged over 80 years, and refugees.

... and new measures to combat people trafficking and the illegal employment of foreigners

Particular attention has been given to the fight against people trafficking. Measures to fight against smuggling and trafficking in people were reinforced in Japan, and are included in the new laws in Greece and the Netherlands. In Norway, the new Action Plan to combat trafficking in women and children for the period 2005-2008 introduces measures to increase penalties for traffickers and improve protection for victims. In May 2004, Belgium adopted the Royal Decree on the fight against people trafficking. A Centre for Information and Analysis on human trafficking and smuggling has been created, which receives, centralises and analyses all useful data on the subject. A law voted in August 2005 better defines the concepts of trafficking and smuggling of people: people smuggling has been introduced as a crime in the Penal Code, as has profiteering in housing (*marchands de sommeil*).

A number of other countries have decided to facilitate the entry and stay of people who are victims of trafficking, and who have decided to co-operate with the authorities in investigations.

In January 2004, in Australia, the Bridging F and Witness Protection (Trafficking) visas came into effect. These new visas, coupled with the existing Criminal Justice Stay Visa, form a regime that enables persons who are assisting, or who have assisted, an investigation or prosecution of people trafficking offenders to remain lawfully in Australia. In Hungary, residence permits are issued on a humanitarian basis to foreign nationals effectively co-operating with the authorities in investigating crimes. In Poland, according to the amended Aliens Act passed in 2005, foreigners who are victims of human trafficking, who are in Poland and who decided to co-operate with the authorities must be granted a temporary residence permit. The Directive of 29 April 2004 relating to residence permits issued to third country nationals who were victims of human trafficking, or had been helped to immigrate clandestinely, and who co-operate with the authorities, institutes at the European level the results of the experiences conducted by some member states to combat human trafficking by issuing a six month residence permit to the victims, if they agree to co-operate with the legal authorities in the dismantling of criminal networks.

Many OECD member countries have adopted new measures to combating the illegal employment of foreigners. Since November 2004, in Australia, a new Internet-based real-time visa entitlement checking system has been created that allows employers and labour suppliers to quickly and easily check the work entitlements of non-citizens they wish to employ. This service is free and available 24 hours a day.

In Finland, the debate on the illegal work of immigrants has been recently launched by the media. The Department of the International Movement of Labour was formed within the Advisory Board for Labour Policy in 2004, as well as a special task unit set up in the National Bureau of Investigation, to combat the informal economy, and the illegal employment of immigrant workers. In the Netherlands, the Memorandum on Illegal Aliens, presented in April 2004 by the Minister for Immigration and Integration, announces a new range of measures to combat the illegal employment of foreigners. In Switzerland, in June 2005, the Parliament adopted a Federal law introducing measures to fight against illegal employment. Also, in the proposed new law on the entry and stay of foreigners, there is a section which strengthens sanctions against employers who illegally hire foreign workers.

3. Policies aiming at facilitating the integration of immigrants into the labour market and society of receiving countries

One of the main trends in integration policies consists of the introduction or improvement of integration programmes for newcomers. New programmes are put in place and existing good practices continue to be implemented, with more substantial financing (see Box I.7). Particular attention is paid to compulsory language courses combined, with job-oriented initiatives, and to the strengthening of anti-discrimination and diversity measures. Other initiatives have been undertaken concerning social policies, unaccompanied minors, young immigrants and refugees.

Box I.7. **European Commission and integration policies**

More and more attention is being paid by the European Commission to the integration of immigrants, due to recent problems, sometimes serious riots, in some member states. The European Commission published a first annual report on migration and the integration in July 2004. The national correspondents on integration designated by the member states, whose principal task is to exchange information on best practices, contributed to the *Handbook on Integration for Policy Makers and Practitioners*, issued in November 2004, covering integration programmes for newcomers, participation in the civil society, and indicators. The Ministers of Justice and Internal Affairs adopted in November 2004 eleven basic principles that constitute a framework of non-compulsory rules intended to be used as a guide for the European Union and the member states in the definition and the evaluation of policies for the integration of immigrants. In September 2005, the Commission adopted a common programme for integration, elaborating proposals of concrete measures for the implementation for each of the basic principles at both the European and the national levels. Mention should also be made of the European Union Directive 2000/43 of 29 June 2000, concerning anti-discrimination policy of the European Union, and equal rights for immigrants, without distinction of race or ethnic origin.

Providing immigrants with better reception conditions and special measures to improve their language skills...

The common perception is that if, on the one hand, migration policies become more selective and restrictive, on the other, receiving countries should provide better chances to really integrate into the society those migrants who arrive in a legal situation. This is for example, the orientation of the new Dutch policy concerning immigrants, the French law of November 2003, and of the newly approved Swiss Federal law on the entry and stay of foreigners. In Switzerland, the new Federal Programme for the Promotion of Integration (2004-2007) gives priority to five points: language courses, access to institutions, facilitating community harmony, encouraging the development of specialised services, promoting innovation and quality rules. Moreover, according to the Amendment of the Ordinance on the Integration of Foreigners approved on 7 September 2005, the level of integration of the migrant will be taken into account by the authorities when granting or renewing of a residence permit. If the integration is considered successful, a residence permit will be granted after five years.

The enhancement of the integration system is also one of the focal points of the new immigration policy programme in Finland, as well as of the new Greek law on the Entry and Stay of Foreigners. In Germany, the implementation of measures for occupational integration and the improvement of language skills are regarded as two Federal priorities, and in France, since 2003, integration and the fight against discrimination have become two focal points of the action of the President of the Republic.

In France, a new policy concerning the integration of newly arrived permanent migrants was launched in 2003. Its principal tool is the welcome and integration contract (*Contrat d'accueil et d'intégration*). This contract consists of a voluntary individual agreement between the immigrant and the state, the main objective of which is to establish reciprocal rights and duties. It lasts for one year and it can be renewed once. It is composed of two parts: a reciprocal engagement, for the newcomer to respect the laws and the values of the French Republic and to attend the civic training programmes, and for the state to grant

access to individual rights and to language learning. A second section assesses the specific needs of each immigrant, language skills, life in France and social assistance. The *Contrats d'accueil et d'intégration* were launched in July 2003 in some pilot *départements*, and have been extended to the whole territory since January 2004.

In Norway, in September 2005, training in Norwegian language and society (300 hours of classes) became compulsory, and at the same time, a condition for receiving settlement permits and nationality for all newcomers aged between 18 and 55. The training must be completed within the first three years in Norway. Immigrants aged between 55 and 67 have the right, but no obligation, to participate. Resident foreign workers have an obligation to do the training but they have to pay for it themselves. Beyond the compulsory training, those who have further needs will have the opportunity to take more classes. A new subsidy was introduced for all students who finish the language test. The municipalities are responsible for providing the training.

In Denmark, integration policy is based on the 1999 Integration Act and its 2004 amendment. Its main tool is the introduction programme (offered by local authorities to newcomers over 18 years of age, and coming from non-EEA and non-Nordic countries), by the means of a individual contract that defines the scope and contents of the programme. Immigrants participating in the introduction programme are entitled to an allowance. This was reduced on 1 July 2002, in order to encourage their participation in the labour market. The 2004 amendment redefines the contents of the introduction programme, which now comprises language courses and three offers of active involvement, including counselling and upgrading, job training, and employment with a wage supplement. The amendment also established an incentive system for local authorities that succeed in their integration efforts. An Act on Danish Courses for Adult Aliens and Others entered into force on the 1 January 2004. Danish language and culture courses have become more employment-oriented (see *Trends in International Migration*, OECD, 2004).

In the Netherlands, as the system of compulsory introduction programmes for newcomers launched in 1998 experienced difficulties, especially numerous drop-outs and a lack of language skills improvement, a reform of the introduction programmes has been decided which introduces a stricter system based on obligations and sanctions. The main changes are: newcomers should possess some basic knowledge of the Dutch language before their arrival. Tests to assess their level are taken at the Dutch Embassy in their country of origin; introduction courses are no longer compulsory, but newcomers will be obliged to pass an immigrant introduction exam, at the latest five years after their arrival, which will be one of the preconditions to obtain an unrestricted residence permit. Moreover, as the courses are no longer compulsory, the immigrants are themselves responsible to learn the language. They themselves bear the costs of the courses, and will be partly reimbursed after passing the immigrant introduction exam successfully. These new conditions apply also to asylum seekers. Some categories of immigrants who arrived before 1998, especially those living on social benefits, and women responsible for raising children, will be obliged to pass the immigrant introduction exam. Introduction courses for immigrants will be privatised.

In Belgium, in the Flemish community, the Decree of 28 February 2003 on civic integration entered into force on 1 April 2004. It creates the right/duty of integration and introduces compulsory integration programmes to be attended by all new immigrants to

Flemish towns. It consists of an individual training and follow up scheme, providing language courses, citizenship initiation and personal vocational orientation.

Germany and Canada also are increasing their efforts to provide job-oriented language courses. In particular, the Canadian government, in December 2004, committed an additional CAD 15 million annually to an enhanced language training initiative, to deliver advanced, occupation-specific language training.

In Sweden, the government is planning to present a bill in Spring 2006 concerning the integration of newcomers. The new introduction programme will be more job-oriented. A flexible Swedish language course will be introduced that will enable new immigrants to combine language courses with vocational training and work experience, as part of a new special labour market programme. In Finland, a government bill for the amendment of the Integration Act of 1999 came into force at the beginning of 2006. Its major objectives are to clarify the division of responsibilities in the implementation of integration measures between local authorities and the government, and to give more consideration to the integration of immigrants who are not part of the labour force. Up until now, only immigrants who have been entered in the population data system and who are eligible for labour market subsidy and/or social assistance have been entitled to an integration plan.

Some other initiatives are intended to better inform newcomers with regards to services, rights and opportunities. In Belgium, in May 2004 the Newintown Web site was launched, aiming at improving the information given to newly arrived immigrants. Canada further invests in the Going to Canada Internet portal, aiming to provide immigrants with easy access to information concerning the services available to assist them, and support for the Canadian Orientation abroad initiative, that provides pre-departure information.

Australia has been very active in providing assistance to newly arrived immigrants. In 2004, the Newly Arrived Youth Support Services project was launched, which aims to connect homeless young migrants and young humanitarian migrants at risk of homelessness, with family, work, education, training and the community. Moreover the new Settlement Grants Program will provide grants to eligible organisations to assist newly arrived migrants and humanitarian entrants to establish themselves in Australia during the early settlement period. A regionally-focused settlement planning framework was developed, which aims to improve the services available to settlement clients by identifying their priority needs on an annual basis.

In Spain, in 2005 the government approved a sum of EUR 120 million in the general budget allocated to the Immigrant Integration Fund, which will be distributed to autonomous regions and local authorities, in order to finance reception, integration and educational programmes. Following recent events in Ceuta and Melilla, the government has assigned a further EUR 3 million for social integration programmes. Supplementary funds were also allocated in Australia in order to implement the recommendations of the Review of Settlement Services for Migrants and Humanitarian Entrants and in New Zealand, to enhance English teaching to foreign children in schools, development of a network of migrant resource services, career advice and support for unemployed migrants. In the new Austrian law on residence and settlement of foreigners, local regions themselves devise an institutional and budgetary framework to organise the integration of migrants.

... and their integration into the labour market

Integration into the labour market is often considered as a fundamental step towards successful integration into society. Nonetheless, as regards access to employment, immigrants suffer from several drawbacks: lack of language skills, of recognised qualifications and relevant work experience in the country, and of useful contacts and relationships.

In June 2005, in Denmark, the government adopted a White Paper on integration, *A New Chance for Everybody*. It proposed an overall integration strategy of which the themes and initiatives were: young people must be guaranteed relevant education, such as language classes for bilingual children, homework coaches, career counselling and compulsory job-qualifying courses for young people receiving cash assistance. Contracts on integration will be established: all immigrants hold these contracts until they obtain a permanent residence permit. They will be obliged to participate in introduction and job training programmes and apply for employment, in order to receive social welfare subsidies. Having a contract will be condition for the issue of a permanent residence permit. Special measures are conceived in order to foster the employment of migrants. All immigrants must be offered enrolment in an employment-generating scheme. Local authorities will be rewarded for their efforts in favour of the integration of immigrants into the labour market. In order to encourage participation, cash assistance to one of the spouses of a couple where both receive cash assistance will be suspended if he/she has not done at least 300 hours of paid work in the previous two years. Neighbourhood concentration of immigrants must be countered by means of allowances for renovation of deprived areas, the sale of non-profit housing and subsidies for the removal expenses of residents who want to move away from vulnerable areas. Some measures for the prevention of and the fight against extremism and crime, specifically with respect to parental responsibility, will be reinforced by offering parents who are unable to support and control their children specific training, and in extreme cases, by reducing their family allowances.

In Sweden, a two-year employment package was proposed by the government in the budget for 2006. Its objective is to make job, apprenticeship and vocational training available for 55 000 people. Although part of general labour market policy, this package will focus particularly on people with a foreign background. A new form of employment subsidy called *Plusjobb* has been introduced. The employer will receive a subsidy of 100% of the wage costs up to a specified ceiling when hiring the long-term unemployed. *Plusjobb* was made available from January 2006 for 20 000 long-term unemployed workers. On the other hand, the duration of the general subsidy for the recruitment of the long-term unemployed has been reduced from 24 to 18 months as of July 2005, in order to decrease dependence on subsidised jobs, and free some resources to be used to raise the number of subsidies. A temporary replacement trainee scheme will be introduced in 2006 and 2007 in order, on the one hand, to enable the public sector (especially the healthcare sector) to invest in better training for its employees and, on the other, to provide 10 000 unemployed persons with work experience. Finally, special measures for unemployed university graduates have been put in place. The government will co-operate with temporary work agencies to find jobs requiring specific qualifications for 4 000 unemployed university graduates in 2006 and 2007. A particularly positive impact is expected for university graduates of foreign origin because they have more difficulties to find suitable jobs after their graduation than do native Swedes.

The German labour market reforms provide new orientations towards the integration of immigrants into the labour market. The target group are Germans of foreign origin already naturalised, and foreigners with unlimited labour market access and permanent residence status. In principle, all persons belonging to this target group and who experience occupational labour market integration problems are entitled to personalised help aiming at reducing, depending on the case, the following deficiencies: lack of: language skills, qualifications or underexploited qualifications, counselling and social capital networks. Meanwhile, the Labour Market Authority has increased its efforts to use the existing instruments. Among others, it is worth quoting:

- The Job-AQTIV law, which introduces a profiling procedure aimed at identifying individual needs and assets for integration into the labour market. The placement strategy resulting from the profiling must be set out in an integration agreement. Language of origin and intercultural competences are considered as pluses for immigrants.
- The Immediate Youth Programme, which involves an intensification of measures aiming at preparing young people who are not yet ready for vocational training, supporting unemployed young people without qualifications and those who have given up vocational training, and improving the language skills of young migrants.
- The Federal Employment Agency project to reduce unemployment among foreigners. It promotes intensive placement, advice and special training.
- Development of counselling and information networks and specific consultancy offices as part of EQUAL projects. Federal initiatives to support business start-ups of individuals with a background of migration, e.g. self-employed foreigners, can benefit from low-interest loans granted by the KfW (development loan corporation)

The *Plan Rosetta* encourages the employment of young people of foreign origin as part of the convention on the first job. Denmark took a more gender-specific approach to the issue of integration, by introducing several measures to increase employment and education rates among immigrant women. In August 2003, an action plan against forced marriages was launched. In 2004, a two-year fund was established to support attempts to reinforce employment efforts for immigrant women (coaching, training courses, special courses carried out by ethnic advisers, educational and employment initiatives). In 2004, the Danish Centre for Information on Women and Gender created a Mentor Network (a professional women-to-women network). Finally, in 2005, an action plan to stop domestic violence by men against women and children, and an action plan was launched against gender-specific barriers to integration for men and women with immigration background.

In Poland, integration has become one of the government's main concerns. In January 2005, the Council of Ministers adopted a document, entitled *Proposals of Actions Aimed at Establishing a Comprehensive Immigrant Integration Policy*, and in March, the Inter-Ministerial Task Force for Social Integration of Foreigners was created. Social and professional integration was named as one of seven priorities of the Polish social policy strategy over the period 2007-2013. A document was prepared and adopted by the Council of Ministers in September 2005. Four main objectives of social policy were spelled out: the promotion of social and professional integration of immigrants, introduction of an anti-discrimination policy, training of public administration and social partners, and designing a comprehensive scheme of protection of and assistance to refugees. Four EQUAL EU projects are being implemented, aiming at supporting the social and professional integration of asylum seekers.

Other initiatives concerning immigrants' integration into the labour market aimed more specifically to facilitate the recognition of foreign workers' skills and credentials. In Sweden, two new labour market programmes, Trial Opportunity and Skill Assessment on the Job, were introduced in February 2005, and will continue in 2006. Trial Opportunity is an additional form of job practice introduced for individuals who lack work experience in Sweden. Trial Opportunities are offered for three months, with supervision. If the job practice does not lead to employment, the individual will receive a document from the work-place that can be included in the *curriculum vitae* when making job applications. In September 2005, approximately 450 individuals were enrolled in Trial Opportunity. The Skill Assessment on-the-Job programme is designed to make quick assessments of foreign credentials, individual skills and work experience. Immigrants with skills acquired abroad are offered a three-week apprenticeship within their profession, to demonstrate their skills on the job. At the end of the three weeks, the individual will receive a document or certificate from the work-place that can be used as skill verification for job applications.

In Australia, in the 2005-2006 budget, AUD 1 million, was allocated over four years, to establish a national skills recognition Website to help new arrivals and potential skilled migrants to have their overseas skills and qualifications recognised. In Canada, the Internationally Trained Workers Initiative, led by Citizenship and Immigration Canada (CIC), Human Resources and Skills Development Canada, and others bodies, aim to reduce the barriers to the employment of newcomers caused by the non-recognition of foreign credentials by employers. In Denmark, the Centre for Assessment of Foreign Qualifications provides assessments, which are brief statements comparing foreign qualifications with the Danish educational and training system, and pointing out any similar Danish qualifications. In addition, five Regional Knowledge Centres for the Clarification of the Competences of Refugees and Immigrants have been established, in order to carry out competence assessments by testing, and then recommending, good practices.

Fighting against discrimination and measures to promote equal opportunities

In Belgium, the three most remarkable new measures consist in the reinforcement of the Anti-discrimination Law in 2003 and its implementation, the establishment of a system of "civic integration" in the Flemish community and the introduction of the right to vote in the municipal elections for non-EU foreigners living legally in Belgium for a minimum period of five years (with three limitations: they have no rights to present themselves as candidates for election, they must register themselves on an electors list and they must sign a declaration stating that they accept the Belgian Constitution and law). The Commission for Intercultural Dialogue entered into force in February 2004, and released its first report in May 2005, suggesting the adoption of a "Citizenship Charter", and in the Walloon region the Walloon Consultative Council for the Integration of Foreign Persons was created at the end of 2003.

In Finland, the Anti-Discrimination legislation came into force on the 1 February 2004. It prohibits direct and indirect discrimination based on age, ethnic or national origin, nationality, language, religion, opinion, state of health, disability and sexual orientation. It is applied to discrimination taking place in employment, working conditions, terms of employment, career advancement, education and training, preconditions for entrepreneurship, membership in employee and employer organisations. All authorities are now obliged to draft an Equality Plan concerning their action in the field. Moreover, the new Act strengthened the mandate of the Ombudsman for Minorities,¹⁰ in addressing

ethnic minorities, and created a new Anti-discrimination Board to assist it. The Act broadened the Ombudsman's duties allowing meetings to be arranged aiming at reconciliation between the parties. The Ombudsman can take the matter to the Anti-discrimination Board, which can impose its decisions by the means of a fine. In addition, the Ministry of Labour has implemented different programmes to promote diversity and non-discrimination, such as a national awareness-raising campaign, specific training programmes and information brochures. As far as discrimination in working life is concerned, a Penal Code amendment adds nationality as grounds for work discrimination and a new penalty provision was enacted in order to cover work discrimination resembling profiteering.

In Norway, the main principles for a policy of diversity were approved by the *Storting* in 2004, promoting diversity through inclusion and participation, and mainstreaming. The Plan of Action to Combat Racism and Discrimination for 2002-2006 is currently being implemented. As part of this Plan, a new Anti-discrimination Act has recently been adopted and a proposal has been submitted concerning the establishment of two new authorities: the Equality and Anti-Discrimination Ombud and the Equality and Anti-Discrimination Tribunal. Moreover, initiatives to improve interpretation services are implemented and public enterprises have been instructed to interview at least one applicant of immigration background when making new appointments (provided that the applicant is qualified). In Sweden, the government has assigned the Swedish Integration Board to enter into a contract with the International Labour Organisation (ILO) to perform situation testings in the labour market in Sweden, and has appointed two commissions of inquiry to investigate problems of institutional discrimination on grounds of ethnic and religious affiliation.

In Portugal, an extensive anti-racist and pro-intercultural society campaign was launched in the middle of 2005, via media. In Italy, following the creation of the National Office for Promoting Equal Treatment and Removal of Racial and Ethnic Discrimination in 2003, anti-discrimination measures were strengthened in 2004. The national hotline for reporting discrimination went public on 10 December 2004. The hotline gathers cases of reported discrimination and provides advice to callers. The Office can also investigate cases of discrimination.

Special attention has been paid to measures aiming at increasing diversity in the public administration, considering that the public sector should be a model for all other employers.

In Belgium, following three studies carried out in 2004, an Action Plan for the diversity in the public administration was launched for the period 2005-2007. In Denmark, the government has established the goal that 4% of all state-sector employees be immigrants or their descendants. In Sweden, the government is intensifying its training and information efforts aimed at people working in the recruitment field. A commission of inquiry has been appointed to investigate the feasibility of a system of anonymous job applications in the public sector.

Valorising citizenship and the acquisition of nationality

Even if the acquisition of nationality is still considered an important means of integration, especially in traditional settlement countries, a trend to introduce some restrictions can be observed. In Australia, changes to the legislation on citizenship were

announced in September 2005, including the extension of the residence qualifying period from two to three years, and a security check of applications, which can be refused on security grounds. Also, the New Zealand Citizenship Amendment Act, approved in 2005, prolonged the standard period of residence required in order to be eligible for citizenship (from six months in each of the preceding three years, to a minimum of 1 350 days during the preceding five years, including a minimum period of 240 days in each of the five years). Time spent in New Zealand on temporary permits is no longer counted. Moreover, applicants who are married to a New Zealand citizen now have to meet the same requirements as other applicants, and from 1 January 2006, children born in New Zealand will no longer automatically become citizens. Citizenship will be granted only to children who have at least one parent who is a citizen or resident.

In France, the law of November 2003 introduced new restrictive conditions to obtaining French nationality for the foreign spouses of French citizens. The minimum length of marriage necessary to be granted French nationality by declaration was extended from one to two years. Moreover, this condition is required, but not sufficient. At the moment of the declaration of nationality, spouses must prove that they are living together, and that they have a good knowledge of the French language. Finally, the fact of having children no longer allows an exception to be made on condition of the minimum duration of the marriage. Nonetheless, the number of foreigners obtaining French nationality has significantly increased in the last two years (see Table I.21). This is mainly due to the implementation since January 2003 of the Action Plan for the simplification and acceleration of the process to obtain French nationality. As a consequence, the average time taken to examine an application has been reduced to one month.

The new Norwegian Nationality Act of September 2005 requires language skills in Norwegian or Sami as a pre-condition to obtain nationality. Also introduced are new rules for children born in Norway, who are automatically given the nationality of both parents and at the age of 12 years, and can apply for Norwegian nationality, irrespective of the consent of the parents. Children who cannot renounce their own nationality before a certain age can nevertheless apply and obtain Norwegian nationality.

Some new provisions concern the so-called third generation. In the Netherlands, dual citizenship is no longer possible for people of the third generation, since it is considered that they should choose their nationality. In Portugal, a law to amend the Portuguese Nationality Law presented in July 2005 reintroduces some elements of *jus soli* in order to “guarantee the full access to citizenship and to favour the social integration of people who have been born in Portugal and who keep strong links with the national community”. New provisions aim at attributing automatically Portuguese nationality to the third generation. Individuals born in Portugal, children of foreigners, can obtain Portuguese nationality when at least one of the parents is born in Portugal. In addition, according to the new Law, nationality is granted automatically to individuals born in Portugal, children of foreigners, if at the moment of their birth, one of the parents has continuously resided legally in Portugal for at least six years and, on demand, to foreign minors born in Portugal, once one of the parents fulfils a minimum of six years of continuous legal residence in Portugal. Finally, children can be naturalised when they are 18 years old, and can prove 10 years of continuous residence in Portugal.

A trend is also emerging to give naturalisation a more symbolic and ceremonial status. A Dutch law proposal goes in this direction. The new Norwegian Nationality Act introduces

Table I.21. **Acquisition of nationality in selected OECD countries, numbers and percentages**

	Numbers		Change in % 2003-2004	Annual average	
	2004	2003		1993-1997	1998-2002
Australia	87 049	79 164	10.0	113 786	83 602
Austria	41 645	45 112	-7.7	15 700	27 292
Belgium	34 754	33 709	3.1	24 912	45 958
Canada	192 590	155 117	24.2	181 268	163 349
Czech Republic	5 020	3 410	47.2	..	6 824
Denmark	14 976	6 583	127.5	5 760	14 138
Finland	8 246	3 712	122.1	916	3 499
France	168 826	144 640	16.7	..	138 297
Germany	127 153	140 731	-9.6	80 417	153 759
Hungary	5 432	5 261	3.3	10 531	6 400
Italy	11 934	13 406	-11.0	7 547	10 796
Japan	16 336	17 633	-7.4	13 052	15 268
Luxembourg	841	785	7.1	749	616
Mexico	5 554	4 245	30.8	742	2 496
Netherlands	..	28 799	..	61 298	52 643
New Zealand	22 142	18 296	21.0	15 757	25 451
Norway	8 154	7 867	3.6	10 074	9 326
Portugal	1 346	1 747	-23.0	1 310	927
Slovak Republic	4 016	3 492	15.0
Spain	..	26 556	..	8 343	16 025
Sweden	26 769	33 006	-18.9	32 831	40 388
Switzerland	35 685	35 424	0.7	16 405	26 889
United Kingdom	140 795	125 535	12.2	42 084	80 211
United States	537 151	463 204	16.0	575 958	674 741
EU-25, Norway and Switzerland	690 947	659 775	4.7	193 698	657 222
North America	285 193	238 526	19.6	398 403	249 447

Note: Statistics cover all means of acquiring the nationality of a country, except where otherwise indicated. These include standard naturalisation procedures subject to criteria such as age, residency, etc., as well as situations where nationality is acquired through a declaration or by option (following marriage, adoption, or other situations related to residency or descent), recovery of former nationality and other special means of acquiring the nationality of a country.

Sources: Refer to Table A.1.6 of the Statistical Annex.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/253716260340>

a voluntary ceremony which includes an oath and an official gift, and in Australia, in 2004-2005, many significant citizenship ceremonies and events such as the Australia Citizen Day and affirmation ceremonies, took place, aiming at promoting the acquisition of Australian citizenship.

Other initiatives for unaccompanied minors and humanitarian migrants

More rights were granted to unaccompanied foreign minors entering Belgium. Since 1 May 2004, all unaccompanied minors were assigned a tutor, responsible for their assistance, representation and defence. Two centres were opened to welcome newly arrived unaccompanied minors. In Portugal, the programme *Escolhas* aims at providing social policies for youth at risk and to deal with youth crime. This programme, conceived in 2001, was extended in 2004 to the whole country, and it has entered its second phase – the children of immigrants are now a primary target group.

Some integration programmes are addressed exclusively at refugees, or people with humanitarian protection status.

In Australia, the Integrated Humanitarian Settlement Strategy (IHSS) provides intensive support on arrival to humanitarian entrants. It is expected that improvements will be made to the previous system, especially concerning settlement in regional Australia. In addition, in 2004, the Family Relationship Services for Humanitarian Entrants was launched. It provides early intervention services to assist youth and families at risk of not settling successfully, due to the stress their refugee experiences have placed on the family. Finally, in September 2003, a pilot scheme of the Australian Cultural Orientation (AUSCO) Programme for humanitarian entrants commenced in Nairobi and at the Kakuma refugee camp in Kenya. The programme was then expanded to locations in Egypt, Pakistan, Sudan and Uganda. In 2004-2005, it was extended to Ghana, Guinea, Iran, Jordan, Lebanon, Sierra Leone, Syria, Tanzania, Thailand and Turkey. In 2004-2005, over 320 courses were run, assisting 5 960 people, compared to 67 courses in 2003-2004, with 1 850 people. The AUSCO course runs for five hours per day over three consecutive days, and provides an introduction to aspects of Australian life and the initial settlement process.

In Italy, since 2002, the law recognises the System of Protection for Asylum Seekers and Refugees (SPRAR) run by the National Association of Municipalities (ANCI). Municipalities apply for funding (that comes from the European Refugee Fund and from the Ministry of the Interior), to provide a reception and complete integration package, with language courses, social and legal assistance, and school and job placement. Asylum seekers are not required to enrol in SPRAR, although they must renounce other assistance if they refuse a vacant place in the system. In Denmark, since July 2005, foreigners who are granted asylum but who still live at an accommodation centre are offered 20-25 hours per week (instead of 10) of Danish language, culture and society classes, in order to accelerate their integration.

New rules were adopted in several countries in order to improve the reception of asylum seekers, especially concerning housing facilities and access to the labour market.

In the Netherlands, since 1 January 2005, the New Reception Model is in force. Asylum seekers who are awaiting a decision after their first application, or who were granted a residence permit, but are waiting for housing, are lodged in centres for orientation and integration. Those whose applications have been rejected are accommodated in return centres. In Norway, since November 2005, asylum seekers whose applications were rejected, and whose fixed exit date is overdue, are no longer denied accommodation, but will be transferred from reception centres to special centres which provide basic shelter and food.

According to the amended Polish Aliens Act, approved in April 2005, it has become easier to obtain a settlement permit for refugees who have been living in Poland for at least five years (the requirement was changed from eight years and the period of refugee status procedure is counted), and for foreigners granted "tolerated status" who have been in Poland for at least 10 years (the period of refugee status procedure is taken into account). Moreover, the period of assistance to the asylum seeker was prolonged to three months in the case of a positive decision, and to one month in the case of a negative decision. Asylum seekers for whom a decision has not been taken after one year, are granted access to the labour market.

In Austria, according to the new Asylum Law, each applicant for asylum is entitled to financial support from the state. In addition, since 2004, after a waiting period of three months, asylum seekers can obtain a temporary work permit if they have a job offer.

In Luxembourg, a new law proposal introduces the possibility for asylum seekers to apply for work permits if their application has not been processed after nine months. In Hungary, also, there is a project to extend the possibility of obtaining a work permit for persons applying for refugee status. On the contrary, the reform of asylum in France did not open the way for asylum seekers waiting for a decision to be able to take a job. In the Czech Republic, the state integration programme for accredited refugees provides housing and free language courses. In January 2004, Romania adopted an Ordinance aiming at facilitating the integration of foreigners who acquired humanitarian protection status in Romania. Their access to the following rights is thus ensured: a job, a dwelling, medical care and social assistance, education, counselling and language training. Within the context of its future accession to the EU, Bulgaria adopted a National Refugee Integration Program in May 2005. It is aimed at reinforcing the existing measures and at providing specific integration support to newly recognised refugees.

4. Migration, development and international co-operation

The renewed interest in migration for employment (see *Migration for Employment: Bilateral Agreements at a Crossroads*, OECD, 2004), the international mobility of skilled workers and the highly qualified (see the special Chapter in *Trends in International Migration*, OECD, 2005), the increase in the number of foreign students, are elements in the globalisation of migration. Remittances, return migration and a better use of human capital in order to promote the economic development of sending countries have been the subject of debate over the last two years in several international fora.

In February 2005, the OECD organised an international Conference in Marrakech on Migration, Remittances and the Economic Development of Sending Countries, the proceedings of which were published by the OECD in December 2005, under the title *Migration, Remittances and Development*. In this year's *International Migration Outlook*, a special chapter (Part III) is devoted to the issue of migration remittances and their role in development. In addition the main outcomes of the Marrakech Conference are highlighted below.

Other developments in international co-operation are briefly described. They mainly concern co-operation in the field of labour migration and greater international co-ordination for better border control and the fight against irregular migration. Box I.8 presents some recent developments in the external relations of the EU in the field of international migration. Finally the last section is devoted to the impact of the recent EU enlargement on migration for employment in OECD countries.

Reducing the costs of remittances and increasing their role in the economic development of sending countries

In several emigration countries, remittances in 2004, estimated by the IMF at USD 126 billion, largely exceeded the volume of official development aid (ODA), and in certain cases even of foreign direct investments (FDI) or income from the export of goods and services. Remittances constitute a considerable source of hard currency for countries of emigration, sometimes covering several months of imports. The issue of remittances and the strong growth registered during the last decade have attracted increasing interest in several international organisations (IMF, World Bank, OECD), at a time when the volume of official development aid is tending to diminish slightly. According to certain analysts, remittances, which can be considered as structured financial flows, could contribute to a reduction in poverty, constitute an important supply of foreign hard currency for economic

Box I.8. **External relations of the European Union in the field of international migration**

The European Union is continuing its efforts to convince certain third countries to co-operate in the fight against irregular immigration. The wish of the EU to have new readmission agreements has so far known only a relative success, since no new agreements have been concluded, except those involving Macao; Hong Kong, China and Sri Lanka, as well as more recently, Albania and Russia. However, this does not take into account the arrangements on readmission that were included in the agreement signed with the National Office of Tourism in China on the delivery of visas at the request of the Chinese agencies which are authorised to organise group travel in the European Union area. In addition, the European Union was obliged, in the case of Russia, to accept the reciprocity in the conclusion of a readmission agreement with that of an agreement facilitating the delivery of visas. This creates a precedent which is likely to occur again, in particular in the case of the Ukraine.

The European Union is also paying growing attention to the possibility of linking immigration policies with development, in order to maximise the positive aspects, and to alleviate the negative effects of migration for the third countries concerned. In September 2005, the European Commission made specific proposals on migration and development, with Africa and the Mediterranean area as priorities. The Council adopted measures aiming to promote surer and less costly means of placement to transfer migrants' remittances to their countries of origin and to reinforce their impact on development, to facilitate the role played by the members of the diaspora as vectors of development in their country of origin, to explore the options of temporary and circular migration, and to alleviate the consequences of the loss of competences in vital sectors. The Commission and the Secretariat of the Council are charged with following up the progress achieved and with reporting to the Council every eighteen months. The first report is expected in December 2006.

development, or accompany the growing flows of foreign direct investment, which are sources of development and employment creation.

The Marrakech Conference allowed, in the first instance, to underline the fact that relative to macroeconomic indicators, remittances are significantly higher in low and lower middle-income countries than in the other developing countries. Remittances are also unequally distributed across regions, with Asia receiving the lion's share, followed by the American continent and, far behind, Africa. A review of recent studies on remittances and development has shown that they have indisputably contributed to improve the living conditions of migrants and their families, although it seems less evident that these transfers have had a positive impact on the economic development of the countries of origin. In fact, the diversity in the personal characteristics and economic situations of immigrants, and the ways in which they make use of their savings, makes it very difficult to attract and massively orient these funds towards the economic development of their home countries.

The reduction in the costs of transfers of funds was analysed in depth, based on experiences from OECD member countries (Greece, Italy, Mexico, Portugal and Turkey, but also in the Philippines and Morocco). The crucial role of the banking system was emphasised, as were best practices to reduce the costs of the transfer of remittances. In the case of Portugal, private banks have attracted the greatest part of remittances and they are

transferred at relatively low costs. In Turkey, the system is more complex. It is first based on the networks of Turkish banks abroad, and the savings banks in receiving countries, mainly in Germany. The Turkish Central Bank pays a large proportion of the transfer costs of remittances to Turkey. During the conference, examples from Portugal (*Caixa Geral de Depositos*) and from Morocco (*Banque centrale populaire du Maroc*), demonstrated also that the migrant is not only considered by these banks as a foreign hard currency provider, but is a client who can benefit from all the bank's services. Consequently, not only is the transfer cost reduced, but it is also easier to channel part of the remittances to productive investment. On the contrary, in the case of a failure in the banking system or a lack of confidence in banks, intermediaries, such as Western Union, occupy a predominant position, even if the costs of transfers are very high. In fact, migrants prefer to resort to reliable services which permit the quick delivery of the funds to the recipients.

Taking advantage of new technologies could also help reduce the cost and reinforce the security of transfers. The development of new technologies is increasing the competition among suppliers of banking and financial services in both receiving and sending countries. The rich and varied experiences of the Equitable PC Bank in the Philippines allow valuable lessons to be drawn in this respect. This bank provides a wide range of services related to remittances, life and health insurance, and education of children, to future immigrants who present themselves to the administration charged with sending Filipinos abroad. The growing interest in migrant remittances and in the use of new technologies was also illustrated by the presentations of the MasterCard Group and the Inter-American Bank for Development. The latter institution is interested in migrants' banking, especially those originating from Latin America and Mexico.

The Marrakech Conference revealed that the diversity in the personal characteristics and the economic situation of immigrants, and the ways in which they make use of their savings, makes it very difficult to attract and orient these funds towards the economic development of their home countries. Remittances are private transfers and the savings involved belong to the migrants and their families, who decide on their allocation. Many attempts to channel these funds towards development have been unsuccessful, because they have failed to recognise the primacy of individual choice. However, good practices do exist, the objective of which is to help migrants to make better choices, to gain their confidence, and to rely on the networks built up both abroad and in the home countries, to put remittances to good use for individuals, their families, and social and economic development as a whole.

In fact, the best way to maximise the impact of remittances on economic growth in developing countries is to implement sound macroeconomic policies and policies of good governance, as well as development strategies involving all actors in the economy. Good governance, a sound banking system, respect for property rights, and an outward-oriented trade and FDI strategy, are prerequisites for enhancing the efficiency of remittances in an economic development perspective. The state has a primordial role to play in establishing these key building blocks for economic development, supported by the international community. Remittances are neither a substitute for ODA nor for FDI flows.

The Marrakech Conference demonstrated that the artificial distinction between "productive and non-productive" uses of remittances must be reconsidered. Remittances are used to reduce household poverty and satisfy basic needs, but also to increase investment in health and education, i.e. to improve investment in human capital in the

countries of origin. There is an important gender dimension to such human capital investments.

Finally, in order that remittances may play a greater role in the economic development of countries of origin, it was highly recommended that information be widely distributed on remittance channels and opportunities for investment, and that one-stop shops be created, in order to provide information at all stages of the migration process. Policies should support and accompany migrants who wish to engage in entrepreneurial activities. If special incentive schemes are put in place, they should be designed for everybody, and be open to migrants and non-migrants alike.

Over and above remittances, migrants make other, invisible, transfers to their countries of origin: economic behaviour, knowledge and know-how, and social and cultural exchanges. Numerous examples, notably from Mexico and Morocco, show that migrants not only contribute to the financing of the infrastructure at local level (electrification, water provision and irrigation, road building, medical centres and schools), but that this is accompanied by profound transformations in the way of life and of traditional local management. A participative process, involving all the actors (migrants, villages, local authorities), constitutes the best guarantee of sustainability of the infrastructures and ongoing productive projects. More attention should be paid to civil society and private initiatives in both the receiving countries and sending countries, as well as to the decentralised co-operation processes, and to the role of local authorities, the scientific Diaspora and the second generation.

Increasing the international co-operation in bilateral labour agreements and the fight against irregular migration

An increase in international co-operation concerning labour migration, especially through bilateral agreements on foreign workers, has been observed in many countries over the last few years.

In December 2004, Hungary had signed bilateral labour agreements with Austria, the Czech Republic, France, Germany, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Romania, the Slovak Republic and Switzerland. The agreements facilitate the access of the nationals of the contracting parties to the labour market, and also concern the improvement of the professional skills and language proficiency of the applicants. Those who apply for a job in the framework of these agreements (mainly skilled workers) must be granted work permits, without labour market testing in the receiving country. One of the new aspects in the policy of promoting legal labour emigration is the conclusion of bilateral agreements on a regional level between the public employment offices of Bulgaria and regional authorities in the receiving country. An agreement was initiated in 2003 between the National Employment Service of Bulgaria and the Italian Regional Employment Service of Lombardy.

In New Zealand, the Samoan Quota and the Pacific Access Category (PAC) schemes (which concern citizens from Fiji, Kiribati, Tonga and Tuvalu), provide a residence option for citizens of the Pacific nations with which New Zealand has had long-standing relationships. Applicants are required to secure a job offer prior to applying for residence, and must meet English language and health criteria. In August 2004, changes were made to the Samoan Quota and PAC, to improve take-up of places in these categories, primarily by facilitating matching of prospective applicants with opportunities in the New Zealand labour market. The minimum income requirement was also adjusted, and people already

legally in New Zealand became eligible to apply. A Pacific Division was established within the Department of Labour in January 2005, to meet the needs of immigrants from the Pacific Area, by building links with their communities, and providing labour market advice and services. The Closer Economic Partnership Agreement between New Zealand and Thailand entered into force on 1 July 2005, providing measures on temporary entry of Thai entrepreneurs to New Zealand, and *vice versa*.

Negotiations on the Trans-Pacific Strategic Economic Partnership between Brunei Darussalam, Chile, New Zealand and Singapore were concluded in July 2005. The agreement aims at facilitating the temporary entry of business persons, while ensuring border security and protecting the domestic labour force. New Working Holidays Agreements were signed with Norway and Thailand. The Korean Government has already signed agreements for the work permit programme with Indonesia, Mongolia, the Philippines, Sri Lanka, Thailand and Vietnam. The government is considering signing social welfare agreements with the sending countries.

International co-operation is being reinforced in the field of security and the fight against irregular migration.

National security in US immigration policy has permeated all regional initiatives in North America. The Security and Prosperity Partnership of North America (SPP) is a new trilateral alliance adopted by Canada, Mexico and the United States. The SPP covers two major areas – development and security. Its sphere of action is relatively wide and diverse. As regards movements of people, it includes: shared technology to enrolled passengers through North America, access to databases, special clearances for pre-cleared border residents, co-ordinated visa policies, exchange of intelligence information on persons of “special interest”, and fast-track lanes, among other issues.

In December 2004, the Safe Third Country Agreement between Canada and United States concerning asylum seekers was implemented, as part of the Smart Border Declaration signed in December 2001. In May 2004, the State Department announced that the United States would participate in a new programme intended to contribute substantially to worldwide travel document security. All participating countries must submit information on lost and stolen passports to the Interpol Lost and Stolen Document Database, which is available to border authorities worldwide.

In the context of an enlarged Europe, security is a very important issue. The Salzburg Forum (Austria, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Poland, the Slovak Republic and Slovenia,) provides an example of regional co-operation concerning initiatives in the area of border control and irregular immigration in the perspective of harmonisation with European policies in these areas. A new bilateral agreement for the protection of borders was signed in February 2005 by Bulgaria and Romania.

The regulation of October 2004 is the most important step taken by the EU, leading to the creation of the European Agency for the Management of Operational Co-operation at EU External Borders. This Agency will be the main body for advice and co-ordination in their multi-task efforts to better controls the external borders to the east and to the south of the EU.

As part of the second series of bilateral agreements between Switzerland and the EU, the Association Agreements to Schengen and Dublin were signed on 26 October 2004, and were approved by means of a referendum on 5 June 2005. They are now being ratified and should come into force at the beginning of 2008.

The impact of the recent EU enlargement on labour migration inflows is currently significant only in several OECD countries

Following the last wave of enlargement of the European Union (EU) on 1 May 2004, the majority of the EU15 countries introduced a transitional period before approval of free movement from the eight larger accession countries (A8): the Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, the Slovak Republic and Slovenia (given their size, Cyprus and Malta are not subject to these restrictions). The transitional period is divided into three specific phases of respectively, two years, three years and two years. The transitional period can thus not exceed seven years.

For the first phase, ending on 30 April 2006, three countries – the United Kingdom, Ireland and Sweden – decided to open up their labour markets to nationals of the A8 countries. On the other hand, three new member countries (Hungary, Poland and Slovenia) decided to apply reciprocal arrangements for the EU15, enforcing restrictions to the access of their labour market. Two other countries (Italy and the Netherlands) put in place special quotas for nationals of the new member states. Denmark and Norway in the context of the EEA allow nationals of A8 countries to access their labour market if they have a full-time job offer at regular condition of work and pay.

At least three countries (Spain, Finland and Portugal) are considering not to apply the transition period after 1 May 2006. France is envisaging to end labour market testing for nationals of A8 countries in specific sectors where there are labour shortages. In Switzerland, the agreement with the EU on the free movement of persons was extended to the 10 new EU member states. This was approved by referendum in September 2005 and came into force at the beginning of 2006. Nevertheless, restrictions concerning access to the labour market in Switzerland (national preference, wage and work conditions controls and quotas) will be implemented until 2011.

The implications of EU enlargement in terms of migration flows from new member states vary from country to country, but are only significant in some of the countries which did not apply the transition period. The most important inflows relative to the resident population were noted in Ireland. According to Ireland's National Training and Employment Authority (FÁS),¹¹ over the first twelve months to April 2005, 83 000 Personal Public Service Numbers (PPSN) were issued to EU10 nationals, which is equivalent to almost 4% of Ireland's labour force. Some of these people were however already in Ireland prior to May 2004. Another 66 000 PPSNs were issued in the six months from May to October 2005 (see Table I.22), an increase of 46% on the same period for the previous year. For comparison, in 2003, about 8 000 new work permits were issued to nationals of the new member states.

The United Kingdom also received numerous immigrants after EU enlargement, and has put in place the Workers Registration Scheme (WRS), to monitor inflows and claims to social welfare systems from nationals of A8 countries.¹² Registration is compulsory for those taking up a job in the United Kingdom and who have not been employed for at least 12 months without a break. In total, there were 345 000 applications to the WRS between 1 May 2004 and 31 December 2005. Of these, about 80 000 concern re-registration or multiple registration, and at least 31 000 persons who entered the United Kingdom before May 2004. Based on 2005 figures, the average number of monthly applications is slightly over 17 000, a rise as compared to the previous year. The peak period for migration is between June and August. The vast majority of immigrants are young and single (82% of

Table I.22. **Inflows of citizens from 8 new EU member states¹ in some OECD countries, 2004-2005**

	Inflows	Type of permits	Period
Austria	3 282	First time work permit (duration : more than 6 months)	2004
	3 423		2005
	8 033	Permanent work permits, mainly for people who had been legally employed for at least 12 months	2004
	8 901		2005
Denmark	2 097	EEA permits	May 2004-December 2004
	4 594		May 2004-December 2005
Finland	2 169	EEA permits	May 2004-December 2004
	4 485		May 2004-December 2005
Germany	10 597	First time EU Work Permit (new immigrants) Permanent work permits, mainly for people who had been legally employed for at least 12 months	2004
	1 965		2004
Iceland	515 (+666 renewals)	EEA permits	May 2004-December 2004
	3 279 (+1 510 renewals)		May 2004-December 2005
Ireland	83 000	New Personal Public Service Number (PPSN)	May 2004-April 2005
	149 000		May 2004-October 2005
Italy	26 313	New work permits	May 2004-December 2004
	83 590		May 2004-December 2005
Netherlands	20 190	New work permits	2004
Norway	16 975 (+3 558 renewals)	EEA permits	May 2004-December 2004
	36 276 (+21 460 renewals)		May 2004-December 2005
Sweden	3 963	EEA permits	May 2004-December 2004
	8 768		May 2004-December 2005
United Kingdom	134 550	Applications registered under the <i>Worker Registration Scheme</i>	May 2004-December 2004
	345 410		May 2004-December 2005
United States	20 905	Permanent immigrants	2004

1. Excluding Malta and Cyprus.

Sources: United States (US Department of Homeland Security), United Kingdom (*Accession Monitoring Report May 2004-December 2005*), Ireland (Fas, the Irish Labour market 2005), Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden (Status report 2006 semi-annual memo from the Working Group under the Labour Market Committee of the Nordic Council of Ministers), Italy and the Netherlands (National SOPEMI reports), Austria (Work Permit Statistics provided by the Austrian Labour Market Service) and Germany (Work Permit Statistics 2004, Federal Employment Agency).

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/440011815822>

workers were aged between 18 and 34 years, and 95% had no dependants living with them in the United Kingdom; the male/female ratio was 57:43). Most people are working in administrative, business and manufacturing services (30%), hospitality and catering (22%) and agriculture (12%). Occupations are low fairly skilled, process operative workers (36%), kitchen and catering assistance (10%) and packers (9%).

In terms of nationality, the figures are quite similar in Ireland and in the United Kingdom. In the latter case, the highest proportion of applicants were Polish (59% of the total), followed by Lithuanian (13%) and Slovak (11%). These proportions have remained roughly constant throughout the period. In the case of Ireland, the country composition is as follows: Poland (54%), Lithuania (19%), Latvia (9%), and the Slovak Republic (8%). Between May 2004 and December 2005, total emigration to the United Kingdom and Ireland represents approximately 0.7% of the total population of Poland¹, but 2% of the total population of Lithuania.

The situation is quite different in Sweden, which also decided not to apply the transition period. About 6 300 workers from A8 countries emigrated to Sweden between May 2004 and August 2005 although this does not include work periods for less than three months. The corresponding figure is much higher for Norway (13 700), which applies the

transition period, but accepts labour immigrants from new member states with relatively few restrictions (full-time employment and normal conditions of work and pay). Norway has received almost 50% of all labour immigrants from A8 countries to the Nordic countries. In 2005 alone, 19 300 work permits were granted to nationals of A8 countries in Norway.

Italy and the Netherlands applied the transition period, but put in place special quotas for nationals of the new EU member states. This mechanism allowed the Italian government to apply a transition period, reassuring the public against a feared inflow of central European workers, while effectively opening access to the labour market. Italy established a quota of 36 000 work permits in 2004, 79 500 in 2005 and 170 000 for 2006. In 2004, approximately 26 000 permits have been granted (76% seasonal), including 14 300 for Polish workers, whereas in 2005, 57 000 permits were delivered including 33 500 to Polish workers. As far as the Netherlands is concerned, a quota of 22 000 was set for 2004 which has been almost fully used, mainly by Polish workers (approximately 20 000).

With regards to other EU member states which applied the transition period, two changes should be mentioned. The first concerns the fact that, even within the transitional period arrangement, nationals from new member states have now preferential access to the labour market of the EU15 as compared to third country nationals. In Germany, for example, a new type of permit has been created to respond to this new situation. More than 11 000 of these permits were issued to nationals of A8 countries in 2004 (more than 90% were newcomers to Germany). The second concerns people who have been legally employed for at least 12 months prior to enlargement in the EU15 and, under certain circumstances, their family members are entitled to claim unrestricted access to the labour market (in total 2 000 persons in 2005). It should be clear however that these people are not new immigrants. In Austria about 9 000 of these special permits have been delivered in this context against 8 000 in 2004. In Austria, there is also a new key worker permit for A8 nationals arrived after May 2004: 648 permits were issued in 2005 compared to 474 in 2004.

In other non-EU OECD countries, no particular increase in inflows of nationals from A8 countries was recorded, except as indicated previously for Norway and, to a lesser extent, the United States. No significant change was observed either in new member states, except in the case of the Czech Republic, where the total stock of work permits for new member states increased by almost 7.5% to 69 000 in 2004.

According to an interim report produced by the European Commission on the *Functioning of the Transitional Arrangements Set Out in the 2003 Accession Treaty*,¹³ the impact on the EU15 labour market has not been negative. New member state nationals represented less than 1% of the working-age population in all countries, except for Austria (1.2% in 2005) and Ireland (3.8% in 2005). Furthermore, the employment rate has increased in several countries since enlargement, and unemployment rates dropped significantly in almost all of the A8 countries, reducing “push factors”. Furthermore, according to the EC report, “EU10 nationals alleviate skills bottlenecks in the EU15 member states and contribute to long-term growth through human capital accumulation”.

Notes

1. Unauthorised immigration is not covered in these numbers, because statistics do not exist for most countries. In some countries, this accounts for a substantial fraction of total entries.
2. In Spain, unlike other countries, it is not necessary to hold a resident permit in order to register in a municipality. For this reason, Spain is the one country whose inflow statistics include substantial numbers of unauthorised immigrants.
3. Persons receiving a long-term permit under a regularisation scheme are not included in the flow data shown here, to avoid distorting estimates of change in the level of inflows.
4. This is all the more the case in countries which have a point system and accord additional points to a potential immigrant on the basis of the educational qualifications of the spouse.
5. Asylum seekers must make their request in the first “safe” country of origin through which they transit and only in that country. In principle, this means that persons making requests in “interior” countries of the European Union must have arrived by air or sea from outside the Union. In practice, however, since the request is not necessarily made at the time of entry into the country, it may be difficult to ascertain if the asylum seeker has transited through another EU country.
6. Expatriation rates of 25% or higher are found in few countries and are associated with small population size and countries with limited numbers of tertiary graduates (OECD, 2004c). Rates for countries like China and India overall are less than 4%, although they are probably much higher for the very highly educated.
7. Many censuses incorporate post-censal enumeration checks, to determine the amount of under- or over- enumeration of the target population.
8. In some countries such as Austria, France and Luxembourg, persons with low educational attainment are also over-represented among immigrants. In other words, the distribution of education relative to the native-born population is U-shaped.
9. Bearing in mind that there are numerous European Union institutions in their countries, 9% of persons born abroad work in the public service and extraterritorial organisations in Belgium, while in Luxembourg the figure is 12.2%.
10. The Ombudsman for Minority is an independent authority in charge of monitoring ethnic discrimination. Its traditional duties consist of guidance, advice and recommendation.
11. FÁS (2005), *The Irish Labour Market Review 2005*. A FÁS Review of Irish Labour Market Trends and Policies.
12. www.ind.homeoffice.gov.uk/ind/en/home/about_us/reports/accession_monitoring.html.
13. http://europa.eu.int/comm/employment_social/news/2006/feb/report_en.pdf.

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PART II

Managing Migration – Are Quotas and Numerical Limits the Solution?

Introduction

The prospect of ageing populations in OECD countries and the appearance of skill shortages in certain occupations have brought the issue of a pro-active migration policy onto the government agenda in many countries. If indeed there will be a need for more foreign workers in the future, how are the migration movements to meet this need to be organised and managed?

Since the scale of migration and the size of the immigrant population are politically sensitive issues in quite a number of countries and since many such countries have seen little labour migration over the past thirty years, the debate in this area is sometimes phrased in terms of establishing “quotas” or “limits” to the number of workers that will be required to fill labour needs (see Box II.1). This is often presented against the backdrop of migration policy in traditional “settlement” countries such as Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States, where there exist annual targets or ranges of immigrants to be admitted, which seem to be the object of a broad political consensus.¹ However, these are not the only countries in which migration limits or target levels exist, nor are such limits necessarily restricted to the kind of permanent migration that exists in the settlement countries.

This document is intended as a preliminary broad-brush overview of the management of migration through numerical limits. Before one can consider the question of how migration numbers are managed in theory and practice through quotas or limits, it may be useful to examine first how economic immigrants are selected in OECD countries and the nature and scale of legal migration,² particularly of those forms of migration over which governments can exercise little discretionary control, because they are based on international conventions or widely recognised basic rights. Following this is a description of methods of capping or targeting migration levels, both overall and by migration category, and examples of how these are implemented in a number of countries. The limits or targets themselves are, however, one set of tools among others for managing migration, whose appropriateness and efficacy need to be considered in the context of overall policy goals and objectives. This is the subject of the final section, which will consider as well whether any general principles can be distilled from the experience of selected OECD countries in this area.

1. Selecting immigrants

Employer selection process

Under a pro-active migration policy, how are the immigrants to be admitted to be chosen? There are two ways in which this is commonly done. The first is to delegate the responsibility for doing this to employers, who themselves identify the persons whom they require according to their skill or occupational needs and who request the work and residence permits. This is the standard procedure in most European countries.

Box II.1. Quotas, maxima, limits, caps and targets

A “quota” is defined as the share of a total that is assigned to a particular group. It has acquired a negative connotation in the migration context, because of the supposition that quotas imply the selection of specific numbers of immigrants according to nationality or country of origin or skill level. However, no OECD country assigns shares of a migration total to specific nationality groups in order to ensure an “appropriate” mix of migrants. In at least one case, migration quotas are assigned by an OECD country (Italy) to specific countries of origin, but the latter correspond to countries which have signed bilateral readmission agreements concerning the return of migrants in an irregular situation. The “quotas” are thus used as an incentive for sending countries to participate in the management of migration flows.

In some other countries, there are special dispositions in migration regulations for the facilitated entry of persons with historical or ancestral roots in the host country (ethnic Finns from Russia, ethnic Germans from the former Soviet Republics, ethnic Greeks from the borders of the Black Sea, etc.), but there are no specific quotas associated with such movements, nor does the entry of such persons occur to the exclusion of, or at the expense of, movements of persons of other origins. In various economic or political unions, such as the Trans-Tasman Australia-New Zealand Union, the Nordic Union or the European Union, free-movement is accorded to the citizens of signatory countries, whereas the movements of nationals of countries that are not parties to the agreement continue to be regulated.

There do exist in certain countries shares of migration (sub-)totals which are reserved to particular groups, but these are not nationality-based, at least as far as the receiving countries are concerned. They involve, for example, the quotas of refugees from UNHCR camps which certain OECD countries agree to resettle in their countries every year, but these do not generally constitute a share of a national fixed level of migration, except in a few countries.

In some cases, certain groups may be assigned a cap or a target level. The United States assigns 140 000 of its (varying) annual grants of green cards to highly skilled migrants and their families every year. Australia sets an annual limit of humanitarian migration (currently 13 000) that is separate from its annual target level for permanent migrants. The nursing profession, for example, where labour market shortages are already present in many countries and will likely expand with ageing populations, may also be assigned target levels. More frequently, however, the number of persons of a particular occupation admitted is a function of labour market needs or of the number of persons of that occupation which apply for admission (see for example, in the case of the United Kingdom, the labour shortage occupation list).

In summary migration quotas per se tend to be the exception in OECD countries, even in countries which set national target levels, and they are almost never based on country of origin. In this document, therefore, the term “quota” will generally be foregone in favour of terms that more precisely describe the nature of a numerical migration level, such as the “target level”, the “numerical limit”, the “maximum” or the “cap”. Although the title of this document refers explicitly to “quotas”, it is a term which generally will be avoided, for the reason that it is often inappropriate in this context.

Employers can identify workers themselves either through prior knowledge of potential candidates, through recommendations of current employees, by advertising positions in media accessible to potential candidates in other countries or by resorting to recruitment firms. It seems to be generally the case that employers have few difficulties

supplying names of potential foreign candidates for employment even if such candidates are not currently or have never been present in the host country. The available networks and means of communication seem to be more than adequate to match jobs and candidates even across national borders. Indeed, in situations in which there is a maximum to the number of permits available to employers for recruited workers and labour demand is strong, it is common to see the maximum met very early in the calendar year (Italy and Spain, and more recently Switzerland with numerical limits on EU workers).

Note that the fact that the employer identifies the potential migrant obviously does not preclude the receiving country from specifying *a priori* minimal skills, qualifications or salary requirements or, for that matter, the precise occupations or sectors for which admissions will be approved or accelerated. In many OECD countries, employer requests for work permits for potential cross-border recruits are subject to an employment test, that is to say, a determination that no resident qualified candidates exist to fill the available position. In many countries where unemployment rates are high, either nationally or among groups or regions, this test is rarely passed and few work permits are approved.

There are some obvious advantages to delegating the selection process to employers. In the first place, it tends to ensure a close link between immigrant worker entries and labour market needs, provided it can be ensured that the entries are restricted to sectors and occupations where there are genuine shortages, a condition not always easy to determine. In addition, the immigrant worker is immediately employed upon arrival and thus imposes no immediate financial burden on the receiving state. In cases such as these, immigration helps to satisfy current, well-identified needs and in so doing, aids in moderating wage demands in the shortage areas. On the other hand, it may slow the salary adjustment process that would help generate a domestically developed supply of workers in the shortage occupations.

Although the employer may satisfy the immediate labour needs of his/her enterprise, the longer term consequences of admitting the particular worker(s) in question do not usually enter into play. Moreover, when employers (or private recruitment agencies) are left in charge of the selection procedure, problems of moral hazard may arise. This is because the implicit contract between the government and firms responsible for selecting candidates does not always cover the indirect costs incurred by the receiving country (*e.g.* return to sending country, social costs of job loss) whenever the wrong candidate is chosen, needs are overestimated or an economic downturn occurs. (see DEELSA/ELSA/(2002)9). Considerations such as the future employability of the worker in the event of job loss may not figure among the criteria considered important by the employer in the hiring decision. As noted above, however, the possibility of constraining the hiring decision, by excluding certain categories of workers or occupations, can reduce the risk to the host country.

Host country selection process

Alternatively, the selection of candidates for immigration can be made by the receiving country itself, as is traditionally done for certain forms of permanent migration in the so-called settlement countries of Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States.³ In these cases, potential migrants are screened on the basis of certain characteristics deemed to contribute to, and facilitate, integration in the host country, such as age, knowledge of the host country language, minimum levels of educational attainment, work experience, availability of funds, presence of family in the host country, having an occupation deemed to be in shortage and having a prior job offer from an employer in the host country.

Potential candidates may be awarded “points” based on their characteristics, with a certain minimum number of points required in order for an application to be approved and a permanent residence permit granted. The permit includes the right to work and is granted to the immigrant upon entry. Often the immigrant is allowed to come with his/her entire immediate family, essentially because the aim of this kind of migration is deemed to be permanent settlement.

In many such cases, the immigrant is admitted into the country and enters the labour market just as any other new entrant to the domestic labour market. In practice, however, the situation may be different from what is described here, because the immigrant granted a permanent residence permit may already be present in the host country. He/she may be present as temporary worker, student or visitor. For example, in 2003 (2002 for the United States), of the employment-related permanent residence permits granted, 77% went in the United States to persons already present in the country, 33% in Australia, over 55% in New Zealand but less than 2% in Canada.⁴ In other words, it would appear that in many cases, employers or educational institutions may already be selecting (or constrained to select) persons who are or will eventually be admissible under the skilled permanent migration programmes of these countries. Alternatively, the persons selected, through the presence in the host country, acquire characteristics that may be rewarded in the point system (better knowledge of the language, host-country labour market experience, host-country qualifications, etc.).

From the perspective of job and worker matching, employer selection of workers as described above corresponds to cross-border job matching (the supply is in one country, the demand in another), whereas when selection is carried out by the host country government, the matching process generally takes place in the usual fashion, within the territorial borders of the host-country, in particular when the immigrant arrives without a prior job offer. The former may involve increased (recruitment) costs for the employer relative to normal procedures, while the latter involves costs for the host country doing the selection and for the migrant him/herself, who must in most cases defray the cost of moving to, and the initial cost of establishment in the host country.

2. Control over migration numbers

In many OECD countries, especially in Europe, there has been little labour migration since the oil crisis put a stop to the extensive labour migration programmes that had been put in place during the 1950s and 1960s, in response to strong labour market needs.⁵ This has been the case in France, Germany, Belgium, the Netherlands and the Nordic countries, for example.⁶ Of course, migration to these countries has not stopped in the interim. Part of this is attributable to the free movement regimes prevailing within the Nordic Union and the European Union, allowing for the relatively free establishment and work of citizens of each country in the territory of the others. But this is clearly not the full picture.

In all countries, even those with highly restrictive migration regimes, a certain number of foreign citizens enter and establish themselves legally within the territories of OECD member states every year. The movements of such persons are based on recognised rights of movement that are acknowledged in all OECD countries. Among these are a) the right to marry or to adopt persons who are residents and nationals of other countries; b) the right of residents to be reunited with their immediate family (spouses and minor children); c) the right to request asylum from persecution in a host country and to have the request

examined on the territory of the host country. Certain conditions may be imposed by the host country that can restrict the number of persons eligible to enter under these rights, such as the need for appropriate lodgings and an adequate source of revenue in the case of family reunification, or the safe-country-of-origin and safe-country-of-transit rules in the case of asylum seekers, but they cannot be unduly restrictive without violating the spirit if not the letter of international conventions or rights. Numbers may be reduced in practice, however, as the result of administrative measures, such as a change in resources dedicated to the processing of applications.

Still, whether or not there are migration restrictions, because of the recognition of certain rights there is always a certain amount of migration over which policy has limited direct control. The amount of such migration will depend on a number of factors, among them the size of the total and immigrant population (which will affect the number of foreign spouses or adopted foreign children), the number of resident married migrants who are present in the host country without their spouses or children, the restrictions concerning the entry of some family migrants, the prevalence of repressive political regimes or of ethnic conflict or strife and potential migrants' knowledge and view of the host country itself and of their prospects in settling there.

Any numerical limit to total permanent migration that may seem desirable to fix for whatever reason (see below) will necessarily have to be larger than this “inertial” migration, so as to be consistent with the actual numbers of immigrants entering the host country and to allow a certain room for manoeuvre within the numerical limit. How large then is the group of what might be called “non-discretionary” migrants, that is, those which countries more or less have to accept as a consequence of recognized international agreements or rights?

3. How much migration is subject to control and how much is relatively “free”?

Tables II.1 and II.2 present some results for a selected number of OECD countries on this question.⁷ The statistics for settlement countries (Australia, Canada, New Zealand, United States) are restricted to persons obtaining the right of permanent residence. The temporary migration programmes of the settlement countries are therefore excluded. Among persons falling into these categories are international students and trainees, persons (including researchers and professors) on exchange programmes, intra-corporate transfers and various temporary worker programmes, covering among others seasonal workers and certain highly skilled workers on temporary assignment.

Entries for European countries, which are almost always on the basis of permits of limited duration, often tend to combine movements of a permanent character, that is, those involving permits that are more or less indefinitely renewable (France, Sweden, Switzerland and the United Kingdom), provided certain conditions are met, and those that concern a presence that is in principle temporary and that are not indefinitely renewable. In practice, however, persons with permits that imply a temporary presence can in some circumstances change status and obtain a longer-term renewable permit, just as the possibility to change to permanent residence status may exist in settlement countries for persons who have entered under the temporary migration programme. Still, for purposes of comparison, it is useful to maintain the distinction between an entry that in principle potentially implies a permanent presence and one that, initially at least, is temporary by definition. Thus, from the entry permit statistics of non-settlement countries, we will

Table II.1. **Inflows of permanent immigrants by entry category, selected OECD countries, 2003**

	Australia	Canada	France	Italy	New Zealand	Sweden	Switzerland	United Kingdom	United States
All immigration categories	147 985	221 352	173 097	108 937	47 936	41 348	82 300	243 709	705 827
As a per cent of the total population	0.74	0.70	0.29	0.19	1.20	0.46	1.13	0.41	0.24
Non-discretionary									
Immediate family									
Spouses	32 350	43 426	77 606		6 494			31 365	184 741
Children	2 660	3 621	16 700	68 638	1 320	20 572	19 178	4 165	78 024
Humanitarian									
Recognised asylum seekers, persons with protection status and dependents	1 862	15 226	12 461	726	606	9 586	6 614	20 975	10 431
Other									
Free movement and other non-discretionary	20 861	–	37 226	11 500	4 979	9 234	51 641	63 840	–
Total non-discretionary	57 733	62 273	143 993	80 864	13 399	39 392	77 433	120 345	273 196
Discretionary									
Work or settlement									
Principal applicant	35 320	54 225	6 906	16 646	9 366	319	2 965	44 480	36 775
Accompanying family	35 920	66 838	449	3 724	14 049	–	–	37 830	45 362
Family									
Parents and other relatives	7 210	22 081	10 271	n.a.	5 515	–	102	5 749	228 786
Humanitarian									
Resettled refugees and dependents	11 802	10 758	–	–	865	1 637	–	270	34 496
Other									
Other discretionary	–	5 177	11 478	7 703	4 742	–	1 799	35 035	87 212
Total discretionary	90 252	159 079	29 104	28 073	34 537	1 956	4 866	123 364	432 631

n.a.: Not available.

Notes: Data cover only immigrants obtaining the right of permanent residence or a status that can eventually lead to permanent residence.

In particular, students, trainees, seasonal workers, etc., are excluded, as is irregular migration. See text and Annex II.A1 for details of migration categories.

The classification of national migration categories as “discretionary” or “non-discretionary” was carried out by the OECD Secretariat. “Immediate family” for Italy may include some parents of resident migrants who therefore do not appear under the rubric of discretionary family migration. Data for Switzerland are for 2004. For the United States, the discretionary family category includes spouses and children of alien residents who do not have the automatic right of entry given to spouses and children of US citizens.

Source: Statistics are based on permit or visa data, except for the United Kingdom, where they are based on immigration control data and the International Passenger Survey. See Annex II.A1. The population data used to estimate immigration rates are taken from the OECD’s *Annual Labour Force Statistics*. Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/647801882483>

attempt to exclude, to the extent possible and if they are indeed counted in the immigrant entries, the same categories of entries that figure in the temporary migration programmes of the settlement countries. On the other hand, it is not always clear that it will be possible to capture in the statistics of European countries situations involving a change from a temporary status, such as that of international student, to that of a status involving a permit that can lead to permanent status, such as that of a skilled worker.

A further complication involves the question of non-citizens entering a country under free-movement economic and/or political unions, such as the European Union, the Nordic Passport Union and the Australia-New Zealand Trans-Tasman Union. Movements of this kind are generally subject to very few restrictions although, as has been seen with EU enlargement, the fear or prospect of substantially increased movements under such migration regimes can lead to the imposition of constraints that can effectively delay

Table II.2. **Inflows of permanent immigrants, selected OECD countries, 2003**

Per cent of total immigrant flow

	Number	Non-discretionary			Discretionary			
		Total (%)	Of which:		Total (%)	Of which:		
			Spouses, children, fiancés, recognised asylum seekers, protection	Persons migrating under a free-movement regime		Work or settlement	Work or settlement with accompanying family	Family migration (non-immediate family)
Australia	147 985	39	25	13	61	24	48	5
Canada	221 352	28	28	–	72	24	55	10
France	173 097	83	61	21	17	4	4	6
Italy	108 937	74	64	11	26	15	19	n.a.
New Zealand	47 936	28	18	10	72	20	49	12
Sweden	41 348	95	73	22	5	1	1	–
Switzerland	82 300	94	31	63	6	4	4	–
United Kingdom	243 709	49	23	25	51	18	34	2
United States	705 827	39	39	–	61	5	12	32

n.a.: Not available.

Source: See Table II.1.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/748054673522>

(through a transition period), limit (by means of a numerical maximum) or act as disincentives (by limiting access to social security benefits) to movements. Despite the possibility of imposing such (temporary) constraints to new members, it nevertheless seems appropriate to include such movements under the rubric of those which are not subject to control for long-standing members, because the international treaties concerned have defined new rights of entry for non-citizens, over which signatory countries cannot in principle exercise discretion once they come fully into force.⁸

The aim of Tables II.1 and II.2 is essentially to illustrate both the scale and the relative importance of what might be called “non-discretionary” migration movements in a number of OECD countries, that is, those which occur on an on-going basis because of recognised rights accorded to residents of a country (marriage, adoption and family reunification). Any decision to open up national borders to migration will thus involve numbers over and above those persons currently entering under these modalities. This is a prelude to considering the question of how the numbers of migrants to admit under a discretionary regime are to be determined.⁹

In Table II.1, under the rubric of non-discretionary movements figure entries of spouses, children, fiancés, adopted children, asylum seekers recognised as refugees or as persons in need of special protection and their spouses and dependents. Entries of other family members such as adult children or siblings, parents, grandparents and other relatives are considered discretionary movements for the purposes of this table, because although there may in some cases be humanitarian arguments to be made in favour of their admission, which receiving countries may or may not wish to take on board, there is no recognised international right of reunification for such family members. In certain countries, movements of these categories of family members are simply not allowed, in others they may be subject to a numerical limit or are subject to similar selection criteria imposed for labour migration, with the presence of family members in the host country favouring but not guaranteeing entry.

Likewise, resettled refugees (that is, persons admitted from UNHCR refugee camps) are considered a discretionary category because the numerical limits assigned to/accepted by countries are voluntary and can vary from year to year depending on policy choices. Finally all worker or skilled migration is categorised as discretionary, because it is almost always subject to conditions, such as employment tests or skill or education minima, and even when these are waived, they can be re-instated overnight.

Finally, in situations when workers or skilled migrants are admitted into receiving countries, the right of entry is sometimes and even often (for skilled migrants) granted concurrently to the immediate family. The accompanying family may be admitted under the same conditions as the selected worker or principal applicant, that is, with immediate access to the labour market and to a certain range of social benefits. If the entry of the migrant is discretionary, then so also will be considered that of the family for the purposes of this document, if the family is allowed to enter at the same time as the worker. Although it is true that the receiving country generally does not exercise any discretion with respect to the accompanying family, this form of migration will nonetheless be categorised as discretionary because any increase or reduction in the migration of workers or principal applicants (discretionary migrants) clearly has immediate repercussions on the numbers of immediate family admitted.

On the other hand, if the immediate family does not or is not allowed to accompany the selected worker or skilled migrant, the admission of the latter presupposes the willingness to admit the family at some point down the line, if this is considered a right and provided the standard conditions are met. In short, the admission of the family becomes more or less non-discretionary, once the migrant or worker has been admitted into the country. This may seem inconsistent with what is done for accompanying family members, because one could argue here as well that the admission of the worker determines that of the family. However, the statistics do not allow a distinction between the reunification of existing spouses and children with the initial migrant and the entry of (recent) foreign spouses and fiancés of residents. A significant fraction of family migration actually consists of the latter. In addition, there is not necessarily a guarantee at the time of entry of the initial migrant that he/she will remain in the country and that the existing family (if any) will eventually be brought in. Finally, the emphasis here is on classifying family migrants as discretionary/non-discretionary at the time of their entry, not retroactively on the basis of the entry of the initial (worker) migrant. For these reasons, it seems appropriate to consider subsequent family reunification of spouses and children as non-discretionary, even if that of the original migrant was not.

Table II.2 shows, not entirely surprisingly, that in the traditional settlement countries of Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States, the extent of discretionary migration exceeds 60%; in the United Kingdom it is slightly more than fifty per cent. In all other countries shown, most migration is non-discretionary in the sense that the persons concerned are admitted because they are considered, subject to certain conditions, to have the right to enter and eventually or concurrently, to settle and to work. In France, Sweden, the United Kingdom, Italy and Switzerland, “non-discretionary” migrants include sizeable numbers of citizens of countries of the European Economic Area (between 20 and 25% of all immigrants in the first three countries, about 10% in Italy and fully 63% in Switzerland). In France, Italy and Sweden, over 60% of the total number of legal immigrants consists of spouses (of either nationals or foreigners), children, fiancés, recognized asylum seekers and persons in need of protection. This is in part a consequence of the fact that direct

labour migration is relatively uncommon in these countries.¹⁰ In the United Kingdom, on the other hand, migration of spouses, children and recognised asylum seekers accounts for 23% of total migration, similar to what one observes in settlement countries.

In all countries depicted, less than a fourth of entering immigrants do so for work or settlement reasons. Perhaps surprising is the figure for the United States, where labour migration amounts to only 5% of all permanent immigrants. Contrary to generally accepted notions, however, permanent immigration policy in the United States is heavily oriented towards family migration and allows for entries of more extended family members than is the case in other countries.

Note that even in countries which exercise a strong selection of migrants as a function of personal characteristics, such as Australia, Canada and New Zealand, only about one fifth to one quarter of immigrants are directly selected. Implicitly, however, the selection process extends to a much higher proportion of entering immigrants, for a number of reasons. Since persons tend to marry persons of similar educational background, any selection of immigrants on the basis of educational qualifications tends to extend to their spouses as well.

4. Managing migration through numerical limits

What numbers to admit?

How are the numbers of immigrant workers to admit to be determined? There is a prior question, however, and that is “What is the main objective of a selective labour migration policy?” It may be to compensate for actual or expected labour shortages, arising either out of distortions in the domestic labour market, lags in the reaction of the labour market to price signals or expected structural changes in the size of the labour force. Establishing a numerical limit is but one tool among others that can be used to ensure control. An employment test is another and can act to limit numbers well short of the actual numerical limit. However, if immigration regulations also permit the entry and work of family members, then employment-test systems will also include entries that are not in immediate response to labour market needs, as is already the case for non-discretionary migration.

In cases where the numerical limit is mainly set to respond to labour market shortages, determining what actual labour needs are is far from obvious. “Needs” here are rarely absolute, that is, labour markets can adjust to ensure that wages and conditions are such that suitable applicants are forthcoming domestically without recourse to immigration. However, this can rarely be done in a suitable time frame, particularly when the shortages involve the consequences of past demographic evolutions, slowly changing fertility behaviour, or requirements for specific skills that may require years to develop. Immediate short-term shortages, on the other hand, can be addressed through temporary labour migration programmes, which exist in most countries.

Labour market occupational requirements may be difficult to project over the medium term (see OECD 2002), a number of countries do identify occupational shortages on a current basis and use these as criteria favouring or facilitating entry, by means of an occupational shortages list. Potential immigrants in occupations on the list may receive extra points (Australia) in the immigrant selection process or have the processing of their residence and work permits accelerated (United Kingdom). However, employer projections of their own labour needs may not necessarily reflect their actual requirements, even in the

short term, as the experience of the dotcom bubble amply illustrated. Canada, by contrast, attaches less weight to specific occupational criteria, especially compared to the past, reasoning that general human capital considerations are more important and these workers may need to adapt to significant changes in labour market conditions over their working lives. This approach has some obvious limitations, at least in the short term, in addressing structural labour shortages in certain specialised professions or trades, such as medicine or plumbing.¹¹

The planning or target levels in place in Australia and Canada are in fact not meant purely to respond to labour market needs but have a settlement intention, that is, the immigrants selected are expected to settle permanently in the host countries and to become part of the resident population; there is no requirement that they have a pre-arranged job prior to arrival.

How the target levels are arrived at is not always entirely clear, however. No doubt historical migration levels and population and participation rate increases provide some guidance. There is, however, a concern relative to the ability of the economy and society to more or less smoothly integrate immigrants, without overly taxing domestic social infrastructure, creating adjustment problems and giving rise to xenophobic sentiments in the population. A heavy influx of immigrants will generally require increases in the housing stock and in social services, especially with respect to educational and health facilities, if family members accompany the workers that are admitted. The setting of levels involves a complex set of social and economic policy objectives that must be balanced in arriving at the targets; there is no formula or calculation that yields a precise number or range.

Regardless of how the exact numbers are determined, the management of immigration numbers through target levels or numerical limits is intended, among other things, to transmit the notion that the process is neutral and non-discriminatory for the candidates satisfying the selection criteria and that the governmental authorities are in control of the situation. The ability to set and meet publicly announced target levels that have been the object of some consultation is undoubtedly part of this strategy. However, it is a credible process only if the numbers, along with other means of short-term entry, reflect minimum labour requirements and if there are some reasonable accompanying actions that limit the possibility of illegal immigration and work as well as the temptation of “queue-jumping” for those whose chances may be limited under the existing system (see Box II.2). Establishing such annual target levels in an environment in which immigration is a highly charged political issue may not be quite the same process as in countries where there is a broad political consensus on immigration.

No doubt hybrid strategies are possible, in which target levels or relaxed employment tests are set in sectors or occupations where there is a consensus about labour needs and where immigration is relatively uncontroversial, but more stringent control measures where there is more uncertainty or concern about possible abuses. In any system in which numerical limits or ranges are specified and mandated, the question of how applications are to be processed to ensure that limits are not exceeded and of how to handle “excess” applications are issues of importance.

Box II.2. Immigration limits in a context of strong labour demand – the case of Italy and Spain (Einaudi 2003)

Both Italy and Spain have undergone a transformation from countries of emigration to countries of immigration in recent decades. Inflows initially were small but increased over time, expanding substantially towards the end of the nineties. As in most new immigration countries, initial entries generally occurred extra-legally, among other reasons because of limited national experience with the management of migration. In both cases, the initial extra-legal pattern tended to be exacerbated and perpetuated by the fact that the size of the underground economy was relatively large, providing more numerous employment opportunities for persons illegally present in the country, often in the domestic sector, and the fact that programmed migration levels have tended to be significantly lower than required by the labour market.

At periodic intervals, attempts have been made in both countries to regain control over the situation by means of regularisation programmes, the introduction of visas for nationals of countries with a significant immigrant presence, stronger sanctions against illegal migrants and against employers resorting to undocumented workers, and more extensive border and coastal control measures. At the same time, the reality of migration and of labour market needs were recognised through the introduction of national numerical migration limits and the allocation of quotas to regions and sectors, following consultations with employers and regional officials.

In practice, however, the national limits and associated quotas have been less than the numbers requested by employers and have proven to be significantly under actual labour market needs, if the extent of regularisations of persons with employment contracts is any indication. For example, about 700 000 requests for regularisation were presented in Italy in 2002, which corresponds to an average of about 175 000 entries per year since the previous regularisation in 1998. Total non-seasonal permit numbers provided for over the same period amounted to 249 000, or an average of about 62 500 per year. Likewise in Spain, programmed non-seasonal worker migration for the period 2002-2004 amounted to less than 100 000, but regularisation requests in 2005 totalled 700 000. In practice, some of the work permits provided for in the migration programmes have been granted to persons already in the country and have thus served as a regularisation tool rather than as part of normal procedures for recruiting from abroad.

The regular lack of concordance between the programmed migration levels and labour market needs meant that in practice, the levels had become almost irrelevant. Employers may well have become accustomed to a situation in which they could hire outside of legal channels with relative impunity, with a reasonable probability that the hiring would be formally recognised a few years hence through a regularisation. However, new migration regulations have been introduced in both Italy and Spain, including an increase in programmed migration to 179 000 (including seasonal workers) in Italy. Whether the new regulations will be effective remains to be seen. Redirecting irregular migration into legal channels would require programmed migration levels that are in line with labour market needs, an efficient processing of permit requests and perhaps as well, employer incentives to resort to legal hiring, at least in the early stages, until a revitalised permit system has proven itself adequate for employer needs.

5. Numerical limits and their management

Numerical limits to discretionary migration exist in a number of OECD countries. The way in which these are determined and managed differs from country to country. Numerical levels can be established for either total immigration, for some or all individual categories of immigrants, or both. When levels are set for total immigration, they clearly need to be larger than the expected level of non-discretionary immigrants. The number of

discretionary migrants is then determined residually as the difference between the numerical level for the total and the number of non-discretionary migrants admitted.

The numerical levels are treated in two different ways depending on the country: as limits not to be exceeded or as target levels to be attained. The latter is especially the case in settlement countries with a planned migration programme providing for target levels for entries of different categories of immigrants, such as skilled workers, self-employed, immediate family, parents, etc. The objective is to come as close to the target level as possible. There is generally a certain amount of leeway in the numerical levels because of difficulties in practice in managing precisely the flow of applications to ensure that the levels are met or that they are not exceeded.

In some countries, levels are set even for non-discretionary migration because the expected numbers are relatively predictable from past entries (spouses and children) or because of prior knowledge of applications on file and of processing times and recognition rates (recognised refugees). The number of applications for places in discretionary migration categories, on the other hand, can in principle be open-ended or at least significantly exceed the number of places specified in the migration programmes of countries.

Since there is a lag between the submission of an application and its processing, there needs to be a continuing supply of applications in the pipeline to ensure that there are sufficient numbers to meet target levels, especially if applications are subject to a point assessment. Adjusting the threshold points value for acceptance to ensure that there are sufficient numbers of candidates on hand but not a substantial oversupply seems to be a challenge, especially since the attempt to apply a higher threshold retrospectively to limit numbers has in at least one case not gone unchallenged. Achieving a specified target level or falling within a specified range in the case of discretionary migration categories seems to be handled generally by a judicious management of application processing procedures. One country (New Zealand) has introduced a two-step process in which interested migrants must identify themselves and satisfy a certain number of requirements prior to being formally invited to apply for residence. This procedure provides an automatic control over numbers.

In other cases where there may not be enough places to satisfy demand and where a cut-off of applications seems problematical (*e.g.* immigration of parents or of other relatives), a significant backlog can (and in some cases, has) build up, leading to substantial frustration on the part of candidates for entry and their sponsors in the host country.

The details of how the numerical or target levels are determined for a number of countries (Australia, Canada, New Zealand, Switzerland and the United States) and of how the flow of applications is managed to ensure that the levels are (more or less) respected is described in Annex II.A2.

Conclusion

With the perceived need for worker immigration in many countries in the near future, in connection with labour shortages arising out of the retirement of the baby-boom generation, has arisen the issue of how the numbers required are going to be determined and their entry managed. Employment tests have traditionally been used in many countries to assess labour market needs, but a certain number of countries, among them Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the Switzerland and the United States, control

immigration levels by means of maxima not to be exceeded or target levels to be attained, at aggregate level or by individual immigrant categories.

In all countries currently, there are non-trivial numbers of immigrants entering, over which countries exercise little discretionary control. These involve spouses and children of current residents and persons fleeing persecution. Their entry is governed by international convention or generally recognised human rights. In the countries cited above (Switzerland excepted), their numbers account for between 18 and 39% of immigration, whereas in France, Italy and Sweden, it is 61, 64 and 73% respectively. Free movement of EU/EFTA citizens accounts for a further 21, 11 and 22% of movements in the latter countries, respectively, and fully 63% in Switzerland.

Any pro-active migration policy is going to involve supplementing these current entries with selective labour migration, where either employers or the national administration take on the role of identifying appropriate candidates. The numbers to be admitted can continue to be determined, in those countries where this is the current system, by means of employment tests, with the risk that this entails with regard to negative externalities. The risks can be reduced, however, by constraining the employer selection process, for example by specifying the minimum skill or wage of levels or the eligible occupations for entering immigrant workers.

Alternatively, the candidates can be chosen nationally according to specific criteria, with characteristics deemed to ensure better insertion into the labour market favoured. This can include a specific job offer or accepted candidates can enter the labour market following entry just as any other new entrant. The number of immigrants to be admitted under such a government-selection scheme needs to be determined, however. In practice, countries have adopted a number of strategies involving setting maximum numbers not to be exceeded or target levels to be attained, whether overall or by specific migration category. The process by which these levels are established is far from transparent. The determining of this figure and the procedures introduced to ensure that it is respected are not without difficulty, however, especially if the levels are set below actual requirements or if processing procedures lead to extensive application backlogs.

In addition, the process is credible only in an environment in which illegal migration and work are or can be placed under reasonable control. If the setting and meeting of target levels is intended in part to convey the impression that immigration is a planned and orderly process, this can be defeated if irregular migration movements are proliferating in parallel.

The regulation of migration over the past decades has rarely been a simple process and it is even less so in an environment of facilitated international travel, the possibility of instantaneous communication about labour market conditions and requirements in other countries, and a huge supply of workers around the world willing to displace themselves and their families to countries where living, working and economic conditions appear more favourable. Guaranteeing a certain degree of freedom of movement for citizens of other countries while ensuring that rules concerning entry and stay are respected, requirements for labour that the domestic market is not satisfying are met and that the process remains politically and socially acceptable, remains a daunting policy challenge.

Any pro-active migration policy in the near future, to respond to labour shortages, needs to first take into account the significant number of immigrants entering over which

countries exercise little discretionary control and which are a source of labour supply. If this is insufficient to satisfy labour market needs, then there are a number of tools available to manage the entry of the additional workers that will be needed. Establishing numerical limits or target levels is but one method among others, one which is not necessarily easy to manage, as the experience of a number of countries has shown, and which entails a certain number of risks if the levels are set at levels that are either too high or too low.

Notes

1. The target numbers in these countries generally bear on “green card” type migration, that is, migration in which persons admitted are accorded the right of permanent residence upon entry. In most other OECD countries, the right of permanent residence is rarely granted upon entry, except perhaps to resettled refugees, but is generally accorded after a certain number of years of residence in the host country and indeed, in some cases, comes only with naturalisation. A proactive migration policy, in a situation in which potential migrants are faced with a number of competing offers, may well involve some recruitment incentives, among which an extended residence permit might figure.
2. Irregular migration will not be considered in this document.
3. As will be seen, only a fraction of persons admitted as permanent migrants are actually selected on the basis of characteristics in these countries.
4. In principle, until recently applying for permanent residence status from within the country was discouraged in Canada. However, the possibility to apply from the territory of a near neighbour was not excluded and it may be that some temporary migrants or visitors availed themselves of this opportunity.
5. For an overview of bilateral agreements and other forms of recruitment of foreign workers, see *Migration for Employment: Bilateral Agreements at a Crossroads*, OECD, 2004.
6. Germany, however, has admitted (and continues to admit) considerable numbers of “ethnic Germans”, who are descendants of Germans who settled in parts of Eastern Europe and the Soviet Republics several centuries ago and who, once their German ancestry has been established, are granted German nationality upon entry into the country. It could be argued that this is immigrant selection based on rudimentary selection criteria. This is not labour migration strictly speaking, however, even though such migrants can enter the labour market after entry.
7. The selection of countries for Tables II.1 and II.2 was dictated by the availability of, and easy access to, permit or migration control data that could be broken down or estimated according to the categories in the Table II.1.
8. For the purposes of this document, immigration into Switzerland under the Swiss agreement with the European Union concerning the free movement of persons is considered non-discretionary migration. The reason is that the data presented for Switzerland are for 2004 and after June 2004, native workers no longer have priority over EU citizens for jobs, nor is there a control on the wages and working conditions of the latter. Although this form of longer term migration continues to be subject to numerical limits until 2008, in practice persons entering in excess of the prescribed limit are given (renewable) short-term permits until a long-term permit becomes available in a subsequent year.
9. The classification of national migration categories according to the discretionary/non-discretionary distinction is given in Annex II.A1 for the countries appearing in Tables II.1 and II.2.
10. As the 2002 regularisation in Italy indicated, inflows into that country have included substantial numbers of irregular labour migrants (on average about 175 000 per year over the 1999-2002 period).
11. Canada also has a provincial nominee program which allows Provinces to select permanent immigrants on the basis of specific economic needs.

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ANNEX II.A1

Defining Discretionary and Non-discretionary Migration

Non-discretionary migration is considered to consist of four types of migrants:

- spouses and own children;
- fiancés and adopted children;
- recognised asylum seekers or persons in need of protection;
- persons entering for a long term stay under a free movement regime.

In practice, there may be special rules or conditions concerning fiancés and spouses, to ensure that current or planned marriages are legitimate and are not being used purely as a means of entry into the country.

Discretionary migration, on the other hand, includes:

- all economic migrants, whether identified by employers or selected by the receiving state;
- accompanying family of economic migrants;
- relatives that are not members of the immediate family;
- resettled refugees;
- other categories specific to a country.

The statistics in Table II.1 are based on a classification of the various categories of (permanent) entries into each country, based on national official statistics. For settlement countries (Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States), “permanent” entries refer to admissions of persons with the right of permanent residence. In some cases, such persons may have actually entered the country with a temporary status and had their status changed to a permanent one. In non-settlement countries “permanent” entries consist of persons who may have a temporary permit at the time of entry but which is more or less indefinitely renewable and who will likely settle in the host country with their families. For this reason, certain categories such as international students or diplomatic personnel, who are not considered to be permanent residents, have been excluded from the statistics of some countries.

The following lists the categories included under discretionary and non-discretionary immigration, according to national terminology. The classification of the categories as “discretionary” or “non-discretionary” was carried out by the OECD Secretariat; it does not originate in the national sources that are cited.

Australia (Source: Rizvi 2004 and www.immi.gov.au/statistics/publications/immigration_update/Update_June04.pdf)

Discretionary

- all skilled immigrants;
- parent;
- preferential/other family;
- refugee and SHP (Special Humanitarian Program).

Non-discretionary

- spouse/interdependency;
- child;
- fiancé;
- special eligibility;
- permanent protection visa;
- onshore SHP;
- New Zealand citizens and other non programme migration.

Canada (Source: Ruddick 2004)

Discretionary

- all economic immigrants;
- parents and grandparents;
- government assisted refugees;
- privately sponsored refugees.

Non-discretionary

- spouses and partners;
- sons and daughters;
- refugees landed in Canada;
- refugee dependents;
- other immigrants.

France (Source: Lebon 2003)

Discretionary

- parents of French nationals;
- parents of French children;
- salaried and non salaried workers;
- spouses of scientists;
- visitors;
- re examination cases;
- pensioners due to a work accident > 20%.

Non-discretionary

- family reunification;
- family members of French nationals;
- foreigners born in France;
- personal and family ties;
- foreigners in France > 10/15 years;
- children of French nationals;
- minors in France since at least the age of 10;
- statutory refugees and accompanying minors;
- beneficiaries of territorial asylum;
- families of refugees and stateless persons;
- free movement of EEA nationals.

Italy (Sources: Shaloff 2004, Einaudi 2005, http://demo.istat.it/altridati/trasferimenti/index_e.html)

Discretionary

- dependent workers;
- self-employed;
- accompanying family of labour migrants;
- migration for religious motives;
- elective residence (persons with private means).

Non-discretionary

- family reunification (including parents with no means of support in origin country);
- adopted children;
- recognised asylum seekers;
- free movement of EEA nationals.

New Zealand (Source: Little 2004a and www.stats.govt.nz/tables/tables_tourism_2003.htm)

Discretionary

- general skills;
- employees of businesses;
- entrepreneur category;
- investor/business investor;
- family parent and other;
- quota refugees;
- samoan quota;
- other.

Non-discretionary

- family marriage and child;
- recognised refugees;
- humanitarian family;
- Australian citizens.

Data for permanent and long term entries of Australian citizens are proxied by arrivals of permanent and long term non New Zealand citizens from Australia.

Sweden (Source: Hagos 2004)**Discretionary**

- labour market reasons;
- refugee resettlement;
- free movement of EEA nationals.

Non-discretionary

- family ties;
- adoption;
- humanitarian reasons;
- recognised refugees or other protection;
- EU/EEA free movement.

Note: Only total family members for all refugees were available. These were allocated to each of the humanitarian categories in proportion to the number of persons in each category.

Switzerland (Source: De Coulon 2004)**Discretionary**

- foreigners with remunerated activity subject to limits (except trainees);
- foreigners without remunerated activity not subject to limits (except civil servants of foreign administrations);
- foreigners without remunerated activity;
- other relatives;
- returns to Switzerland;
- other entries into Switzerland.

Non-discretionary

- spouses and children;
- recognised refugees;
- humanitarian motives;
- EU/EEA free movement.

Note: For Switzerland, accompanying family of immigrants are not identified separately in the statistics but included under a general family reunification rubric along

with spouses, children and other relatives. Thus, spouses/children and other accompanying family of immigrants needed to be estimated. It was assumed, first of all, that EU/EFTA workers would normally be arriving with their families, that students and stagiaires are not married or with their families and that non-EU/EFTA workers would be arriving alone (as the law does not grant them the right to arrive with their families unless they have an establishment permit). Family reunification statistics were available separately for EU/EFTA countries. It was then assumed that the share of family migration accounted for by EU and EFTA workers arriving with their families was proportional to their share of total EU and EFTA non-family, non-student migration. The derived average family size was then applied to other forms of non-family non-student discretionary migration to estimate total accompanying family migration for these categories. The residual family reunification numbers were considered to be non-discretionary family migration.

The agreement between Switzerland and the EU/EFTA countries concerning the free movement of persons within their respective territories came into force in 2002. Although numerical limits will continue until 2008, for the purposes of this document, migration of EU/EFTA nationals is considered non-discretionary. The reason is that the statistics presented are for 2004 and as of June 2004, there is no longer an employment test carried out, nor are the wages and working conditions verified for workers from these countries. In addition, even if the numerical limit has been attained every year since 2002, in practice, it is not operable because persons entering in excess of the limit are given short-term permits which are renewed until a longer-term permit becomes available.

United Kingdom (Source: Salt 2004 and Dudley 2004)

Discretionary

- work permit holders (long term) and accompanying family;
- UK ancestry;
- refugees granted settlement on arrival;
- parents, grandparents and other relatives;
- grants of settlement to persons on permit free employment; businessmen, persons of independent means and their spouses and dependents;
- other grants on a discretionary basis;
- category unknown.

Non-discretionary

- spouses and fiancés;
- children seeking settlement;
- recognised refugees and dependents;
- persons with exceptional leave and dependents;
- free movement (EU);
- accepted for settlement on arrival.

Data on dependents of work permit holders do not distinguish between short and long-term permit holders; for the purposes of this document, the dependents are assumed to be exclusively those of long-term permit holders.

United States (Source: Smith, 2004 and DHS, 2004)

Discretionary

- IRCA legalization;
- family-sponsored immigrants;
- employment-based immigrants;
- refugee adjustments;
- other immigrants (including diversity).

Non-discretionary

- immediate relatives of US citizens;
- asylee adjustments.

ANNEX II.A2

National Examples of Numerical Limits or Targets and their Management

For the United States, the 1990 Immigration Act specified a worldwide level of migration for certain categories of immigrants with a limit varying from 421 000 to 675 000 depending on the previous year's admissions. Employment-based immigrants and diversity immigrants¹ currently are assigned specific upper limits of 140 000 and 55 000, respectively (including accompanying immediate family). Family-related immigrants (excluding immediate family of United States citizens) are assigned a limit that is the larger of 226 000 or 486 000 less immediate relatives of US citizens admitted in the previous year, any unused employment-related places from the previous year and a number of other smaller categories. Likewise, any unused family-related immigrant places can be transferred to employment-related immigration in the following year. There are no limits to immediate relatives of United States citizens (333 000 in 2003). Finally, although the arrivals of resettled refugees and of asylum seekers were capped at 70 000 and 10 000 respectively in 2003, grants of permanent resident status to these groups are exempt from limits. In 2003 the number of refugees and asylum seekers changing from temporary to permanent status was 45 000. Per-country limits are set for the numerically limited categories, at 7% of the total allowed for independent countries and at 2% for dependent areas. (DHS 2003)

In any such system in which numerical limits or ranges are specified and mandated, the question of how applications are to be processed to ensure that limits are not exceeded and of how to handle "excess" applications are issues of importance. In the United States' immigration system, both of these have met with some problems. There has been a significant backlog in the processing of applications over the past decade. Applications for entries of relatives who are not immediate family (a discretionary group), for example, were subject to over two and one-half years delay in processing as of mid-2004, but a concerted effort seems to have reduced this to one year by end-2004.² On the other hand, at the end of fiscal year 2003, there were over 1.2 million applications pending on the part of persons already present in the United States and awaiting a decision on a green card (DHS 2003). Reduction of delays in processing, however, may not ensure immediate entry if the statutory numerical limitations do not allow it. It may take several years before an applicant's turn in the queue comes up. If most of the 2003 end-year change-in-status applications were to be approved, for example, it would take a minimum of two to three years at current immigrant admission levels before a green card could be awarded to persons in this group.

In Australia, numbers for the Migration Program and the Humanitarian Program are managed independently. Specific planning levels are specified by the Minister for Immigration in April for the following fiscal year. For 2004-2005, for example, planning levels were 105 000 to 115 000 places under the Migration Program (plus an additional 5 000 places for the new Skilled Independent Regional Visa) and 13 000 places under the Humanitarian Program. These levels are not maxima strictly speaking, but rather targets to be attained, that is, the main objective is not to ensure that the planning levels are not exceeded (although this is an additional objective), but rather that they are met. It would be considered a policy failure if migration levels were to fall significantly below the planning levels.

In the Humanitarian Program, 6 000 of the humanitarian places are for overseas refugees and 7 000 are for the Special Humanitarian Program (SHP), which admits sponsored victims of substantial discrimination. However, recognized asylum seekers also fall under the SHP total, so that high numbers for the latter group can effectively reduce the number of places available for the standard SHP target group.

The Migration Programme is subdivided into individual categories, covering largely family immigrants (immediate family, parents and other relatives) and skilled migrants (employer-sponsored, skilled independent and skilled Australian relative-sponsored, etc.). Planning levels are specified for each individual category. Despite the aggregate level maximum range, there is no cap on entries of immediate family members (spouses, dependent children, adoptee and orphan unmarried relatives) and they are processed on a priority basis. However, the numbers for these categories are apparently highly predictable, so that the actual outcome for the year is generally close to the planning levels. Limits may be placed on the “parent” and “other family” categories if these show signs of exceeding significantly their planning levels. Planning levels for the remaining skilled migrant categories reflect at once the distribution of skilled migration by the specified categories for the past year as well as policy choices.

How are applications managed? Each regional office indicates the number of places it expects to deliver (approximately) in each migration category and manages the processing of applications to ensure that the required number of places (more or less) is attained. However, this does not exclude the possibilities of backlogs per se, so some fine-tuning is necessary. For categories where there may be caps, once a cap is reached, applicants wait in a queue for the visa to be granted in the following year(s), subject to available places. In July 2003, for example, there were about 16 400 applications in the Parent visa queue, with some applications dating back as much as three to four years.

For the skilled migration stream, on the other hand, for which the number of applications could in principle be open-ended, a different system is in place. Here immigrants are selected on the basis of certain characteristics deemed to be important for integration into the labour market. Points are awarded depending on where potential migrants stand with respect to these characteristics.³ A certain minimum number of points are necessary in order for an application to be accepted. Applicants with less than the required number but above a certain minimum are placed in a pool, where they can remain for two years. Clearly, if the threshold value for acceptance is too low, the number of applicants accepted for admission may be excessive and the planning level or range exceeded. Thus, in practice, a relatively high threshold value is used, which is adjusted downward as required to ensure the “right” number of admissions. The limited two-year

stay in the pool of non-selected applicants then avoids the build-up of an excessive backlog. All of these procedures are made clear to potential immigrants upon application.

A comparison of the Australian migration programme planning levels and the corresponding outcomes is given in Table II.A2.1 for fiscal year 2003-2004.

Table II.A2.1. Migration programme planning levels and outcomes, 2003-2004

Category or component	Planning level	Outcome
Spouse/interdependency	30 200	27 320
Fiancé	5 200	5 030
Child	2 800	2 660
Parent ¹	7 000	4 930
Other relative	1 900	2 290
Total family	47 100	42 230
Skilled Australian sponsored	11 800	14 590
Skilled independent	33 400	40 350
ENS /LA/RSMS/STNI ²	10 500	10 400
Business skills	7 400	5 670
Distinguished talents	200	230
Total skill	63 300	71 240
Special eligibility	1 100	890
	+/-5 000	
Total	106 500-116 500	114 360

1. Includes parent contingency reserve of 6 500.

2. Employer Nomination Scheme/Labour Agreement/ Regional Sponsored Migration/State-Territory Nominated Independent Scheme. For definitions of the specified categories, see www.immi.gov.au/migration/#migration.

Source: 2003 and 2004 SOPEMI reports.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/144261102365>

In Canada, there is a legal requirement for the Minister of Citizenship and Immigration to table in Parliament on or before 1 November of each year, the number of permanent residents admitted in that year and the number planned for the following year, following consultation with the provinces. Parliament is not explicitly involved in the process, but there is formal Cabinet approval for the planning levels before they are tabled. The planning levels are given in terms of ranges, both overall and for each category of migration, that is, as in the Australian case the levels constitute number of immigrants to be admitted, not limits not to be exceeded.

There is an additional constraint which was announced by the Minister some years ago and which the government has tried to adhere to, namely that 60% of the total level be allocated to economic migrants (skilled workers and dependents, business immigrants, provincial/territorial nominees, live-in caregivers) and 40% to family migrants (spouses, partners and children, parents and grandparents) and refugees (government and privately assisted, refugees landed in Canada, refugee dependents, human compassionate cases).

In practice, there is a specific target level for resettled refugees which is closely respected, in particular because immigrants in this group are provided with significant settlement services, for which planning is required. Spouses and dependent children are processed on a priority basis with no limits. Their number, however, as in Australia tends to be relatively predictable. The number of recognised refugees is subject to variability in the number of claimants and in processing times, but the number of claimants in the channels is known. The number of parents and other relatives to be admitted is then

determined residually, subject to the 40% constraint on the overall total on the combined family/humanitarian categories. In practice, this has resulted in a squeezing of the numbers in this category, because the other categories under the family rubric are non-discretionary. As a result, special measures were announced in April 2005 to reduce the inventory of applications from parents and grandparents.

For economic migrants, the system is fairly similar to Australia's, with each overseas mission delivering a certain number of admissions in each category. The independent skilled category is assessed on the basis of a points system with a threshold value for acceptance. The overall target range as well as the individual category ranges are respected by means of a management of the application processing flow. There is no fixed-time waiting pool as in the Australian case, and candidates are assessed on the basis of the points threshold in existence at the time they applied. The system can generate accumulating backlogs if there are systematically many more candidates with points exceeding the threshold than there are allotted places.⁴

The New Zealand Immigration Programme is set on an annual basis, with current levels at 45 000 ($\pm 5 000$). The total is allocated to three migration streams as follows: 60% to the skilled/business stream; 30% to the family sponsored stream; and 10% to the international/humanitarian stream. There are specific quotas assigned within the latter stream to resettled refugees (865), Samoans (1 100) and Pacific countries with which New Zealand has close cultural and historical ties (a total of 650). Aside from these three categories, there are no specific numerical targets for any other categories within the various streams.

Within the skill stream, a two-tier system of assessment has recently been introduced, which provides more control over the flow of applications (Little, 2004b). Candidates for immigration are evaluated on the basis of language ability, health, character, employability and contribution to capacity building. Persons scoring a certain minimum level are placed in a pool of people who have expressed an interest in migrating to New Zealand. Persons in this pool are then ranked by their point scores and, depending on verification of information provided and on available places, may be invited to formally apply for residence. Backlogs are effectively eliminated by this approach, because only persons invited to apply at the second stage can do so.

This is not the case for the family sponsored stream, in which the number of applications for residence has been growing steadily. At the end of the 2003/2004 financial year, there were 11 660 applications waiting to be processed. Since the family stream level is currently set at 13 500, it is clear that any further increases in family applications may result in numbers exceeding the annual allocation and the subsequent build-up of a backlog. There does not seem to be currently a priority accorded to immediate family over parents and other relatives.

The international/humanitarian Stream currently contains a number of categories allowing for entries under specific policies, in addition to the allocated quotas described above.

In Switzerland, only certain types of labour migration are subject to numerical limits. There is no cap on total migration *per se*. There is a "dual" migration regime in Switzerland, covering, on the one hand, movements of citizens of the European Union and the European Free Trade Association and, on the other, citizens of all other countries. The former essentially have the right of free movement and employment within Switzerland, but their

number is subject to a numerical limit of 15 000 workers. This limit is managed through a monitoring of residence permits granted on request to citizens of EU and EFTA countries who present a contract of employment. Once the limit of 15 000 is reached, in principle no further permits are issued. Family members are not counted in the limit and are allowed to accompany the migrant and to work.

Non-EU and non-EFTA workers, on the other hand, can receive an annual work permit if their putative employer can show that no qualified current resident of Switzerland can occupy the vacant position on offer. In addition, their number is subject to a numerical limit of 4 000, for half of which each canton has an allocation, the balance being allocated at the federal level, irrespective of canton. No further permits are issued once the limit has been reached. Family members are not allowed entry in the first instance. This system was the one prevalent in Switzerland for all foreigners until the signature of the free movement agreement with the EU and EFTA, which came into effect in 2002. Prior to the signature of the free movement regime with the EU and EFTA, the numerical limits for many years were significantly higher than the number of workers actually admitted. The employment test thus seems to have acted as a strong preliminary brake, with the set maximum playing no effective role and certainly not constituting, as in the Australian and Canadian cases, a target level to be attained.

Notes

1. This is a category of immigrants reserved for nationals of countries who have had less than 50 000 permanent immigrants to the United States in the last five years. Persons are drawn at random from a file of qualified entries and are invited to apply for permanent residence.
2. (see <http://uscis.gov/graphics/aboutus/repstudies/BEPQ4v7.pdf>.)
3. Some characteristics have threshold values, that is, an application will not be accepted if the individual, for example, is more than forty-five years old and does not have a good command of the English language.
4. See, for example, www.cic.gc.ca/english/press/05/0531-e.html.

PART III

International Migrant Remittances and their Role in Development¹

Introduction

Migrant remittances are a steadily growing external source of capital for developing countries. While foreign direct investments and capital market flows fell sharply in the last years due to the recession in the high income countries, migrant remittances continued to grow, reaching USD 149.4 billion in 2002. The importance of remittances in compensating the human capital loss of developing countries through migration and their potential in boosting economic growth was already recognised in the beginning of the 1980s. A wide range of issues related to remittances became the subject of political debate, as well as of more in-depth research. These topics include the determinants of remittances, the transfer channels used and their economic impact on the remittance receiving countries. Over the past years, partly because of the sharp increase in remittance flows, the research on these issues gained momentum, resulting in a mushrooming of scientific literature.

This introduction presents a critical overview of the state-of-art literature on remittances and is organised as follows: in the following section, the data on migrant remittances, methods of estimating the amounts of remittance flows, global and regional trends in remittance flows, and their importance as a source of capital for developing countries, are discussed. The third section gives an overview of the theoretical and empirical research on the determinants of remittances and the following section outlines the transfer channels, the cost involved with international money transfers and the evolutions of money transfer markets. The last two sections examine the literature on the effects of remittances on inequality, growth and the balance of payments, and present the conclusions.

1. Migrant remittances: data and trends

Data sources and evaluation of remittance flows

According to the International Monetary Fund (IMF) interpretation, remittances are recorded in three different sections of the balance of payments:

- Compensations of employees are the gross earnings of workers residing abroad for less than 12 months, including the value of in-kind benefits (in the current account, subcategory “income”, item code 2310).
- Workers’ remittances are the value of monetary transfers sent home from workers residing abroad for more than one year (in the current account, subcategory “current transfers”, item code 2391).
- Migrants’ transfers represent the net wealth of migrants who move from one country of employment to another (in the capital account, subcategory “capital transfers”, item code 2431).

While the IMF categories are well defined, there are several problems associated with their implementation worldwide that can affect their comparability. Some central banks (e.g. Bangko Sentral ng Pilipinas) book almost all migrants’ remittances under “compensation

of employees”, even for migrants who are abroad for more than 12 months. Other central banks (e.g. the Czech National Bank and the Bulgarian National Bank) do not record workers’ remittances separately, but pull them together with other private transfers under “other current transfers other sectors” (item code 2392).² However, for the Czech National Bank, under “other current transfers other sectors” mainly household transfers are recorded (Czech National Bank, 2002). In addition, many central banks do not separately record “migrants’ transfers” in the capital account.

In order to capture the extent of migrant remittances in a better way than the data reported under the heading of “workers’ remittances” alone, scholars use different calculation methods. Some calculate them as the sum of three components: 1) compensation of employees, 2) workers’ remittances, and 3) migrants’ transfers (Ratha, 2003). Others sum up just compensation of employees and workers’ remittances (Taylor, 1999). And finally, Daianu (2001) proposes for the computation of remittance credits the sum of “compensation of employees”, “workers’ remittances”, and “other current transfers of other sectors”. Daianu’s method of estimating international migrants’ remittances flows is considered to be the most appropriate to overcome the discrepancies referred to above. All data presented in this section are calculated using this method. However, the data have serious limitations and the estimates should be interpreted with caution. In some ways, the remittance flows calculated this way overestimate the real flows. First, “compensation of employees” represents gross earnings of migrant workers that are partly spent in the host country and never remitted. Second, “compensation of employees” includes income of non-migrants, e.g. local (home country) staff of foreign embassies and consulates, and international organisations, which are treated as extraterritorial entities. Third, “other current transfers of other sectors” include transfers that are difficult to distinguish from workers’ remittances, e.g. aid, gifts, payments from unfounded pension plans from non-governmental organisations (NGO), and even transfers from illicit activities. On the other hand, the same remittance flows can be seen as underestimated because they do not include transfers through informal channels, such as hand-carries by friends or family members, or in-kind remittances of jewellery, clothes and other consumer goods, or through hawala.³ These are believed to be significant in many countries, ranging from 10 to 50% of total remittances, but often are not recorded in the official statistics (Puri and Ritzema, 1999; El-Qorchi, Maimbo and Wilson, 2002). If and when they are recorded, it is not clear to what extent they reflect actual transfers rather than imports. For example, in recent years, India has started recording as imports the gold brought by incoming international passengers, although previously this was classified as remittances (Ratha, 2003).

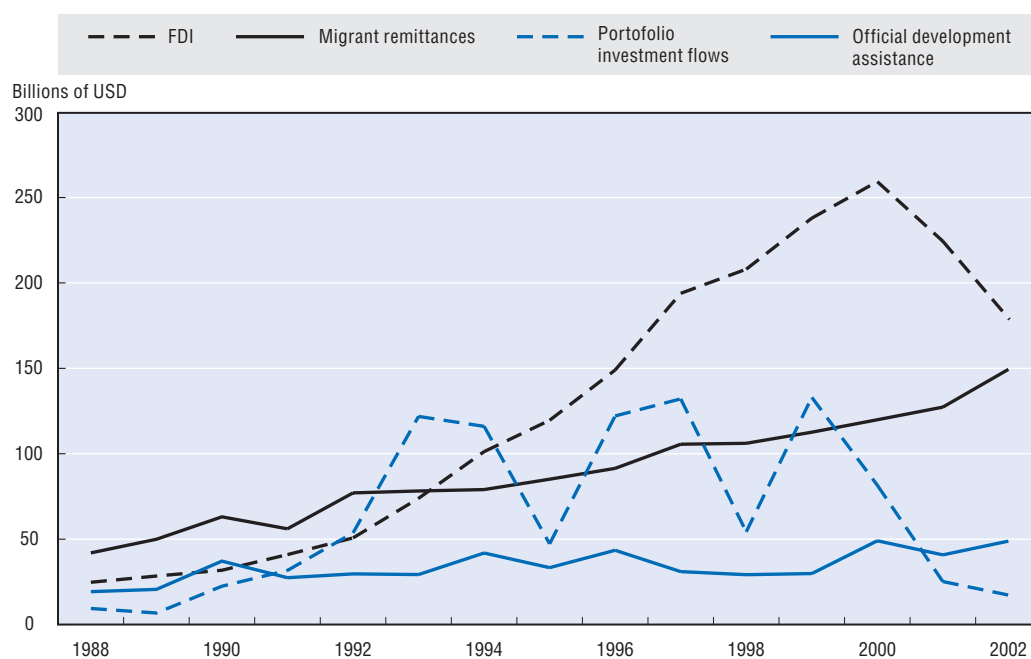
Trends in migrant remittances to developing countries

Remittances to developing countries from international migrants rose in 2002 by 17.3%, reaching USD 149.4 billion. Compared to other capital flows, migrants’ remittances were smaller than foreign direct investment (FDI) (83.7%), but significantly larger than portfolio investment flows, by more than eight times, and three times larger than official development assistance (ODA) (Chart III.1).

Remittances are a very important capital source for developing countries. In 2002, they were equivalent to 2.4% of the cumulated GDP of developing countries, 8.2% of the cumulated exports and 10.4% of the cumulated investments. Relative to macroeconomic indicators, remittances are significantly higher in low-income and lower-middle income countries than in the other developing countries. For example, remittances were equivalent

Chart III.1. Migrants' remittances and other capital flows to developing countries, 1988-2002

Billions of US dollars



Note: "Remittances" refer to the sum of the "compensation of employees", "worker's remittances" and "other current transfers in other sectors"; "Official flows" include general government transfers both current and capital.

Source: IMF, *Balance of Payments Statistics Yearbook*, various issues.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/532553067068>

to 216% of exports from the West Bank and Gaza, 90% of exports from Cap Verde, over 75% of exports from Albania and Uganda, and over 50% of exports from Bosnia and Herzegovina, Sudan and Jordan. Remittances were also equivalent to more than 40% of the GDP in Tonga, more than 35% of the GDP in the West Bank and Gaza, more than 25% of the GDP in Lesotho, and more than 20% of the GDP in Cap Verde, Jordan and Moldova (Table III.1).

Table III.1. Top 30 developing countries with the highest remittances received as a percentage of GDP, 2002

	Remittances as % of GDP		Remittances as % of GDP		Remittances as % of GDP
Tonga	41.9	Albania	15.6	Uganda	9.2
West Bank and Gaza	36.7	FYROM	15.2	Guatemala	8.9
Lesotho	25.8	Nicaragua	14.6	Pakistan	8.9
Jordan	24.0	El Salvador	14.5	Morocco	8.8
Cape Verde	23.3	Republic of Yemen	12.5	Georgia	8.3
Moldova	22.8	Dominican Republic	11.7	Sri Lanka	7.9
Vanuatu	18.4	Ghana	11.3	Latvia	7.5
Bosnia and Herzegovina	18.4	Armenia	11.2	Sudan	7.2
Guyana	18.2	Honduras	11.1	Ethiopia	6.8
Jamaica	16.7	Philippines	9.9	Bangladesh	6.6

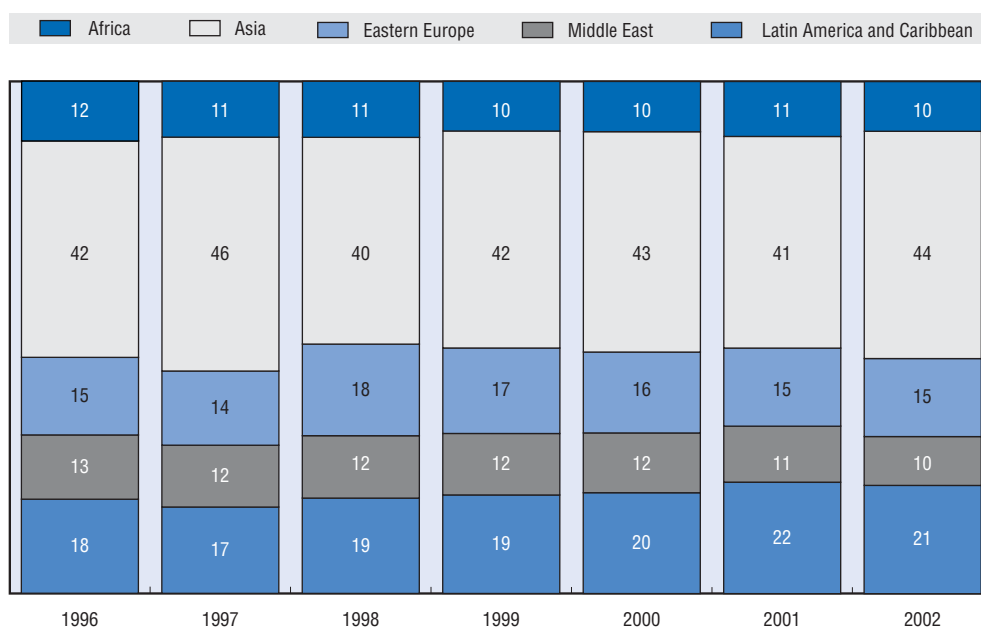
Note: "Remittances" refer to the sum of the "compensation of employees", "worker's remittances", and "other current transfers in other sectors".

Source: IMF, *Balance of Payments Statistics Yearbook*, 2003; World Bank, *World Development Indicators*, 2003.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/614135851320>

Chart III.2. Remittance flows to developing countries by region, 1996-2002

Percentages


 Source: IMF, *Balance of Payments Statistics Yearbook*, 2003.

 Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/754468305471>

Migrant remittance flows are unequally distributed in the world, with Asia receiving the lion's share. Since 1996, 40 to 46% of the annual remittance flows were received by Asia, followed by Latin America and the Caribbean with 17 to 22%, and Central and Eastern Europe with 15 to 18% (Chart III.2). This is not surprising, since Asia is the most populous region of the world and also has the most numerous diaspora.

It is also not surprising that the top remittance receiving countries are also the most populous, with India and China receiving over USD 14 billion, Mexico over USD 11 billion, the Philippines and Korea over USD 7.5 billion, and Pakistan over USD 5 billion (Table III.2).

Table III.2. Top 30 developing countries with the highest total remittances received, 2002

Millions of US dollars

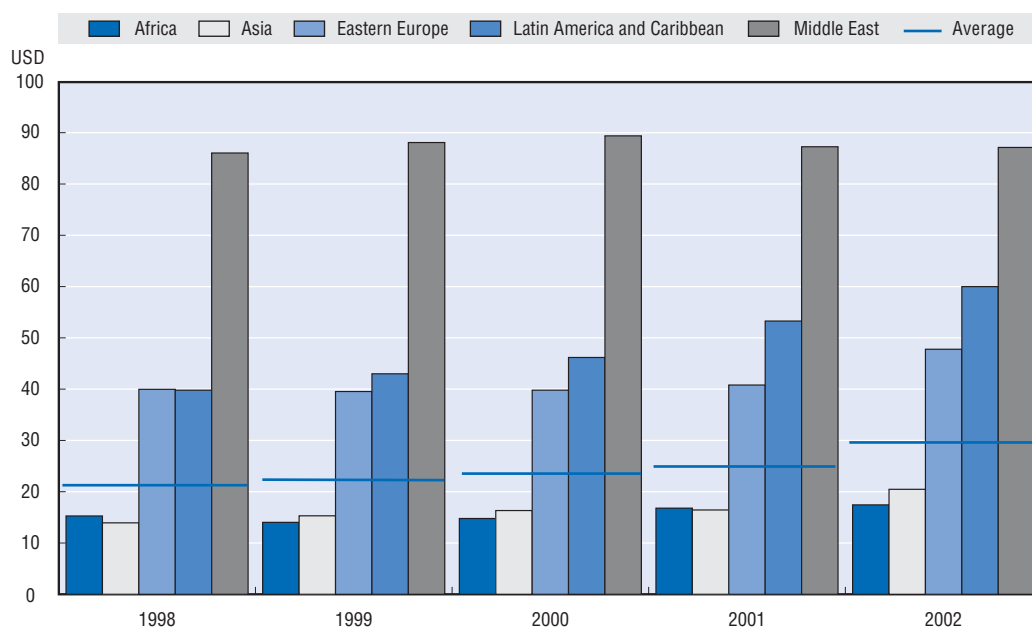
	Total remittances (USD millions)		Total remittances (USD millions)		Total remittances (USD millions)
India	14 842	Turkey	2 990	Indonesia	1 682
China	14 383	Egypt	2 946	Ukraine	1 670
Mexico	11 464	Brazil	2 863	Romania	1 646
Philippines	7 660	Chinese Taipei	2 547	Ecuador	1 470
Korea	7 586	Dominican Republic	2 497	Croatia	1 400
Pakistan	5 413	Colombia	2 403	Thailand	1 380
Poland	3 824	Jordan	2 227	Czech Republic	1 343
Israel	3 783	Guatemala	2 081	Jamaica	1 333
Morocco	3 294	El Salvador	2 071	Rep. of Yemen	1 300
Bangladesh	3 121	Russia	1 817	Sri Lanka	1 296

Note: "Total remittances" refer to the sum of the "compensation of employees", "worker's remittances" and "other current transfers in other sectors".

 Source: IMF, *Balance of Payments Statistics Yearbook*, 2003.

 Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/326418524774>

Chart III.3. Per capita migrants' remittances by region, 1998-2002, US dollars



Source: IMF, *Balance of Payments Statistics Yearbook*, 2003.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/813418634166>

Another way of comparing capital flows internationally is by looking at the amounts received per capita: the regions that received above-average levels of remittances in 2002 were the Middle East with 305%, Latin America and the Caribbean, 210%, and eastern Europe 165%. Asia and Africa received remittances below the 2002 average of USD 28.53, at proportions of respectively, 72% and 61% (Chart III.3).

Regarding the per capita remittances received by different developing countries, the distribution is even more unequal: Israel, Tonga, Barbados, Jamaica and Jordan received in 2002 the highest amounts of remittances per capita (Table III.3), each exceeding by 1 500% the average per capita remittances received by developing countries.

Table III.3. Top 30 developing countries with the highest remittances per capita received, 2002
US dollars

	Remittances per capita		Remittances per capita		Remittances per capita
Israel	583	Dominican Republic	289	Korea	159
Tonga	563	Slovenia	288	Belize	154
Barbados	512	Cyprus	280	Mauritius	139
Jamaica	510	FYROM	278	Czech Republic	132
Jordan	431	Latvia	270	Tunisia	114
West Bank and Gaza	344	Bosnia and Herzegovina	234	Mexico	114
Malta	332	Albania	229	Chinese Taipei	113
Cape Verde	321	Vanuatu	209	Ecuador	112
Croatia	320	Guatemala	174	Morocco	111
El Salvador	317	Guyana	167	Honduras	109

Note: "Remittances" refer to the sum of the "compensation of employees", "worker's remittances", and "other current transfers in other sectors".

Source: IMF, *Balance of Payments Statistics Yearbook*, 2003; World Bank, *World Development Indicators*, 2003.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/701528020322>

The International Monetary Fund (IMF) does not disaggregate remittance flow data by source countries or by destination countries, so it is not possible to distinguish the exact amounts of remittance outflows from remittance source countries that go to developing countries. Nonetheless, some scholars estimated that in 2001, developing countries received USD 18 billion in remittances from the United States alone. Another important source of remittances for developing countries is Saudi Arabia, which is considered to be the largest source on a per capita basis (Ratha, 2003).

2. Determinants of money remittances

The level of migrants' remittance flows depends on both the migrants' ability, i.e. their income and the savings from income, and their motivation to remit savings back to the home country. Of course, the willingness to remit is also determined by the duration of migration (how long do migrants intend to stay abroad, temporarily or permanently?), the family situation of migrants (single, married, with or without children?), and network effects (do migrants move alone, with family members, and do they keep attachments to those left behind?) (for the growing importance of network effects see Munshi, 2003). One way of looking at the determinants of remittance flows is by analysing the motives that migrants have to remit money. The literature distinguishes between pure altruism, pure self-interest, informal agreements with family members left in the home country and portfolio management decisions. As Stark (1991) points out, no general theory of remittances exists. The studies that analyse this phenomenon provide useful descriptive evidence and results from empirical research, but they only explain it partly, and are characterised by certain geographical, socio-cultural and temporal limitations.

Pure altruism

One of the most intuitive motivations for remitting money back home is what has been characterised in the literature as "altruism": the migrants' concern about relatives left in the home country. Under an altruistic model, the migrant derives satisfaction from the welfare of his/her relatives. The altruistic model advances a number of hypotheses. First, the amount of remittances should increase with the migrant's income. Second, the amount of remittances should decrease with the domestic income of the family. And third, remittances should decrease over time as the attachment to the family gradually weakens. The same should happen when the migrant settles permanently in the host country and family members follow. Empirical evidence from Botswana gave support to the first prediction. A 1% increase in the migrant's wage, *ceteris paribus*, induced increases in remittances ranging from 0.25%, at low wage levels, to 0.73%, at high wage levels. However the correlation between remittance levels and home incomes was found to be insignificant. Thus, altruism was found to be insufficient for explaining the motivations to remit, at least for Botswana (Lucas and Stark, 1985). Altruistic motives to remit were found also in recent studies on United States immigrants. Households with children at home are approximately 25% less likely to remit than households without children present. In addition, immigrants with minors left in the country of origin are more than 50% as likely to remit money home (Lowell and de la Garza, 2000).

Pure self-interest

Another motive for remitting money to family members in the home country may be pure self-interest. First, a migrant may remit money to his/her parents driven by the

aspiration to inherit, if it is assumed that bequests are conditioned by behaviour. Second, the ownership of assets in the home area may motivate the migrant to remit money to those left behind, in order to make sure that they are taking care of those assets. Empirical evidence from Kenya and Botswana shows that wealthier parents received a larger share of migrant earnings through remittances (Hoddinott, 1994; Lucas and Stark, 1985). However it cannot be clearly discerned whether the motive was to inherit or to ensure the household took care of the migrant's assets. Survey data on Tongan and Western Samoan migrants in Sydney attest that migrants are motivated to remit for reasons of self-interest, and in particular for asset accumulation and investment in the home areas (Brown, 1997). Third, the intention to return home may also promote remittances for investment in real estate, in financial assets, in public assets to enhance prestige and political influence in the local community, and/or in social capital (*e.g.* relationship with family and friends). Empirical evidence from the Greek migration experience shows that per migrant, remittance flows from Greek migrants in Germany were much higher (experiencing a "return illusion") than from Australia and the United States (experiencing a "permanent settlement syndrome") (Glytsos, 1988 and 1997). United States immigrants exhibit the same remittance behaviour: each 1% increase in the time spent in the United States decreases the likelihood of remitting by 2% and immigrants's political lobbies in the United States are half as likely to remit as the rest (Lowell and de la Garza, 2000). Canada, a country that receives mainly permanent immigrants, registered a similar experience, with immigrant households spending just a modest portion of their budgets on remittances. On average, 2 to 6 % of their total household expenditures were devoted to this category (DeVoretz, 2004).

Implicit family agreement: co-insurance and loan

Household arrangements, particularly within an extended family, may be considered more complex in the real world, and certainly more balanced as under the two extremes: pure altruism and pure self-interest. Thus Lucas and Stark (1985) explained the motivations to remit by a more eclectic model labelled "tempered altruism" and "enlightened self-interest". In this model, remittance determination is placed in a family framework of decision-making, with remittances being endogenous to the migration process. For the household as a whole, there may be a Pareto-superior strategy to allocate certain members as migrants, and remittances should be the mechanism for redistributing the gains. Two major sources for potential gain are taken into account: risk-spreading and investment in the education of young family members. In this context, the intra-family understanding is seen as an "implicit co-insurance agreement", respectively as an "implicit family loan agreement" (see Agarwal and Horowitz, 2002 for an empirical case study). The implicit contract between migrant and family is safeguarded against being breached by the family specific assets, *i.e.* credit and loyalty, but also by self-seeking motives of the migrant, *i.e.* aspiration to inherit, investment in assets in the home area and maintenance by family, and the intention to return home with dignity.

In the implicit co-insurance model, it is assumed that in a first phase, the migrant plays the role of an insuree and the family left at home the role of the insurer. The family finances the initial costs of the migration project, which in most cases are substantial. It is expected that the potential migrant is unable to cover all the expenses alone. The high extent of uncertainty related with the implementation of a migration intention may be minimised by the financial support from home. In turn, the migrant can act also as an insurer for the family members back home in a second phase of the migration process.

This is expected to be possible when the migrant has already a secure employment, high enough earnings and has positive expectations about further income. By receiving remittances, the family will then have the opportunity to improve its consumption, to undertake investment projects including much more risk and thus reach a higher level of utility. Evidence from Botswana shows that families with more cattle receive significantly more remittances in periods of drought (Lucas and Stark, 1985).

The loan agreement model was theorised as displaying a “three waves” shape. In a first stage, remittances are assumed to be the repayment of an informal and implicit loan contracted by the migrant for investment in education and migration costs. In a second stage, they are loans made by migrants to young relatives to finance their education, until they are themselves ready to migrate. In this phase, the amounts remitted are expected to diminish in aggregated numbers because not all migrants are expected to give a loan to family members. Then, in the third stage, before returning to their original country, migrants invest accumulated capital at home, therefore the amount of remittances increases. Later, the next generation of emigrants repay the loan to the former emigrant-lenders, who may have retired in the home country. Given the nature of the loan, remittances cannot consequently be reduced over time – as the co-insurance or altruistic theory predicts – and are mainly used for consumption purposes. Empirical estimations for Botswana’s rural to urban migration showed that migrants’ years of schooling, and the years of schooling of their own children, are positively and significantly correlated to remittances, giving support to the loan agreement hypothesis. Empirical support was found as well from Tonga and Western Samoa, due to the regularity of remittance flows (Poirine, 1997). However, survey data on migrants from the these countries in Sydney provide no evidence that in situations where parents have invested more in a migrant’s education, they will remit more than otherwise (Brown, 1997). Recent empirical studies also reject the loan agreement hypothesis. A 1998 marketing study of Latino households in the United States showed that migrants’ education has a strong impact on remittances, with each additional year of education reducing the likelihood of remitting by 7% (Lowell and de la Garza, 2000). The results of another study with macroeconomic data from over 30 developing countries are suggesting the same behaviour of migrant workers. These results are striking, suggesting that brain drain flows are not compensated by remittances (Faini, 2002).

The migrant’s saving target

Another way to model remittance determination is to assume that the migrants’ goal is to return home with a certain amount of savings – the saving target.⁴ Thus, remittance flows during the migrants’ stay abroad result from a bargaining process between the migrant and his/her family. The claim of the family left at home on the migrant’s income is considered as the demand side and the ability of the migrant to remit, *i.e.* income and the savings from income, as the supply side for remittances. The migrant has an interest in reaching the saving target and to minimise the drains from the income (*i.e.* consumption expenses in the host country and the money remitted to the family). Therefore the expectations of future income are continuously being revised and a nexus of inter-related factors are adjusted, including the length of stay, the intensity of work, and the flow of remittances for the family’s consumption. On the other hand, the family is regarded as having as its goal an income (including remittances) larger than that of the neighbours, in order to justify the decision to send some family members abroad. Thus, the amount of

remittances depends on the migrant's income, the per capita income in the home country and the bargaining power of the two parties. Empirical evidence for the support of the saving target hypothesis was found for Greek-German migration in the period 1960-1982, and for migration from seven Mediterranean countries (Algeria, Egypt, Jordan, Morocco, Syria, Tunisia and Turkey), the remittances being positively correlated to the per capita income in the host as well as in the home country (Glytsos, 1988, 2002).

In a recent paper, Lucas (2004) summarises the answers to the question whether migration for permanent settlement results in lower remittances than temporary migration. Temporary migrants might have higher incentives to remit to those left behind than permanent migrants (Galor and Stark, 1990). Moreover, the longer migrants stay abroad, the less are the bonds to the sending economy and the lower are the remittances (Merkle and Zimmermann, 1992). On the other hand, migrants are better paid the longer they live in the destination country. Thus they could (if they wish) remit more. Lucas (2004, p. 13) concludes that remittances may initially rise, then decline with duration of stay, which "would suggest an optimal length of stay to maximise remittance flows, balancing greater earning power against diminishing attachment".

Portfolio management decisions

Most of the current literature on the determinants of remittances is concentrated on the individual motives to remit, rather than on macroeconomic variables. To be sure, aggregate remittance flows will reflect the underlying microeconomic considerations described above, which determine individual decisions about remittances. Nevertheless, it is reasonable to expect that there are some macroeconomic factors, both in the host and home country, which may significantly affect the flow of remittances. Migrants' savings that are not needed for personal or family consumption may be remitted for reasons of relative profitability of savings in the home and host country, and can be explained in the framework of a portfolio management choice. In contrast to remittances for consumption purposes, the remittance of these kinds of savings have an exogenous character related to the system of migration, and are expected to depend on relative macroeconomic factors in the host and home country, i.e. interest rates, exchange rates, inflation, and relative rates of return on different financial and real assets.

Relying on such assumptions, governments of migrant sending countries used to implement incentives schemes, i.e. premium exchange rates, foreign exchange deposits with higher returns, etc. in order to attract remittances from their diasporas. However, contrary to the conventional belief, empirical analysis reveals that the incentives to attract remittances have been not very successful. Empirical results for Turkey of the period 1963-1982 illustrate that neither variations in exchange rates (reflecting the governmental intention to attract remittances by premium exchange rates), nor changes in the real interest rates (reflecting the governmental intention to attract remittances by foreign exchange deposits with higher interest rates) turned out to affect the amounts of remittance flows. The flows of remittances towards Turkey depended more on political stability rather than economic returns. An environment of confidence in the safety and liquidity of savings was much more important than options of possible higher returns (Straubhaar, 1986).

According to some scholars, microeconomic factors are more significant in determining remittance flows in the long run, while portfolio considerations are presumed to have only a short-term effect, essentially by shifting remittances around the long-term trend. In addition, the macroeconomic environment – especially in the home country –

may substantially influence the choice of the channel for transferring the money. Therefore, this issue can become crucial for the amount of officially recorded transfers. Inflation in the home country was found to have a negative impact on remittances, perhaps reflecting uncertainties from the perspective of the remitters (Glytsos, 2001). Similarly, remittances became volatile in the Philippines following the financial crisis at the end of the 1990s, and suffered a decline as the economy slipped into crisis in 1999 and 2000 (Ratha, 2003).

It should be pointed out that these numerous hypotheses trying to explain migration decision and remittances are not mutually exclusive. In fact, it may be the case that remittances are driven by all of these motives at the same time, each one explaining a part of the remittance amount or period of remitting practice. One of the elements can predominate over the others for a period or for a sample of migrant workers, and their roles can be later interchanged. This implies the complexity of the remittance phenomenon and its determinants, and explains the challenges of developing a universal theory (El-Sakka and McNabb, 1999).

3. The transfer channels

Since systematic research on the determinants of workers' remittances was undertaken in the 1980s, there was been a recognition that an important part of the money remitted back home by migrant workers flows through informal channels. An unstable macroeconomic environment in the home country was assumed to be a significant reason for choosing informal remittance mechanisms by the migrants. However, systematic research on transfer mechanisms has been carried out only in the last few years. Here the focus has been on: i) the typology of the transfer mechanisms, ii) the comparative cost of transfers through different mechanisms, and iii) the choice of the transfer means and money transfer market evolutions.

The typology of transfer mechanisms

Migrants use a wide array of informal and formal mechanisms to remit money, ranging from hand deliveries by the migrants themselves or by a third party, and less regulated mechanism such as "hawala", or "hundi", to electronic transfers through postal services, banks, credit unions, and money transfer companies.

Hand-carries by the migrants themselves or by a courier represent a transfer mechanism supposed to persist only among the poorest in the developing world, such as in Africa (Orozco, 2002). But this is not the case. Recent data for Latin America show that almost 10% of all remittances to those countries are hand-carried (Suro *et al.*, 2002). For the Romanian diaspora, the International Organization for Migration (IOM) estimates that these informal mechanisms could account even for 50% of the remittance transfers (IOM, 2004).⁵

Another informal mechanism reported by Suro (2003) is sending money by ordinary mail. Even if this is a quite risky mechanism, it accounts for 7% of the remittances send by Latino migrants in the United States.

Asian migrants use an additional informal transfer mechanism by which money is not physically or electronically transferred. This system is known as "hawala" (meaning transfer) in Pakistan and Bangladesh, "hundi" (meaning collect) in India, "fei ch'ien" (meaning flying money) or "chits/chops" (meaning notes/seals) in China. As described by El-Qorchi (2002), transfers from country A to country B through this mechanism involve two intermediaries,

called hawaladars. The hawaladar in country A receives funds in one currency from a person from country A to be transferred to another person in country B. The person in country A receives a code for authentication proposes. The hawaladar then instructs his/her correspondent in country B to pay an equivalent amount in local currency to the designated beneficiary, who needs to disclose the code to receive the funds. Although the remittance is immediately transferred, the liability the hawaladar in country A has to his counterpart in county B is set through various mechanisms of compensation occurs at different moments and often does not involve direct payment between the two hawaladars.

There are also formal immigrant-businesses involved in international money transfers. In the United States, these are known as “ethnic stores”, and most of them operate transfers to Bangladesh, India, Pakistan and the Philippines. As Orozco (2002) reports, these enterprises need to contend with competition from the hawala system (which operates outside the US regulation system). They also face tough competition from wire transfer services, such as Western Union, which have more market power. According to recent estimates, this type of business is gradually losing global market share, from 50% in 1996 to 45% in 2001 (Orozco, 2002).

Postal offices also entered the international remittance market in the 1990s, by offering the possibility of transfers through international money orders. EuroGiro, a European company established in 1993, operates in direct co-operation with the Universal Postal Union (UPU) to promote new solutions for postal financial organisations worldwide. Currently, it operates international money transfers in more than 30 countries including the European Union (EU), Canada, United States, most Central and Eastern European countries, Brazil, China and Israel. The US Post Office has its own transfer system that allows transfers to most Latin American countries. Additionally, they introduced in 1998 Dinero Seguro®, a system that offers the possibility of transferring smaller amounts of money (up to USD 2 000) from postal offices in the United States to any of the 2 300 Bancomer branches in Mexico.

The most popular businesses for international money transfers are the money transfer companies, like Western Union and Money Gram. Money transfer companies are non-bank financial institutions which are authorised to engage in banking activities not involving the receipt of money on any current account subject to withdrawals by check (Lowell and de la Garza, 2000). The company with the largest global presence is Western Union. It has more than 170 000 agent locations worldwide and a global market share of about 26% (Orozco, 2002).

The transfer mechanisms developed by banks and credit unions have the particularity that at least the remittance sender must open a current account with a bank in the host country. Having a current account with a bank allows the remittance sender to electronically send money to a bank account of the receiver in the home country. Moreover modern banking technology permits payments in stores or cash withdrawals at Automated Teller Machines (ATMs) with a debit or credit card at the receiving end. The amounts paid/withdrawn this way are then credited on the account of the remittance sender. According to the Pew Hispanic Center/Kaiser Family Foundation National Survey of Latinos, major barriers for Latino migrants in the United States wanting to use this mechanism are legal status (which impedes illegal migrants from opening current accounts), lack of information that such methods can be used to remit money internationally and poor banking

infrastructure in the migrants' home countries (Suro *et al.*, 2003). A further barrier to these transfer mechanisms in the United States is that current account holders have to choose between the size of the minimum balance they maintain in the account and the fees they pay for running the current account (*i.e.* fees decrease as the minimum balance decreases). Maintaining a minimum balance of at least USD 1 000, that eliminates fees, is beyond the abilities of many Latino migrants "who earn low wages, live payday to payday, and dispatch most of their disposable income in remittances" (Suro *et al.*, 2003). For remittance transfers to Latin America, banks and credit unions have a market share of 13% (Suro, 2003).

The comparative cost of transfers through different mechanisms

The cost of transferring money varies greatly from country to country, and according to the method of transfer. But migrants are not interested only in transfer costs. They are also interested in the risk they carry. The cheapest transfer methods are self hand-carries and ordinary post, but they involve also the highest risk of being stolen.

The hawala system is *par excellence* a system of trust. It is very popular because it is relatively inexpensive (1.25 to 2% of the transferred value), senders do not have to provide identification, and it is well organised in the migrants' home countries.

More formal transfer mechanisms reduce significantly the transfer risks, but are also much more costly compared to informal ones. For example, the Inter American Development Bank estimated that the total cost of sending remittances to Latin America and the Caribbean reached USD 4 billion in 2002. That is about 12.5% of the total remittances. Because of the small amounts per transaction (about USD 200), the fees are very high. Orozco (2003) provided a good comparison of the cost involved in formal international money transfers for the sending of small amounts of money (USD 200). He compared the cost of remittance transfers from six sending countries (France, Germany, Saudi Arabia, South Africa, United Kingdom and United States) to 14 receiving countries in southern Europe, South Asia, Africa and Latin America. The study includes banks, national money transfer companies ("ethnic stores"), and international money transfer companies.

The mean value to send USD 200 was 6% through "ethnic stores", 7% through banks and 12% through money transfer companies like Thomas Cook or Western Union. Competition is very important for reducing remittance costs. But in many cases, it is inhibited because of the lack of banking services in the rural populations of sending countries, a lack of confidence in formal channels, impediments to banking because of legal status (*i.e.* illegal residence) and lack of information about modern banking methods for money remittances.

The choice of the transfer means and money transfer market evolution

In order to better understand how remitters choose the means to send money home, the Pew Hispanic Center and the Multilateral Investment Fund of the Inter-American Development Bank commissioned Bendixen and Associates, a public opinion research company based in Miami that specialises in polling Latinos in the United States, to conduct an intensive study. Extensive interviews with 302 remittance senders were conducted, focused on their understanding of the costs involved and their willingness to use new methods, such as the electronic transfer products that US banks are now putting on the market. The results are presented in the report "Billions in Motion: Latino Immigrants, Remittances and Banking" of 22 November 2002.

Table III.4. **Cost of remittance sending**

From the six sending countries to:	Percentage		
	Bank	Ethnic store/exchange house	International money transfer company
Egypt			13.8
Philippines	8.0	10.1	10.3
India	6.0	2.5	13.8
Greece	6.8		9.5
Pakistan	0.4	3.0	13.0
Portugal	3.4		12.3
Turkey	3.1		9.5
Mozambique	1.0		
Mean	7.0	6.0	12.0

Source: Orozco (2003).

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/816701010268>

The report shows that most remittance senders – according to Suro (2003), 70% of all remitters from the United States to Latin America – use international money transfer companies such as Western Union and MoneyGram, which are expensive relative to banks and credit unions.

The results of the study indicate that a large segment of the remitting population is willing, even eager, to explore new methods of sending money home. But a variety of legal and institutional factors impede their ability to do so. Many lack proper identity documents and fear that the failure to produce valid papers at a bank will jeopardise their possibility to stay in the country. They are receptive to innovations that help overcome legal impediments to banking, such as the identity cards issued by Mexican consulates in the United States known as the “matricula”. Yet, despite all the recent developments that have helped formalise and ease remittance flows, for many Latinos it remains an expensive and confusing process, primarily because of minimum balance requirements and the fees charged. These factors all mean that remitters keep going back to the old methods, mainly international money transfer companies, even though they are concerned that they are paying excessive transaction fees and foreign exchange costs.

These findings suggest that a wholesale move by remitters to banking channels will only take place if banks can offer similar services to those provided by international money transfer companies, at significantly reduced costs. This will involve more than simply putting an effective product on the market and letting it go head-to-head with existing products. Banks will need to guarantee competitive pricing and quality of service at both ends of the remittance transaction. Given the intimate family connections between remittance senders and receivers, the convenience, reliability and safety of the services provided in Latin America will have to meet or exceed those currently available there.

If immigrants who regularly dispatch most of their disposable income in remittances could acquire the habit of accumulating money in a bank account, they would attain benefits that go beyond economising on the costs of remittance. The potential benefits include reduced banking costs, interest-paying savings accounts, the responsible use of credit, and ultimately financial practices that are rewarded by the tax system, such as home ownership and retirement savings accounts. In order to attract new customers, some US banks already offer financial literacy training and help Mexican immigrants to obtain “matriculas”.

Moreover, as other authors argue, ensuring transparency in pricing and greater consumer awareness about the available options are also important for a fair competition

and efficient market for remittance transfers. This is one of the reasons for the introduction by the United States of the Wire Transfer Fairness and Disclosure Act. According to this act, fees and exchange rates have to be posted in the offices of money transfer agencies and in their advertising, and remitters are to be provided with a receipt stating the exact amount of foreign currency to be received in the foreign country (Suro *et al.*, 2002).

4. The economic effects of money remittances

There is a bulk of economic literature on the impact of money remittances on the remittance receiving countries (a very recent study is Terry *et al.*, 2004). Most of the analysis has tended to focus on three main issues. The first part of the literature discusses the direct impact of remittances on income distribution, poverty alleviation and individual welfare. The second part concentrates on the subsequent effects of remittances on the economy as a whole, discussing the impact on employment, productivity and growth. And finally, the third part deals with the contribution of remittances to cover deficits in the trade balance and in the current account.

Remittances and income distribution

The research on the income distribution effects of remittances focuses on social justice and equality, and does not deal with implications for the home economy. In empirical evaluations, most of the studies on income distribution effects of remittances use the Gini index. The empirical evidence is mixed. Some scholars such as Ahlburg (1996), Taylor and Wyatt (1996) and Taylor (1999) found confirmation for the hypothesis that remittances had an equalising effect on income distribution in Tonga and Mexico. For Tongan households, for example, the Gini coefficient for total income declined from 0.37 to 0.34 with the receipt of remittances. By contrast, other studies show that remittances increase inequality as measured by the Gini coefficient. One of the main reasons for this is that richer families are more able to pay for the costs associated with international migration. Thus, evidence from Egypt shows that despite the poverty reduction (because a significant number of poor households do receive remittances), remittances induced income inequality to rise (Adams, 1991). In the Philippines, remittances contributed in the 1980s to a 7.5% rise in rural income inequality, in spite of a low share of remittances in the households' income (Rodriguez, 1998). Household survey data from Pakistan reveal that the wealthier income groups were those which benefited the most from migrants' remittances (Adams, 1998).

Stark, Taylor and Yitzhaki (1986, 1988) used a dynamic model to offer a broader view on the income distribution effect of remittances. Focusing on rural income distribution in two Mexican villages, they found that the income distribution effect of remittances depends decisively on the migration history, and on the degree to which migration opportunities are diffused across households. They suggested that the dynamics of migration and income distribution might be represented by an inverse U-shape relationship. At the early stages of migration history information about target destinations and employment possibilities in destination countries is still limited. At this stage, it is mainly wealthier households that send migrants abroad. Consequently, the wealthier families benefit first from migrant remittances, causing income inequality to rise. At later phases of migration history, as migration is widely spread over a greater range of income

classes, poorer households benefit from migrant remittances as well and remittances have an equalising effect on income distribution.

But evidence derived from dynamic models is also divergent. Using a similar approach to that of Strak, Taylor and Yitzhaki, and inter-temporal data from the 1973, 1978 and 1983 Yugoslavian household surveys, Milanovic (1987) found no support for the U-shape relationship hypothesis. In contrast, his results showed that remittances lead to income divergence. Furthermore, the effects differ according to the periods and social categories considered.

There is no decisive conclusion as to whether migrant remittances induce income convergence or divergence at origin, for two main reasons. First, there is diversity in the environments studied in terms of initial inequality. And second, disparities in results may be caused by differences in the empirical methods applied: static *versus* dynamic, with or without endogenous migration costs, and with or without factoring in the effects of migration on domestic income sources (Docquier and Rapoport, 2003). This theoretical study suggests that the conflicting results of the empirical literature may be reconciled if local wage changes at origin are taken into account. They show that the inequality impact of remittances and local wage adjustment tend to reinforce one another in the case of high initial inequality, but may compensate one another in the low initial inequality case. This has important implications for empirical studies. For example, in the Mexican case, where inequality is high, the omission of wage adjustments may lead to an underestimation of the equalising effect of remittances. On the contrary, in the Yugoslavian case, where inequality is lower, taking this labour market effect into account could possibly reverse an inequality enhancing effect. However, this theoretical finding has to be considered with care, until confirmed by empirical work (Adams and Page, 2003).

Remittances and growth

There are some indisputable welfare effects of migrant remittances. First, remittances are an important source of income for many low and middle-income households in developing countries. Second, remittances provide the hard currency needed for importing scarce inputs that are not available domestically and also additional savings for economic development (Ratha, 2003; Taylor, 1999; Quibria, 1997). But the magnitude of the development impact of remittances on the receiving countries was assumed by many scholars to depend on how this money was spent. Thus, a significant proportion of the literature studies the use of remittances for consumption, housing, purchasing of land, financial saving and productive investment. There is no doubt that spending on entrepreneurial investment has a positive direct effect on employment and growth.⁶ However, other scholars documented that even the disposition of remittances on consumption and real estate may produce various indirect growth effects on the economy. These include the release of other resources to investment and the generation of multiplier effects. Regarding the use of migrant remittances, a longstanding literature has suggested that remittances are more often spent on basic consumption needs, health care and real estate. But, whether from remittances or other sources, income is spent in a way which responds to the hierarchy of needs. Therefore it is reasonable to suppose that until the developing countries reach a certain level of welfare, households will continue to exhibit the same spending pattern (Lowell and de la Garza, 2000).

A more significant aspect concerning the use of remittances questions whether they are spent in a different way than other sources of income. There is empirical evidence that

households with remittances have similar consumption patterns to households not receiving remittances. Yet other scholars suggest that remittances are treated differently than other sources of income and are more often saved. Household surveys in Pakistan show that a larger part of international remittances are saved (71%) compared to domestic urban-rural remittances (49%) and rental income (8.5%) (Adams, 1998). In other countries, for example Mali, remittances are used to build schools and clinics (Martin and Weil, 2002). But the decisions of remittance senders (or receivers) to invest more or less is a rational choice about the use of their income, according to the general economic situation in their countries. Household productive investments do not depend on income, but rather on interest rates, stock prices, sound macroeconomic policies and stable economic growth (Puri and Ritzema, 1999).

Recent economic research shows that remittances, even when not invested, can have an important multiplier effect. One remittance dollar spent on basic needs will stimulate retail sales, which stimulates further demand for goods and services, which then stimulates output and employment (Lowell and de la Garza, 2000).

Most of the theoretical researches considering the multiplier effects of remittances use models that capture both migration and remittances effects on welfare. They consider remittances as a possible offset to the decline in output suffered by developing countries, caused by the loss of trade opportunities as a result of emigration. The results show that if low-skilled migrants emigrate, the welfare of the source country rises in the case that remittances are in excess of the domestic income loss. If highly-skilled persons emigrate and/or if emigration is accompanied by capital, remittances have a welfare increasing effect for the non-migrants only when the capital/labour ratio of the source economy remains unchanged or rises. If the capital/labour ratio falls, the welfare effect is indeterminate or even negative (Quibria, 1997). For example, for the Central and Eastern European countries, Straubhaar and Wolburg (1999) found that remittances do not compensate the welfare loss due to the emigration of the high skilled to Germany. However, when foreign capital is present in an economy, remittance financed capital accumulation improves the welfare of the economy. If remittances are spent for consumption, the welfare impact of remittances depends on the relative factor intensities of traded and non-traded goods (Djajic, 1998).

The empirical evidence indicates that multiplier effects can substantially increase gross national product. Thus for example every "migradollar" spend in Mexico induced a GNP increase of USD 2.69 for the remittances received by urban households and USD 3.17 for the remittances received by rural households (Ratha, 2003). In Greece, remittances generated at the beginning of the 1970s a multiplier of 1.7⁷ in gross output, accounting for more than half of the GDP growth rate. Furthermore, high proportions of employment were supported by remittances: 10.3% in mining, 5.2% in manufacturing and 4.7% in construction. And the capital generated by remittances amounts to 8% of the installed capacity in manufacturing. Of particular interest is the finding that spending on consumption and investment produced similar multipliers of respectively 1.8 and 1.9. And contrary to common opinion, expenditure on housing was found to be very productive, with a multiplier of 2 (Glytsos, 1993). By carrying out an econometric test on data from 11 Central and Eastern European countries, Léon-Ledesma and Piracha (2001) found that remittances significantly contribute to the increase of the investment level of the source economies. Drinkwater *et al.* (2003) attained similar results through a study of

20 developing countries. Moreover, their results showed that remittances also diminished unemployment, but insignificantly.

Remittances do not only have positive effects on the source economy. If remittances generate demand greater than the economy's capacity to meet this demand, and this demand falls on non-tradable goods, remittances can have an inflationary effect. In Egypt, for example, the price for agricultural land rose between 1980 and 1986 by 600% due to remittances (Adams, 1991). Along with the positive effects remittances had on Jordan's economy, in the years 1985, 1989 and 1990, they seem to have intensified recession very strongly and generated negative growth rates of over 10%. Other potential negative welfare implications of remittances are the encouragement of continued migration of the working-age population and the dependence among recipients accustomed to the availability of these funds. All these could perpetuate an economic dependency that undermines the prospects for development (Buch et al., 2002).

Finally, because remittances take place under asymmetric information and economic uncertainty, it could be that there exists a significant moral hazard problem leading to a negative effect of remittances on economic growth. Given the income effect of remittances, people could afford to work less and to diminish labour supply. Using panel methods on a large sample of countries Chami et al. (2003) found that remittances have a negative effect on economic growth (which according to the authors indicates that the moral hazard problem in remittances is severe).

Balance of payments effects of remittances

The impact of remittances on private consumption, saving and investments is only part of the story about the contribution of remittances to the growth and development of source countries. Remittances are an addition not only to the domestic household income but also to the receipt side of the balance of payments.

Remittances offset chronic balance of payments deficits, by reducing the shortage of foreign exchange. These transfers can help to ease the often crucial restraint imposed on the economic development of the migrants' home countries by balance of payments deficits. They have a more positive impact on the balance of payments than other monetary inflows (such as financial aid, direct investment or loans), because their use is not tied to particular investment projects with high import content, bear no interest and do not have to be repaid. In addition, remittances are a much more stable source of foreign exchange than other private capital flows and for certain countries they exhibit an anti-cyclical character (Buch et al., 2002; Buch and Kuckulenz, 2004; Nayyar, 1994; Straubhaar, 1988).

Developing countries quickly recognised this obvious and clearly estimable positive balance of payments effect of remittances, and measures were taken to increase such inflows of foreign exchange. But such measures must be implemented with care, because apart from the positive balance of payments effects, remittances have an impact on the economic activity in the home country. Depending on how they are spent or invested, their effects on production, inflation and imports will be different.

A crucial factor in this respect is the extent to which the additional demand induced by remittances can be met by expanding domestic output. The flexibility with which domestic supply reacts to extra demand will determine whether remittances will have positive employment effects or adverse inflation effects, and whether additional imports will be necessary.

One of the negative effects of remittances on the current account is the “boomerang effect”. This occurs when remittances induce an increase of imports and trade balance deficits in the remittance-receiving country. However, most scholars disagree that it is the remittance-induced imports that cause these trade balance problems. The propensity to import can also increase as a consequence of the general development of the economy, of a structural change in the production of consumer or investment goods, or of the international division of labour. Neither is the “boomerang effect” supported by empirical research. Evidence shows that in south European countries, remittance-induced imports between 1960 and 1981 accounted for minimums of 1% in Spain and Italy, to maximums of 4.9% in Greece and 6.2% in Portugal (Glytsos, 1993; Straubhaar, 1988).

Another negative effect can be produced where remittances generate demand greater than the economy’s capacity to produce. When this demand falls on tradable goods, remittances can induce an appreciation of the real exchange rate. The overvalued exchange rate reduces the competitiveness of the domestic industries in the foreign markets (by expensive exports), in the home markets (by cheap imports), and shifts resources from the tradable sector into the non-tradable sector, so-called Dutch Disease effect. This may further lead to balance of payments pressure, a slower growth of employment opportunities, and consequently to a further increase in the incentive to emigrate. Empirical evidence from Egypt, Portugal and Turkey supports such fears, but the effect remained marginal in most of the observed cases and periods (McCormick and Wahba, 2004; Straubhaar, 1988). A possible reason for an insignificant Dutch disease effect of remittances is that the additional import of cheap capital goods may increase productivity and therefore improve the competitiveness of domestic products. Moreover, the imported capital goods may be used to substitute other imports and/or to produce exportable goods.

Further, in a system based on non-convertible domestic currency, the privilege of holding foreign currency in corroboration with inflationary tensions may have adverse consequences in monetary terms. For example, in the countries of the Maghreb, the development of a black market for foreign exchange, the increased use of swap transactions in the foreign and domestic trade, and the very high prices for foreign goods lead in the 1980s and beginning of the 1990s to a situation in which foreign exchange was used for the domestic exchange for luxuries, or to buy services in order to obtain them more rapidly. Under such circumstances of currency substitution (known in the literature as “dollarisation” or “euroisation”), the authorities of countries with a non-convertible domestic currency used to devalue the national currency periodically in order to attract remittances from emigrants. For example, Algeria started to devalue the dinar after 1985 and consequently its value dropped from 5 dinars a dollar in 1985 to 9 dinars a dollar in 1990, and 20 dinars a dollar in 1992 (Garson, 1994).

Conclusion

On the basis of this survey on the complex phenomenon of international migrant remittances, the following conclusions can be drawn.

International migrant remittances are a very important source of capital for developing countries. They are less important than FDI, but surpass by far official development assistance and capital market flows. Moreover, remittances are a very stable source of capital. In contrast to FDI and portfolio investment that fell sharply in the last

years due to the worldwide recession, international migrant remittances grew further, evidence of an anti-cyclical character.

Many central banks face difficulties in implementing the distinctive booking of international migrant remittances as income (compensation of employees), current transfers (workers' remittances) and capital transfers (migrants' transfers), according to IMF definitions. The main problem that occurs is that many central banks in developing countries have difficulties in distinguishing "workers' remittances" from the other private transfers. Therefore they book entire or important parts of workers remittance flows under "other current transfers of other sectors". This often means that the level of official remittance flows to developing countries is undervalued, and creates difficulties for any international comparison of remittance data. The best way to overcome this data problem is by evaluating formal remittance flows as the sum of the following three balance of payments components: compensation of employees, workers' remittances, and other transfers of other sectors.

The different hypotheses attempting to explain remittance motivations – pure altruism, pure self-interest, implicit family agreements, the migrant's saving target and portfolio management decisions – complement each other. Some or all of these motives together may simultaneously drive remittances, each one explaining a part of the amount remitted or a period of remitting practice. One motive can predominate over the other for a period or for a sample of migrants with the same characteristics, and their roles can be interchanged. This illustrates that the remittance phenomenon is a very complex one, and explains the difficulty in developing a universal theory of remittance determination. A very important recent assumption regarding the contribution of remittances in compensating the human capital loss of migrant sending countries is that migrants' propensity to remit diminishes with education. There is little empirical work regarding this issue (an exception is Faini, 2002), but if confirmed by future research, the results would be outstanding. It would imply that high skilled workers do not compensate (or compensate less) for the loss they induce to the economy they are leaving.

A significant part of the money remitted by international migrants goes to the transfer companies as profits rather than to the migrants' families in developing countries. Empirical studies show that a reduction of the costs of remitting money to the level charged by the financial institutions with the cheapest transfer services, *i.e.* commercial banks, would free up several billions each year for poor households in Africa, Asia, Latin America and eastern Europe. This can be achieved by two sets of policies in industrial, remittance-sending countries. First, policies that target fair competition and efficient markets for remittance transfers, *e.g.* ensuring transparency in pricing and greater consumer awareness about the available options. Second, innovations that allow illegal migrants to open bank accounts (such as the "matriculas" in the United States) and thus give access to cheaper transfer services. By assuring lower cost for remittance sending, larger remittance flows could be channelled through the formal financial system too.

In addition to direct impacts of remittances on migrant sending economies, *i.e.* poverty reduction, offset of balance of payments deficits, reducing of foreign exchange shortages, productive investments, etc., remittances also have positive indirect effects. These are the easing of capital and risk constraints, the release of other resources for investment and the generation of multiplier effects of consumption spending. Despite this, remittances are not a panacea and cannot substitute sound economic policies in

developing countries. An economic environment that encourages emigration also limits the developmental impact of remittances in migrant sending areas. Productive investment does not depend on income, but rather on market infrastructure, interest rates, stock prices, macroeconomic policies and stable economic growth. Following models of sound macroeconomic management and development strategies involving the whole economy will be the best means to maximise the positive growth effects of remittances in developing countries.

Notes

1. The paper has been written by Thomas Straubhaar and Florin P. Vădean, Hamburg Institute of International Economics (HWWA). It is a result of the Hamburg Institute of International Economics (HWWA) Migration Research Group. Valuable comments from Christina Boswell, Michael Bräuniger, Jean-Pierre Garson, Dragoş Radu, and Nadia Vădean are gratefully acknowledged. Financial support from the Friedrich Naumann Foundation and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) are noted with appreciation.
2. "Other current transfers of other sectors" (item code 2392) together with "workers' remittances" (item code 2391) are the two subcomponents of "current transfers, other sectors" (item code 2390). "Other sectors" refer to other non-government sectors.
3. For more about *hawala* (meaning transfer), see below under "The transfer channels".
4. In the model, the savings target is excluded from the remittance flows.
5. As far as is known, almost all East European bus transport companies that link the East European countries to the EU also offer courier services. Because of the low cost, mainly poor and unskilled workers use them both for travelling and sending remittances.
6. Remarkably, spending on education is generally categorised in the literature as consumption, in spite of the fact that scholars regard education as one of the main determinants of economic growth.
7. One extra drachma of remittances generated 1.7 drachma of gross output.

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PART IV

Recent Changes in Migration Movements and Policies

(COUNTRY NOTES)

Australia



The number of permanent immigrants accepted under the 2004-2005 Migration (non-Humanitarian) Programme was the highest in over a decade. Australia continues with a programme of strict control over migration movements while increasing admissions in all migration categories.

The increase in grants of permanent permits in 2004 was relatively small (+6 000) but brought the total level (non-humanitarian) to 120 060. The skill stream accounted for almost two thirds of this (including family members of principal applicants). It is expected that an additional 20 000 will be accepted in the skill stream in 2005-2006 to help meet both short- and long-term labour force needs.

International students (172 000 visas in 2003-2004, +9 000) and working holidaymakers (94 000 visas, +5 000) continue to increase, providing a significant source of labour for part-time and less skilled jobs in Australia's labour market.

Of the 62 600 persons who departed permanently in 2004-2005, over 50% were foreign-born, a figure that has been fairly steady in recent years. Over one fifth of these are New Zealanders, who have the right of free movement to Australia.

The Australian government has taken a number of measures in order to increase the pool of skilled independent visa applicants. From November 2005 holders of a Working Holiday Maker visa or an Occupational Trainee visa will be able to apply for and be granted a Skilled Independent Regional visa without leaving Australia. To be eligible for this visa, the WHM visa holder will need to have held their visa for at least six months while in Australia and meet other basic requirements for General Skilled Migration. From the same date Working Holiday Makers who have done at least three months seasonal harvest work in regional Australia may apply for a second WHM visa.

Within the Business Skills programme, a new temporary visa subclass, the Investor Retirement Visa was introduced in July 2005. This visa requires State or Territory government sponsorship and can assist in the dispersal of migrants to regional, rural or low growth areas.

From July 2005, an eVisa lodgement option was introduced, allowing overseas students in Australia and Skilled Independent visa applicants to lodge their visa application over the Internet. To complement this initiative, a new General Skilled Migration website was developed. In addition, a National Skills Recognition Web Portal is being developed which will provide people with overseas qualifications seeking to migrate to Australia with links to information for assessment, licensing and registration authorities across Australia for all shortage occupations.

Since April 2005, Sponsored Family Visa applications are lodged in Australia by the sponsor and are processed and decided in the country rather than overseas, as was previously the case.

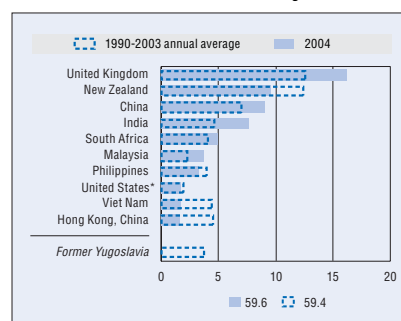
In June 2005, the International Organisation for Migration was provided with \$A 2.5 million to establish a no-interest loan scheme to help Special Humanitarian Programme proposers meet travel costs associated with bringing SHP entrants to Australia. During the second half of 2004-05, onshore processing of certain offshore applications was extended to cover all processing sub-regions in Africa and the Middle East. The electronic application system for visas has been extended into electronic health assessment and in 2005 an additional pre-departure health check was introduced for certain refugee visa holders from Africa and some other regions. In 2004-05, the cultural orientation programme was expanded to provide classes in seven broad locations – Cairo, West Africa, Middle East, Tehran, New Delhi and South East Asia. It will be further expanded in 2005-06 and will target client groups with special needs, such as illiteracy.

In June 2005, the Government announced that all primary protection visa applications will be decided within three months of receipt of the application. This time limit also applies to decisions by the Refugee Review Tribunal.

From May 2005 there has been a requirement that all children adopted overseas applying for Australian citizenship will need to hold an adoption visa or other permanent visa. Other changes, announced in September 2005, relate to extension of the residence qualifying period, to security checking and to the use of personal identifiers.

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Inflows	..	6.0	6.6	7.5	5.5	6.7	150.7
Outflows	0.9	1.1	1.3	1.5	1.0	1.3	29.9
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (harmonised)	Thousands		% distribution				
	2003	2004	2003	2004			
Work	47.7	54.1	31.8	32.3			
Family (incl. accompanying family)	88.1	93.9	58.7	56.1			
Humanitarian (incl. accompanying family)	12.0	17.5	8.0	10.5			
Others	2.2	1.8	1.5	1.1			
Temporary migration	2000	2003	2004	Annual average			
				2000-2004			
<i>Thousands</i>							
International students	120.6	162.6	171.6	150.6			
Trainees			
Working holiday makers	71.5	88.8	93.8	83.2			
Seasonal workers			
Intra-company transfers			
Other temporary workers			
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
	0.4	0.7	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.4	3.2

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
as a % of total inflows of foreigners

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
Real GDP (growth, %)	4.1	1.9	4.0	2.3	4.4	3.3	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US dollars	2.8	0.7	2.8	1.2	3.2	2.1	29 600
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	4.1	2.6	2.3	1.9	1.4	1.8	9 694
Unemployment (% of labour force)	8.3	6.3	6.0	5.6	7.9	6.2	
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
					1995-1999	2000-2004	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Total	13.1	12.1	12.2	..	11.8	12.2	
Natural increase	7.2	6.3	6.0	..	6.7	6.1	
Net migration	5.9	5.8	6.2	..	5.1	6.2	
Total population	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>(Annual growth %)</i>							
Native-born	1.0	1.3	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.0	15 360
Foreign-born	1.9	1.0	2.0	2.1	1.2	1.8	4 751
National
Foreign
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>As a percentage of foreign population</i>							
	87 049
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
					1995-1999	2000-2004	
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>							
Native-born men	78.0	78.7	78.4	80.6	77.9	78.7	
Foreign-born men	73.4	73.8	73.6	76.2	72.7	74.2	
Native-born women	61.7	64.0	66.2	65.9	61.9	65.1	
Foreign-born women	53.1	54.4	56.1	57.6	52.3	55.4	
<i>Unemployment rate</i>							
Native-born men	8.4	6.6	6.2	5.6	8.0	6.5	
Foreign-born men	10.7	6.6	6.7	5.5	9.5	6.5	
Native-born women	7.3	6.2	6.2	5.7	7.3	6.1	
Foreign-born women	9.2	7.6	6.6	5.6	8.9	6.9	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/614135851320>

Austria



Migration to Austria continued at relatively high levels, but tends to be oriented more towards family reunification. As elsewhere the number of asylum seekers declined in Austria in 2004.

Legislation regarding foreigners has been fundamentally revised.

Inflows of foreigners reached a level of about 109 000 in 2004, an increase of about 12 000 over 2003 and of 37 000 relative to 2001. A significant proportion of these appear to be short-term, however, since out-migration of foreigners stood at about 48 000 in 2004. The latter is at the same level as in 1999. The increase in net migration over the period is due to an increase in the number of immigrants.

A total of about 65 000 residence permits were issued in 2004, with about half being first settler permits and half temporary residence permits. This was about 6 000 less than in 2003. Few of the settler permits were subject to quotas on permits for third-country nationals, essentially because naturalisation, allows them to bring in their next of kin without impediments.

The number of asylum seekers, after peaking at 37 000 in 2002, stood at about 25 000 in 2004. A further decline of about 15% is projected for 2005, on the basis of requests up to October.

In 2003 and again in 2004 there was a marked rise in the employment of foreigners.* This was due to a significant increase of EU citizens, especially Germans, looking for work in Austria, as well as new legislation granting aliens of third country origin who have legally resided in Austria for 5 years permanent residence status with right of access to the labour market without the need for a work permit.

The regulation pertaining to residence status and access to work has been overhauled and the law systematised in accordance with EU guidelines. For

instance family reunion is essentially unregulated and uncapped for third country origin citizens who are partners of or dependent children of an Austrian or EU citizen. In addition, third country citizens who have the right of settlement in another EU country have the right to settle also in Austria. Only the inflow for settlement of third country citizens and of their family members is regulated by quotas.

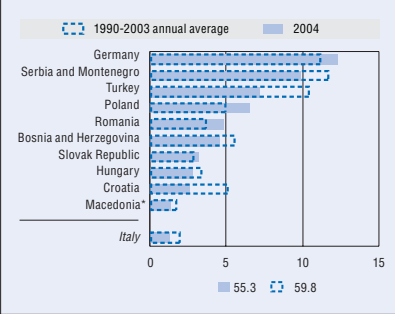
Access to the labour market is now granted to settlers, regulated by the 2005 Settlement and Temporary Residence Law. Labour market access is also granted to temporary residents according to the Foreign Worker Law. In consequence, an annual quota is fixed for third country citizens who want to work in Austria (the highly skilled only) and for family reunion of third country citizens with third country nationals.

Following similar action in 1997 and 2003, further major amendments to asylum legislation occurred in 2005. The most recent amendment stipulates that every applicant for asylum has the right to financial support from the state, with the burden being shared by all federal states according to a quota related to population size. This change has meant that all asylum seekers tend to be registered in the central population register, boosting the population inflow statistics in 2004.

In Austria, both migration and integration policies are decided upon and implemented in the regions, with federal laws providing a general framework. The new laws relating to the residence and settlement of foreigners leave it up to the states to devise an institutional and budgetary framework to organise the integration of migrants. However, due to the strong regional focus of integration policy formulation and implementation, little is still known at federal level about such details as how much money is spent on integration, the instruments and measure used and their effectiveness.

* The statistics in the table on the opposite page show a drop in the employment-population ratio, due to a break in the series.

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Inflows	..	8.1	12.0	13.3	8.1	10.8	108.9
Outflows	..	5.5	5.7	5.9	5.7	5.6	48.3
Long-term migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners 		
Permit based statistics (harmonised)	2003	2004	2003	2004			
Work	10.3	11.1	20.1	20.5			
Family (incl. accompanying family)	35.7	34.4	69.9	63.5			
Humanitarian (incl. accompanying family)	3.8	7.4	7.4	13.6			
Others	1.3	1.3	2.6	2.4			
Temporary migration	2000	2003	2004	Annual average			
<i>Thousands</i>					2000-2004		
International students	3.2	5.3	5.4	4.6			
Trainees	0.9	1.7	0.8	1.1			
Working holiday makers			
Seasonal workers	9.1	17.4	15.7	14.1			
Intra-company transfers	1.1	1.4	1.4	1.3			
Other temporary workers	6.0	10.5	9.8	8.8			
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
	0.7	2.3	4.0	3.0	1.3	3.6	24.6

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
Real GDP (growth, %)	1.9	3.4	1.4	2.4	2.8	1.4	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US dollars	1.8	3.1	1.0	1.7	2.7	0.9	29 752
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	-0.1	1.0	-	-0.3	1.0	-	4 112
Unemployment (% of labour force)	5.3	4.6	5.6	5.7	5.5	5.2	
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Total	1.2	2.4	4.4	6.8	1.5	4.1	
Natural increase	0.9	0.2	0	0.6	0.6	0.2	
Net migration	0.3	2.2	4.4	6.2	0.9	3.8	
Total population	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
<i>(Annual growth %)</i>							
Native-born	..	0.7	-0.2	-1.1	..	-0.5	7 116
Foreign-born	..	-3.3	5.7	14.7	..	5.9	1 059
National	..	0.1	0.2	0.5	0.1	-	7 398
Foreign	..	1.1	2.2	2.3	0.6	2.6	777
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
<i>As a percentage of foreign population</i>							
	..	3.6	6.1	5.5	2.7	5.0	41 645
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>							
Native-born men	77.5	76.2	75.3	73.4	76.5	75.3	
Foreign-born men	78.5	76.1	75.6	70.2	76.3	74.2	
Native-born women	59.4	59.9	61.3	61.4	59.5	60.8	
Foreign-born women	57.5	58.3	60.5	53.6	55.8	57.5	
<i>Unemployment rate</i>							
Native-born men	3.6	4.3	4.4	4.3	4.3	4.1	
Foreign-born men	6.2	8.7	9.7	11.3	9.3	9.5	
Native-born women	4.6	4.2	4.0	4.3	4.7	4.1	
Foreign-born women	7.0	7.2	6.6	10.9	8.2	7.9	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/078770643127>

Belgium



Entries into Belgium in 2004 reached a peak relative to the situation over recent decades, and a number of measures for the integration of foreigners were adopted.

In 2004, slightly over 72 000 foreigners immigrated into Belgium, some 45% of whom came from another EU country. This was a slight increase over the previous year. The main non-EU nationalities were, by order of size, Moroccans (8 000) and Turks (3 200), followed by Romanians, Chinese and Indians. In 2004, Romanians showed the sharpest increase in entries (+ 50%, to roughly 1 400 entries). Net migration for foreigners stood at approximately 34 000.

Despite this net migration, the foreign population is tending to decrease in Belgium. In 2004, foreigners accounted for 8.4% of the total population, as against 9% on average in the 1990s. This trend is explained by the number of naturalisations, which have risen sharply following the reform of the Nationality Act in 2000. A total of 34 800 people acquired Belgian nationality in 2004, which is a high level, but lower than in the years following the reform.

Since 2000, which saw a record number of nearly 43 000 asylum requests, the number of applicants has fallen rapidly and in 2004 only 15 000 requests were filed. However, the inflows of the 1990s have led to a large backlog in the processing of asylum requests. To address this problem, the “last in, first out” principle has been adopted and a complete revision of the procedure has been announced.

In 2004, more than 4 300 initial type A work permits (unlimited stay without any restriction on employer) and type B permits (limited to a renewable 12-month period for a specific employer) were issued to foreign workers, some 1 100 of whom were women. This was down slightly over the previous year. Just under 5 500 work permits (both first-time permits and renewals) were also granted to highly-skilled and managerial-level workers in 2003. For these permits, neither the labour market situation nor the worker’s origin are

taken into account. Roughly half of these permits are granted to Japanese, Indians or US nationals.

Since 2003, there has been a new type C work permit that is issued to foreigners who have been admitted for a temporary stay for reasons other than work (students and asylum seekers whose request has been ruled admissible). Some 30 000 permits of this type were granted in 2004 (24 000 in 2003).

The most significant changes in migration policy concerned the integration of foreigners. Three important measures have been taken in this field:

- The Anti-Discrimination Act was strengthened in 2003 and an Action Plan against Racism, Anti-Semitism and Xenophobia was approved by the federal government in July 2004.
- The Flemish Community introduced a civic integration programme that provides for language courses, initiation into citizenship and vocational guidance for all newly arrived immigrants.
- The right to vote in communal elections was granted to non-EU foreigners who have resided in Belgium for at least 5 years (the Act of 2004, which will be in force for the 2006 elections).

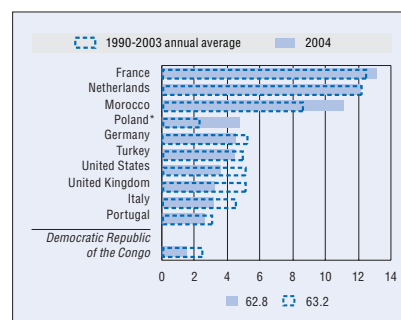
In addition, in order to improve knowledge of migration trends in Belgium, a Migration Observatory was established in 2003, with the main missions of ensuring respect for the basic rights of foreigners, keeping the government informed about the nature and magnitude of migration flows and promoting co-operation and dialogue between all public and private players concerned by policies for the reception and integration of foreigners.

It should also be mentioned that additional rights have been guaranteed for certain categories of migrants, such as unaccompanied foreign minors and migrants benefiting from temporary protection. In May 2004, a Royal Order on combating smuggling and trafficking in human beings established the Interdepartmental Unit for Co-ordinating the Fight against Trafficking in Human Beings, which is responsible for ensuring effective co-ordination between all services involved. Lastly, a Federal Council for Combating Illegal Work and Social Security Fraud was set up in 2003 in order to co-ordinate the efforts of the various inspection services.

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Inflows	5.2	5.6	6.6	7.0	5.2	6.5	72.4
Outflows	3.3	3.5	3.3	3.6	3.4	3.2	37.7
Long-term migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution				
Permit based statistics (harmonised)	2003	2004	2003	2004			
Work			
Family (incl. accompanying family)			
Humanitarian (incl. accompanying family)			
Others			
Temporary migration	2000	2003	2004	Annual average			
					2000-2004		
<i>Thousands</i>							
International students			
Trainees			
Working holiday makers			
Seasonal workers	..	0.4	1.0	0.7			
Intra-company transfers			
Other temporary workers	5.4	4.4	4.3	5.2			
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>	1.1	4.2	1.6	1.5	1.8	2.3	15.4

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
Real GDP (growth, %)	2.4	3.9	0.9	2.6	2.4	1.5	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US dollars	2.2	3.6	0.5	2.2	2.2	1.1	27 850
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	0.7	1.9	0.1	0.7	1.1	0.5	4 218
Unemployment (% of labour force)	9.7	6.9	7.9	7.9	9.3	7.3	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Total	2.3	2.4	2.2	2.4	
Natural increase	1.0	1.0	0.5	..	1.0	0.8	
Net migration	1.3	1.4	1.1	1.4	
Total population	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>(Annual growth %)</i>							
Native-born	0.2	0.1	0.1	..	0.1	–	..
Foreign-born	0.2	1.6	2.9	..	1.5	3.8	..
National	0.4	0.6	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.4	9 528
Foreign	–1.4	–3.9	1.2	1.2	–0.3	0.3	871
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>As a percentage of foreign population</i>	2.8	6.9	4.0	4.0	2.6	5.6	34 754
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
					1995-1999	2000-2004	
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>							
Native-born men	67.8	70.8	68.5	68.9	67.9	69.4	
Foreign-born men	59.1	62.2	57.2	60.3	60.3	60.1	
Native-born women	46.9	53.8	53.5	54.8	48.6	53.6	
Foreign-born women	31.7	37.3	37.7	40.1	34.4	37.6	
<i>Unemployment rate</i>							
Native-born men	6.3	4.2	6.0	5.6	6.4	5.1	
Foreign-born men	16.8	14.7	18.3	14.9	16.4	15.6	
Native-born women	11.2	7.4	6.9	7.5	10.8	6.9	
Foreign-born women	23.8	17.5	17.3	15.0	20.7	16.5	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/120564762624>

Bulgaria



Even though the number of immigrants in Bulgaria continued slowly to expand in 2004, the predominant feature remained emigration, which contributed to further declines in the total population.

There is currently a potential for supply shortages in the labour market as the economy continues its high-growth path and at a time when projected EU-accession entails the need for investment in infrastructure. Harmonisation with the Union's legal immigration framework has been the main purpose driving reform in legislation.

Total emigration from 2001 to 2004 is estimated at 60-100 000 persons, a considerable slowdown compared to the 1998-2001 period, for which estimates are over 210 000. Return migration over the entire 1992-2001 period is estimated not to exceed 19 000 and there is no indication that this is changing. With respect to immigration, the number of both permanent and long-term residence permits issued grew strongly in 2004, increasing respectively by a fourth to over 3 000 and by a fifth to over 13 000.

Migration outflows remained rather diversified in terms of destination, but continued to shift in favour of Spain and Greece, whose Bulgarian populations are estimated to be 60 000 and 33 000, respectively.

As a consequence of this strong presence, the Bulgarian authorities have undertaken steps to formalise short-term labour migration by establishing bilateral agreements with the respective governments. Despite the growing success of these endeavours, Bulgarian citizens employed in jobs through these agreements fell to just over 4 000 in 2004, down by almost a fifth compared to 2003. This was due mainly to the fact that fewer workers were employed in Germany due to the economic situation in that country.

The emigrant community was the main contributor to "private" financial transfers to Bulgaria, which accounted for more than 4% of GDP in 2004. This constituted an increase of a third compared to 2003 and twice the percentage of GDP recorded in 1999.

Compared to emigration, immigration is a small but growing phenomenon. Stocks of permanent and long-term residents stood at an accumulated total of over 66 000 persons in 2004. A fifth of those were permanent residents who had come during the communist era as students, notably from African countries and the Soviet Union. Naturalisation is restrictive and tends to be concentrated among Bulgarian minorities from neighbouring countries.

Applications for asylum declined by over a fourth and stand at just over 1 000, below the peak level of about 3 000 in 2002. Notwithstanding the low level, the government adopted a National Refugee Integration Program in May 2005, in the context of Bulgaria's future EU Accession. It aimed at consolidating existing measures and at providing refugee-specific integration for newly recognised refugees. Capacity building has been focusing on Bulgaria's asylum accommodation capacity and the conduct of the accelerated procedure within the framework of the new legislation in line with EU standards.

Legislative alignment of Bulgarian law with EU migration was nearly completed in mid-2005, but the administrative capacity of the Interior Ministry to deal with migration issues needs to be enhanced. One primary concern of migration policy currently concerns border control because accession will transform Bulgaria into a border. Border apprehensions in 2004 stood at about 5 200. However, there remain concerns about border control procedures and the level of control, especially at airports and seaports.

In 2005 Bulgaria joined the Salzburg Forum to co-operate with the other participating states (Poland, the Czech and Slovak Republics, Slovenia and Austria) in the area of asylum and migration. Regional initiatives are to be organized in the area of border control, illegal migration, and development of common positions on EU migration policies. The co-operation with Romania on strengthening border control was further enhanced by the new bilateral agreement for protection of borders that was signed in February 2005.

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Inflows	0.3	0.5	1.7	2.1	0.3	1.2	16.4
Outflows
Long-term migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution				
Permit based statistics (harmonised)	2003	2004	2003	2004			
Work			
Family (incl. accompanying family)			
Humanitarian (incl. accompanying family)			
Others			
Temporary migration	2000	2003	2004	Annual average			
				2000-2004			
<i>Thousands</i>							
International students	1.5	1.6	1.8	1.6			
Trainees			
Working holiday makers			
Seasonal workers			
Intra-company transfers			
Other temporary workers	0.3	0.4	1.0	0.5			
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	1.1

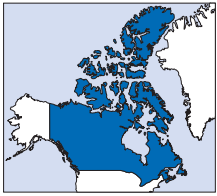
Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2005
GDP (at current prices, growth in %)	37.7	-2.7	27.6	21.5	-0.2	17.6	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US Dollars	38.3	-2.2	28.3	22.2	0.4	19.1	9 000
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	..	-2.7	4.8	3.1	-3.1	1.7	2 922
Unemployment (% of labour force)	..	17.9	13.6	12.0	14.1	15.4	
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2003	2005	Average		
					1995-1999	2000-2004	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Total	-8.9	
Natural increase	-4.6	
Net migration	-4.3	
Total population	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>(Annual growth %)</i>							
Native-born
Foreign-born
National	-0.6	-0.6	7 715
Foreign	4.9	12.4	66
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>As a percentage of foreign population</i>	7.7	9.6	..	14.1	5 664

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/757464654030>

Canada



Immigration to Canada remains at high levels, with increases relative to 2003 being found in all major categories. There is growing concern that initial labour market outcomes (especially earnings) following entry are

less favourable than was the case in the past.

Close to 236 000 persons were admitted to Canada as permanent residents, an increase of 15 000 over the previous year. Less than 35 000 were already present in Canada, in proportional terms much lower than the other settlement countries. The target balance between economic and non-economic migration is 56/44 and the 2004 result was close to this objective. Provincial Nominees, which are an attempt to achieve a better geographic balance, increased by over 40%, but are still limited in number at about 6 250. China and India remain the leading countries of origin.

Over 245 000 temporary residents were admitted in 2004, unchanged since the previous year but off from the peak of about 285 000 in 2001. Workers account for over one third of this. Entries of new foreign students are declining, now standing at about 57 000 compared to over 70 000 in 2001. Asylum seekers at 26 000 have almost halved from their peak of three years earlier.

In November 2005, federal, provincial and territorial ministers responsible for immigration adopted a strategic direction on immigration. They identified six key priorities: improved selection, including multi-year levels planning and better promotion to recruit immigrants; the development of an in-Canada economic class, to retain better those who have Canadian experience or training; improved outcomes to ensure immigrants' skills are used to full potential; increased regionalisation to share the benefits of immigration with local economies; and improved client service, including shorter waiting times and streamlining the refugee determination system.

The Canadian government has invested in a two year programme (2005-06) to increase the processing of parent and grandparent applications and to cover integration costs once they arrive in Canada. These new measures are expected to increase the number

of parents and grandparents immigrating to Canada by about 12 000 each year.

In 2004-05 a public policy was developed to permit spouses and common-law partners without legal temporary status in Canada to be eligible for consideration in the spouse-of-common-law-partner-in-Canada class. In December 2004, the government committed additional funds to deliver advanced occupation-specific language training in an effort to improve the economic performance of some immigrants.

A regulatory change made in 2004-05 allows foreign workers who are citizens of visa-exempt countries and who have a confirmed job to apply for a work permit at a port of entry. This has facilitated the entry of workers whose services are urgently required by their Canadian employers. An agreement was reached to facilitate the recruitment of oil sands workers needed for the further development of the Alberta oil sands.

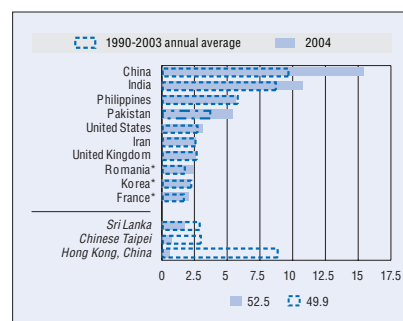
In 2004-05 Citizenship and Immigration Canada signed agreements with the provinces of Saskatchewan, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland and Labrador to allow international students to work in Canada for a second year after graduation. In April 2005, CIC announced the expansion of two pilot projects better to attract, integrate and retain international students in regions throughout the country in partnership with the provinces and educational institutions.

In December 2004, Canada and the United States implemented the Safe Third Country Agreement as part of the Smart Border Declaration of December 2001. This agreement enhances the handling of refugee claims in order to reduce the abuse of refugee programmes.

In 2004-05 a major overarching activity has been to establish new partnerships and strengthen existing ones, both within Canada and internationally, to ensure co-operation and co-ordination in screening temporary and permanent residents against inadmissibility criteria. With increased concerns regarding the theft and fraudulent use of identity, CIC has begun to develop a comprehensive Identity Management Framework that will enhance the Department's capacity to address these risks systematically.

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Inflows	7.3	7.4	7.0	7.4	6.8	7.4	235.8
Outflows
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (harmonised)	Thousands		% distribution				
	2003	2004	2003	2004			
Work	54.2	59.3	24.5	25.2			
Family (incl. accompanying family)	131.9	136.7	59.6	57.9			
Humanitarian (incl. accompanying family)	35.1	39.7	15.8	16.8			
Others	0.1	0.1	–	0.1			
Temporary migration	2000	2003	2004	Annual average			
				2000-2004			
<i>Thousands</i>							
International students	61.0	60.2	56.5	63.0			
Trainees			
Working holiday makers			
Seasonal workers	18.0	20.0	20.4	19.6			
Intra-company transfers	1.6	3.8	4.2	2.9			
Other temporary workers	73.7	50.7	54.4	61.0			
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>	0.9	1.1	1.0	0.8	0.9	1.1	25.8

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
as a % of total inflows of foreigners

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
Real GDP (growth, %)	2.8	5.3	2.0	2.9	3.9	2.4	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US dollars	1.7	4.3	1.1	2.0	2.9	1.4	29 640
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	1.8	2.6	2.3	1.8	2.0	2.0	15 952
Unemployment (% of labour force)	9.5	6.8	7.6	7.2	8.9	7.3	
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
					1995-1999	2000-2004	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Total	10.5	9.8	9.2	9.0	9.3	9.9	
Natural increase	5.7	3.6	3.3	3.0	4.6	3.4	
Net migration	4.8	6.2	5.9	6.0	4.6	6.5	
Total population	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>(Annual growth %)</i>							
Native-born	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.8	26 165
Foreign-born	2.2	1.8	1.8	2.0	1.8	2.1	5 781
National
Foreign
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>As a percentage of foreign population</i>	192 590
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
					1995-1999	2000-2004	
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>							
Native-born men	75.9	77.4	77.2	..	75.5	77.5	
Foreign-born men	75.6	77.0	75.6	..	75.0	76.0	
Native-born women	62.0	66.0	68.8	..	62.8	67.1	
Foreign-born women	55.0	59.6	59.2	..	56.2	58.9	
<i>Unemployment rate</i>							
Native-born men	8.6	5.7	6.5	..	7.9	6.2	
Foreign-born men	10.4	6.1	7.8	..	8.7	7.3	
Native-born women	9.8	6.2	5.9	..	8.7	6.1	
Foreign-born women	13.3	8.7	9.9	..	10.6	9.3	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/303637765572>

Czech Republic



Immigration into and emigration from the Czech Republic of foreign nationals maintained in 2004 the increased levels first recorded in 2002, two years before accession to the EU.

Most movements are by persons from neighbouring countries. As in other accession states, many policy changes concern harmonisation with EU migration regulations.

Inflows of foreign citizens fell to 53 000 in 2004 from 60 000. Many of these are short-term, however, since the number of emigrants was close to 35 000 in both years. Slovaks and Ukrainians are the main foreign nationals concerned, with Vietnam the third-ranking country. The same three nationalities head the list of foreign residents and account for almost two-thirds of the total. The foreign population remains relatively small, accounting for 2.5% of the total population.

Foreign residents are split between long-term residents (more than one year) and permanent residents. The permanent residence permit requires a ten-year uninterrupted stay in the Czech Republic on a long-term permit. Permanent residents account for 40 per cent of all foreign residents and are headed by Vietnamese and Slovaks, respectively. Persons on long-term residence permits are in the Czech Republic overwhelmingly for either employment or business activities.

In 2004 the number of persons claiming asylum dropped to about 5 500, the lowest level since 1998 and less than half the level of 2003. Most claims are from the states of the former Soviet Union, in particular Russia and the Ukraine, and less than three per cent of applicants receive asylum. With entry into the EU of the Czech Republic and the other accession states, the Czech Republic is now entirely surrounded by other EU countries. The decrease in claims thus may be a consequence of the Dublin system, because potential claimants cannot make a claim in the Czech Republic if they have first transited through one of the

other accession states. Illegal crossings of Czech Republic borders have also decreased in 2004, by about 15%, to 9 400.

On 1 October 2004 a new Act on Employment (fully implementing the “*acquis communautaire*” relating to legal conditions of the employment of EU nationals), came into force. At the same time it introduced changes relating to employment of nationals of third countries. In particular, it tightened conditions relating to entry to the labour market through companies and co-ops and extended the authority of bodies supervising the employment of foreigners.

In accordance with this law, nationals of EU, EEA and Switzerland do not need a work permit in the Czech Republic since 1 May 2004. Employers of such nationals, however, are obliged to inform a locally authorised labour office at the latest on the day of the start of work.

A first step in launching an active migration policy by the Czech Republic was the Project of Active Selection of Qualified Labour Force, the verification phase of which started in July 2003 and continued throughout 2004. The aim is to attract young, qualified persons, interested in permanent resettlement in the Czech Republic. Such persons (and their family members) will be offered the possibility to obtain the right of permanent residence after only 2.5 years. The selection procedure is aimed at both foreign nationals residing legally, applicants from abroad as well as newly graduated foreigners from Czech secondary schools and universities (with the exception of students who entered in the framework of development assistance).

At the beginning of 2004 responsibility for coordination of activities related to implementation of integration policy concerning foreigners living in the Czech Republic was transferred from the Ministry of the Interior to the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs. Many ministries, other government bodies, local authorities and non-government stakeholders have been actively involved in the implementation.

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)			
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Inflows	0.6	0.4	5.6	5.0	0.7	3.3	50.8			
Outflows	-	-	3.3	3.3	-	2.3	33.8			
Long-term migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners					
	Permit based statistics (harmonised)	2003	2004	2003				2004		
Work						
Family (incl. accompanying family)						
Humanitarian (incl. accompanying family)						
Others						
Temporary migration	2000	2003	2004	Annual average						
	Thousands									
International students						
Trainees						
Working holiday makers						
Seasonal workers						
Intra-company transfers						
Other temporary workers						
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)			
	<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>				1995-1999	2000-2004	2004			
				0.1	0.9	1.1	0.5	0.3	1.0	5.5

Macroeconomic indicators and stock data

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level			
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004			
Real GDP (growth, %)	5.9	3.9	3.2	4.7	0.9	3.0				
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US dollars	6.0	4.0	3.2	4.6	1.0	3.2	16 493			
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	0.9	-0.7	-0.7	-0.3	-1.0	-	4 684			
Unemployment (% of labour force)	4.1	8.9	7.8	8.3	5.6	8.1				
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)			
					1995-1999	2000-2004				
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>										
Total	-1.1	-1.2	0.8	1.5	-1.0	-0.3				
Natural increase	-2.1	-1.8	-1.7	-0.3	-2.0	-1.4				
Net migration	1.0	0.6	2.5	1.8	1.0	1.1				
Total population	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)			
					1995-1999	2000-2004				
<i>(Annual growth %)</i>										
Native-born	..	0.1	-0.1	-0.1	..	-0.3	9 712			
Foreign-born	..	-4.7	2.2	3.5	..	3.6	499			
National	..	0.2	-0.1	-	..	-0.3	9 957			
Foreign	3.8	5.8	..	6.1	254			
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level			
					1995-1999	2000-2004				
<i>As a percentage of foreign population</i>				-	3.6	1.5	2.1	0.7	2.5	5 020
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level			
					1995-1999	2000-2004				
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>										
Native-born men	73.4	72.3	..	73.2				
Foreign-born men	68.0	64.5	..	66.1				
Native-born women	56.7	56.3	..	56.7				
Foreign-born women	50.4	49.9	..	50.9				
<i>Unemployment rate</i>										
Native-born men	5.8	7.0	..	6.2				
Foreign-born men	9.0	12.2	..	10.8				
Native-born women	9.6	9.6	..	9.2				
Foreign-born women	15.7	13.6	..	13.5				

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/826536234001>

Denmark



Following a strong decline in 2003, long-term immigration to Denmark seems to have levelled off in 2004 (residence permit, excluding students, trainees, au pairs data).

However, there has been a substantial shift in the composition of migration flows away from humanitarian and family-related migration towards work migration. Work-related long-term immigration increased by almost 25% in 2004, to more than 7 300. This strong increase is attributable to about 2 100 work-related residence permits for immigrants from the new EU member countries, despite the transition period which is applied by Denmark.

In contrast to the increase in work migration, both family reunification and humanitarian migration continued their continuous decline since 2001. Residence permits on humanitarian grounds were at 1 600 (2003: 2 450), and for family reunification (adoptions and EU citizens not included) almost 3 850 (2003: 4 800). Immigration in both categories was at its lowest level in more than a decade.

Like long-term migration, trends in certain forms of temporary migration maintained themselves. Migration of students continued to rise, with more than 10 000 residence permits being granted in 2004 to students, almost twice the figure of 2000. By contrast, asylum applications continued their marked decline since 2000 (when they stood at more than 12 000), and were at around 3 200 in 2004 – the lowest figure in the past two decades.

Naturalisations, which had been markedly declining in 2003 due to a tightening of the conditions for acquiring Danish nationality, increased to a level comparable to that prior to the policy shift – from about 6 500 in 2003 to almost 15 000 in 2004. Only naturalisations of Turkish nationals did not increase and dropped sharply instead.

The immigration trends outlined above reflect a number of recent changes in immigration policy which have made family reunification, long-term residency and the acquisition of Danish citizenship more difficult. In addition to the tightening of family reunification rules in recent years, applicants for family reunification and their spouses now also have to sign a “declaration of integration” since July 2005. This obliges an applicant to participate – along with his/her children – actively in Danish language courses and integration into Danish society. The spouse living in Denmark has to declare that he or she will actively support this process.

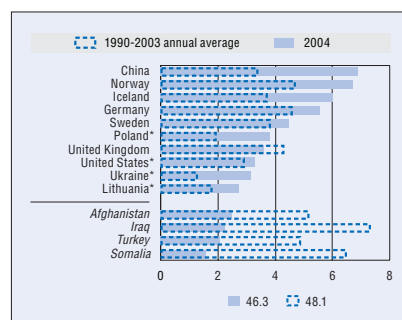
Along with the tightening of immigration law, the government has taken several steps to promote the integration of immigrants. A particular focus is being laid on employment and active involvement policies. In June 2005, the parliamentary majority reached an agreement on a variety of integration measures in the context of a new plan titled “a new chance for everyone”. The measures inter alia include the introduction of mandatory integration contracts for all immigrants who do not have long-term residency (which can generally be obtained after seven years of residence). These contracts oblige immigrants to participate actively in job training and to apply for employment. Respect of the contract influences eligibility for long-term residency. In addition, bilingual children will be offered language stimulation and homework coaches. Danish language skills will be regularly tested. Furthermore, in July 2005, Danish language tuition to which accepted asylum seekers may be eligible was increased from 10 to 20 or 25 hours per week.

A variety of changes were introduced with respect to Denmark’s acceptance of quota refugees. The Danish Immigration Service now takes the individual quota refugee’s chances of integration into consideration, based on his or her language skills, education, age, and family situation.

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition					Average		Level ('000)
	1995	2000	2003	2004	1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Inflows	6.3	4.3	3.5	3.5	4.5	4.0	18.8
Outflows	1.0	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.3	1.6	9.4
Long-term migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution				
Permit based statistics (harmonised)	2003	2004	2003	2004			
Work	5.7	7.3	33.4	43.6			
Family (incl. accompanying family)	7.7	6.7	45.7	39.7			
Humanitarian (incl. accompanying family)	2.4	1.6	14.5	9.4			
Others	1.1	1.2	6.4	7.3			
Temporary migration	2000	2003	2004	Annual average			
<i>Thousands</i>					2000-2004		
International students	4.2	6.2	6.3	5.2			
Trainees	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.6			
Working holiday makers			
Seasonal workers			
Intra-company transfers			
Other temporary workers	1.4	3.6	3.4	2.3			
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
					1.4	1.4	3.2

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators					Average		Level
	1995	2000	2003	2004	1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Real GDP (growth, %)	3.1	3.5	0.6	2.1	2.7	1.0	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US dollars	2.6	3.2	0.4	1.8	2.2	0.7	29 578
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	0.9	0.4	-1.2	-	1.2	-0.1	2 748
Unemployment (% of labour force)	6.7	4.3	5.5	5.4	5.5	4.8	
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>					1995-1999	2000-2004	
Total	6.8	3.4	2.4	2.4	4.3	2.9	
Natural increase	1.3	1.7	1.3	1.5	1.4	1.3	
Net migration	5.5	1.7	1.1	0.9	3.0	1.5	
Total population	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
<i>(Annual growth %)</i>					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
Native-born	-	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	5 058
Foreign-born	11.1	4.0	1.9	1.6	4.4	2.7	343
National	-	0.4	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.3	5 133
Foreign	13.2	-0.3	2.2	-1.3	3.9	0.9	268
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
<i>As a percentage of foreign population</i>					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
					2.9	5.3	14 976
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2003	2004			
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>							
Native-born men	78.9	80.9	79.4	79.1			
Foreign-born men	51.2	59.0	58.2	55.8			
Native-born women	69.5	73.9	73.4	73.5			
Foreign-born women	41.5	48.3	48.4	44.8			
<i>Unemployment rate</i>							
Native-born men	6.4	3.4	3.8	4.6			
Foreign-born men	20.5	9.5	8.8	11.8			
Native-born women	8.4	4.3	4.2	5.2			
Foreign-born women	20.7	9.6	8.7	12.7			

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/051441270837>

Finland



In the context of a favourable economic climate in 2004, long-term immigration of foreign nationals to Finland reached its highest figure since 1991, at 11 500. If immigration of Finnish nationals is included, the figure was the highest ever recorded, and topped 20 000 for the first time ever. Long-term immigration of foreign nationals to Finland continues to be largely dominated by family formation and reunification, which accounts for about 60% of total permanent immigration. The second most important component is humanitarian migration, accounting for about 10%. The number of humanitarian resettlers arriving in Finland in 2004 – 734 – was the highest over the past decade.

Until recently, a significant proportion of immigrants were Ingrians (ethnic Finns) from Russia and Estonia. In 2003, however, language requirements were introduced for potential Ingrian immigrants, which has reduced arrivals of persons in this group and affected the age structure (relatively older Ingrians). There about are 15 000 applications of persons in this group waiting to be processed.

Finland has decided apply a transition period for the new EU member states from Central and Eastern Europe, although its extension beyond May 2006 is currently being questioned.

After Russians (about 1 900 immigrants in 2004), Estonian nationals (1 700) are the main group of permanent immigration – a 50% increase compared to 2003. These two nationalities also strongly dominate temporary migration, particularly in with respect to seasonal work (garden and agriculture). Preliminary figures for 2004 show that Russians and Estonians each accounted for about one third of work permits.

Another important element of overall migration continues to be asylum-seeking, which reached a new high with more than 3 700 individuals, but only

somewhat higher than levels of the past few years.

The new Nationality Act of 2003 allowed for dual nationality. It also enabled persons who had lost Finnish citizenship or who are descendants of Finnish or former Finnish citizens to acquire Finnish citizenship if the application is posted before June 2008. Due to these changes, naturalisation more than doubled compared to previous years, with more than 8 200 people obtaining Finnish citizenship in 2004.

A new Aliens Act entered into force in May 2004, which abolished the previous separate issuance of work and residence permits to a single residence permit for employed immigrants. Due to this change, there is currently no 2004 data on employment-related immigration available. The new Act also facilitates immigrants' access to work.

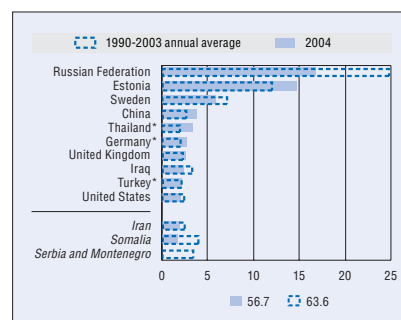
Anti-discrimination legislation, in accordance with the EU Racial Equality and Employment Equality Directives, became effective in February 2004. Among other measures, it obliges authorities to actively promote diversity and non-discrimination by means of "equality plans", which must be presented by the end of 2005.

A major reform of immigration policy is currently debated. The main aim of the reform is to promote labour market-related immigration to Finland by facilitating recruitment of foreign nationals by public and private employers in Finland and the immigration of researchers and self-employed persons. There are also measures envisaged to promote access of foreign students and family members to the labour market, as well as the development of a framework for the integration of immigrants. In addition, it is intended to improve planning of immigration policy by regular meetings of the ministerial group on migration-related issues and by addressing a migration report to parliament at least once during each electoral term.

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Inflows	1.4	1.8	1.8	2.2	1.5	2.0	11.5
Outflows	0.3	0.8	0.4	0.8	0.4	0.6	4.2
Long-term migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution				
Permit based statistics (harmonised)	2003	2004	2003	2004			
Work	1.0	1.9	13.6	34.1			
Family (incl. accompanying family)	4.9	2.9	65.5	52.1			
Humanitarian (incl. accompanying family)	1.0	0.5	12.8	9.1			
Others	0.6	0.3	8.1	4.7			
Temporary migration	2000	2003	2004	Annual average			
					2000-2004		
<i>Thousands</i>							
International students			
Trainees			
Working holiday makers			
Seasonal workers			
Intra-company transfers			
Other temporary workers			
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>	0.2	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.3	0.6	3.9

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
Real GDP (growth, %)	3.4	5.0	2.4	3.6	4.6	2.3	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US dollars	3.1	4.8	2.2	3.3	4.3	2.1	28 028
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	2.2	1.7	-0.3	-	2.3	0.3	2 356
Unemployment (% of labour force)	15.4	9.8	9.0	8.9	12.9	9.2	
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
					1995-1999	2000-2004	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Total	3.3	1.9	2.5	3.2	2.7	2.5	
Natural increase	2.7	1.5	1.5	2.1	2.0	1.6	
Net migration	0.6	0.4	1.0	1.1	0.6	0.9	
Total population	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>(Annual growth %)</i>							
Native-born	..	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	5 062
Foreign-born	..	3.9	4.5	4.7	5.4	5.1	166
National	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	5 120
Foreign	10.6	3.9	3.2	1.3	6.3	4.4	108
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>As a percentage of foreign population</i>							
	1.1	3.4	3.6	7.7	2.6	4.2	8 246
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
					1995-1999	2000-2004	
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>							
Native-born men	61.8	71.2	70.4	70.5	65.2	71.0	
Foreign-born men	66.2	65.5	..	66.4	
Native-born women	58.4	65.3	67.5	66.8	60.5	66.8	
Foreign-born women	51.4	46.8	..	50.3	
<i>Unemployment rate</i>							
Native-born men	17.7	10.3	10.9	9.9	14.3	10.2	
Foreign-born men	18.2	21.4	..	18.8	
Native-born women	16.1	12.0	9.7	10.2	14.4	10.5	
Foreign-born women	20.3	25.1	..	19.9	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/186855561608>

France



After growing briskly for a number of years, the increase in permanent immigration flows slowed in 2004. The Welcome and Integration Contract (CAI or *Contrat d'accueil et d'intégration*) for recent immigrants was put into operation.

The number of foreigners admitted for residence reached 140 000 in 2004, which was slightly up on 2003. These figures do not include nationals of the European Economic Area (EEA), who since November 2003 have no longer been required to have a residence permit to settle in France. It is under the heading of family migration that foreigners most frequently obtain a permanent residence permit (64% of cases in 2004). The balance between the number of men and women entering France in this way is tending to shift. Labour immigration accounts for only 12% of all permanent entries and the number of refugees is stable at around 7%, but the number of applications made is tending to decline.

The number of recipients of temporary work permits fell slightly in 2004 (settling at nearly 10 000) after rising for five years. North American nationals account for the bulk of these flows, while Africans on the other hand now represent a smaller proportion. Almost 2/3 of temporary permits were granted to men, slightly less than in previous years.

Flows of seasonal workers picked up sharply as of 2000, the numbers involved exceeding 15 000 in 2004. They work mainly in farming.

Flows of foreign students have more than tripled over the past ten years, going from 15 000 to 55 000. The increase since 2000 is close to 50%. Africans still constitute the biggest group.

The number of foreigners taking French nationality is increasing every year. In 2004 they totalled 170 000, the vast majority of them from Africa (69%). The number of people acquiring French nationality through marriage continues to increase. The steep rise observed starting in 2002 is due mainly to an action plan aiming to reduce the number of outstanding applications and the time required to process them.

However, legislation introduced in November 2003 brought changes regarding nationality which made the situation more restrictive. The length of time that a foreigner had to be married to a French national in order to acquire French nationality by

declaration was extended from one year to two, in addition to which, when making the declaration of nationality, the spouses had to prove that they were living together. Also, the foreign spouse now has to prove "sufficient knowledge of the French language". As far as acquiring French nationality by decree is concerned, applicants have to prove their knowledge of the language as well as the rights and duties associated with French nationality.

In 2004, nearly 70 000 deportation orders were served and more than 15 000 were implemented. This figure has increased sharply since 2001, in line with the French Government's stance *vis-à-vis* controlling flows and combating illegal immigration.

With effect from 1 January 2004, Welcome and Integration Contracts (CAIs) were extended to the whole of France following an experimental period which concerned twelve pilot *départements*. The contracts are in two parts:

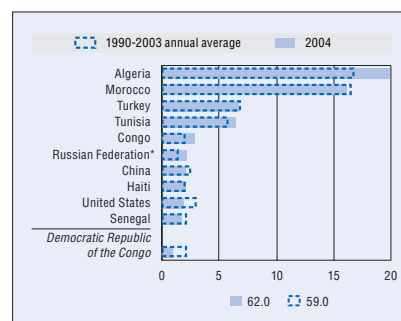
- A standard contract for everyone, which involves mutual commitments. For the new arrival, these include abiding by the laws and values of the Republic and attending courses in civics, while for the State, it is a matter of ensuring access to individual rights and language courses.
- An annex tailored to people's requirements, which deals with the undertaking to attend language training and/or additional training in knowledge of life in France and also suggests a social referent if one is needed.

As at 31 December 2005, more than 45 000 recent immigrants had signed a CAI. The overall sign-up rate is approximately 90%.

The asylum reform came into force on 1 January 2004 and the French Office for the Protection of Refugees and Stateless People (OFPRA – *Office français pour la protection des réfugiés et apatrides*) has become the sole centre for the referral and processing of asylum applications. This reform brought in two major changes. The first extended the scope of conventional asylum by doing away with the criterion involving the state where the persecution took place, while the second ended the territorial asylum procedure and created subsidiary protection. The latter is aimed at people who do not fulfil the conditions required to be awarded conventional asylum but are in grave danger in their own country. Subsidiary protection is awarded for one year, but can be extended.

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Inflows	0.9	1.6	2.3	2.3	1.3	2.0	140.1
Outflows
Long-term migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution				
<i>Permit based statistics (harmonised)</i>	2003	2004	2003	2004			
Work	20.7	20.9	12.0	11.9			
Family (incl. accompanying family)	111.7	112.6	64.6	64.3			
Humanitarian (incl. accompanying family)	11.2	11.4	6.5	6.5			
Others	29.4	30.3	17.0	17.3			
Temporary migration	2000	2003	2004	Annual average			
					2000-2004		
<i>Thousands</i>							
International students	36.1	52.1	55.0	47.7			
Trainees	0.9	1.0	0.5	0.9			
Working holiday makers			
Seasonal workers	7.9	14.6	15.7	12.5			
Intra-company transfers			
Other temporary workers	7.6	10.2	10.0	9.5			
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>	0.4	0.8	1.0	1.0	0.4	0.9	58.6

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
as a % of total inflows of foreigners

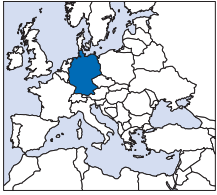
Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
Real GDP (growth, %)	2.4	4.1	0.8	2.3	2.6	1.6	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US dollars	2.0	3.5	0.2	1.7	2.2	1.0	26 993
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	1.0	2.8	–	–0.1	1.3	0.6	24 651
Unemployment (% of labour force)	11.5	9.4	9.7	10.0	11.6	9.4	
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
					1995-1999	2000-2004	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Total	4.1	5.3	5.2	5.9	4.2	5.4	
Natural increase	3.4	4.1	3.5	4.2	3.4	3.9	
Net migration	0.7	1.2	1.7	1.7	0.8	1.5	
Total population	1995	1999	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	1999
<i>(Annual growth %)</i>							
Native-born	53 102
Foreign-born	5 868
National	55 707
Foreign	3 263
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>As a percentage of foreign population</i>	168 826
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
					1995-1999	2000-2004	
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>							
Native-born men	68.3	69.8	69.9	69.2	68.2	70.0	
Foreign-born men	65.6	66.7	63.9	66.3	65.1	66.3	
Native-born women	53.6	56.6	58.5	58.1	54.3	57.8	
Foreign-born women	44.2	45.6	48.0	47.9	44.1	46.9	
<i>Unemployment rate</i>							
Native-born men	9.1	7.7	7.3	8.0	9.5	7.2	
Foreign-born men	16.5	14.5	15.3	13.8	17.2	13.9	
Native-born women	13.5	11.3	9.2	10.0	13.5	9.9	
Foreign-born women	19.0	19.7	16.4	17.4	20.5	17.0	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/003551300054>

Germany



Germany continues a steady decline in long-term migration evident since the mid- to late nineties. Inflows of persons of foreign nationality in Germany have ranged between 600 000 and

700 000 for the last six years (1999-2004) and outflows between close to 500 000 and 600 000. Net migration of foreigners, at about 55 000, is at its lowest point since 1997 and 1998 when it was negative. However, this does not include inflows of ethnic Germans – the largest group of permanent immigrants in the past two decades – whose numbers are also at a low level (59 000) not seen since 1987.

Inflows of some groups of temporary migrants, such as trainees and contract workers, are also falling (but slightly), as are those of asylum seekers (continuously since 1992). Entries of seasonal workers and of international students, on the other hand, are increasing.

Germany continues to describe its immigrant population in terms of foreign nationals and this population decreased strongly from 2003 to 2004 – by 618 000 or 8.1% – for a number of reasons. Most importantly, a cross check between the Central Aliens Register (AZR), on which the stock of foreign nationals is based, and the residential registers resulted in a large number of foreigners no longer resident in Germany according to the residential registers being suppressed from the AZR. The 2004 figures are thus no longer comparable to those of previous years. In addition, recent years have seen declines in the number of foreign births. The latter is the result of a new provision in the Naturalisation Law (2000), granting German nationality at birth to children one of whose parents has been living in Germany for at least eight years and has the right of permanent residence.

The key policy development in Germany is the implementation of the new Immigration Act, which came into force on 1 January 2005. It has reduced

the number of residence permits from 5 to 2, namely a residence permit of unlimited duration and one of limited duration, with the duration varying according to the purpose of entry (vocational training, gainful employment, family migration, humanitarian reasons). Procedures have been simplified so that work and residence permits are issued in one process, once the labour administration consents to the work permit.

Under the new law, entry into Germany depends on the skill level of the immigrant. Highly qualified persons can receive an establishment permit and the full right to take up work upon arrival. A ban on recruitment for unskilled workers or persons with low qualifications continues to hold, with some exceptions allowed for certain professions. This ban does not apply to persons admitted under family reunification (see below). Ordinary admission for work is subject to a priority check, to verify that the job cannot be filled by a German or EU national.

For certain qualified professions, persons from the ten new EU member countries are given priority over persons from third countries but are nonetheless subject to a priority check to ensure that no eligible German or EU national is available.

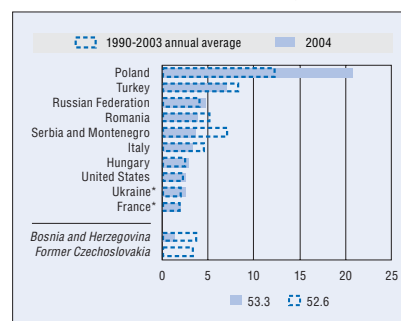
Finally family members arriving to join a relative in Germany will henceforth have the same labour market access as the relative they are joining. Formerly, there was generally a waiting period of one year and a priority check after the expiry of the one-year period.

Under the new act, language instruction and orientation to German law, history and culture are available to new arrivals and to a limited number of prior resident immigrants. These so-called “integration courses” are generally compulsory for immigrants lacking knowledge of the German language and a minimum level is required before a permanent residence permit can be granted. The new law has also imposed language requirements on family members of ethnic Germans.

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Inflows	9.7	7.9	7.3	7.3	8.3	7.8	602.2
Outflows	6.9	6.8	6.0	6.6	7.2	6.3	547.0
Long-term migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution				
Permit based statistics (harmonised)	2003	2004	2003	2004			
Work	46.2	38.5	19.4	19.1			
Family (incl. accompanying family)	99.2	90.4	41.6	44.7			
Humanitarian (incl. accompanying family)	20.1	14.2	8.5	7.0			
Others	72.9	59.1	30.6	29.2			
Temporary migration	2000	2003	2004	Annual average			
					2000-2004		
<i>Thousands</i>							
International students	45.1	60.1	58.2	55.0			
Trainees	3.6	2.3	2.3	2.8			
Working holiday makers			
Seasonal workers	219.0	269.8	289.8	259.5			
Intra-company transfers	1.3	2.1	2.3	1.9			
Other temporary workers	99.8	88.1	77.5	91.3			
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>	1.6	1.0	0.6	0.4	1.3	0.8	35.6

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
Real GDP (growth, %)	1.9	3.2	-0.2	1.6	1.7	0.7	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US dollars	1.6	3.1	-0.2	1.7	1.6	0.6	26 182
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	0.2	1.9	-1.0	0.4	0.5	-0.2	38 868
Unemployment (% of labour force)	7.1	6.9	8.7	9.2	7.8	7.9	
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
					1995-1999	2000-2004	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Total	3.4	1.1	-0.1	..	1.5	1.1	
Natural increase	-1.5	-0.9	-1.8	..	-1.0	-1.4	
Net migration	4.9	2.0	1.7	..	2.5	2.4	
Total population	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>(Annual growth %)</i>							
Native-born	-0.2	0.1	-0.1	..	-0.1
Foreign-born	4.4	0.8	0.9	..	2.1
National	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.8	0.1	0.3	75 752
Foreign	2.6	-0.6	-	-8.1	0.6	-2.0	6 739
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>As a percentage of foreign population</i>	1.0	2.5	1.9	1.7	1.1	2.1	127 153
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
					1995-1999	2000-2004	
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>							
Native-born men	..	73.8	71.9	71.0	73.4	72.5	
Foreign-born men	..	66.3	64.1	63.5	65.1	65.6	
Native-born women	..	59.6	60.8	60.5	59.0	60.4	
Foreign-born women	..	46.6	47.6	46.6	44.7	47.4	
<i>Unemployment rate</i>							
Native-born men	..	6.9	9.3	10.3	7.7	8.4	
Foreign-born men	..	12.9	16.9	18.3	15.3	14.7	
Native-born women	..	8.0	8.8	9.6	8.7	8.4	
Foreign-born women	..	12.1	14.1	15.2	15.6	12.9	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/140024251354>

Greece



Data on migration flows continue to be difficult to obtain in Greece, with much of the inflows in recent years being unauthorised. Recent developments involve a significant effort to harmonise

the national legal framework with EU standards, with a new law on migration.

The 2001 population census remains the source of reference for information on the foreign and foreign-born populations in Greece. The census counted 1 123 000 foreign-born persons (about 10.3% of the total population), of which 656 000 were foreigners. An additional 105 000 persons of foreign nationality were born in Greece. Various other sources that are more current give numbers for foreigners or for holders of residence permits that are 100 to 200 000 lower than the census figures. Residence permit data in particular from the Ministry of the Interior show 686 000 residence permits as of 30 August 2004, of which over 60% were held by Albanians. It is expected that the planned 2006 regularisation will provide additional information to supplement the data on residence permits.

A substantial revision of Greek law concerning the entry and stay of third-country nationals was proposed in May 2005 and is slated for implementation for 2006. The proposed law calls for:

- The establishment of an inter-ministerial committee with a view to ensure co-operation among all the competent services on migration issues.
- The introduction of a single stay and work permit, of 2-year duration, depending on local labour market supply and demand conditions and renewable for another two years.
- The transfer of legal competence with regard to the granting of permits from prefectures to regions.
- The introduction of a long-term residence permit for immigrants having lived in Greece for more than five years. The criteria for granting this permit will include a sufficient knowledge of the Greek

language, knowledge of the basics of Greek history and civilisation as well as the character and morals of the immigrant.

- The establishment of the conditions for family reunification for spouses of more than 18 years of age and minor children.
- The granting of seasonal work permits of a maximum 6 months' duration.
- The establishment of criteria for the granting of residence permits to members of artistic groups.
- Facilitated residence permit procedures for intellectual creators and members of foreign archaeological schools.
- The granting of permits to investors in an economic activity in Greece, with the requirement of a EUR 60 000 deposit in a bank.
- The simplification of requirements concerning Greek language knowledge for study permits.
- The introduction of special residence permits for foreign journalists and members of religious orders.
- The eligibility of legally resident immigrants for social security insurance and their benefiting of the same social, labour and security rights as Greek workers.
- In the case of expulsion, the immigrant has the right of appeal to the Minister of Public Order as well as the right to judicial protection. Expulsion is forbidden if an immigrant is a) a minor with parents residing legally in Greece; b) a parent of a child of Greek nationality; c) more than 80 years of age; d) recognised as a political refugee.
- Stronger border control and measures against clandestine networks.

Finally, the new law provides for the regularisation of two categories of irregular migrants residing in the country: a) those who have lost their legal status because of the expiry (before 23 August 2005) of a residence permit, not since renewed; b) those who have never stayed legally in the country, provided they can prove their presence in Greece before 1 January 2005.

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Inflows	3.5
Outflows
Long-term migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution				
Permit based statistics (harmonised)	2003	2004	2003	2004			
Work			
Family (incl. accompanying family)			
Humanitarian (incl. accompanying family)			
Others			
Temporary migration	2000	2003	2004	Annual average			
				2000-2004			
<i>Thousands</i>							
International students			
Trainees			
Working holiday makers			
Seasonal workers			
Intra-company transfers			
Other temporary workers			
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>	0.1	0.3	0.7	0.4	0.2	0.5	4.5

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
Real GDP (growth, %)	2.1	4.5	4.6	4.7	3.2	4.4	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US dollars	1.8	4.1	4.3	4.4	2.6	4.1	19 111
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	0.9	-0.2	1.3	2.9	0.8	1.0	4 093
Unemployment (% of labour force)	9.1	11.7	10.4	11.0	10.5	11.0	
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
					1995-1999	2000-2004	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Total	6.7	3.3	4.8	2.0	
Natural increase	0.1	-0.2	-0.2	..	-	-0.1	
Net migration	6.6	3.5	4.8	3.5	
Total population	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>(Annual growth %)</i>							
Native-born
Foreign-born
National
Foreign
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>As a percentage of foreign population</i>
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
					1995-1999	2000-2004	
Employment/population ratio							
Native-born men	72.3	71.3	72.7	73.3	71.8	72.1	
Foreign-born men	70.6	78.1	84.4	81.5	75.2	81.2	
Native-born women	37.8	41.6	44.2	45.3	39.2	43.1	
Foreign-born women	42.2	45.0	48.7	47.2	44.8	46.9	
Unemployment rate							
Native-born men	6.1	7.5	6.1	6.5	6.6	6.7	
Foreign-born men	14.3	9.5	6.6	6.4	12.0	7.7	
Native-born women	13.7	17.0	14.4	15.7	15.8	15.6	
Foreign-born women	20.6	21.4	15.9	18.8	22.2	19.3	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/184121451816>

Hungary



Migration movements from and to Hungary remained stable in 2004. There has been a substantial drop in asylum seekers in recent years. With EU-enlargement, the country

has revised its entry requirements for EU/EEE-citizens on a reciprocity basis.

Since 1999, inflows of foreign citizens into Hungary have oscillated between 18 000 and 20 000 and 2004 was no exception. Most of the inflows (close to 80%) consist of persons of Hungarian origin from neighbouring countries, in particular Romania, Ukraine and Serbia and Montenegro. Outflows, although at about a fifth of the level, of inflows, were at a ten-year high. The end-year stock of foreign citizens resident in Hungary stood at about 142 000, or about 1.4% of the total population, a relatively low level compared to most OECD countries.

Despite the relative stability in the inflow of foreigners, the number of residence visas, which are entry visas granted to persons who wish to enter with the intention to stay for more than one year, has tripled since 2002 and stood at about 45 000 in 2004, with citizens of neighbouring countries again being predominant. Persons with such visas can obtain a residence permit if they wish to prolong their stay. However, since the number of first-time residence permits granted is less than half of the number of residence visas, it would appear that many persons with residence visas do not stay on.

Applications for asylum decreased again in 2004 and at about 1 600 stand at one sixth of the level of 2001. Most applicants continue to arrive illegally, but the proportion of these is decreasing. The recognition rate was about 14%.

The number of work permits issued (maximum duration of one year) increased by over 10% to about 65 000, with an additional 14 000 registrations of persons from EU-enlargement countries, most from the Slovak Republic. Hungarian law imposes a maximum on the number of foreign citizens employed at one time through a work permit. The cap is estimated as the average number of vacancies at

the start of a month plus the average number reported over the month. In 2004, this maximum stood at 84 000 persons.

As of spring 2004 new regulations took effect regarding the seasonal employment of foreigners in agriculture. Work permits can be granted for up to 150 days in a 12 month period. Applications may be refused if the employer is unable to respect the working conditions required or pays a wage considerably below the national average.

With accession to the European Union, Hungary implemented a differential treatment regarding access to the Hungarian market for EEE-citizens depending on their degree of openness to Hungarian citizens. The four groups distinguished were: i) countries that apply no or a very weak transitory regime (the United Kingdom, Ireland, Sweden, Malta, Cyprus); ii) fellow new members of the EU (excluding Malta and Cyprus); iii) Denmark and Norway and iv) all other EEA-member states. Citizens of the first group are treated just like Hungarian nationals. Citizens of fellow new member countries need no work permit but must register with the authorities. Citizens from Denmark and Norway need a work permit but are not subject to an assessment of the labour market situation. Citizens of all other EEA-member states do not benefit from any advantage relative to over any other foreigner wishing to work in Hungary.

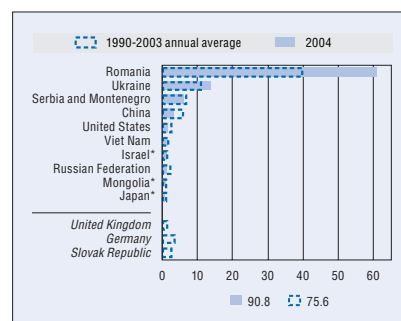
A new five-year residence permit for EEA nationals was introduced in 2004, in accordance with Community law. In addition, the process of harmonization of legislation on asylum with EU-standards was completed, with the adoption and enforcement of the provisions laid down in the Dublin Agreement.

In continuation of the provisions of the controversial "Status Law" of 2001, a referendum was held in the end of 2004, on the question of whether the state should offer citizenship to ethnic Hungarian minorities in neighbouring countries. This referendum took place, but the proposed law, involving a preferential scheme for non-citizens of Hungarian origin, had already been toned down by the parliament in 2003.

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Inflows	1.4	2.0	1.9	1.8	1.5	1.9	18.1
Outflows	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	3.4
Long-term migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution				
Permit based statistics (harmonised)	2003	2004	2003	2004			
Work			
Family (incl. accompanying family)			
Humanitarian (incl. accompanying family)			
Others			
Temporary migration	2000	2003	2004	Annual average			
					2000-2004		
<i>Thousands</i>							
International students			
Trainees			
Working holiday makers			
Seasonal workers			
Intra-company transfers			
Other temporary workers			
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>	-	0.8	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.5	1.6

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
Real GDP (growth, %)	1.5	5.2	3.4	4.6	3.7	4.0	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US dollars	0.8	5.5	3.7	4.9	3.9	4.2	14 325
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	-1.9	1.6	1.3	-0.6	1.2	0.3	3 856
Unemployment (% of labour force)	10.4	6.5	5.9	6.2	8.9	6.0	
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
					1995-1999	2000-2004	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Total	-1.5	-2.0	-2.4	-2.1	-2.2	-2.4	
Natural increase	-3.2	-3.7	-4	-3.8	-3.9	-3.7	
Net migration	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.3	
Total population	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>(Annual growth %)</i>							
Native-born	-0.1	-0.3	-0.3	-0.3	-0.2	-0.3	9 788
Foreign-born	..	1.8	1.7	3.6	0.5	2.0	319
National	-0.2	0.2	-0.4	-0.4	-0.3	-0.3	9 965
Foreign	1.4	-28.1	12.3	9.3	2.3	6.6	142
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>As a percentage of foreign population</i>	7.3	4.9	4.5	4.2	5.0	4.8	5 432
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
					1995-1999	2000-2004	
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>							
Native-born men	..	62.6	63.4	62.9	60.6	62.9	
Foreign-born men	..	69.4	74.8	74.6	68.0	71.7	
Native-born women	..	49.4	50.8	50.4	46.8	50.0	
Foreign-born women	..	49.8	53.7	50.7	48.3	49.3	
<i>Unemployment rate</i>							
Native-born men	..	7.3	6.2	5.9	9.0	6.4	
Foreign-born men	..	3.5	2.2	2.0	6.2	2.5	
Native-born women	..	5.8	5.4	5.9	7.4	5.4	
Foreign-born women	..	4.8	4.4	6.4	6.3	6.0	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/482107538523>

Ireland



The most significant development in Ireland concerns the large increase in inflows from the new accession states of the European Union. In addition applications for asylum

approximately halved from 2003 to 2004. A number of legislative and policy proposals have been put forward to respond to the new migration developments in Ireland.

Both gross and net migrations into Ireland are their highest levels ever at 70 000 and 53 000 respectively for the year ending April 2005. About three fourths of the inflows consisted of foreign nationals and about 26 000 were from the new accession states. These are estimates based on the Irish labour force survey. However, statistics based on Personal Public Service numbers, which are necessary to work in the Irish Republic, show 80 000 such number issued to persons from the new member states in the 12 months following enlargement. Some numbers may have been issued to persons already in the country and some were obtained fraudulently (estimated to be 10%). On the other hand, it is known labour force surveys tend to undercover recent arrivals, so the true picture may lie somewhere in between.

The large drop in work permits issued and renewed, in general, and in particular to persons from the accession states indicates that nationals of these countries are now playing a more significant role in the supply of foreign labour to the Irish labour market. The strong increase in inflows from these countries was accompanied by a drop in the skill profile of the jobs taken up by persons immigrating (fewer managers and professionals, more semi-skilled and unskilled workers).

The Employment Permits Bill 2005 is intended to put in place a statutory framework for an active managed economic migration policy. It proposes green cards, an intra-company transfer scheme and revised work permits system. It will enable the Minister for Enterprise, Trade and Employment to limit by regulation the number of work permits that may be granted and provides certain protections for non-nationals in employment.

A “green card” is to be established for occupations where there are skill shortages, with a restricted list of occupations in the annual salary range from 30-60 000 euros and a more extensive list of occupations for annual salaries over 60 000 euros. Green cards will be issued for two years in the first instance, with the possibility of long-term residence thereafter. The intra-company transfer scheme, suspended a few years ago, is to be re-established for temporary transnational management transfers for a period up to five years. The work permit scheme is modified to provide for a very restricted list of occupations in the annual salary range up to 30 000 euros where the shortage is one of labour rather than skills. The existing work permit system is modified by allowing both the employee and the employer to apply for an employment permit based on an offer of a job.

Policy proposals for a new Immigration and Residence Bill put forward for discussion cover a broad range of migration-related matters, in particular visas and pre-entry clearance; border controls; entry to the State; admission for the purposes of work, of self employment and research, of study and of family reunification; admission for non-economically active persons; residence status and residence permits; monitoring and compliance; removal from the State; and administration and delivery of services.

The Irish Naturalisation and Immigration Service (INIS) was established. This will provide a new structure that takes on the immigration and asylum responsibilities of the Departments of Justice and Foreign Affairs and also includes a new Immigrant Integration Unit whose focus will be on the integration of migrants into Irish society.

Prior to the May 2004 EU accession date, a habitual residency test was introduced which restricts access to social assistance and Child Benefit. The basic requirement is that a person must have been resident in Ireland or the UK for a continuous period of two years before making an application for social assistance. The introduction of the test has had an impact on asylum seekers entering after May 2004 who would previously have been entitled to certain benefits and payments. These are now dealt with through exceptional needs payments, to which the residency test does not apply.

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Inflows	3.8	7.3	8.3	8.2	5.6	8.5	33.2
Outflows
Long-term migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution				
Permit based statistics (harmonised)	2003	2004	2003	2004			
Work			
Family (incl. accompanying family)			
Humanitarian (incl. accompanying family)			
Others			
Temporary migration	2000	2003	2004	Annual average			
				2000-2004			
<i>Thousands</i>							
International students			
Trainees			
Working holiday makers			
Seasonal workers			
Intra-company transfers			
Other temporary workers			
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>	0.1	2.9	2.0	1.2	1.0	2.3	4.8

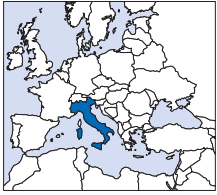
Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
Real GDP (growth, %)	9.6	9.2	4.4	4.5	9.8	5.3	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US dollars	9.2	7.8	2.7	2.7	8.7	3.6	33 133
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	4.9	4.8	1.9	3.0	5.5	2.5	1 865
Unemployment (% of labour force)	12.5	4.3	4.6	4.4	9.7	4.3	
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
					1995-1999	2000-2004	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Total	6.3	14.5	16.1	..	9.8	16.1	
Natural increase	4.7	6.1	8.3	..	5.3	7.4	
Net migration	1.6	8.4	7.8	..	4.4	8.7	
Total population	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>(Annual growth %)</i>							
Native-born	..	0.7	1.0	1.1	0.6	1.0	3 601
Foreign-born	..	7.4	6.8	6.3	6.7	7.7	443
National	..	1.1	0.7	1.7	0.8	1.1	3 821
Foreign	..	7.2	18.3	0.5	5.2	15.3	223
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>As a percentage of foreign population</i>
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
					1995-1999	2000-2004	
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>							
Native-born men	66.9	75.8	74.9	75.3	69.4	75.4	
Foreign-born men	65.0	74.5	73.1	74.1	68.4	74.6	
Native-born women	41.3	53.1	55.5	56.0	45.6	54.7	
Foreign-born women	42.0	55.6	53.2	54.3	47.5	55.1	
<i>Unemployment rate</i>							
Native-born men	12.0	4.4	4.7	4.9	9.5	4.5	
Foreign-born men	16.5	5.3	6.6	6.5	12.0	5.7	
Native-born women	11.9	4.1	3.8	3.7	9.0	3.7	
Foreign-born women	15.0	5.9	6.1	5.0	11.3	5.2	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/280767860528>

Italy



Italy remains an important destination country, with 320 000 first time residence permits issued in 2004. Romania, Albania and Morocco are confirmed as the main countries of origin.

Entries for family reunification recorded a significant increase over the previous year (+23%) accounting for more than 60% of long-term visas. The number of entries for dependent employment has increased (one third). The number of university students from abroad remains small.

Italy is a minor destination for asylum seekers. The number of applications, following a general trend, has strongly diminished in the last year and stood at about 9 700 in 2004.

The foreign population increased significantly in 2004, from about 2 000 000 individuals to 2 400 000. Romanian nationals showed the largest net increase, but Ukrainian nationals, particularly women, rose sharply in number. Among settled migrants there seems to be a very low rate of return. A stronger family presence is confirming itself, with an increase in births of foreign children (both parents foreigners) of over 42% in 2004, accounting for almost 9% of all births in Italy in 2004. Acquisition of citizenship among foreign residents remains uncommon, because of stringent eligibility requirements.

The immigrant labour force is continuing to grow. Regular contract work remains the predominant form of employment for foreigners. According to the Italian Chamber of Commerce, the expected demand for foreigners has increased in the past few years (from 164 000 in 2002 to 224 000 in 2003, which represent 24% and 33% respectively of the total predicted labour demand). In 2004, because of the saturation effect of the regularisation, the expected foreign labour demand dropped to 136 000. Permit quota levels for 2002 and 2003, however, stood at 79 500, but were increased by 36 000 and 79 500 for 2004 and 2005 respectively (see below).

Despite the 2002 regularisation, the domestic sector continues to attract many irregular foreign workers. Immigrant self-employment is also growing. While the total number of businesses (3.5 million) scarcely changed, those owned by the foreign-born rose by more than 18% to almost 190 000.

Following the EU enlargement in May 2004, Italy decided to apply transitional measures regulating the access to the labour market for citizens of all new accession states except Cyprus and Malta (the A8 countries). However, the Italian Government chose to allot a separate quota to A8 countries, by means of separate decrees allowing an additional 36 000 authorisations in 2004 and 79 500 in 2005.

Illegal immigration to Italy continues, although the presence of undocumented foreigners seems to be declining. The regularisation process launched in 2002 was closed in early 2004 with the issuing of almost 650 000 permits in total.

Close co-operation with Albania, Turkey and Egypt has led to a drop of arrivals on the coasts of Apulia and Calabria. The main path of illegal immigration in Italy remains the one through Libya and Sicily. Nevertheless the total number of undocumented migrants intercepted along southern Italian coasts has passed from about 24 000 in 2002 to 14 000 in 2004. Also the number of expulsions of undocumented foreigners has registered a significant drop since 2002.

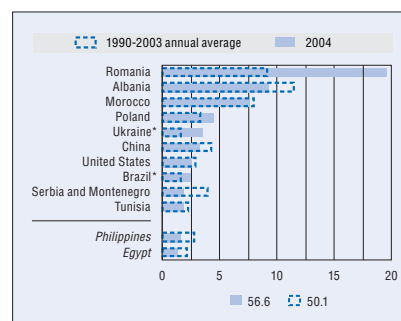
Anti-discrimination measures were reinforced in 2004, following the opening of the National Office for the Promotion of Equal Treatment and Removal of Racial and Ethnic Discriminations: The office has a national hotline for reporting of discrimination and to provide advice to callers, as well powers to investigate cases.

Major changes were made in 2005 concerning the asylum system. The new measures, which came into force in mid-2005, accelerate the review process and provide increased resources for social integration. Italy implemented the EU directive on minimum standards for asylum seekers on 30 May 2005.

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Inflows	..	4.7	..	5.5	3.3	5.3	319.3
Outflows
Long-term migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution				
Permit based statistics (harmonised)	2003	2004	2003	2004			
Work	37.5	50.0	30.8	31.9			
Family (incl. accompanying family)	78.8	96.5	64.7	61.7			
Humanitarian (incl. accompanying family)	0.7	3.1	0.6	2.0			
Others	4.8	6.8	4.0	4.4			
Temporary migration	2000	2003	2004	Annual average			
<i>Thousands</i>					2000-2004		
International students			
Trainees			
Working holiday makers	..	0.1	0.3	0.1			
Seasonal workers	..	68.0	77.0	72.5			
Intra-company transfers			
Other temporary workers			
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
	-	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	9.7

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



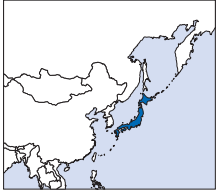
Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
Real GDP (growth, %)	2.9	3.0	0.3	1.2	1.6	0.9	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US dollars	2.7	2.8	0.2	1.1	1.5	0.7	25 731
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	-0.6	1.9	1.0	1.5	0.8	1.5	22 147
Unemployment (% of labour force)	11.7	10.7	8.8	8.1	11.8	9.3	
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Total	1.1	2.8	9.9	..	1.4	5.1	
Natural increase	-0.5	-0.3	-0.7	..	-0.5	-0.4	
Net migration	1.6	3.1	10.6	..	2.0	5.5	
Total population	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
<i>(Annual growth %)</i>							
Native-born
Foreign-born
National	0.1	0.1	-1.3	..	-0.1
Foreign	7.6	2.9	48.2	..	16.4
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
<i>As a percentage of foreign population</i>							
	1.1	0.7	0.9	0.5	0.8	0.7	11 934
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>							
Native-born men	66.4	67.4	69.2	69.8	66.5	68.6	
Foreign-born men	80.5	82.4	86.4	83.1	82.0	83.4	
Native-born women	35.5	39.3	42.7	45.0	36.6	41.9	
Foreign-born women	40.1	40.5	49.2	51.1	42.8	46.9	
<i>Unemployment rate</i>							
Native-born men	9.2	8.4	7.0	6.4	9.3	7.3	
Foreign-born men	7.0	6.5	3.8	5.7	6.4	5.5	
Native-born women	16.1	14.9	12.0	10.1	16.4	12.5	
Foreign-born women	24.5	21.2	10.5	13.2	18.2	16.1	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/663488602457>

Japan



Immigration into Japan remains limited with government policy being centred on the acceptance of foreign workers in high-skilled occupations, control over illegal migration and caution

with respect to admissions of less skilled workers.

The number of foreign nationals who entered Japan with a status other than temporary visitors was about 375 000 in 2004, virtually unchanged since 2003. This figure includes students, trainees and entertainers. If only those categories of persons who stay for more extended periods are included (investors and business managers, engineers, specialist in humanities/international services, skilled labour, dependents, designated activities, spouses or children of Japanese nationals or permanent residents and long-term residents), then inflows were about 88 000 in 2004, almost unchanged over the previous year.

The number of registered aliens (length of stay superior to 3 months) at the end of 2004 reached almost 2 million. Foreign nationals account for 1.5% of the total population, with Korean and Chinese citizens accounting for more than half. Naturalisations remain uncommon (about 16 000 in 2004) and concern predominantly Korean and Chinese nationals.

In May 2004 the total number of foreign students was the higher ever recorded (117 000), an increase of 7% on the previous year. The two main nationalities are again Chinese (66%) and Korean (13%). In 2004 more than 5 000 foreign students changed their status from “College student” to a residence status that allows them to work after graduation.

The estimated number of legal foreign workers was about 590 000 at the end of 2004, of which the vast majority were in “manufacturing”, “services” and “education and learning support”. In manufacturing, more than 50% of foreign workers are from South America.

The number of overstayers has decreased significantly since 1993 (–30%) to reach about 207 000 in January 2005, as a result of expanded efforts to counter irregular immigration and stay. In December 2003 an “Action plan for the realization of a society resistant to crime” was launched, with the

aim of reducing the number of illegal foreign residents by developing close co-operation and coordination between the government and law-and-order authorities. On 2 December 2004 the amended Immigration Control Act came into force introducing two new measures: the “departure order system” to facilitate immediate departure of illegal foreign nationals and the “status of residence revocation system” established for the purpose of removing illegal foreign residents. As a consequence, the number of executed deportation measures recorded a sharp increase in 2004 (+20%).

The general orientation of the Japanese government concerning work-related immigration consists in more actively promoting the acceptance of foreign workers in professional and technical fields while moving cautiously with respect to unskilled workers who would be expected to have a major impact on the Japanese economy, society and national life.

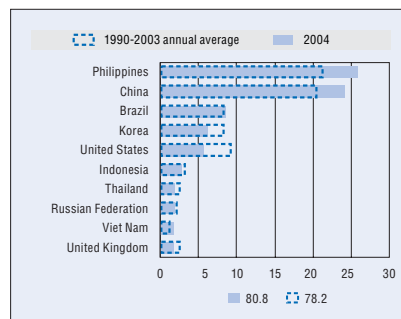
The Government announced a plan in 2002 to introduce 30 000 IT engineers by the end of 2005 as part of the “E-Japan strategy”. Foreign nationals who have passed or obtained prescribed IT examinations or qualifications are considered to fulfil the requirements for landing permission. New guidelines were published to facilitate the obtaining of permanent resident permits for highly-skilled workers.

Some legislative changes were introduced in 2004 in order to facilitate the access to work of some categories of immigrants. Foreign nationals holding a residence status as “college students” can now be granted a “temporary visitor” residence status that allows them to remain in Japan for 180 days after their graduation in order to find employment. Foreign nationals entitled to residence as spouses of Japanese nationals or descendants will now on be allowed to work in Japan without restrictions.

A new Immigration Act, establishing a revised refugee recognition system, entered into force on 16 May 2005. The main changes consist in the establishment of a system permitting provisional stay to illegal foreign nationals applying for refugee status, the introduction of a stable legal status for illegal foreign residents recognized as refugees and the review of the appeal system by the creation of the Refugee examination counsellors system.

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Inflows	1.7	2.7	2.9	2.9	2.0	2.8	372.0
Outflows	1.6	1.7	2.0	2.2	1.5	1.9	278.5
Long-term migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution				
<i>Permit based statistics (harmonised)</i>	2003	2004	2003	2004			
Work	17.6	19.5	20.5	22.1			
Family (incl. accompanying family)	37.5	37.4	43.6	42.4			
Humanitarian (incl. accompanying family)	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2			
Others	30.6	31.1	35.7	35.3			
Temporary migration	2000	2003	2004	Annual average			
					2000-2004		
<i>Thousands</i>							
International students	41.9	52.8	37.0	45.9			
Trainees	54.0	64.8	75.4	62.4			
Working holiday makers			
Seasonal workers			
Intra-company transfers	3.9	3.4	3.6	3.4			
Other temporary workers	114.3	143.7	146.6	133.4			
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.4

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
as a % of total inflows of foreigners

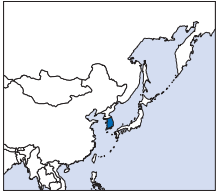
Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
Real GDP (growth, %)	2.0	2.4	1.3	2.7	1.0	1.0	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US dollars	1.5	2.2	1.2	2.6	0.8	0.8	26 875
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	0.1	-0.2	-0.2	0.2	-	-0.5	63 286
Unemployment (% of labour force)	3.2	4.7	5.3	4.7	3.7	5.0	
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
					1995-1999	2000-2004	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Total	1.7	2.1	2.1	2.1	
Natural increase	2.1	1.8	2.1	1.8	
Net migration	-0.4	0.3	-	0.3	
Total population	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>(Annual growth %)</i>							
Native-born
Foreign-born
National	0.4	0.1	0.1	-	0.2	0.1	125 713
Foreign	0.6	8.4	3.4	3.1	3.4	4.0	1 974
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>As a percentage of foreign population</i>	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.9	16 336

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/053003855045>

Korea



Entries of long-term migrants (permit duration > 1 year) continue to increase in Korea. Problems with illegal foreign workers continue, however, with policy measures attempting to address the causes.

Over 450 000 long-term immigrants entered Korea in 2004, a 60 000 increase compared to 2003. Most of these are on one- or two-year permits, however, and include trainees, students, language teachers, persons with special occupations and family visitors. Persons entering for longer term settlement (permit duration 5 years) numbered about 76 000, a 20 000 increase over the previous year.

In 2003, the regularisation provisions resulted in a drop of about 150 000 overstayers. About half of overstayers did not come forward to regularise their situation. At the same time, the introduction of the work-permit system (see below) resulted in an increase of similar amount of illegal workers. Early 2004, there were 212 500 work visa holders. This figure has decreased since. It was 196 600 at the end of 2005 and 125 000 in early 2006. As a result, with the decline in visa holders and trainees in 2004 and early 2005, overstayers accounted for about 55% of all unskilled workers in mid-2005.

Policy changes in Korea have focused on the industrial trainee system and the work permit system. The former was designed to help small- and medium-sized employers but was criticised on the grounds that trainees were really foreign workers. Often these workers had paid agents to get them to Korea, but many left their training places for other jobs and did not return home. In 2004 the new government brought in a work permit system for unskilled workers and in May 2005 it decided to abolish the industrial trainee system as from January 2007. The government proposes to introduce various measures to rationalise the work permit system and make it the only programme for bringing foreign workers into Korea.

Firstly, migrant workers and the Korean businesses that hire them will be exempt from paying into the national pension plan. While Korean workers and their employers are required to split the cost of an employee's pension payments, migrant workers will be allowed to waive the otherwise mandatory employment insurance. Instead, the government is considering signing social welfare agreements with countries that send workers to Korea.

Secondly, measures to simplify the procedures for hiring migrant workers will be put in place, including the establishment of an institution to support Korean businesses when recruiting migrant workers. An electronic visa scheme will be introduced to reduce the time in processing applications, with a linking of the computer systems of the Ministries of Justice and Labour. Employers will be allowed to replace migrant workers if the existing ones are scheduled to leave within three months.

Thirdly, in order to prevent migrant workers from being exploited, only public institutions in sending countries will be permitted to act as recruitment agencies and to charge agency fees, following an inter-governmental Memorandum of Understanding. In the event of discrepancies between the official and the actual fees, the MOU will be cancelled. Sending country governments will also be expected to play a role in preventing their nationals working in Korea from leaving their contracted workplace for another job. A clause to send illegal workers back to their own country will be included in the MOU.

Fourthly, countries that send their nationals under the industrial trainee scheme will be given the MOU under the work permit programme if they meet certain requirements, including those of transparency. So far, MOUs have been signed with the governments of the Philippines, Sri Lanka, Vietnam, Thailand, Indonesia and Mongolia, with twelve more planned.

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2003
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Inflows	..	3.9	3.7	3.7	178.3
Outflows	3.2	152.3
Long-term migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners		
<i>Permit based statistics (harmonised)</i>	2003	2004	2003	2004			
Work			
Family (incl. accompanying family)			
Humanitarian (incl. accompanying family)			
Others			
Temporary migration	2000	2003	2004	Annual average 2000-2004			
<i>Thousands</i>							
International students	..	12.3	18.9	15.6			
Trainees	..	58.8	46.7	52.7			
Working holiday makers			
Seasonal workers			
Intra-company transfers	..	7.8	8.5	8.2			
Other temporary workers	..	7.2	8.3	7.7			
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>	-	-	-	-	1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
					-	-	0.1

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
Real GDP (growth, %)	9.2	8.5	3.1	4.6	3.4	4.6	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US dollars	8.1	7.6	2.6	4.1	2.5	4.0	19 148
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	2.9	4.3	-0.1	1.9	-0.2	1.6	22 557
Unemployment (% of labour force)	2.1	4.4	3.6	3.7	4.0	3.8	
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Total	
Natural increase	
Net migration	
Total population	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
<i>(Annual growth %)</i>							
Native-born
Foreign-born
National	1.0	0.8	0.1	0.4	0.8	0.4	47 613
Foreign	29.6	24.4	73.5	7.1	11.3	22.2	469
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
<i>As a percentage of foreign population</i>							
	1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
				

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/286476303444>

Luxembourg



The foreign resident population has been steadily increasing for several decades in Luxembourg. Policy is placing more and more emphasis on the schooling of immigrant children.

Net migration of foreigners declined to about 1 580 in 2004, compared to 2 070 in 2003 and has been falling continuously since 1999. With arrivals at about 12 500 and departures at 10 900, it is clear that the statistics record many short-term movements. Foreign nationals by year-end 2004 accounted for fully 39% of the total population, the highest among all OECD countries.

Portuguese nationals account for about two thirds of the increase in net migration, with the new accession states accounting for the remainder. Inflows are becoming more feminised: in 2004 net women's migration was 15% higher than men's.

The 2002 nationality law significantly lowered the age and duration of residence required to apply for naturalisation. Under the new law, persons must be eighteen years of age and have resided in Luxembourg in the five years preceding the request. In addition, the categories of persons able to obtain nationality by option was expanded to include, among others, children born in the country of a foreign parent, born abroad to a person born in Luxembourg or born abroad to a foreigner having had all of his/her required schooling in Luxembourg. As a result of this change, naturalisations increased by about 40% and concerned about 840 persons in 2004.

In contrast to most other countries the number of asylum seekers increased by about 17% in 2004 to 1 580. Most are from Africa or the Balkans and are men, with a notable increase in unaccompanied minors.

Resident foreigners represent 27% of wage and salary workers while cross-border workers 40%. The number of cross-border workers is increasing at four times the rate of resident workers.

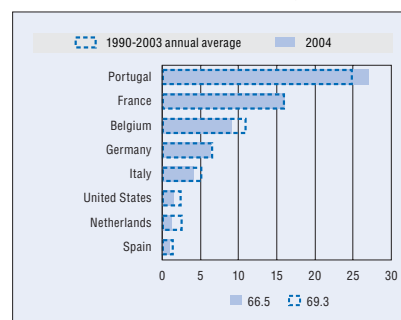
The integration in schools of foreign children is an issue of significant concern in Luxembourg both because of the large number of foreign students in schools but also because of acknowledged difficulties related to the trilingualism of the country. Foreign students represented 36% of all students and of these almost 53% are Portuguese.

From 2005/2006, all communes are obliged to establish pre-school education programmes, with Luxembourgish to be taught but the native language of the child taken into account. There are numerous measures implemented to ensure that children of foreign origin obtain the same treatment as Luxembourg children. Other programmes in place include the training of teachers, information sessions for parents of students, information meetings for associations, language courses in Italian and Portuguese, intercultural mediation, specific measures for children of asylum seekers and international exchanges.

As of 22 February 2003, all foreign residents are allowed to vote in communal elections.

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Inflows	23.2	24.7	25.6	25.0	24.0	25.0	11.3
Outflows	12.0	16.3	20.9	21.2	14.2	18.9	9.6
Long-term migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution				
Permit based statistics (harmonised)	2003	2004	2003	2004			
Work			
Family (incl. accompanying family)			
Humanitarian (incl. accompanying family)			
Others			
Temporary migration	2000	2003	2004	Annual average			
<i>Thousands</i>					2000-2004		
International students			
Trainees			
Working holiday makers			
Seasonal workers			
Intra-company transfers			
Other temporary workers			
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
	1.0	1.4	3.4	3.5	2.7	2.5	1.6

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
as a % of total inflows of foreigners

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
Real GDP (growth, %)	1.4	9.0	2.9	4.5	6.6	2.9	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US dollars	–	7.5	2.1	4.1	5.1	2.1	53 301
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	0.9	4.2	0.9	1.3	1.7	1.6	198
Unemployment (% of labour force)	3.0	2.6	3.7	4.2	3.2	3.2	
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Total	15.1	12.8	7.4	7.5	13.8	8.7	
Natural increase	3.9	4.5	2.8	4.0	3.9	3.7	
Net migration	11.2	8.3	4.6	3.5	9.9	5.0	
Total population	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
<i>(Annual growth %)</i>							
Native-born	0.7	0.2	0.8	0.3	0.5	0.9	302
Foreign-born	3.3	2.2	1.0	0.8	2.7	0.8	150
National	0.2	–0.5	0.1	–0.4	–0.2	0.3	275
Foreign	4.2	3.3	2.1	1.8	3.7	1.9	177
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
<i>As a percentage of foreign population</i>							
	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	841
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2003	2004			
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>							
Native-born men	70.7	73.2	69.3	68.8			
Foreign-born men	81.3	78.1	79.4	77.6			
Native-born women	38.8	46.5	48.6	47.6			
Foreign-born women	48.8	55.3	57.2	54.8			
<i>Unemployment rate</i>							
Native-born men	2.3	2.4			
Foreign-born men	3.9	4.4			
Native-born women	3.6	4.5			
Foreign-born women	5.9	9.6			

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/068722722165>

Mexico



The flow of Mexican citizens across the northern border to the United States, many of them undocumented, continues while the southern border is increasingly used by citizens of Latin and South

America on their way to the United States. An trilateral alliance known as the Security and Prosperity Partnership was adopted by Mexico, Canada and the United States, with spheres of action involving the movement of people. The principle of shared responsibility for migration among sending and receiving countries is at the heart of ongoing reflection in Mexico.

The statistic closest to describing the level of inflows into Mexico relates to foreign workers, of which 69 000 entered Mexico in 2004, roughly in the same range every year since 1989. Seasonal workers from Belize and Guatemala are particularly important, but are declining steadily since the year 2000. The foreign-born population stands at about 430 000 persons or 0.4% of the total population. By contrast, the Mexican-born population of the United States exceeds 10 million people and accounts for almost one third of all immigrants in the United States.

Flows of Mexican nationals leaving to settle indefinitely in the United States are estimated by Mexican authorities to be currently more than 400 000, at least half of whom enter the United States without the proper documentation. Other estimates place the level of undocumented migration even higher, at close to half a million.

The Security and Prosperity Partnership involving the three NAFTA countries specifies a long list of actions entrusted to 23 task forces, which will report every six months to heads of state of the three countries. The sphere of action in the migration area ranges from shared technology for registering passengers in North America, shared access to databases, special clearance for pre-cleared border residents, coordinated visa policies, exchange of intelligence information on certain persons and fast-track lanes, among others.

Policy within Mexico is focusing on proposals for an integrated migration policy for Mexico's southern border, based on the notion of

co-responsibility. The aim is improve border management and facilitate migration flows, while respecting the rights of migrants and keeping the country's borders secure. The proposal is composed of four strategic lines:

- The facilitation of documented migration flows whose temporary or final destination are the states along Mexico's southern border. Specific objectives are to facilitate the documentation and entry of temporary workers and of local visitors, tourists and business travellers across the southern border, fostering the use of migration documents and the diffusion of their benefits.
- The protection of the rights of migrants entering through Mexico's southern border. Specific objectives include intensifying the training of personnel; supervision of migrant rights during holding, lodging and repatriation; timely treatment of cases of migrant rights violations; legal protection of migrants who are victims of trafficking or smuggling; better co-ordination of authorities concerned with migrant rights; and stronger protection of the rights of refugees, asylum seekers and stateless individuals.
- Contribution to security on the southern border. Specific objectives are to reinforce migration control and the verification of foreigners' legal stay in Mexico; combating trafficking and human smuggling in co-ordination with other institutions, especially where women and minors are involved; providing better information exchange between institutions involved in combating criminal activities; and taking measures to combat corruption among immigration authorities.
- The permanent updating of migration flow management and legislation, in order better to handle the changing dynamics of migration on the southern border. Specific objectives include the modernisation of the infrastructure for the registration and control of migration flows; implementation of specific mechanisms for the collection and analysis of information for decision making; evaluation of programmes, projects and actions to obtain appropriate feedback; and adaptation of legislation in the light of the changing dynamics of migration in the region.

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Inflows	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	..
Outflows	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.3	..
Long-term migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (harmonised)	Thousands		% distribution				
	2003	2004	2003	2004			
Work			
Family (incl. accompanying family)			
Humanitarian (incl. accompanying family)			
Others			
Temporary migration	2000	2003	2004	Annual average			
				2000-2004			
<i>Thousands</i>							
International students			
Trainees			
Working holiday makers			
Seasonal workers			
Intra-company transfers			
Other temporary workers			
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
Real GDP (growth, %)	-6.2	6.6	1.4	4.4	5.2	1.6	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US dollars	-7.0	5.0	0.1	3.1	3.2	0.3	9 200
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	1.5	1.8	1.1	3.9	3.4	1.9	41 272
Unemployment (% of labour force)	5.8	2.2	2.5	3.0	3.7	2.5	
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
					1995-1999	2000-2004	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Total	
Natural increase	
Net migration	
Total population	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>(Annual growth %)</i>							
Native-born
Foreign-born
National
Foreign
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>As a percentage of foreign population</i>							
	5 554

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/254148808413>

Netherlands



Net migration for the Netherlands became negative in 2003 (that is, there was an excess of outflows over inflows) and figures for 2004 show a widening gap. A tightening of asylum policy

has resulted in a considerable reduction of both flows and stocks of asylum seekers. At the same time, measures have been taken in order to stimulate the inflow of high-skilled citizens and of low-skilled temporary immigrants in specific occupations.

In 2003 the Dutch central statistical office (CBS) reported for the first time in a decade that emigrants outnumbered immigrants. In 2004 the net outflow was close to 16 000. While departures of foreigners rose by almost a tenth to roughly 24 000, immigration of foreigners decreased strongly in relative terms (-12%) to about 65 000. However, the emigration of Dutch nationals also increased compared to 2003 (+10% to just over 51 000) and returns declined (-7% to 29 000). In contrast to this background of decreasing immigration, the number of Polish immigrants more than doubled to almost 5 000 individuals or 7% of total immigration. This contributed to a rise in the share EU-25 citizens among immigrants from less than a third in 2003 to almost 40% in 2004.

Asylum requests continued to fall in 2004 reflecting geopolitical changes but also changes in admission and return policies, introduced in the Aliens Act of 2000. Requests decreased by about one fourth relative to 2003, down to 9 800, the lowest number in more than a decade.

Conversely, labour migration remained an expanding phenomenon in 2004, despite a stagnant labour market. 44 000 temporary work permits were issued, an increase of almost 16%. Permits allocated to citizens of the new EU-member states (excluding Cyprus and Malta) almost doubled in numbers and accounted for over half of all permits issued that year. Virtually the entire increase was accounted for by higher inflows of Polish workers.

Citizens of the new member states do not belong to the “priority labour supply” until 2006, i.e. they can

only be recruited if there is no citizen from EU-15/EFTA-countries, Malta, or Cyprus available for a vacant job. However, given persisting labour shortages in a number of specific occupations, the Dutch government adopted measures in early 2004 to encourage labour immigration in selected areas. Since then, the central organisation for Work and Income (CWI) has been publishing a list of occupations (updated every 3 months) for which there is considered to exist an acute labour shortage. Citizens of new member countries can then be recruited without the need of an individual labour market test and can benefit from facilitated administrative procedures.

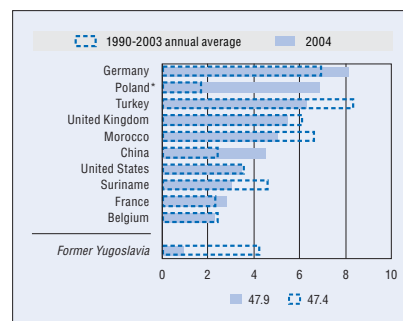
A new scheme for high-skilled immigrants was introduced in autumn 2004. “High skilled” refers to scientific researchers at universities as well as people who are able to earn more than 45 000 euros, or 32 600 if they are under 30. Those persons do not need a work permit and a decision is taken on a (provisional) residence permit within two weeks. After five years they are authorised to receive a permanent residence permit.

In response to critics of the asylum policy introduced by the Alien Act in 2000, some modifications have been introduced. As of autumn 2004 accepted asylum seekers receive a five-year rather than a three-year residence permit; after five years they can apply for a permanent residence permit.

As of 2006, immigrants will be confronted with tighter regulations with respect to the introduction and integration schemes. Prior to entry, they must have some basic knowledge of the Dutch language, which is tested in Dutch embassies abroad. This applies to asylum seekers as well. Once in the country, new entrants (including asylum seekers) must pass an immigration introduction exam within five years. This is obligatory as well for some former migrants, particularly those benefiting from social benefits or who are inactive. In general, an unrestricted residence permit is granted only if the exam is passed.

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Inflows	4.3	5.7	4.5	4.0	4.9	5.1	65.1
Outflows	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.3	23.5
Long-term migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution				
<i>Permit based statistics (harmonised)</i>	2003	2004	2003	2004			
Work	16.6	15.6	27.3	27.5			
Family (incl. accompanying family)	34.4	28.4	56.5	49.8			
Humanitarian (incl. accompanying family)	9.8	13.0	16.1	22.8			
Others	-	-	-	-			
Temporary migration	2000	2003	2004	Annual average			
				2000-2004			
<i>Thousands</i>							
International students			
Trainees			
Working holiday makers			
Seasonal workers			
Intra-company transfers			
Other temporary workers	..	4.5	8.0	6.3			
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>	1.9	2.8	0.8	0.6	2.2	1.5	9.8

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
as a % of total inflows of foreigners

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
Real GDP (growth, %)	3.0	3.5	-0.1	1.7	3.8	0.8	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US dollars	2.5	2.7	-0.6	1.4	3.2	0.2	28 726
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	2.3	2.3	-0.4	-0.7	2.7	0.3	8 224
Unemployment (% of labour force)	6.8	3.0	4.0	4.9	5.3	3.5	
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
					1995-1999	2000-2004	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Total	5.7	7.6	3.6	2.1	6.8	5.7	
Natural increase	3.6	4.2	3.6	3.5	3.6	3.8	
Net migration	2.1	3.4	-	-1.4	3.1	1.9	
Total population	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>(Annual growth %)</i>							
Native-born	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	14 539
Foreign-born	1.4	3.8	1.0	0.2	2.6	1.8	1 736
National	0.7	0.6	0.5	0.3	0.7	0.5	15 576
Foreign	-4.2	2.5	0.3	-0.4	-2.7	1.2	699
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>As a percentage of foreign population</i>	9.4	7.7	4.1	..	8.1	5.0	..
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
					1995-1999	2000-2004	
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>							
Native-born men	77.0	84.0	83.2	81.9	79.6	83.6	
Foreign-born men	56.2	69.9	68.8	68.4	61.1	70.2	
Native-born women	54.9	65.6	68.0	68.1	58.5	67.3	
Foreign-born women	38.4	48.8	51.6	51.5	43.8	51.5	
<i>Unemployment rate</i>							
Native-born men	4.9	1.8	2.7	3.6	3.5	2.3	
Foreign-born men	19.6	5.4	9.0	10.4	13.6	6.9	
Native-born women	7.7	3.0	3.2	4.3	6.3	3.1	
Foreign-born women	19.5	7.6	8.7	10.5	12.7	7.4	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/552216526771>

New Zealand



In 2004/2005 net migration in New Zealand continued to decrease but remained positive. The inflow of skilled immigrants picked up again. Some major revisions of past acts and administrative

regulations concerning immigration were undertaken.

Arrivals and departures of permanent and long-term migrants in (78 600) and out (71 700) of New Zealand continued converging in 2004/2005, with departures increasing and arrivals diminishing. Net migration stood at about 7 000 for the year, a reduction of almost two thirds from the previous year. This was due to a decrease in arrivals of international students and in permanent visas granted abroad, combined with a sizable return of foreign students to their home countries. Outward mobility of New Zealanders has also been more pronounced, in particular to Australia.

After a fall in the previous fiscal year, permanent residence approval numbers increased by about 25% in 2004/2005, returning to the 48 800 level. Over this period the "Skilled" categories (including family members) rebounded to over half of all approved people, compared to about 40% in the previous year. More than 70% of the principal applicants approved in these categories were already in the country at the time of application and more than a quarter were employed in either education or health occupations. With the business category added in, the Immigration Programme attained its quota of 60% for the combined Business/Skills stream.

With the increased international competition for students, entries for study fell by almost 11% to roughly 78 000 (almost 2% of the population) in 2004/2005. Even though existing quotas have not been exhausted, the Working Holiday Scheme is being expanded. By 2006/2007 up to 40 000 18-30 year olds from partner countries will be allowed to spend 12 months in the country and engage in temporary work.

The considerable increase in the number of work permits issued (+12% to almost 82 500) is largely accounted for by a growing number of work permits issued to partners of New Zealand citizens and

residents and to partners of work permit holders. In the horticultural sector, employers have been authorised to recruit overseas workers for seasonal work from summer 2004 on. By providing legal ways to address short-term labour shortages, this pilot project is expected to help to combat illicit employment.

The Skilled Migrant Category introduced at the end of 2003 was amended in December 2004 in order to make it more responsive to labour market requirements. The number of points allocated to applicants with work experience was increased, the range of occupations recognised as skilled was broadened and weight was given to close family members already in New Zealand.

The aim of new legislation on students is also to improve the competitiveness of New Zealand as a destination for skilled individuals. Access to the labour market is facilitated during their course of study. In addition, partners of postgraduate students or of students studying in areas of absolute skill shortages will be entitled to work. After completion of study, graduates can apply for a six-month open work permit, provided they have a qualification that would gain points under the SMC.

The 2004 Budget saw additional funding of NZ\$ 62 million allocated to a range of settlement-related services. These include enhanced provision of English for children in schools, more funding for resettlement of refugees, the development of a network of migrant resource services and additional careers advice and support for unemployed migrants.

Citizenship legislation was amended in 2005 to address a number of international security and application integrity issues. A number of prerequisites have been tightened, in particular the minimum length of residence in the country prior to application, which has been increased from six months in each of the previous three years to about eight months in each of the previous five years. Time spent on temporary permits does not count and applicants with serious criminal convictions cannot receive citizenship. Lastly, citizenship will be granted to a child born in New Zealand, only if at least one parent is already a citizen or resident. Otherwise the child will have the more favourable immigration status of either parent.

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)																																							
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004																																							
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>																																														
Inflows	15.2	9.8	10.7	8.9	10.1	11.1	36.2																																							
Outflows	2.9	4.0	6.3	7.1	3.7	6.1	29.0																																							
Long-term migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (harmonised)	Thousands		% distribution		<p style="text-align: center;">Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners</p> <table border="1"> <caption>Data for Inflows of top 10 nationalities (as a % of total inflows)</caption> <thead> <tr> <th>Nationality</th> <th>1990-2003 annual average</th> <th>2004</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr><td>United Kingdom</td><td>~15</td><td>73.8</td></tr> <tr><td>China</td><td>~5</td><td>~5</td></tr> <tr><td>India</td><td>~3</td><td>~3</td></tr> <tr><td>South Africa</td><td>~2</td><td>~2</td></tr> <tr><td>Fiji</td><td>~1</td><td>~1</td></tr> <tr><td>Samoa</td><td>~1</td><td>~1</td></tr> <tr><td>Korea</td><td>~1</td><td>~1</td></tr> <tr><td>Tonga</td><td>~1</td><td>~1</td></tr> <tr><td>United States</td><td>~1</td><td>~1</td></tr> <tr><td>Philippines</td><td>~1</td><td>~1</td></tr> <tr><td>Hong Kong, China</td><td>~1</td><td>~1</td></tr> <tr><td>Chinese Taipei</td><td>~1</td><td>~1</td></tr> </tbody> </table>			Nationality	1990-2003 annual average	2004	United Kingdom	~15	73.8	China	~5	~5	India	~3	~3	South Africa	~2	~2	Fiji	~1	~1	Samoa	~1	~1	Korea	~1	~1	Tonga	~1	~1	United States	~1	~1	Philippines	~1	~1	Hong Kong, China	~1	~1	Chinese Taipei	~1	~1
Nationality	1990-2003 annual average	2004																																												
United Kingdom	~15	73.8																																												
China	~5	~5																																												
India	~3	~3																																												
South Africa	~2	~2																																												
Fiji	~1	~1																																												
Samoa	~1	~1																																												
Korea	~1	~1																																												
Tonga	~1	~1																																												
United States	~1	~1																																												
Philippines	~1	~1																																												
Hong Kong, China	~1	~1																																												
Chinese Taipei	~1	~1																																												
Work	11.9	10.6	24.6	25.6																																										
Family (incl. accompanying family)	31.6	27.3	65.3	65.5																																										
Humanitarian (incl. accompanying family)	4.9	3.7	10.1	8.9																																										
Others	-	-	-	-																																										
Temporary migration	2000	2003	2004	Annual average																																										
<i>Thousands</i>					2000-2004																																									
International students	45.8	87.1	77.6	74.4																																										
Trainees	0.8	2.0	2.4	1.5																																										
Working holiday makers	13.0	20.7	21.4	18.5																																										
Seasonal workers																																										
Intra-company transfers																																										
Other temporary workers	24.1	40.3	43.7	35.0																																										
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)																																							
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004																																							
	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.3	0.6																																							

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
Real GDP (growth, %)	4.1	2.3	3.6	4.4	2.6	4.0	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US dollars	2.5	1.7	2.0	3.2	1.7	2.6	22 987
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	4.5	1.7	2.3	3.4	1.2	2.8	2 017
Unemployment (% of labour force)	6.2	6.0	4.6	3.9	6.6	5.0	
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Total	15.8	4.8	15.7	11.1	10.3	11.5	
Natural increase	8.1	7.7	7	7.4	7.8	7.2	
Net migration	7.7	-2.9	8.7	3.7	2.5	4.3	
Total population	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
<i>(Annual growth %)</i>							
Native-born	..	0.1	1.5	1.1	0.7	0.8	3 298
Foreign-born	..	3.0	3.1	2.0	2.1	3.6	764
National
Foreign
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
<i>As a percentage of foreign population</i>					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
	22 142

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/228306366814>

Norway



Net migration of foreigners to Norway increased slightly in 2004. At the same time, there has been a strong decline in the number of asylum seekers. In addition, the government has taken

extensive legislative measures to forestall discrimination.

During 2004 the immigration of foreign citizens to Norway increased to almost 28 000 whereas outflows diminished to about 14 000; however, in both cases the changes were small relative to 2003. The increase in the number of immigrants was mainly attributable to the new EU member states Poland and Lithuania. Profiting from greater mobility after EU enlargement, immigrants from these two countries almost tripled in numbers, but still accounted for less than 1 400 new migrants (net) in total.

The number of employment-related permits issued increased again from 2003 to 2004, in line with trends over the preceding decade. They stood at 33 000 an increase of 30% over 2003. With EU enlargement, the share of EEA permits in all permits rose from just 13% in 2003 to almost three quarters in 2004. This was accompanied by a strong drop in seasonal work permits and in unrestricted skilled work permits granted to persons from these countries. The number of work permits for specialised/skilled workers issued in 2004 (about 750) is far below the limit provided for by law (5 000).

The requirement of an EEA-permit before starting to work for citizens of the new EU accession states reflects the application by Norway of a (minimum) two-year transitional period for movements of persons from these countries. In order for this permit to be granted, employment must be full-time and at standard pay and working conditions.

Family ties remain the most important source of long-term immigration and this continued in 2004, with about 12 750 entries, accounting for about 60% of long-term migration. More than half of the cases involved husbands, wives or partners while one third were children reunited with or entering with (one of) the parents.

The number of asylum seekers decreased strongly, by almost a half to less 8 000. Less than 10% were granted asylum, but an additional 3 600 claimants were granted humanitarian status, based on the need for protection or significant concerns such as health problems.

Legislation on asylum was modified in 2005. Applications are now processed into three streams, one for applications that can be rejected with no need for further inquiries, one for those that can be approved with no need for further verification and one for those that require verification. Readmission agreements were concluded with countries for which returns have proved difficult.

Refugees and persons granted humanitarian status along with family members joining them are the target group of the introduction programme, which provides basic skills in the Norwegian language, insight into Norwegian society and preparation for participation in working life or further education. The programme will normally last up to two years and is obligatory for persons 18-55 within the relevant groups.

Legislation on citizenship has been modified in 2005 in accordance with the European Convention on Nationality (1997) and will come into force in 2006. Under the new law, language skills must be documented before citizenship is granted. Children at birth obtain the citizenship of both their parents. Dual citizenship remains prohibited.

Lastly, the government's plan of action against discrimination (2002-2006) has led it to propose a number of measures in this regard with respect to the labour market, public services, school and education, local communities and judicial protection against ethnic discrimination and racist expressions. Noteworthy are the improvement in interpretation services, a strengthening of the minority perspective in public service provision and a requirement to interview at least one qualified immigrant applicant (if any) when making new public enterprise appointments. In addition an anti discrimination bill on the basis of the EU Council's 2000 directive was adopted, implementing the principle of equal treatment of persons irrespective of racial or ethnic origin.

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Inflows	3.8	6.2	5.9	6.1	5.2	6.1	27.9
Outflows	2.1	3.3	3.1	2.0	2.4	2.9	9.0
Long-term migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (harmonised)	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners		
Work	1.1	1.3	6.1	6.0			
Family (incl. accompanying family)	10.5	12.8	55.9	59.9			
Humanitarian (incl. accompanying family)	7.1	7.2	37.9	33.5			
Others	-	0.1	0.1	0.5			
Temporary migration	2000	2003	2004	Annual average 2000-2004			
<i>Thousands</i>							
International students	2.3	3.4	3.9	3.0			
Trainees	..	0.5	0.5	0.5			
Working holiday makers			
Seasonal workers	9.9	17.9	25.4	16.2			
Intra-company transfers			
Other temporary workers	..	2.5	2.1	2.3			
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>	0.3	2.4	3.5	1.7	1.1	3.0	7.9

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
Real GDP (growth, %)	4.4	2.8	1.1	2.8	3.8	1.9	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US dollars	3.9	2.2	0.6	2.2	3.2	1.4	38 317
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	2.2	0.4	-0.8	0.3	2.1	0.1	2 275
Unemployment (% of labour force)	4.9	3.4	4.5	4.5	4.0	4.0	
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Total	4.8	5.3	5.2	6.1	6.0	5.5	
Natural increase	3.4	3.3	2.8	3.3	3.4	2.9	
Net migration	1.4	2	2.4	2.8	2.6	2.5	
Total population	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
<i>(Annual growth %)</i>							
Native-born	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	4 231
Foreign-born	3.0	4.3	4.0	4.0	5.0	4.3	361
National	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	4 379
Foreign	-1.9	3.2	3.6	4.2	2.7	3.7	213
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
<i>As a percentage of foreign population</i>							
	7.2	5.3	4.0	4.0	5.4	4.8	8 154
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>							
Native-born men	76.7	82.3	79.0	78.6	80.6	80.4	
Foreign-born men	63.6	75.3	73.0	70.9	71.9	73.4	
Native-born women	68.4	74.6	73.4	73.4	72.1	74.2	
Foreign-born women	55.6	63.3	61.4	62.0	60.6	63.3	
<i>Unemployment rate</i>							
Native-born men	6.1	3.4	4.0	4.3	4.2	3.8	
Foreign-born men	11.0	6.8	11.0	8.9	7.7	8.7	
Native-born women	6.1	3.2	3.8	3.7	4.6	3.6	
Foreign-born women	11.9	..	6.3	7.3	6.6	4.7	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/868431448338>

Poland



Long-term migration movements to and from Poland are limited, based on official statistics. Recorded long-term outflows to Germany remain higher than to the United Kingdom.

Recent developments in Poland include the continuing adjustment of Polish laws to standards of the European Union.

A little over 10 000 residence permits were granted to foreign nationals in Poland in 2004, of which more than half were EU permits. Comparison with 2003 is impossible, because of changes to the permit system with accession to the EU. Grants of temporary permits were close to 25 000 in 2004. Total permits can be compared, however, and show an increase of over twenty per cent relative to 2003. Still, movements remain quite limited. Ukrainian nationals account for about a third of all permits issued.

Recorded permanent emigration of Polish nationals has dropped below twenty thousand for the first time since 1992. Migration to Germany and to North America in particular is declining. On the other hand, Polish citizens reported as staying abroad for more than two months increased by about fifty thousand with EU accession, with most of the increase appearing for persons intending to stay for less than one year. There are further increases in the first two quarters of 2005, with the largest increases occurring for Ireland and the United Kingdom, countries who have opened up their labour markets to the new accession states.

In contrast to many other countries, the number of asylum seekers arriving in Poland has been increasing in recent years, with 2004 showing about a 15% increase over 2003. However, preliminary figures for 2005 suggest the beginnings of a decline. Almost ninety per cent of requests in 2004 came from nationals of the Russian Federation.

The Aliens Act of 2004, which took up a number of directives of the European Council, also introduced a number of important changes:

- Introduction of the EU long-term residence permit to foreigners who have lived in Poland for five consecutive years and who have a regular and stable income sufficient to meet all living and medical expenses for themselves and their

families. The permit is for an unlimited time period and entitles the foreigner to live in any EU state.

- Restricting the categories of individuals who can apply for a settlement permit to minor children born in Poland to foreigners, foreign spouses of Polish citizens, refugees and certain other foreigners who have lived in Poland for ten years.
- Expansion of the category of individuals who are granted a temporary residence permit on obligatory basis, to include among others minor foreigners born in Poland, certain family members, foreigners who have long-term residence status in another EU state and trafficked foreigners who decided to co-operate with the authorities.
- Shortening from four to three years the required length of stay of a foreigner who wants to bring in his/her family.
- Introduction of a new definition of the uninterrupted stay required at the time of application for various residence permits in Poland.
- Access to the labour market for asylum seekers who have waited for more than a year for a first decision on their case to be made.
- Prolonging the period of provided assistance (including accommodation, medical care, cash allowances and voluntary departure) to an asylum seeker, from two weeks to up to three months.
- In addition to free access to the labour market, temporary status holders gain access to welfare and family allowances. They may also register as unemployed and become entitled to unemployment benefits.
- Introduction of a regulation aimed at protecting mixed marriages: the foreign spouse of a Polish citizen, with irregular status, cannot be refused a temporary residence permit.

In March 2005, an Inter-ministerial Task Force for the Social Integration of Foreigners was created. Four main objectives of social policy with respect to the integration of immigrants have been articulated: the need to involve all public institutions in setting policy and taking action; introduction of an anti-discrimination policy to limit xenophobic attitudes towards immigrant communities; training provision for public administrators and social partners; and the design of a comprehensive scheme of refugee protection and assistance.

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)						
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004						
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>													
Inflows	..	0.4	0.8	1.0	0.3	0.7	36.8						
Outflows						
Long-term migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (harmonised)	Thousands		% distribution		<p>Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners</p>								
	2003	2004	2003	2004									
Work									
Family (incl. accompanying family)									
Humanitarian (incl. accompanying family)									
Others									
Temporary migration	2000	2003	2004	Annual average									
				2000-2004									
<i>Thousands</i>													
International students									
Trainees									
Working holiday makers									
Seasonal workers									
Intra-company transfers									
Other temporary workers									
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)						
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004						
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>	–	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	8.1						

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
Real GDP (growth, %)	7.0	4.0	3.8	5.3	5.4	2.9	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US dollars	6.8	5.0	3.9	5.4	5.4	2.9	11 661
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	0.9	–1.6	–1.2	1.3	–0.1	–1.3	13 795
Unemployment (% of labour force)	13.3	16.1	19.6	19.0	12.3	18.6	
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
					1995-1999	2000-2004	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Total	0.7	–0.2	–0.8	–0.4	0.4	–0.5	
Natural increase	1.2	0.3	–0.4	–0.2	0.7	–0.1	
Net migration	–0.5	–0.5	–0.4	–0.2	–0.4	–0.4	
Total population	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>(Annual growth %)</i>							
Native-born
Foreign-born
National
Foreign
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>As a percentage of foreign population</i>	3.3	14.8	1 937
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2003	2004			
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>							
Native-born men	56.9			
Foreign-born men	36.9			
Native-born women			
Foreign-born women			
<i>Unemployment rate</i>							
Native-born men	18.8			
Foreign-born men	9.6			
Native-born women	20.0			
Foreign-born women	29.3			

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/706007281608>

Portugal



2004 saw the end of grants of stay permits under the 2001 regularisation and an increase in legal migration with the slight improvement in the Portuguese economy.

In addition there were significant changes to the rules concerning the acquisition of Portuguese nationality in 2005.

Close to 14 000 residence permits were granted to foreign citizens in 2004 (non students), an increase of 17% over 2003. The number of such permits issued has ranged between 10 000 and 16 000 since 1999, but is dwarfed by the 184 000 stay permits issued under the 2001 regularisation. Indeed, the numbers of persons given such stay permits, which have fewer rights than residence permits (with respect to duration of stay, family reunion possibilities, free circulation within EU), represent cumulatively 40% of the foreign population of Portugal in 2004.

More than half of persons regularised were from Eastern Europe with significant numbers as well from Brazil and former African colonies. Nationals of eastern European countries currently account for about a quarter of the foreign population of Portugal, with the population of nationals of the Ukraine now being as large as those from Cape Verde and Brazil. Eastern Europeans are also beginning to show up more significantly in issues of residence permits, the numbers of which have steadily increased since 2002, but represent less than one sixth of the total in 2004. It remains to be seen if migration from Eastern Europe will be long-term or if significant numbers many will be returning to their home countries.

Under a new 2003 law, the Portuguese government has become responsible for the preparation of a bi-annual report that forecasts labour opportunities that cannot be filled by the internal and EU offer. The forecast is supposed to distinguish general labour market needs from seasonal ones and to adjust the regional requirements according to the reception capacities of each region. For 2004, the maximum was set at 6 500 new immigrant workers but the demands presented were below this and 4 500 received

favourable answers. Some of these were attributed to persons already in the country but working illegally. In short, at the same time that the formal maximum is not attained, irregular foreign workers continue to enter the Portuguese labour market.

Traditionally the participation of foreign workers in the Portuguese economy has been polarised with workers in highly skilled occupations (manages and professionals) and in low-skilled jobs (especially in construction and domestic cleaning). With the regularisation, it is clear that the balance has shifted towards the latter group, consisting of workers that are not easy to recruit from abroad.

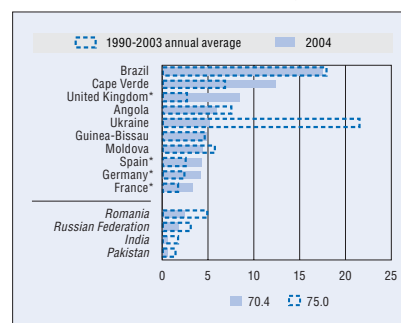
The High Commission for Immigrants and Ethnic Minorities (ACIME) has a major role in contributing to the integration of immigrants, through the provision of information and services by means of large “one-stop shops” in Lisbon and Porto and small local focal points that have been established in partnership with associations, church institutions and municipalities. ACIME in 2005 also launched an extensive anti-racist and pro-intercultural media campaign aimed at dispelling negative stereotypes about immigrants.

A government decree in April 2004 included an article that opened the possibility of a further regularisation of non-EU foreign workers who could prove they were present in the Portuguese labour market before March 2003. There were around 40 000 applications but only about 3 000 foreigners had received work permits by the spring of 2005.

In July 2005, the government decided to change the rules of attribution and acquisition of Portuguese nationality. Based on the principle of *jus soli* the new law will allow the attribution of Portuguese nationality to individuals born in Portugal who are children of foreigners when at least one parent was born in the country and lives there, independently of the legal status. Portuguese nationality can also be attributed on demand to foreign minors born in Portuguese territory, once one of the ancestors fulfils a minimum of six years continuous legal residence in Portugal. Under the new law, “third generation migrants” will be the only ones with automatic access to Portuguese citizenship from the time of birth.

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Inflows	0.5	1.6	2.0	1.3	0.6	4.9	14.1
Outflows	0.1	–	–	–	0.1	–	0.1
Long-term migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution				
<i>Permit based statistics (harmonised)</i>	2003	2004	2003	2004			
Work	5.3	7.4	47.5	56.7			
Family (incl. accompanying family)	5.1	4.7	46.1	36.2			
Humanitarian (incl. accompanying family)	–	–	–	–			
Others	0.7	0.9	6.3	7.1			
Temporary migration	2000	2003	2004	Annual average			
<i>Thousands</i>					2000-2004		
International students			
Trainees			
Working holiday makers			
Seasonal workers			
Intra-company transfers			
Other temporary workers			
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>	–	–	–	–	–	–	0.1

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
as a % of total inflows of foreigners

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
Real GDP (growth, %)	4.3	3.4	–1.1	1.0	4.0	0.5	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US dollars	3.9	2.8	–1.8	0.2	3.6	–0.2	17 194
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	–0.6	2.3	–0.5	0.1	1.6	0.5	5 087
Unemployment (% of labour force)	7.2	4.0	6.3	6.7	6.1	5.2	
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Total	2.6	6.1	6.5	5.2	3.5	6.5	
Natural increase	0.4	1.5	0.4	0.7	0.6	0.8	
Net migration	2.2	4.6	6.1	4.5	2.9	5.7	
Total population	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
<i>(Annual growth %)</i>							
Native-born	..	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.9	0.3	9 804
Foreign-born	..	0.7	0.8	–	–0.7	7.7	704
National	–	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.8	0.1	10 059
Foreign	7.2	8.8	5.0	3.5	3.2	21.3	449
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
<i>As a percentage of foreign population</i>							
	0.9	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.4	1 346
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>							
Native-born men	71.5	76.2	74.8	74.2	76.3	75.7	
Foreign-born men	65.5	75.5	78.8	77.1	68.9	78.2	
Native-born women	54.5	60.2	61.1	61.5	59.4	61.0	
Foreign-born women	49.7	65.2	67.1	64.0	54.8	65.8	
<i>Unemployment rate</i>							
Native-born men	6.6	3.1	5.3	5.7	3.9	4.2	
Foreign-born men	10.8	6.0	7.9	9.8	8.8	6.9	
Native-born women	7.8	4.9	7.4	7.4	5.1	6.1	
Foreign-born women	13.6	6.9	10.4	9.6	12.3	8.4	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/785185682776>

Romania



The emphasis in Romania continues to be on emigration and expatriation, largely because recorded inflows are insignificant. The recorded stocks of foreign residents in Romania stood at barely 0.2%

of the total population in 2004 and most of these are deemed to be temporary residents.

The number of permanent emigrants grew significantly in 2003 and 2004 (respectively 31% and 23%), following more than 10 years of continuous decline. The level in 2004 reached 13 000 individuals, still far below the 30 000-100 000 levels of the early nineties. The first country of settlement for Romanian emigrants remains Germany. Almost two thirds of the emigrants abroad are women and many of the emigrants are qualified; 50% have an upper secondary diploma and 17% a tertiary degree. Among emigrants to Canada and the United States, over one half had a tertiary degree.

Work abroad organised by private labour employment agents appears to be increasing strongly in Romania, with about 100 000 contracts concluded in 2004, most of them in Spain, Italy, Hungary and Germany. This exceeds the 44 000 contracts negotiated largely through bilateral agreements and the intermediation of the Department for Employment Abroad. Although the number of these stabilised from 2003 to 2004, they have nonetheless tripled since the year 2000. In 2004 Germany supplied more than 70% of the contracts and Spain another 25%.

The number of Romanian citizens found in an illegal situation in other countries and repatriated in accordance with readmission agreements reached its highest level since 1994 at almost 23 000. The total number of actual returns is somewhat higher than this, with about one third of these being returns from Italy and a further 10% from France and Spain. A Government Ordinance of July 2005 has tightened the requirements for persons wishing to travel abroad. Candidates must now present documents justifying the reason for

the travel and show a minimum level of resources for the specified period of stay in the country of destination.

Recent years (2002-2005) have seen the introduction of new residence and work permit systems which define more clearly the conditions under which foreign nationals can stay and exercise an economic activity in Romania. The changes have been motivated by the future expected accession of Romania to the European Union. In particular, work permits are issued for foreign workers if there is no Romanian citizen available for the job and if the foreigner meets the conditions of qualification and expertise requested by the employer. Different types of work permits can be granted: permanent workers, seconded workers, seasonal workers, trainees, sportsmen and cross border workers.

The Romanian Government is also making efforts to improve Romanian border security and to fight against illegal migration, in the spirit of the Schengen agreement. A national strategy for the integrated management of Romania's state borders was established in April 2004. Among the different measures envisaged are the systematic implementation of Schengen rules related to visas and the strengthening of the role of consular offices in the fight against identity fraud and of international transporters in screening irregular immigrants.

A new Ordinance was approved concerning the free movement and stay of EU and EEA citizens and their families in Romania. The new provisions entitle these people to an initial 3-month stay right. After this period they can obtain, on request, the right of residence if they have a job and the means to support their family. Other important rights are granted to EU and EEA citizens in Romania: free movement and choice of place of residence, social protection with a national treatment, unlimited access to the labour market, schooling and training activities.

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Inflows
Outflows
Long-term migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution				
Permit based statistics (harmonised)	2003	2004	2003	2004			
Work			
Family (incl. accompanying family)			
Humanitarian (incl. accompanying family)			
Others			
Temporary migration	2000	2003	2004	Annual average			
				2000-2004			
<i>Thousands</i>							
International students			
Trainees			
Working holiday makers			
Seasonal workers			
Intra-company transfers			
Other temporary workers			
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>	-	0.1	-	-	-	0.1	0.7

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2003
Real GDP (growth, %)
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US dollars
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	..	-0.1	-0.1	9 223
Unemployment (% of labour force)	..	7.1	7.0	..	6.4	7.3	
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
					1995-1999	2000-2004	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Total	
Natural increase	-1.6	-0.9	-2.5	..	-1.8	-2.0	
Net migration	
Total population	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>(Annual growth %)</i>							
Native-born (2002 Census data)	21 547
Foreign-born (2002 Census data)	134
National	..	-0.1	-0.2	0.7	..	-0.6	21 851
Foreign	..	11.7	-37.0	15.4	..	-8.5	49
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>As a percentage of foreign population</i>	0.2	0.7	282

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/462104474622>

Slovak Republic



The Slovak Republic remains a country with comparatively modest immigration and emigration flows. Despite becoming a border country of the European Union, illegal border crossings do

not appear to have increased, indeed reported apprehensions dropped. By contrast, asylum-related entries have been more numerous, with, however, little impact on the number of accepted refugee claimants.

Net migration of foreign citizens to the Slovak Republic more than doubled in 2004. Europeans in particular – from both inside and outside the EU – entered the country in larger numbers. Still, net migration and gross immigration stood at low levels, at below 3 000 respectively 4 500 individuals. Emigration increased by almost a third but also remained low at just under 1 600.

The number of residence permits held (about 22 000) accounted for scarcely 0.4% of the total population, and about one fifth of these were temporary.

The number of asylum seekers, however, has been steadily increasing in recent years and at almost 11 400 in 2004, stood at more than seven times its level of 2000. The increase was about 1 000 over the level of 2003, with much of this concentrated in the months around the date of EU accession (May 2004). Preliminary data for the first three quarters of 2005 (2 450), however, suggest a very strong decrease for the year.

Approvals since the year 2000 have been exceptional, never exceeding twenty despite the multiplication of claims. Most applicants do not await the result of their request, but apparently move on. More than half of the applicants are from South and Southeast Asia (India, China, Pakistan, Bangladesh and Afghanistan) and a significant proportion from the republics of the former Union (Russia, Georgia, Moldova).

Illegal border passage in and out of Slovakia was recorded 8 000 times in 2004, the lowest level since 2000 and a reduction of a third compared to 2003. Inflows were heaviest on the eastern (Ukraine) and southern (Hungary) borders and outflows on the western borders (Austria and the Czech Republic), in line with previous years and in accordance with the expected main direction of illegal migration. Initial data indicate that the decrease in recorded illegal border crossings may be continuing in 2005. However, whether this is a reliable indicator for the evolution of illegal migration is uncertain.

With accession to the EU on 1st May 2004, the Slovak Republic also took on the provisions of the Dublin agreement with regard to asylum seekers, including acceptance of the safe-country-of-transit rule, stipulating that the first EU country of passage must process an EU asylum request. As a border country of the enlarged Union, Slovakia became administratively responsible for a larger share of applications by asylum seekers trying to access EU-territory. Still, the data for 2004/05 imply that this new regime does not seem thus far to have had major implications for the number of applications to Slovak authorities.

On accession to the EU, the Slovak Republic accorded EEA-citizens unrestricted access to its labour market. In contrast, Slovakian citizens, as nationals of a new member state, are subject to the transitory regimes and safeguard measures applied by other EU members. Despite the presence of these measures, bilateral agreements with Germany, Luxembourg and Finland facilitate access to the labour markets in these countries. Long-standing agreements with the Czech Republic, Hungary and Poland assure free movement of workers to these countries independently of EU legislation, but also provide for the possibility to apply safeguard clauses in either direction.

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)																																										
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004																																										
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>																																																	
Inflows	0.8	1.5	..	1.2	7.9																																										
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Long-term migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners <p>Legend: 1990-2003 annual average (dashed blue), 2004 (solid blue)</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>Nationality</th> <th>1990-2003 annual average (%)</th> <th>2004 (%)</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr><td>Czech Republic</td><td>69.1</td><td>69.1</td></tr> <tr><td>Poland</td><td>64.3</td><td>64.3</td></tr> <tr><td>Ukraine</td><td>..</td><td>..</td></tr> <tr><td>Germany</td><td>..</td><td>..</td></tr> <tr><td>Austria</td><td>..</td><td>..</td></tr> <tr><td>Hungary*</td><td>..</td><td>..</td></tr> <tr><td>France</td><td>..</td><td>..</td></tr> <tr><td>United Kingdom</td><td>..</td><td>..</td></tr> <tr><td>United States</td><td>..</td><td>..</td></tr> <tr><td>Italy*</td><td>..</td><td>..</td></tr> <tr><td>Russian Federation</td><td>..</td><td>..</td></tr> <tr><td>China</td><td>..</td><td>..</td></tr> <tr><td>Viet Nam</td><td>..</td><td>..</td></tr> </tbody> </table>			Nationality	1990-2003 annual average (%)	2004 (%)	Czech Republic	69.1	69.1	Poland	64.3	64.3	Ukraine	Germany	Austria	Hungary*	France	United Kingdom	United States	Italy*	Russian Federation	China	Viet Nam
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Other temporary workers																																													
Annual average					2000-2004																																												
Annual average					2000-2004																																												
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)																																										
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>	0.1	0.3	1.9	2.1	0.1	1.5	11.4																																										

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
Real GDP (growth, %)	5.8	2.0	4.5	5.5	4.1	4.6	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US dollars	5.5	1.9	4.7	5.4	3.9	4.7	12 915
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	1.7	-1.4	1.8	0.3	-0.2	0.8	2 170
Unemployment (% of labour force)	13.1	18.8	17.5	18.1	13.1	18.5	
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Total	2.2	0.7	0.2	1.0	1.6	0.4	
Natural increase	1.7	0.4	-	0.4	1.3	0.1	
Net migration	0.5	0.3	0.2	0.6	0.3	0.3	
Total population	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
<i>(Annual growth %)</i>							
Native-born	5 174
Foreign-born	208
National	0.2	0.1	-	0.2	0.1	-0.1	5 360
Foreign	29.7	-2.4	-1.0	-23.8	7.8	-6.2	22
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
<i>As a percentage of foreign population</i>							
	11.8	13.8	..	5.1	4 016
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>							
Native-born men	63.5	62.9	..	63.2	
Foreign-born men	64.7	66.7	..	65.7	
Native-born women	52.3	50.7	..	51.5	
Foreign-born women	48.6	42.6	..	45.4	
<i>Unemployment rate</i>							
Native-born men	17.0	17.8	..	17.4	
Foreign-born men	23.0	12.7	
Native-born women	17.2	19.5	..	18.4	
Foreign-born women	21.5	30.5	..	26.2	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/546580326105>

Spain



2005 was marked by the regularisation of over 560 000 foreign workers against a background of strong employment growth and persisting unemployment.

As a result, the foreign population increased by more than 30% (some 2.6 million foreigners were living in Spain legally at the end of 2005, to which must be added the EU nationals that have not bothered to apply for a residence permit). New legislation on foreigners was also voted with a view both to promoting the integration of immigrants already living in Spain and to strengthening controls and sanctions in the field of the undocumented immigration and the illegal employment of foreigners.

The number of foreigners registered in municipal registers rose by nearly 50% between 2003 and 2004, for a total of 646 000 newly registered foreigners, with or without a valid residence permit. Nearly 40% of them come from European countries, mainly Romania and the 15 EU countries (headed by the United Kingdom), and 26% from South America (Bolivia, Argentina, Brazil, Ecuador). Inflows of Ecuadorians have grown spectacularly since 2000, with 350 000 registrations during the 2000-2004 period. The introduction of a visa policy for this group in August 2003 has sharply curtailed this trend. There has also been strong growth in entries of Romanians (inflows were insignificant before 2000, but since then a total of more than 200 000 Romanians have registered, with nearly 40% doing so in 2004 alone). Lastly, entries of Africans (mostly Moroccans) levelled off at around 55 000 annual registrations between 2000 and 2003, although some 90 000 new immigrants were registered in 2004. The measure imposed in April 2005 requiring municipalities to remove from their registers non-EU foreigners (without permanent residence permits) who failed to re-register after two years should soon give a significant idea of the magnitude of returns.

Applications for regularisation, which had to be filed by employers (except for domestic workers), had

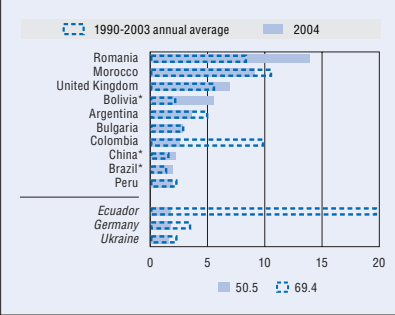
to contain a job offer guaranteeing a job for the equivalent of a minimum of six-months full-time employment (three months in agriculture). As of spring 2005, employers had to be registered with the social security regime in their sector and employees with their municipality at least since 8 August 2004. They had to meet the job requirements and to have had no police record for at least five years. Some 84% of the applications filed were approved.

The sectors concerned are in fact those that employ the largest number of foreigners: domestic services, construction, catering, commerce and agriculture. In line with the distribution observed for recent flows, three-quarters of applicants were European nationals and South Americans. One-third of applications concerned domestic service jobs (with one or more employer). On the whole, foreign workers are highly specialised according to their origins, with Africans employed in agriculture, Europeans in industry and Latin Americans in construction and services.

With the adoption of the Royal Decree of December 2004, migration policy is now focused on two key aspects: the fight against undocumented immigration and the integration of immigrants legally residing in Spain. To implement this policy, controls are carried out both when immigrants enter the country and when they take up residence, and carriers are now responsible for verifying the legality of the documents shown to them under pain of sanctions. They are also required to inform the authorities of any unused return tickets. Lastly, municipalities are required to keep their registers up to date so as to ensure that their data are consistent with residence permit data.

In May 2005, the government decided to appropriate 120 million euros to the Fund for the Integration of Immigrants (FIDI). The Council of Ministers approved the following allocation of funds: 60% for "reception and integration" and 40% for the "improvement of the education level". The criteria for allocating funds between the Autonomous Communities and municipalities are as follows: the number of immigrants registered, the number of workers contributing to Social Security and the number of foreign minors enrolled in school.

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Inflows	..	8.2	10.2	15.1	2.0	10.8	645.8
Outflows
Long-term migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (harmonised)	Thousands		% distribution		Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners 		
	2003	2004	2003	2004			
Work			
Family (incl. accompanying family)			
Humanitarian (incl. accompanying family)			
Others			
Temporary migration	2000	2003	2004	Annual average			
	Thousands						
International students	28.8	30.3	35.8	28.1			
Trainees			
Working holiday makers			
Seasonal workers			
Intra-company transfers			
Other temporary workers			
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
	<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>				0.2	0.2	5.5

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
Real GDP (growth, %)	2.8	5.0	3.0	3.1	3.9	3.1	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US dollars	2.6	4.2	1.3	1.4	3.5	1.6	22 439
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	2.5	5.6	4.0	3.9	4.1	3.8	18 100
Unemployment (% of labour force)	18.7	10.8	11.0	10.5	15.9	10.7	
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Total	1.3	9.8	15.8	..	2.7	13.4	
Natural increase	0.4	0.9	1.3	..	0.3	1.1	
Net migration	0.9	8.9	14.5	..	2.4	12.3	
Total population	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>(Annual growth %)</i>							
Native-born
Foreign-born
National	0.1	0.6	0.9	0.9	0.2	0.8	40 715
Foreign	8.3	11.8	24.4	20.1	12.5	21.9	1 977
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>As a percentage of foreign population</i>	1.5	1.5	2.0	..	1.5	1.3	..
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>							
Native-born men	62.0	70.8	72.7	73.0	64.8	72.2	
Foreign-born men	61.1	75.4	78.3	78.8	68.4	78.1	
Native-born women	31.6	41.0	45.4	47.2	34.4	43.9	
Foreign-born women	36.7	45.7	53.1	54.6	40.6	52.3	
<i>Unemployment rate</i>							
Native-born men	17.8	9.4	7.9	7.8	15.2	8.0	
Foreign-born men	24.2	11.8	11.4	11.7	17.1	11.2	
Native-born women	30.8	20.4	15.7	15.1	27.6	16.5	
Foreign-born women	30.4	20.0	17.7	16.8	27.0	17.3	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/125324665132>

Sweden



With accession of new EU member countries, Sweden has seen a modest influx of immigrants from these countries. New measures to facilitate labour market integration and to combat

discrimination have been introduced.

The number of residence permits for new immigrants in Sweden (including students) rose in 2004 to 50 500, its highest level since 1994, despite slight declines in family reunification and refugees. The latter two categories of migration still dominate but their share in total immigration has fallen over the past decade. They now account for more than half of all residence permits.

The increase in overall immigration was attributable to higher immigration of EEA nationals, which was at its highest level since Sweden joined the European Union. Sweden is the only country of the EU-15 which chose not to impose any transitional restrictions, with respect to both freedom of movement and access to welfare benefits for nationals of the new EU member countries. From May 2004 to September 2005, 7 300 citizens from the new EU member countries applied for a residence permit, a relatively modest influx.

The number of asylum-seekers dropped by more than a fourth to about 23 200 in 2004, and preliminary figures for 2005 show a continuation of this downward movement. The decline in 2004 was largely attributable to fewer asylum seekers from Somalia, Iraq and Serbia and Montenegro. Student migration continued to rise, and reached 6 000. In contrast, temporary labour migration fell to 8 500 from over 10 200). This is attributable to a strong decline in temporary labour migration from European countries, in contrast to that from Asia, which increased substantially but stood at a modest level of 2000.

Naturalisations declined to 26 800 in 2004 from 33 000 the previous year, attributable to a strong decline in naturalizations of nationals of the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia and its successor states.

A number of measures have been introduced in 2005 to facilitate the integration of immigrants into the labour market, following recommendations by a joint ministry/employer working group. Among these

is a form of job practice called “trial opportunity” to give (three-month) work experience to persons who lack work experience in Sweden. In addition, immigrants with skills from abroad are offered a three-week apprenticeship in their profession to demonstrate their skills on the job, after which they may receive a certificate as proof.

In order to combat discrimination, the Government is intensifying its training and information efforts aimed at women and men working in the recruitment field. A commission of inquiry has been appointed to investigate the feasibility of a system of anonymous job applications in the public sector. The Swedish Integration Board will be contracting with the ILO to perform situation testing in the Swedish labour market.

On 31 March 2006, a new Aliens Act enters into force, which establishes a new system for procedures and appeals in aliens and citizenship cases. The new Act aims at a clarification of the different grounds for residence permits. If none of the main grounds for the granting of a residence permit is applicable, exceptionally distressing circumstances may provide an alternative ground. An interim arrangement, introduced in November 2005, gives certain groups who have spent a long time in Sweden and whose decisions of rejection or expulsion have not been implemented a re-assessment of their situation.

With the new Aliens Act, grounds for protection are given more prominence. For example, witnesses before international courts and tribunals, as well as close family members of these witnesses, will be able to obtain protection in Sweden. Sweden has engaged in agreements with international courts and tribunals to arrange for the migration of these individuals to Sweden.

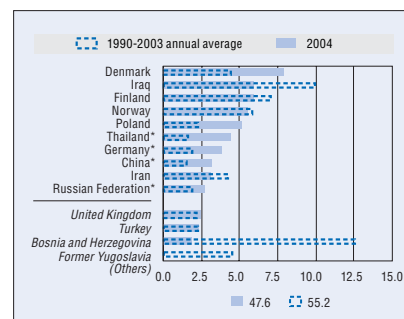
The government also adopted a bill in September 2005 which establishes refugee status for people who are threatened with persecution due to gender or sexual preference. Under the previous provisions, such individuals are given the status of persons otherwise in need of protection.

In December 2005, a law on the returning of third country nationals via Sweden entered into force, which implements the Council Directive on assistance in cases of transit for the purposes of removal by air.

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Inflows	4.1	4.8	5.4	5.3	3.8	5.1	47.6
Outflows	1.7	1.4	1.7	1.8	1.6	1.6	16.0
Migration inflows (foreigners) by type	Thousands		% distribution				
Permit based statistics (harmonised)	2003	2004	2003	2004			
Work	3.6	7.0	9.4	17.1			
Family (incl. accompanying family)	28.3	27.6	73.8	67.8			
Humanitarian (incl. accompanying family)	6.5	6.1	16.8	15.1			
Others	-	-	-	-			
Temporary migration	2000	2003	2004	Annual average			
<i>Thousands</i>					2000-2004		
International students (incl. EEA citizens)	5.2	8.4	9.8	7.3			
Trainees			
Working holiday makers			
Seasonal workers	..	7.3	4.9	6.1			
Intra-company transfers			
Other temporary workers	..	2.6	3.4	3.0			
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
					1.1	2.9	23.2

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level	
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004	
Real GDP (growth, %)	3.9	4.3	1.7	3.7	3.0	2.1		
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US dollars	3.4	4.2	1.3	3.3	2.9	1.8	29 148	
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	1.6	2.2	-0.2	-0.4	0.5	0.3	4 213	
Unemployment (% of labour force)	7.7	4.7	4.9	5.5	7.2	4.6		
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average			
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>					1995-1999	2000-2004		
Total	2.2	2.5	3.9	3.9	1.0	3.4		
Natural increase	1.0	-0.3	0.7	1.1	-0.1	0.3		
Net migration	1.2	2.8	3.2	2.8	1.1	3.1		
Total population	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)	
<i>(Annual growth %)</i>					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004	
Native-born	0.4	-0.1	0.1	0.2	-	0.1	7 894	
Foreign-born	1.5	2.3	2.3	2.1	1.2	2.3	1 100	
National	0.6	0.3	0.6	0.4	0.2	0.4	8 531	
Foreign	-1.0	-2.0	-3.5	1.2	-2.2	-0.8	463	
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level	
<i>As a percentage of foreign population</i>					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004	
					5.5	7.5	26 769	
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average			
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>					1995-1999	2000-2004		
Native-born men	73.2	75.8	76.5	75.7	73.4	76.5		
Foreign-born men	51.7	59.6	64.6	63.6	55.2	63.9		
Native-born women	71.7	73.2	74.4	72.9	71.1	74.0		
Foreign-born women	50.0	54.7	60.0	59.2	49.6	58.2		
<i>Unemployment rate</i>								
Native-born men	8.8	5.1	5.2	6.2	8.8	5.1		
Foreign-born men	28.1	13.5	12.8	14.1	24.1	12.5		
Native-born women	7.0	4.3	4.4	5.2	7.2	4.4		
Foreign-born women	19.9	11.2	9.4	12.5	19.3	10.3		

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/307827758630>

Switzerland



Switzerland continued to attract high numbers of long-stay immigrants in 2004, even with a stagnant labour market situation. A referendum in 2005 approved an arrangement for the ten new member

countries of the EU analogous to the free-circulation regime in place for persons from EU countries, but with a suitable transitional period. Legislation on foreigners and on asylum has also been amended.

Inflows of foreign citizens with permits of more than one year remained at approximately the same level as the previous year – close to 95 000 or about 1.3% of the permanently resident population, a very high level compared to most OECD countries. Outflows were also stable at about one half of total inflows. Net migration thus remained high relative to the total population.

As was the case for 2003, the geographic origin of immigrants continued to shift towards EU-15/EFTA countries, because of the agreement with the European Union on the free mobility of persons between Switzerland and the EU/EFTA. An annual limit of 15 300 exists for long-term work permits for persons from these countries, but this limit has been exhausted every year. Persons entering in excess of the limit have been granted short-term permits, until such time as a long term permit becomes available in subsequent years. Over 60% of all long-term flows took place within the free mobility context in 2004/2005.

From 2003 to 2004, the number of applications for asylum dropped by almost a third to about 14 000, and close to twenty thousand asylum seekers present in the country either departed or abandoned the asylum process. The recognition rate remained low at about 9%.

As of June 2004 labour market restrictions for EU-15/EFTA citizens other than the annual quotas have been dropped. In particular, no employment test is being applied to jobs offered to persons from these countries, nor is there any control over wages and working conditions. Switzerland is allowed to re-introduce quotas to all EU countries until spring 2014, if immigration levels prove excessive.

The free movement of citizens from the ten new EU-member countries was approved by referendum in autumn 2005. With the exception of citizens from Malta and Cyprus, however, temporary restrictions are in place until spring 2011. These include quotas, the priority accorded to residents for any vacancy and the control of wage levels and working conditions.

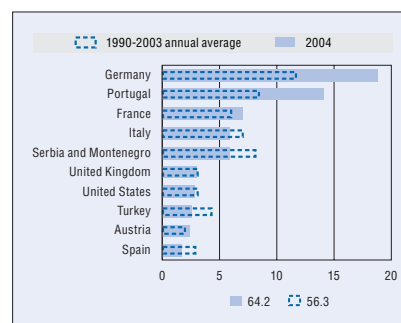
In summer 2005 the Swiss electorate accepted to join the Schengen and Dublin agreements. The accords will be implemented by 2008. As a consequence of this, Switzerland will be suppressing intra-Schengen border controls by 2008. The Dublin Agreement provides for information sharing on applicants for asylum and sets the conditions under which a participating country is responsible for the processing of demands. Correspondingly, legislation on asylum is currently being amended in order to introduce the concept of “safe third countries”. Further measures involve a more restrictive handling of applications, faster processing and reinforced measures to expulse rejected applicants.

At the end of 2005, the national Council adopted a proposed revision of the law on the stay and settlement of foreigners. The new legislation formalises a policy of restricted entry for persons outside the EEA. The legal status of foreigners is improved, with obstacles to geographic and occupational mobility being reduced. Participation in integration courses can be made a prerequisite for granting a stay or a short-term permit; on the other hand successful integration can be compensated by a considerably shorter delay in issuing establishment permits (5 years instead of 10 years). Importantly also, the status of divorced and separated spouses was strengthened, allowing for continued residence in Switzerland in the case of domestic violence or when there is at least three years of residence with successful integration. Dispositions to fight legal abuse have been strengthened.

The ordinance on the integration of foreigners has been amended in autumn 2005 and will come into force in the beginning of 2006. From then on, the duty of the immigrant to engage in integration will be explicitly stated. In the spirit of the new law on foreigners, authorities will be obliged to consider the level of integration of the applicant when extending or granting residence permits.

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Inflows	12.5	11.9	12.3	13.0	10.9	12.9	96.3
Outflows	9.6	7.8	6.3	6.5	8.9	6.9	47.9
Long-term migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (harmonised)	Thousands		% distribution				
	2003	2004	2003	2004			
Work	28.4	33.4	35.7	40.5			
Family (incl. accompanying family)	40.2	38.8	50.5	47.0			
Humanitarian (incl. accompanying family)	5.3	4.4	6.6	5.3			
Others	5.7	6.0	7.2	7.2			
Temporary migration	2000	2003	2004	Annual average			
				2000-2004			
<i>Thousands</i>							
International students			
Trainees			
Working holiday makers			
Seasonal workers			
Intra-company transfers	..	14.4	7.5	10.9			
Other temporary workers			
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
	2.4	2.5	2.8	1.9	4.1	2.7	14.2

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
as a % of total inflows of foreigners

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
Real GDP (growth, %)	0.4	3.6	-0.3	2.1	1.6	0.8	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US dollars	-0.2	3.0	-1.1	1.0	1.3	-0.2	30 169
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	-	1.0	-0.2	0.2	0.6	0.5	4 176
Unemployment (% of labour force)	3.3	2.5	4.1	4.2	3.5	3.3	
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
					1995-1999	2000-2004	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Total	4.8	5.0	7.1	7.3	3.1	7.0	
Natural increase	2.7	2.2	1.2	1.7	2.5	1.6	
Net migration	2.1	2.8	5.9	5.6	0.6	5.4	
Total population	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>(Annual growth %)</i>							
Native-born	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	5 653
Foreign-born	1.9	1.7	2.4	2.3	0.7	2.6	1 738
National	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.4	5 896
Foreign	2.3	1.1	1.6	1.6	0.7	1.9	1 495
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>As a percentage of foreign population</i>							
	1.3	2.1	2.4	2.4	1.2	2.3	35 685
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
					1995-1999	2000-2004	
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>							
Native-born men	86.2	85.6	..	85.9	
Foreign-born men	81.9	81.2	..	81.5	
Native-born women	73.3	72.6	..	73.0	
Foreign-born women	63.6	63.8	..	63.7	
<i>Unemployment rate</i>							
Native-born men	2.8	2.9	..	2.8	
Foreign-born men	7.3	7.5	..	7.4	
Native-born women	3.0	3.4	..	3.2	
Foreign-born women	9.2	9.2	..	9.2	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/711831665521>

Turkey



Migration statistics for Turkey are based on estimates derived from disparate sources, which makes a reliable description difficult. Notwithstanding this caveat, permanent

emigration as a determinant feature of the Turkish economy continued to weaken in 2004 both in magnitude and in its economic importance. On the other hand, temporary labour emigration in a regional context seems to play an ever more important role. In the domain of legislation, no significant changes took place in 2004.

Migration inflows into Turkey, based on applications for asylum and issues of residence permits, added up to almost 160 000 persons in 2004, almost unchanged compared to the previous year. The entries for asylum (4 000) were small, those for work (28 000) or study (15 000) more common. But most entries were for other, unspecified reasons.

Official emigration figures are not reported, but the stock of Turkish nationals abroad appears to have diminished by almost 2% to just over 3.5 million people in 2004, as a result of naturalisations in receiving countries and returns of expatriates. This continues a trend which can be observed from 2000 on.

The outflow of Turkish citizens seeking asylum abroad continued to diminish from its peak levels in the early 2000s. In 2004 their number decreased by almost a third to about 16 000 people. Since 2001 just over half of these emigrants were heading for Germany or France. In 2004 over four out of ten Turkish asylum seekers filed a claim in Germany compared to just one in ten in France. With the fall in asylum seeking by persons from Afghanistan, Iran and Iraq (down by half to below 30 000), the role of Turkey as a country of transit to Europe is also likely to have diminished in importance.

Family-related migration from Turkey is mainly due to the presence of sizeable Turkish

migrant communities in receiving countries and the presence of networks which maintain a certain level of movement. Family migration has historically accounted for a significant part of Turkish emigration in the direction of Western Europe but to a lesser extent to Australia and North America. The statistics of receiving countries suggest a significant decline in the strength of this kind of migration from Turkey, from approximately 100 000 people per year by the mid-1990s to half that level in the early 2000s.

Emigration also seems to play an ever decreasing role economically. A decreasing trend in the importance of remittances could already be observed from 1998 onwards. In 2004, workers' remittances by the expatriate community stood at only \$800 million or 0.2% of GNP, the lowest level since 1975 (\$1.3 billion or 2.8% of GNP) and a strong decline over 2003 (\$1.7 billion or 0.7% of GNP).

In contrast, contract-dependent labour migration via the intermediary of the Turkish Employment Office recovered from a temporary but sharp fall in the late 1990s in double-digit rates to reach 44 000 in 2004 (+18% from 2003). The Commonwealth of Independent States remained in and expanded its lead in that respect by another eight percentage points to a share of more than a half, whereas the share of EU-15 fell to below 10%.

In addition to immigration by ethnic Turks from bordering countries (especially Bulgaria), the inflow of asylum-seekers, refugees, transit migrants, and clandestine labourers in recent decades is historically atypical for Turkey. These groups began to arrive in small numbers and subsequently in an ever-rising tide which has reached sizeable figures in recent decades. In that context, irregular immigration was estimated at over 60 000 people in 2004, an increase of 9% from the previous year but a decline from the estimated peak of 95 000 in 2000. This increase took place despite the efforts of Turkish authorities to combat irregular migration, which seemed to have succeeded in reducing the numbers in 2002 and 2003.

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)																					
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004																					
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>																												
Inflows	..	2.5	2.2	2.2	..	2.3	155.5																					
Outflows																					
Long-term migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (harmonised)	Thousands		% distribution		<p style="text-align: center;">Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners</p> <table border="1"> <caption>Data for Inflows of top 10 nationalities</caption> <thead> <tr> <th>Nationality</th> <th>1990-2003 annual average (%)</th> <th>2004 (%)</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>Bulgaria</td> <td>61.4</td> <td>59.5</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Russian Federation</td> <td>..</td> <td>..</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Azerbaijan</td> <td>..</td> <td>..</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Greece</td> <td>..</td> <td>..</td> </tr> <tr> <td>United States</td> <td>..</td> <td>..</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Iran</td> <td>..</td> <td>..</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>			Nationality	1990-2003 annual average (%)	2004 (%)	Bulgaria	61.4	59.5	Russian Federation	Azerbaijan	Greece	United States	Iran
Nationality	1990-2003 annual average (%)	2004 (%)																										
Bulgaria	61.4	59.5																										
Russian Federation																										
Azerbaijan																										
Greece																										
United States																										
Iran																										
Work																								
Family (incl. accompanying family)																								
Humanitarian (incl. accompanying family)																								
Others																								
Temporary migration	2000	2003	2004	Annual average																								
<i>Thousands</i>					2000-2004																							
International students																								
Trainees																								
Working holiday makers																								
Seasonal workers																								
Intra-company transfers																								
Other temporary workers																								
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)																					
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004																					
	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	3.9																					

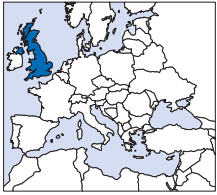
Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
Real GDP (growth, %)	7.2	7.4	5.8	8.9	3.1	3.6	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US dollars	5.3	4.7	4.2	7.3	1.4	2.0	7 364
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	2.8	-2.1	-0.9	3.0	1.7	0.2	22 291
Unemployment (% of labour force)	7.5	6.3	10.3	10.1	7.0	9.0	
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Total	
Natural increase	
Net migration	
Total population	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
<i>(Annual growth %)</i>							
Native-born
Foreign-born
National
Foreign
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
<i>As a percentage of foreign population</i>							

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/721352684372>

United Kingdom



In 2004 the United Kingdom continued to attract a high number of immigrants, with increases being recorded in almost all sub-categories. In contrast to most other EU-countries, the United

Kingdom has allowed access to its labour market for citizens of new EU member countries as of May 2004. A major revision of the work permit system is underway, but implementation is not envisaged before 2007.

The share of foreigners in gross immigration continued to expand from an already high level and accounted for 85% of the total in 2004. Non-British citizens immigrated more numerous (up by 90 000) and British citizens returned in smaller numbers (-20 000). Immigration of foreign citizens rose by 20% relative to 2004 to a new historical record of 494 000 people. Nationals of the new member states of the EU, who were granted access to the UK labour market, contributed substantially to the increase in inflows. Note, however, that a significant proportion of inflows for the United Kingdom consists of foreign students and working holidaymakers, most of whom will be returning to their home countries.

Asylum requests have declined strongly since 2002 (84 000) and declined to 41 000 in 2004. On the other hand, asylum-related grants of settlement more than doubled in 2004 to over a third of total grants. The reason for the large increase was the Family ILR Exercise, which allowed certain asylum-seeking families in the United Kingdom for four or more years to obtain settlement. Still, immigration to the United Kingdom is less and less asylum-related with requests for asylum accounting for not more than a tenth of non-British immigration compared to more than a quarter at the beginning of the millennium.

New work authorisations in the form of *work permits* (in the case of offshore application) and *first permissions* (in the case of onshore application) issued rose to almost 90 000. This corresponds to an increase of 4% compared to 2003 and occurred despite the fact that citizens of the new member countries no longer need a work permit. Instead, they have to register to take on a job. In 2004 about 130 000 persons registered but for the period between May 2004 and

December 2005 there were almost 350 000 registrations.

The granting of access to the labour market of citizens from the new member countries was accompanied by a reduction of quotas in programs such as the Sector-Based Scheme (SBS) and the Seasonal Agricultural Workers Scheme (SAWS). Still, approvals under the SBS more than doubled to almost 17 000. As well, more persons were admitted under the Working Holidaymakers Scheme (+34% to 62 000) and the Highly Skilled Migrant Programme (+50% to 7 000).

One of the main features of labour immigration into the United Kingdom is the high proportion accounted for by corporate transfers. In 2005, according to the Labour Force Survey, a quarter of the interviewees working abroad a year before and in the United Kingdom at the time of the interview were working for the same employer.

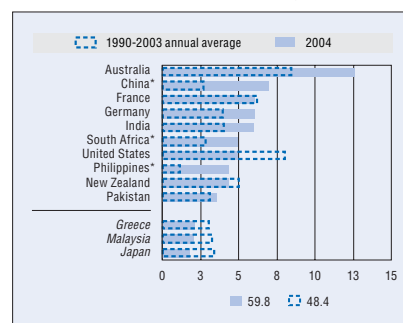
In July 2005 the government proposed a new five-tier work permit system. The underlying idea is to move away from the two-step process in which an employer obtains a work permit and the worker applies for entry or stay clearance. Work permits will be abolished and the role of the employer will be limited to the interview/job offer process. The new system is to consist of five-tiers:

- Highly skilled individuals to contribute to growth and productivity.
- Skilled workers with a job offer and workers to meet specific requirements where an overseas national is necessary. This comprises the two current tiers of the work permit system.
- Limited numbers of workers to fill low skill shortages.
- Students.
- Other temporary categories: visiting workers, selected development schemes and youth mobility/cultural exchange.

The first two tiers would have a route to permanent residence subject to meeting five years residence and other requirements. The others would not, but in some cases, individuals could move quickly into the top two tiers. According to tier, migrants would have different entitlements to work or to be joined by their immediate family. The tier of entry or stay would also affect the possible contribution of a sponsor. At the heart of the process will be a points stay by tier.

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Inflows	3.9	6.4	6.8	8.3	4.5	7.0	494.1
Outflows	1.7	2.7	2.9	2.5	2.1	2.7	151.9
Long-term migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (harmonised)	Thousands		% distribution				
	2003	2004	2003	2004			
Work	73.4	94.6	34.2	35.5			
Family (incl. accompanying family)	87.4	100.8	40.7	37.8			
Humanitarian (incl. accompanying family)	21.8	50.4	10.2	18.9			
Others	32.0	20.6	14.9	7.7			
Temporary migration	2000	2003	2004	Annual average			
				2000-2004			
<i>Thousands</i>							
International students	102.8	145.5	..	126.4			
Trainees			
Working holiday makers	38.4	46.5	62.4	45.0			
Seasonal workers	10.1	..	19.8	..			
Intra-company transfers			
Other temporary workers	64.6	..	113.4	..			
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>	0.9	1.7	1.0	0.7	1.0	1.3	40.6

Inflows of top 10 nationalities
as a % of total inflows of foreigners

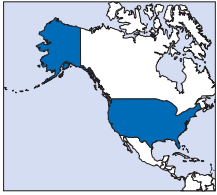
Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
Real GDP (growth, %)	2.9	4.0	2.5	3.2	3.0	2.5	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US dollars	2.6	3.7	2.1	2.7	2.7	2.1	27 765
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	1.2	1.2	1.0	1.0	1.3	0.9	28 463
Unemployment (% of labour force)	8.6	5.5	5.0	4.7	7.2	5.1	
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
					1995-1999	2000-2004	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Total	2.6	3.7	2.9	3.6	
Natural increase	1.6	1.2	1.4	..	1.5	1.2	
Net migration	1	2.5	1.4	2.5	
Total population	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>(Annual growth %)</i>							
Native-born
Foreign-born
National	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	56 921
Foreign	-4.1	6.1	6.1	4.2	3.2	5.1	2 857
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>As a percentage of foreign population</i>	2.0	3.7	4.9	5.1	1.8	4.5	140 795
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		
					1995-1999	2000-2004	
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>							
Native-born men	75.4	78.3	78.1	78.1	76.6	78.1	
Foreign-born men	67.3	71.1	71.8	72.7	69.5	72.0	
Native-born women	62.3	65.7	66.6	66.9	63.7	66.3	
Foreign-born women	51.3	53.1	54.6	55.0	52.9	54.3	
<i>Unemployment rate</i>							
Native-born men	9.9	5.9	5.2	4.7	8.1	5.2	
Foreign-born men	14.2	9.6	8.1	7.3	11.6	8.1	
Native-born women	6.7	4.6	3.9	3.9	5.7	4.1	
Foreign-born women	11.0	7.8	6.3	7.3	9.0	7.0	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/786175786827>

United States



Immigration remained a high profile issue in the United States during 2004 and 2005, with efforts both to liberalise and restrict key worker visa programmes. Demand for both H-1B and H-2B visas

exceeded supply. While Congress responded to lobbying for additional visas in both categories, new immigration legislation proved to be impossible to enact directly because of polarised views. Most legislative changes came about through amendments to vital appropriations legislation.

During fiscal year 2004, a total of about 946 000 persons were granted permanent resident status, a significant increase over the 2003 level of close to 705 000. The large increase, however, did not reflect an increase in demand but rather a reduction in processing backlogs that had accumulated because of new legislation and documentation requirements following 11 September 2001. In particular, persons granted residence under employment preferences almost doubled to 155 000 after having dropped by about 90 000 from 2002 to 2003.

The per cent of immigrants granted permanent status who were already in the United States dropped to less than forty per cent, its lowest level in recent years. The large fluctuations in total immigration in recent years, from about 645 000 in 1999 to 1 065 000 in 2001 to 705 000 in 2003 and back up to 945 000 in 2004 are essentially the consequence of new legislation, increased documentation requirements and ebbs and flows in processing backlogs. Mexico remains the largest sending country with about 18.5% of the total. Unauthorised migration levels remain high, with estimates of entries at about 700 000 per year and net levels at 450 000.

The 2005 Omnibus Appropriations addressed various concerns about the H-1B visa programme. While the 65 000 cap was retained, another 20 000 visas annually were made available by exempting from that cap those with postgraduate degrees from US educational institutions. Simultaneously, the Act restored and made permanent several worker protections of the H-1B programme that had been allowed to lapse. Both the Training Fee and the special attestations required of H-1B dependent employers were restored and made

permanent and the Department of Labor was again authorised to initiate investigations without receiving a formal complaint. Furthermore, H-1B employers for the first time were required to pay 100% of the prevailing wage (previously 95%) and a \$500 Fraud Prevention and Detection Fee was mandated for all initial H-1B applications.

The Act also prohibited outsourcing of L-1 intracompany transferees to businesses not affiliated with the petitioning employer. It also increased the experience requirement for Blanket L transferees from six months to one year and introduced a \$500 Fraud Prevention and Detection Fee for initial L-1 visa petitions.

The Emergency Supplemental Appropriations Act for Defense, the Global War on Terror and Tsunami Relief of 2005 addressed several issues related to immigration. The Real ID Act of 2005, added as an amendment to this act, restricted the terms under which asylum may be granted and limited judicial review of failed asylum claims. It also removed numerical caps on the number of asylum seekers and certain types of refugees who may become lawful permanent residents during a given year, waived all legal restrictions impeding construction of barriers along the border and expanded the grounds on which aliens may be deported or denied admission.

Additional provisions of the Real ID Act significantly expanded the number of authorised H-2B admissions without increasing the numerical cap for the programme. It also created another category of professional entry, E-3 Australian Professionals and “recaptured” up to 50 000 permanent EB-3 visas, unused in previous years, for the immediate use of registered nurses and physical therapists and their families.

The procedures whereby H-1B workers could receive one or more 3-year extensions beyond their allotted 6-year maximum stay were clarified by the Department for Homeland Security. The Department of Labor’s Program Electronic Review Management system became operational, expediting the processing of alien employment certification applications for permanent residence. The period of authorised stay for J-1 professors and research scholars was increased from three to five years.

Flow data on foreigners

Migration flows (foreigners) National definition	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)																																							
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004																																							
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>																																														
Inflows	2.7	3.0	2.4	3.2	2.7	3.2	946.1																																							
Outflows																																							
Long-term migration inflows (foreigners) by type Permit based statistics (harmonised)	Thousands		% distribution		<p>Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners</p> <table border="1"> <caption>Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners</caption> <thead> <tr> <th>Nationality</th> <th>1990-2003 annual average (%)</th> <th>2004 (%)</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr><td>Mexico</td><td>57.3</td><td>53.4</td></tr> <tr><td>India</td><td>~10</td><td>~10</td></tr> <tr><td>Philippines</td><td>~8</td><td>~8</td></tr> <tr><td>China</td><td>~7</td><td>~7</td></tr> <tr><td>Viet Nam</td><td>~6</td><td>~6</td></tr> <tr><td>Dominican Republic</td><td>~5</td><td>~5</td></tr> <tr><td>El Salvador</td><td>~4</td><td>~4</td></tr> <tr><td>Cuba</td><td>~3</td><td>~3</td></tr> <tr><td>Korea</td><td>~2</td><td>~2</td></tr> <tr><td>Colombia</td><td>~2</td><td>~2</td></tr> <tr><td>Haiti</td><td>~1</td><td>~1</td></tr> <tr><td>Former Soviet Union</td><td>~1</td><td>~1</td></tr> </tbody> </table>			Nationality	1990-2003 annual average (%)	2004 (%)	Mexico	57.3	53.4	India	~10	~10	Philippines	~8	~8	China	~7	~7	Viet Nam	~6	~6	Dominican Republic	~5	~5	El Salvador	~4	~4	Cuba	~3	~3	Korea	~2	~2	Colombia	~2	~2	Haiti	~1	~1	Former Soviet Union	~1	~1
	Nationality	1990-2003 annual average (%)	2004 (%)																																											
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Viet Nam	~6	~6																																												
Dominican Republic	~5	~5																																												
El Salvador	~4	~4																																												
Cuba	~3	~3																																												
Korea	~2	~2																																												
Colombia	~2	~2																																												
Haiti	~1	~1																																												
Former Soviet Union	~1	~1																																												
Work	35.6	72.5	5.0	7.7																																										
Family (incl. accompanying family)	538.1	703.2	76.2	74.3																																										
Humanitarian (incl. accompanying family)	44.9	71.2	6.4	7.5																																										
Others	87.2	99.2	12.4	10.5																																										
Temporary migration	2000	2003	2004	Annual average	<p>Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners</p> <table border="1"> <caption>Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners</caption> <thead> <tr> <th>Nationality</th> <th>1990-2003 annual average (%)</th> <th>2004 (%)</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr><td>Mexico</td><td>57.3</td><td>53.4</td></tr> <tr><td>India</td><td>~10</td><td>~10</td></tr> <tr><td>Philippines</td><td>~8</td><td>~8</td></tr> <tr><td>China</td><td>~7</td><td>~7</td></tr> <tr><td>Viet Nam</td><td>~6</td><td>~6</td></tr> <tr><td>Dominican Republic</td><td>~5</td><td>~5</td></tr> <tr><td>El Salvador</td><td>~4</td><td>~4</td></tr> <tr><td>Cuba</td><td>~3</td><td>~3</td></tr> <tr><td>Korea</td><td>~2</td><td>~2</td></tr> <tr><td>Colombia</td><td>~2</td><td>~2</td></tr> <tr><td>Haiti</td><td>~1</td><td>~1</td></tr> <tr><td>Former Soviet Union</td><td>~1</td><td>~1</td></tr> </tbody> </table>			Nationality	1990-2003 annual average (%)	2004 (%)	Mexico	57.3	53.4	India	~10	~10	Philippines	~8	~8	China	~7	~7	Viet Nam	~6	~6	Dominican Republic	~5	~5	El Salvador	~4	~4	Cuba	~3	~3	Korea	~2	~2	Colombia	~2	~2	Haiti	~1	~1	Former Soviet Union	~1	~1
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Haiti	~1	~1																																												
Former Soviet Union	~1	~1																																												
<i>Thousands</i>				2000-2004																																										
International students	284.1	215.7	218.9	249.3																																										
Trainees	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.5																																										
Working holiday makers																																										
Seasonal workers	30.2	29.9	31.8	31.0																																										
Intra-company transfers	55.0	57.2	62.7	58.4																																										
Other temporary workers	184.8	192.5	221.8	202.6																																										
Inflows of asylum seekers	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)																																							
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004																																							
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>																																														
	0.6	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	52.4																																							

Macroeconomic, demographic and labour market indicators

Macroeconomic indicators	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
Real GDP (growth, %)	2.5	3.7	2.7	4.2	4.3	2.3	
GDP/capita (growth, %) – level in US dollars	1.3	2.6	1.7	3.2	3.0	1.3	36 414
Employment (growth, %) – level in thousands	1.5	2.5	0.9	1.1	1.7	0.4	139 248
Unemployment (% of labour force)	5.6	4.0	6.0	5.5	4.9	5.2	
Components of population growth	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	
<i>Per 1 000 inhabitants</i>							
Total	10.4	10.3	9.9	..	10.3	10.0	
Natural increase	6.0	5.7	5.7	5.5	5.8	5.6	
Net migration	4.4	4.6	4.2	..	4.5	4.4	
Total population	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>(Annual growth %)</i>							
Native-born	..	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.5	256 064
Foreign-born	..	5.1	3.4	2.9	4.7	4.8	37 592
National
Foreign
Naturalisations	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level
					1995-1999	2000-2004	2004
<i>As a percentage of foreign population</i>							
	537 151
Labour market outcomes	1995	2000	2003	2004	Average		Level ('000)
					1995-1999	2000-2004	
<i>Employment/population ratio</i>							
Native-born men	76.0	76.7	73.5	73.0	76.1	74.9	
Foreign-born men	76.9	81.6	79.2	80.2	78.8	81.0	
Native-born women	65.2	67.8	65.9	65.4	66.3	66.7	
Foreign-born women	53.3	57.3	56.8	56.2	55.9	57.2	
<i>Unemployment rate</i>							
Native-born men	6.2	4.5	7.0	6.9	5.8	5.9	
Foreign-born men	7.9	4.5	7.2	5.8	6.5	5.4	
Native-born women	5.3	4.2	5.7	5.5	4.9	4.8	
Foreign-born women	8.2	5.5	8.0	6.8	6.8	6.3	

Notes and sources are at the end of the chapter.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/410215088658>

HOW TO READ THE TABLES OF PART IV

Annual averages have been calculated for most of the series presented. The averages cover the periods 1995-1999 and 2000-2004. In some cases, depending on the availability of data, they may be calculated for shorter periods.

Sources and notes

Migration flows of foreigners

Sources and notes are available in the Statistical Annex (metadata related to Tables A.1.1. and B.1.1.)

Long-term migration inflows of foreigners by type

The statistics are based largely on residence and work permit data and have been harmonised, to the extent possible (cf. www.oecd.org/els/migration/imo2006).

Temporary migration

Based on residence or work permit data. Data on temporary workers generally do not cover workers who benefit from a free circulation agreement.

Inflows of asylum seekers

United Nations High Commission for Refugees.

Macroeconomic and labour market indicators

Real GDP and GDP per capita

Annual National Accounts – Comparative tables at the price levels and PPPs of 2000.

Employment and unemployment

Employment Outlook, OECD, 2005. Some series appearing in the latter have been revised since they were published.

Components of population growth

Labour Force Statistics, OECD, 2005.

Total population

Foreign-born population

National sources and Secretariat estimates (cf.: www.oecd.org/els/migration/imo2006 for more information on methods of estimation). Sources and notes of national sources are provided in the Statistical Annex (see metadata for Tables A.1.4. and B.1.4.).

Foreign population

National sources. Exact sources and notes are given in the Statistical Annex (metadata related to Tables A.1.5. and B.1.5.).

Naturalisations

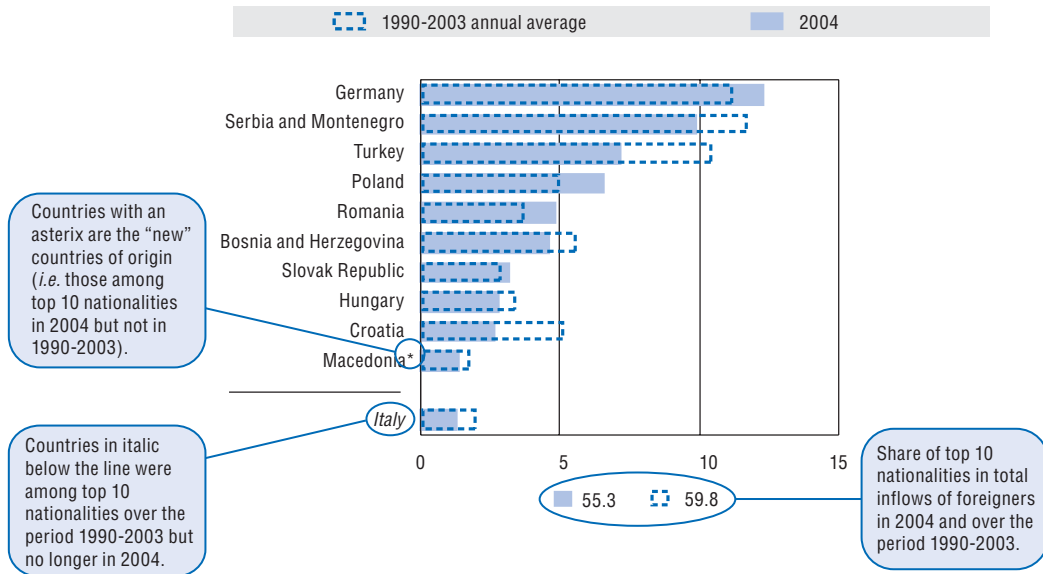
National sources. Exact sources and notes are given in the Statistical Annex (metadata related to Tables A.1.6. and B.1.6.).

Labour market outcomes

European countries: European Community Labour Force Survey (data provided by Eurostat) except for Denmark (Population Register data); Australia: Labour Force Survey; Canada: Survey of Labour and Income Dynamics; United States: Current Population Survey, March supplement.

HOW TO READ THE CHART

Inflows of top 10 nationalities as a % of total inflows of foreigners



STATISTICAL ANNEX

Introduction

Most of the data published in this annex are taken from the individual contributions of national correspondents appointed by the OECD Secretariat with the approval of the authorities of member countries. Consequently, these data have not necessarily been harmonised at international level. This network of correspondents, constituting the Continuous Reporting System on Migration (SOPEMI), covers most OECD member countries as well as the Baltic States, Bulgaria and Romania. SOPEMI has no authority to impose changes in data collection procedures. It has an observatory role which, by its very nature, has to use existing statistics. However, it does play an active role in suggesting what it considers to be essential improvements in data collection and makes every effort to present consistent and well-documented statistics.

No data are presented on the native population, since the purpose of this annex is to describe the “immigrant” population as defined in the specific host country (*i.e.* the foreign or foreign-born population, as the case may be). The information gathered concerns the flows and stocks of the total immigrant population and immigrant labour force, together with acquisition of nationality. The presentation of the tables in a relatively standard format should not lead users to think that the data have been fully standardised and are comparable at an international level, since few sources are specifically designed to record migration trends. Because of the great variety of sources used, different populations may be measured. In addition, the criteria for registering population and the conditions for granting residence permits, for example, vary across countries, which means that measurements may differ greatly even if a theoretically identical source is being used.

In addition to the problem of the comparability of statistics, there is the difficulty of the very partial coverage of illegal migrants. Part of this population can be counted through censuses. The number of immigrants who entered legally but then stay on after their residence permits (or visa) have expired can be calculated from permit statistics, but without it being possible to determine what the number of these immigrants that have left the country. Regularisation programmes, when they exist, make it possible to account for a far from negligible fraction of illegal immigrants after the fact. In terms of measurement, this makes it possible better to evaluate the volume of the foreign population at a given time, although it is not always possible to classify these immigrants by the year when they entered the country.

The rationale used to arrange the series has been to present first the tables covering the total population (series 1.1 to 1.6: inflows and outflows of foreign population, inflows of asylum seekers, stocks of foreign-born and foreign population, acquisition of nationality), and then focus on the labour force (series 2.1 to 2.4: inflows of foreign workers, inflows of seasonal workers, stocks of foreign-born and foreign labour force).

Since the nature of the sources used differs considerably across countries, each series is preceded by an explanatory note aimed at making it easier to understand and use the data produced. A summary table then follows (series A, giving the total for each host country), which introduces the tables by nationality or country of birth as the case may be (series B). At the end of each series, a table provides for each country the sources and notes of the data presented in the tables.

General comments on tables

- a) The tables provide annual series for the ten most recent years (in general 1995-2004).
- b) The series A tables are presented in alphabetical order by the name of the country in English. In the other tables, nationalities or countries are ranked by decreasing order of the stocks for the last year available.
- c) In the tables by country of origin (series B) only the 15 main countries are shown and only when this information is available. "Other countries" is a residual calculated as the difference between the total foreign population and the sum of the nationalities indicated in the table. For some nationalities, data are not available for all years and this is reflected in the residual entry of "Other countries". This must be borne in mind when interpreting changes in this category.
- d) Tables on inflows of asylum seekers by nationality (series B.1.3) are presented for the top ten host countries in 2004. The data on outflows of foreign population (series 1.2), inflows of workers (series 2.1) and seasonal workers (series 2.2) are not broken down by nationality. Only totals are presented, in Tables A.1.2, A.2.1 and A.2.2, respectively.
- e) The rounding of entries may cause totals to differ slightly from the sum of the component entries.
- f) The symbols used in the tables are the following:
 - . . Data not available.
 - Nil, or negligible.

Inflows and Outflows of Foreign Population

OECD countries seldom have specific tools for measuring inflows and outflows of foreign population, and national estimates are generally based either on population registers or residence permit data. This note is aimed at describing more systematically what is measured by each of the sources used.

Flows derived from population registers

Population registers can usually produce inflow and outflow data for both nationals and foreigners. To register, foreigners may have to indicate possession of an appropriate residence and/or work permit valid for at least as long as minimum registration period. Emigrants are usually identified by a stated intention to leave the country, although the period of (intended) absence is not always specified.

When population registers are used, departures tend to be less well recorded than arrivals. Indeed, the emigrant who plans to return in the host country in the more or less long term can hesitate to inform about his departure to avoid losing the rights related to the affiliation to the register. Registration criteria vary considerably across countries (as the minimum duration of stay for individuals to be defined as immigrants ranges from three months to one year), which poses major problems of international comparison. For example, in some countries, register data cover a portion of temporary migrants, in some cases including asylum seekers when they live in private households (as opposed to reception centres or hostels for immigrants).

Flows derived from residence and/or work permits

Statistics on permits are generally based on the number of permits issued during a given period and depend on the types of permits used. The so-called “settlement countries” (Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States) consider as immigrants persons who have been issued “acceptances for settlement”. In the case of France, the permits covered are valid for at least one year (only students are not included). Data for Italy and Portugal include temporary migrants.

Another characteristic of permit data is that flows of nationals are not recorded. Some flows of foreigners may also not be recorded, either because the type of permit they hold is not used for statistics or because they are not required to have a permit (freedom of movement agreements). In addition, permit data do not necessarily reflect physical flows or actual lengths of stay since: i) permits may be issued overseas but individuals may decide not to use them, or delay their arrival; ii) permits may be issued to persons who have in fact been resident in the country for some time, the

permit indicating a change of status, or a renewal of the same permit. The data for Australia, those who have been accepted for permanent settlement whilst already in the country with a temporary status.

Permit data may be influenced by the processing capacity of government agencies. In some instances a large backlog of applications may build up and therefore the true demand for permits may only emerge once backlogs are cleared.

Flows estimated from specific surveys

Ireland provides estimates based on the results of Quarterly National Household Surveys and other sources such as permit data and asylum applications. These estimates are revised periodically on the basis of census data. Data for the United Kingdom are based on a survey of passengers entering or exiting the country by plane, train or boat (International Passenger Survey). One of the aims of this survey is to estimate the number and characteristics of migrants. The survey is based on a random sample of approximately one out of every 500 passengers. The figures were revised significantly following the latest census in each of these two countries, which seems to indicate that these estimates do not constitute an “ideal” source either. Australia and New Zealand also conduct passenger surveys which enable them to establish the length of stay on the basis of migrants’ stated intentions when they enter or exit the country.

Table A.1.1. Inflows of foreign population into selected OECD countries
Thousands

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
<i>Inflow data based on population registers:</i>										
Austria	59.2	72.4	66.0	74.8	92.6	97.2	108.9
Belgium	53.1	51.9	49.2	50.7	68.5	68.6	66.0	70.2	68.8	72.4
Czech Republic	5.9	7.4	9.9	7.9	6.8	4.2	11.3	43.6	57.4	50.8
Denmark	33.0	24.7	20.4	21.3	20.3	22.9	25.2	22.0	18.7	18.8
Finland	7.3	7.5	8.1	8.3	7.9	9.1	11.0	10.0	9.4	11.5
Germany	788.3	708.0	615.3	605.5	673.9	648.8	685.3	658.3	601.8	602.2
Hungary	14.0	13.7	13.3	16.1	20.2	20.2	20.3	18.0	19.4	18.1
Japan	209.9	225.4	274.8	265.5	281.9	345.8	351.2	343.8	373.9	372.0
Luxembourg	9.6	9.2	9.4	10.6	11.8	10.8	11.1	11.0	11.5	11.3
Netherlands	67.0	77.2	76.7	81.7	78.4	91.4	94.5	86.6	73.6	65.1
Norway	16.5	17.2	22.0	26.7	32.2	27.8	25.4	30.8	26.8	27.9
Slovak Republic	4.6	7.9
Spain	57.2	99.1	330.9	394.0	443.1	429.5	645.8
Sweden	36.1	29.3	33.4	35.7	34.6	42.6	44.1	47.6	48.0	47.6
Switzerland	87.9	74.3	70.1	72.4	83.4	85.6	99.5	97.6	90.6	96.3
<i>Inflow data based on residence permits or on other sources:</i>										
Australia										
Permanent inflows	87.4	115.7	101.0	92.4	101.6	114.6	138.3	119.8	130.2	150.7
Temporary inflows	124.4	130.2	147.1	173.2	194.1	224.0	245.1	340.2	244.7	261.6
Canada
Permanent inflows	212.9	226.1	216.0	174.2	189.9	227.3	250.5	229.1	221.4	235.8
Temporary inflows	179.7	187.6	195.1	199.2	234.1	262.9	283.7	263.5	244.7	245.7
France	52.2	51.4	78.1	113.5	83.6	93.0	107.6	124.8	135.1	140.1
Greece	38.2
Ireland	13.6	21.5	23.7	21.7	22.2	27.8	32.7	39.9	33.0	33.2
Italy	111.0	268.0	271.5	232.8	388.1	..	319.3
Korea	185.4	172.5	170.9	178.3	188.8
Mexico
Permanent inflows	40.2	43.2	46.2	48.6	42.2	41.1	35.7	32.4
Temporary inflows	30.0	29.2	27.1	25.3	22.7	24.2	26.1	24.6	29.1	34.0
New Zealand	55.9	42.7	32.9	27.4	31.0	37.6	54.4	47.5	43.0	36.2
Poland	5.2	17.4	15.9	21.5	30.2	30.3	36.8
Portugal	5.0	3.6	3.3	6.5	10.5	15.9	141.1	61.5	21.0	14.1
Turkey	168.1	161.2	157.6	152.2	155.5
United Kingdom	228.0	224.2	237.2	287.3	337.4	379.3	373.3	418.2	406.8	494.1
United States
Permanent inflows	720.5	915.9	798.4	654.5	646.6	849.8	1 064.3	1 063.7	705.8	946.1
Temporary inflows	999.6	997.3	1 106.6	1 249.4	1 375.1	1 282.6	1 233.4	1 299.3
EU-25 (among above countries) + Norway and Switzerland	1 598.5	1 948.5	2 232.3	2 471.5	2 694.1	2 478.9	2 814.5
North America (permanent)	933.3	1 142.0	1 014.4	828.6	836.5	1 077.2	1 314.8	1 292.8	927.2	1 182.0

Note: Data from population registers are not fully comparable because the criteria governing who gets registered differ from country to country. Counts for the Netherlands, Norway and especially Germany include substantial numbers of asylum seekers.

For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.1.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/122742428620>

Table A.1.2. **Outflows of foreign population from selected OECD countries**

Thousands

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
<i>Outflow data based on population registers:</i>										
Austria	44.9	47.3	44.4	51.0	38.8	46.1	48.3
Belgium	33.1	32.4	34.6	36.3	36.4	35.6	31.4	31.0	33.9	..
Czech Republic	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	20.4	31.1	33.2	33.8
Denmark	5.3	6.0	6.7	7.7	8.2	8.3	8.9	8.7	8.7	..
Finland	1.5	3.0	1.6	1.7	2.0	4.1	2.2	2.8	2.3	4.2
Germany	561.1	559.1	637.1	639.0	555.6	562.4	497.0	505.6	499.1	547.0
Hungary	2.4	2.8	1.9	2.3	2.5	2.2	1.9	1.8	2.6	3.4
Japan	194.4	160.1	176.6	187.8	198.3	210.9	232.8	248.4	259.4	278.5
Luxembourg	4.9	5.6	5.8	6.7	6.9	7.1	7.8	8.3	9.4	9.6
Netherlands	21.7	22.4	21.9	21.3	20.7	20.7	20.4	21.2	21.9	23.5
Norway	9.0	10.0	10.0	12.0	12.7	14.9	15.2	12.3	14.3	9.0
Sweden	15.4	14.5	15.3	14.1	13.6	12.6	12.7	14.3	15.1	16.0
Switzerland	67.5	67.7	63.4	59.0	58.1	55.8	52.7	49.7	46.3	47.9
<i>Outflow data based on residence permits or on other sources:</i>										
Australia										
Permanent departures	16.9	17.7	18.2	19.2	17.9	20.8	23.4	24.1	24.9	29.9
Long-term departures	27.4	27.7	28.6	30.3	29.4	30.0	42.2	31.9	29.5	29.6
Korea	89.1	107.2	114.0	152.3	148.8
Mexico										
Permanent residents	40.6	41.5	45.7	47.4	45.9	39.1	31.2	29.1
Temporary residents	34.4	30.7	27.0	25.0	21.5	22.6	25.7	26.8
New Zealand	10.8	12.6	14.7	16.2	15.9	15.6	28.6	22.4	25.4	29.0
United Kingdom	101.0	108.0	130.6	125.7	151.6	159.6	148.5	173.7	170.6	151.9

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.1.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/514710850370>

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

AUSTRALIA

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
United Kingdom	10.7	14.4	12.7	12.1	11.7	13.3	14.3	13.8	18.2	24.6
New Zealand	10.5	12.3	13.1	14.7	18.7	21.9	25.2	15.7	12.4	14.4
China	3.7	13.2	8.8	5.5	8.9	9.5	11.9	10.0	11.1	13.6
India	3.9	4.1	3.1	3.2	3.0	5.4	9.0	7.6	9.0	11.6
South Africa	2.8	3.6	3.8	5.2	6.0	7.4	7.6	7.4	6.3	7.6
Philippines	4.1	4.0	3.4	3.4	4.0	4.0	3.9	3.5	3.8	4.9
Malaysia	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.2	1.6	2.3	2.9	3.2	4.1	5.6
Sri Lanka	2.0	2.1	1.6	1.4	1.2	1.6	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.3
Viet Nam	5.1	3.9	3.2	2.6	2.6	2.0	2.4	2.5	3.1	2.5
Fiji	1.5	2.3	2.1	1.4	1.8	2.1	2.5	2.0	2.0	1.8
United States	1.8	2.4	2.4	2.0	1.8	2.1	2.6	2.3	2.8	2.6
Lebanon	1.2	1.6	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.4	1.7	1.3	1.8	1.4
Hong Kong, China	4.1	4.7	4.1	3.5	2.2	1.8	2.1	1.6	2.0	2.4
Ireland	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.0	0.9	1.1	1.1	0.9	1.1	1.5
Germany	0.8	1.2	1.2	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.5
Other countries	33.2	43.4	37.8	32.8	34.9	37.5	47.3	44.4	48.8	52.5
Total	87.4	115.7	101.0	92.4	101.6	114.6	138.3	119.8	130.2	150.7

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/635538552746>Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

AUSTRIA

	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Germany	6.6	7.5	7.7	10.4	8.3	10.9	13.3
Serbia and Montenegro	9.4	13.5	6.4	6.2	8.8	9.3	10.8
Turkey	5.9	7.2	7.0	7.7	10.4	9.7	7.8
Poland	5.0	5.1	3.5	3.5	2.5	2.9	7.1
Romania	1.5	1.8	1.9	2.4	4.2	5.1	5.3
Bosnia and Herzegovina	3.3	3.8	4.4	5.4	4.0	4.8	5.0
Slovak Republic	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.4	2.2	2.3	3.5
Hungary	2.1	2.3	2.5	3.1	2.2	2.5	3.1
Croatia	2.6	3.9	4.1	6.5	3.1	2.9	2.9
Macedonia	0.8	1.0	0.9	1.4	1.7	1.5	1.5
Czech Republic	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.0	1.1	1.4
Italy	1.2	1.4	1.4	1.7	1.3	1.3	1.4
Slovenia	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.7	0.4	0.4	0.6
Other countries	17.2	20.9	22.4	21.9	42.7	42.5	45.3
Total	59.2	72.4	66.0	74.8	92.6	97.2	108.9

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

BELGIUM

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
France	6.2	6.6	7.0	7.4	7.9	8.1	8.0	8.1	8.2	9.5
Netherlands	6.5	7.8	6.3	6.2	6.2	7.2	8.2	8.4	8.5	8.8
Morocco	3.6	4.0	3.9	4.3	4.9	5.7	7.1	8.5	8.4	8.0
Poland	0.8	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.1	2.9	2.4	2.1	3.5
Germany	3.1	3.2	3.1	3.2	3.1	3.0	2.9	3.0	2.9	3.3
Turkey	2.5	2.5	1.4	2.4	2.2	2.8	3.0	3.9	3.8	3.2
United States	3.0	3.0	3.1	2.8	2.9	2.8	2.9	2.7	2.5	2.6
United Kingdom	2.8	2.8	2.7	2.7	3.0	3.2	2.7	2.5	2.5	2.4
Italy	2.6	2.7	2.8	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.4	2.3	2.3	2.3
Portugal	1.7	1.8	1.6	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.6	1.8	1.9
Spain	1.0	1.0	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6
Romania	0.3	0.3	0.4	..	0.6	0.7	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.4
China	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	1.3	2.1	1.6	1.4
India	0.4	0.5	0.4	..	0.6	0.7	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.2
Democratic Republic of the Congo	1.0	0.8	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	1.4	1.3	1.1	1.1
Other countries	17.0	13.3	13.0	14.0	18.6	15.1	18.5	19.9	19.3	20.1
Total	53.1	51.9	49.2	50.7	57.8	57.3	66.0	70.2	68.8	72.4

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

CANADA

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
China	13.3	17.5	18.5	19.8	29.1	36.7	40.4	33.3	36.2	36.4
India	16.3	21.3	19.6	15.4	17.5	26.1	27.9	28.8	24.6	25.6
Philippines	15.2	13.2	10.9	8.2	9.2	10.1	12.9	11.0	12.0	13.3
Pakistan	4.0	7.8	11.2	8.1	9.3	14.2	15.4	14.2	12.4	12.8
United States	5.2	5.9	5.0	4.8	5.5	5.8	5.9	5.3	6.0	7.5
Iran	3.7	5.8	7.5	6.8	5.9	5.6	5.7	7.9	5.7	6.1
United Kingdom	6.2	5.6	4.7	3.9	4.5	4.6	5.4	4.7	5.2	6.1
Romania	3.9	3.7	3.9	3.0	3.5	4.4	5.6	5.7	5.5	5.7
Korea	3.5	3.2	4.0	4.9	7.2	7.6	9.6	7.3	7.1	5.3
France	3.9	3.4	2.9	3.9	3.9	4.3	4.4	4.0	4.1	5.0
Colombia	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.9	1.3	2.2	3.0	3.2	4.3	4.4
Sri Lanka	8.9	6.2	5.1	3.3	4.7	5.8	5.5	5.0	4.4	4.1
Russian Federation	1.7	2.5	3.7	4.3	3.8	3.5	4.1	3.7	3.5	3.7
Afghanistan	1.4	2.0	2.1	1.6	2.1	2.8	3.2	3.0	3.0	2.5
Ukraine	1.8	2.7	2.5	2.7	..	3.3	3.6	3.6	2.8	2.4
Other countries	123.7	125.2	113.9	82.8	82.4	90.0	98.1	88.4	84.6	94.9
Total	212.9	226.1	216.0	174.2	190.0	227.5	250.6	229.0	221.4	235.8

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

CZECH REPUBLIC

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Ukraine	0.7	1.1	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.1	2.8	10.7	15.5	16.3
Slovak Republic	2.6	2.6	2.4	2.0	1.7	1.0	2.4	13.0	23.7	15.0
Viet Nam	0.4	0.7	1.7	1.2	0.8	0.3	2.2	5.7	3.6	4.5
Russian Federation	0.3	0.4	0.7	0.5	0.6	0.4	0.7	2.4	1.8	2.0
Poland	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.4	1.7	1.6	1.8
Germany	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.8	0.8	1.3
Moldova	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.8	1.2	1.0
United States	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.7	0.9	0.7
Bulgaria	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.7	0.6	0.7
Belarus	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.6	0.6	0.6
Romania	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.3
Bosnia and Herzegovina	0.0	0.1	0.5	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3
Kazakhstan	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2
Serbia and Montenegro	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.1
Other countries	0.9	1.2	1.2	1.1	0.8	0.7	1.3	5.6	6.2	6.2
Total	5.9	7.4	9.9	7.9	6.8	4.2	11.3	43.6	57.4	50.8

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

DENMARK

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
China	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	1.1	1.5	1.3
Norway	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.3
Iceland	1.2	1.2	0.9	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	1.1	1.0	1.1
Germany	1.0	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.0	0.9	1.0	0.9	0.9	1.0
Sweden	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.8
Poland	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.7
United Kingdom	0.9	1.0	0.9	1.0	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.8	0.7
United States	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6
Ukraine	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6
Lithuania	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.5
Thailand	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.5
Afghanistan	..	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.6	1.5	3.0	1.3	0.7	0.5
India	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5
Philippines	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.4
Iraq	1.0	1.1	1.3	2.3	1.9	2.9	3.2	2.1	1.2	0.4
Other countries	25.8	16.7	12.5	10.9	10.2	10.7	10.7	10.1	7.8	7.8
Total	33.0	24.7	20.4	21.3	20.3	22.9	25.2	22.0	18.7	18.8

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

FINLAND

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Russian Federation	2.0	2.0	2.4	2.5	2.2	2.5	2.5	2.0	1.7	1.9
Estonia	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.7	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.7
Sweden	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.7
China	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4
Thailand	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4
Germany	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3
United Kingdom	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Iraq	0.2	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.3
Turkey	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2
United States	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Iran	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2
Somalia	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2
Ukraine	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1
Viet Nam	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	–	0.1	0.1	0.1	–	0.1
Bosnia and Herzegovina	0.4	0.4	0.1	–	0.1	–	–	–	–	0.1
Other countries	1.8	1.7	1.9	2.2	2.5	3.2	4.0	3.3	3.4	4.3
Total	7.3	7.5	8.1	8.3	7.9	9.1	11.0	10.0	9.4	11.5

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

FRANCE

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Algeria	8.4	7.8	12.2	16.7	11.4	12.4	15.1	23.3	27.5	26.6
Morocco	6.6	6.6	10.3	16.1	14.1	16.9	18.7	21.4	22.1	21.7
Turkey	3.6	3.4	5.1	6.8	5.7	6.6	6.9	8.5	8.6	9.0
Tunisia	1.9	2.2	3.6	5.3	4.0	5.5	6.5	7.6	9.3	8.7
Congo	0.3	0.4	1.0	2.1	1.5	1.7	2.1	3.1	3.5	3.9
Russian Federation	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.4	1.9	2.3	2.8
China	0.8	0.7	2.8	5.7	1.7	1.8	2.1	1.7	2.3	2.8
Haiti	1.4	0.8	1.9	1.9	1.4	1.8	2.1	2.0	2.5	2.8
United States	2.4	2.7	2.8	2.5	2.7	2.6	2.6	2.4	2.3	2.6
Senegal	0.7	0.9	1.6	3.0	1.8	1.9	2.1	2.2	2.4	2.3
Mali	0.3	0.5	1.5	4.2	2.0	1.4	1.5	1.5	2.1	2.0
Serbia and Montenegro	0.8	0.7	1.0	1.8	1.3	1.2	1.4	1.6	1.7	1.9
Romania	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.7
Sri Lanka	0.8	0.9	1.3	1.8	1.2	1.3	2.1	1.6	1.4	1.5
Brazil	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.8	1.0	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.4
Other countries	18.5	18.9	27.5	40.3	29.1	31.5	36.4	38.5	40.0	42.3
Total	48.8	48.4	74.5	110.7	80.7	89.8	103.6	120.0	130.7	134.0

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

GERMANY

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Poland	87.2	77.4	71.2	66.1	72.2	74.1	79.7	81.6	88.2	125.0
Turkey	73.6	73.2	56.0	48.0	47.1	49.1	54.6	58.1	49.8	42.6
Russian Federation	33.0	31.9	24.8	21.3	27.8	32.1	36.6	36.5	31.8	28.5
Romania	24.8	17.1	14.2	17.0	18.8	24.2	20.3	24.0	23.8	23.5
Serbia and Montenegro	54.1	42.9	31.2	59.9	87.8	33.0	28.3	26.4	22.8	21.7
Italy	48.0	45.8	39.0	35.6	34.9	32.8	29.0	25.0	21.6	19.6
Hungary	18.8	16.6	11.2	13.3	14.9	16.0	17.4	20.6	14.3	17.4
United States	16.0	16.3	15.1	17.0	16.8	17.5	17.4	15.5	14.7	15.3
Ukraine	15.4	13.7	12.5	14.1	15.3	18.2	20.5	20.6	17.7	15.0
France	14.4	14.9	14.4	14.3	15.3	15.9	14.5	12.7	12.3	12.5
Bulgaria	8.0	6.3	6.3	5.3	8.1	10.3	..	13.2	13.4	11.6
Croatia	14.9	12.3	10.0	10.1	12.6	14.1	13.9	13.1	11.6	10.5
Greece	20.3	18.8	16.4	16.1	17.6	17.4	16.5	15.0	12.1	10.2
Czech Republic	10.0	8.9	7.7	7.7	9.3	11.3	11.3	10.2	8.4	8.9
Bosnia and Herzegovina	55.2	11.1	6.9	8.4	10.3	10.4	12.8	10.5	8.4	8.0
Other countries	294.7	300.7	278.3	251.3	265.0	272.5	312.4	275.5	250.8	231.8
Total	788.3	708.0	615.3	605.5	673.9	648.8	685.3	658.3	601.8	602.2

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

GREECE

	1998
Russian Federation	4.8
Bulgaria	2.9
Albania	2.7
Egypt	2.2
Romania	2.1
Ukraine	1.7
Former Yugoslavia	1.4
United States	1.4
Poland	1.3
Germany	1.3
United Kingdom	1.2
Philippines	1.0
Turkey	0.8
Syrian Arab Republic	0.7
Lebanon	0.7
Other countries	12.0
Total	38.2

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

HUNGARY

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Romania	5.1	4.2	4.0	5.5	7.8	8.9	10.6	10.3	9.6	11.0
Ukraine	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.8	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.1	2.6	2.5
Serbia and Montenegro	1.3	0.9	0.8	1.5	2.5	1.8	1.0	0.4	0.7	1.1
China	1.2	1.8	1.7	1.3	1.2	1.1	0.4	0.1	0.7	0.6
United States	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.3
Viet Nam	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3
Israel	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2
Russian Federation	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2
Mongolia	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2
Japan	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1
Turkey	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.1
United Kingdom	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.1
Canada	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Germany	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.3	0.4	0.1
Other countries	2.7	2.6	2.6	2.9	3.1	3.5	3.0	2.7	2.8	1.3
Total	14.0	13.7	13.3	16.1	20.2	20.2	20.3	18.0	19.4	18.1

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

IRELAND

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
United Kingdom	5.8	8.3	8.4	8.6	8.2	8.4	9.0	7.4	6.9	5.9
United States	1.5	4.0	4.2	2.3	2.5	2.5	3.7	2.7	1.6	1.8
Other countries	6.3	9.2	11.1	10.8	11.5	16.9	20.0	29.8	24.5	25.5
Total	13.6	21.5	23.7	21.7	22.2	27.8	32.7	39.9	33.0	33.2

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

ITALY

	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2004
Romania	5.9	20.9	20.7	18.7	50.2	62.3
Albania	11.2	37.2	31.2	27.9	39.1	29.6
Morocco	7.3	24.9	24.7	17.8	26.1	24.6
Poland	3.9	6.7	7.1	8.7	15.3	14.3
Ukraine	1.0	2.6	4.1	5.1	8.1	11.2
China	3.4	11.0	15.4	8.8	15.4	10.6
United States	4.7	5.7	7.2	7.3	11.2	8.0
Brazil	2.4	3.5	3.7	4.3	6.9	8.0
Serbia and Montenegro	5.7	24.5	5.3	6.0	8.2	6.3
Tunisia	1.5	5.8	6.8	6.5	8.0	6.0
Russian Federation	3.2	3.8	3.3	5.3	6.4	5.9
India	2.6	5.4	7.0	4.8	7.2	5.7
Philippines	2.6	5.7	12.2	4.6	10.4	5.2
Moldova	1.9	5.1
Ecuador	..	4.3	3.0	..	5.3	5.0
Other countries	55.6	106.3	118.0	106.6	170.5	111.6
Total	111.0	268.0	271.5	232.8	388.1	319.3

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

JAPAN

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Philippines	30.3	30.3	43.2	47.6	57.3	74.2	84.9	87.2	93.4	96.2
China	38.8	45.6	52.3	55.7	59.1	75.3	86.4	88.6	92.2	90.3
Brazil	11.9	16.4	39.6	21.9	26.1	45.5	29.7	22.7	33.4	32.2
Korea	18.8	17.1	17.9	17.1	23.1	24.3	24.7	22.9	21.9	22.8
United States	27.0	27.9	27.7	27.7	24.7	24.0	20.6	21.5	21.5	21.3
Indonesia	7.2	8.3	10.2	8.6	8.8	9.9	10.6	9.7	11.1	10.7
Thailand	6.5	6.6	6.4	7.5	6.4	6.6	6.8	5.9	6.6	7.1
Russian Federation	6.4	6.0	5.1	4.6	4.3	6.4	6.3	6.6	7.7	7.1
Viet Nam	1.7	2.1	2.7	3.0	3.2	3.8	4.7	5.3	6.6	6.5
United Kingdom	6.4	6.4	6.9	6.8	7.0	7.0	6.7	6.6	6.6	6.3
Other countries	54.7	58.8	62.8	65.0	62.0	68.7	69.7	66.9	73.1	71.4
Total	209.9	225.4	274.8	265.5	281.9	345.8	351.2	343.8	373.9	372.0

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

KOREA

	2000	2001	2002	2003
China	66.6	70.6	60.0	57.7
United States	14.7	16.2	19.0	17.1
Russian Federation	7.5	8.0	9.5	10.8
Philippines	13.4	7.8	8.1	10.2
Indonesia	7.9	7.2	10.0	9.3
Japan	7.2	8.0	8.5	7.3
Thailand	8.0	6.7	6.8	7.2
Uzbekistan	5.5	3.8	3.9	7.0
Viet Nam	7.6	..	3.2	6.8
Canada	..	4.2	5.3	5.3
Other countries	46.9	40.1	36.4	39.6
Total	185.4	172.5	170.9	178.3

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

LUXEMBOURG

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Portugal	2.4	2.0	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.8	3.3	3.1
France	1.5	1.5	1.7	2.0	2.2	2.3	2.1	1.9	1.8	1.8
Belgium	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.5	1.3	1.1	1.0
Germany	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.7
Italy	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.5
United States	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.2
Netherlands	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1
Spain	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1
Other countries	2.9	2.8	2.7	3.4	4.4	3.1	3.4	3.4	3.8	3.8
Total	9.6	9.2	9.4	10.6	11.8	10.8	11.1	11.0	11.5	11.3

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

NETHERLANDS

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Germany	4.7	5.7	5.7	4.7	4.5	4.9	5.1	5.1	4.8	5.3
Poland	..	1.4	1.4	1.5	0.9	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.5	4.5
Turkey	4.8	6.4	6.5	5.1	4.2	4.5	4.8	5.4	6.2	4.1
United Kingdom	3.7	4.3	4.3	4.7	5.0	5.9	5.9	4.8	4.1	3.6
Morocco	3.1	4.3	4.5	5.3	4.4	4.2	4.9	4.9	4.5	3.3
China	..	1.3	1.6	1.4	1.3	1.8	2.8	3.4	3.8	3.0
United States	2.2	3.1	3.1	3.3	3.3	3.4	3.1	3.0	2.5	2.3
Suriname	1.7	2.8	2.6	3.2	1.8	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.4	2.0
France	..	1.7	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.2	2.2	2.0	1.9	1.8
Belgium	1.3	1.9	2.2	1.9	2.0	2.0	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.5
Spain	..	1.0	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.3
Italy	..	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.2
Japan	..	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.2
Indonesia	1.4	1.6	1.6	1.4	1.2
Former Yugoslavia	7.3	3.4	1.6	1.4	0.7	1.4	1.1	0.8	0.8	0.6
Other countries	38.2	37.4	37.4	43.3	44.2	52.4	53.4	45.7	34.1	28.4
Total	67.0	77.2	76.7	81.7	78.4	91.4	94.5	86.6	73.6	65.1

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

NEW ZEALAND

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
United Kingdom	6.4	5.4	5.5	4.4	4.4	5.0	6.8	6.6	8.2	8.7
China	5.3	5.3	4.5	3.5	3.1	4.3	7.9	7.6	5.9	4.0
India	3.4	3.2	2.2	2.2	2.7	4.3	7.4	8.2	4.8	3.1
South Africa	1.9	2.8	4.1	3.4	3.5	3.5	4.8	3.3	2.4	2.4
Fiji	0.9	1.3	1.6	1.6	1.8	2.2	3.6	2.3	2.5	2.3
Samoa	2.2	2.1	2.2	1.5	1.8	2.5	2.0	1.2	2.2	1.6
Korea	3.4	2.0	0.7	0.5	0.7	1.1	2.4	2.4	1.6	1.5
Tonga	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.7	2.4	1.2
United States	0.7	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.0
Philippines	1.2	1.2	0.9	0.6	0.8	1.0	1.3	1.6	0.9	0.8
Malaysia	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.6	1.0	2.1	1.2	1.0	0.5
Germany	0.4	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.4
Japan	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.4	0.5	0.4
Thailand	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.4
Canada	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3
Other countries	27.7	15.9	8.3	6.4	8.3	9.4	12.3	9.9	8.3	7.5
Total	55.9	42.7	32.9	27.4	31.0	37.6	54.4	47.5	43.0	36.2

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

NORWAY

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Sweden	2.1	2.9	4.9	6.0	4.5	3.5	3.1	2.9	2.7	2.4
Russian Federation	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.4	1.8	1.7
Denmark	1.6	1.6	1.8	2.1	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.1	1.7	1.6
Poland	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.7	0.6	1.6
Germany	0.5	0.6	0.8	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.4
Somalia	0.4	0.4	0.5	1.1	1.2	1.5	1.1	2.2	1.7	1.2
Thailand	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.9	0.9	1.1
Iraq	0.3	0.4	0.7	1.1	2.1	4.5	1.2	2.7	1.1	1.0
United Kingdom	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.3	1.0	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.6	0.9
Afghanistan	..	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.5	0.9	1.1	1.4	0.7
United States	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.0	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6
Serbia and Montenegro	0.6	0.2	0.2	0.3	6.5	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.6
Philippines	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6
Pakistan	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5
China	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.5
Other countries	7.6	7.4	8.8	10.2	10.6	9.9	10.6	11.7	10.4	11.4
Total	16.5	17.2	22.0	26.7	32.2	27.8	25.4	30.8	26.8	27.9

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

POLAND

	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Ukraine	0.9	2.6	3.4	4.8	6.9	8.4	10.2
Belarus	0.2	0.7	0.8	1.3	2.7	2.5	2.4
Viet Nam	0.8	1.5	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.3	2.2
Germany	0.2	0.8	0.7	1.1	1.6	1.5	2.2
Russian Federation	0.4	1.1	1.1	1.6	2.0	2.1	2.1
Armenia	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.7	1.0	2.0
France	0.0	0.6	0.9	1.0	1.5	1.0	1.5
United States	0.2	0.8	0.5	0.7	1.2	1.0	1.0
United Kingdom	0.1	0.5	0.4	0.8	1.2	0.9	1.0
India	0.1	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7
Italy	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.7
Kazakhstan	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.4	0.5
Turkey	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.6	0.6	0.5
Netherlands	0.0	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.3	0.5
China	0.1	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5
Other countries	1.5	6.5	4.6	6.3	8.2	7.7	8.9
Total	5.2	17.4	15.9	21.5	30.2	30.3	36.8

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

PORTUGAL

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Brazil	0.7	0.3	0.3	0.7	1.2	1.7	25.2	13.0	4.7	2.5
Cape Verde	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.8	1.0	2.1	7.2	4.3	1.9	1.8
United Kingdom	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	0.9	1.2
Angola	0.3	0.1	0.0	0.4	0.9	2.5	6.9	4.1	1.7	0.8
Ukraine	45.2	16.5	2.5	0.7
Guinea-Bissau	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	1.0	1.6	4.6	2.1	1.0	0.7
Moldova	9.0	3.1	0.6	0.6
Spain	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.5	1.0	1.1	1.4	0.9	0.7	0.6
Germany	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6
France	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.5
Sao Tome and Principe	0.1	–	–	0.1	0.3	0.6	2.2	1.2	0.5	0.4
Italy	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4
Romania	7.5	2.9	0.5	0.3
China	0.1	0.1	0.4	3.8	0.9	0.2	0.3
Venezuela	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Other countries	1.4	1.1	1.1	1.7	2.3	3.0	25.5	9.5	3.9	2.4
Total	5.0	3.6	3.3	6.5	10.5	15.9	141.1	61.5	21.0	14.1

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SLOVAK REPUBLIC

	2003	2004
Czech Republic	0.6	1.6
Poland	0.1	0.9
Ukraine	0.7	0.7
Germany	0.3	0.6
Austria	0.1	0.4
Hungary	0.1	0.3
France	0.1	0.3
United Kingdom	0.2	0.3
United States	0.3	0.2
Italy	0.1	0.2
Russian Federation	0.2	0.2
China	0.2	0.2
Viet Nam	0.3	0.2
Korea	–	0.1
Serbia and Montenegro	0.1	0.1
Other countries	1.2	1.6
Total	4.6	7.9

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SPAIN

	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Romania	0.5	1.8	17.5	23.3	48.3	55.0	89.5
Morocco	10.6	14.9	38.3	39.5	40.2	40.9	58.8
United Kingdom	4.5	7.9	10.9	16.0	25.3	32.1	44.3
Bolivia	0.2	0.5	3.3	4.9	10.6	18.1	35.3
Argentina	1.2	1.9	6.7	16.0	35.4	24.8	23.2
Bulgaria	0.2	0.7	6.5	11.8	15.9	13.6	17.9
Colombia	2.3	7.5	46.1	71.2	34.2	10.9	16.6
China	1.0	1.6	4.8	5.2	5.7	7.3	14.4
Brazil	0.9	1.6	4.1	4.3	4.7	7.3	13.0
Peru	2.1	2.9	6.0	7.1	8.0	13.3	13.0
Ecuador	2.0	9.0	91.1	82.6	89.0	72.6	11.9
Germany	7.1	9.3	10.2	10.7	11.2	11.1	11.8
Ukraine	0.2	0.6	6.3	11.0	10.8	9.1	10.3
Venezuela	0.9	1.6	3.4	4.1	5.4	10.4	10.2
Uruguay	0.2	0.4	1.3	2.8	6.2	9.3	9.8
Other countries	23.4	37.0	74.3	83.5	92.2	93.7	265.7
Total	57.2	99.1	330.9	394.0	443.1	429.5	645.8

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SWEDEN

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Denmark	1.8	1.4	1.0	1.1	1.3	2.0	2.5	3.2	3.6	3.8
Iraq	2.3	2.1	3.7	5.4	5.5	6.6	6.5	7.4	5.4	2.8
Finland	2.8	2.6	2.8	3.0	3.4	3.6	3.4	3.3	3.2	2.8
Norway	1.7	1.5	1.5	1.6	2.0	2.9	3.0	3.5	3.2	2.6
Poland	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.6	0.8	1.1	1.0	2.5
Thailand	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.7	2.0	2.1
Germany	0.8	1.0	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.8	1.8
China	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.8	1.4	1.5
Iran	1.1	0.8	1.7	1.5	1.0	1.1	1.3	1.4	1.0	1.5
Russian Federation	1.0	0.8	0.7	0.8	1.0	1.0	1.3
United Kingdom	0.8	0.9	0.8	1.0	1.0	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.2	1.2
Turkey	1.1	1.1	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.8	1.2	1.1
Somalia	0.5	0.4	1.1	0.8	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.9	1.3	1.1
Afghanistan	0.2	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.4	1.0	1.0
United States	1.1	1.1	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.9
Other countries	18.9	13.3	15.1	15.4	13.5	22.1	22.6	23.7	18.8	19.6
Total	36.1	29.3	33.4	35.7	34.6	42.6	44.1	47.6	48.0	47.6

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SWITZERLAND

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Germany	8.6	8.7	8.5	9.2	10.9	12.4	14.5	15.0	14.6	18.1
Portugal	7.6	5.5	4.0	3.5	3.7	3.6	3.7	6.6	10.1	13.6
France	5.0	5.0	4.8	5.2	6.1	6.5	6.5	6.6	6.4	6.7
Italy	6.7	5.4	5.0	5.0	5.8	5.2	5.4	5.6	5.3	5.7
Serbia and Montenegro	8.0	7.5	8.4	6.7	7.5	7.7	6.3	5.7
United Kingdom	2.6	2.4	2.4	2.7	3.3	3.7	3.9	3.1	2.7	2.9
United States	2.9	2.9	2.7	2.8	3.2	3.3	3.3	2.9	2.5	2.7
Turkey	3.8	3.4	2.9	2.6	3.0	2.8	3.1	3.2	2.7	2.4
Austria	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.4	2.0	2.4	2.4	1.9	2.3
Spain	2.7	2.0	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.7
Netherlands	1.5	1.4	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.1	1.0	1.1
Canada	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.1	1.3	1.3	1.0	0.8	0.8
Other countries	44.3	35.7	27.0	29.3	33.9	35.3	45.0	40.7	34.6	32.6
Total	87.9	74.3	70.1	72.4	83.4	85.6	99.5	97.6	90.6	96.3

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

TURKEY

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Bulgaria	61.0	58.0	59.0	55.0	52.0
Russian Federation	7.0	6.0	6.0	8.9	11.5
Azerbaijan	11.0	10.0	10.0	12.5	11.0
Greece	7.0	7.0	7.0	5.0	7.5
United States	6.0	5.5	6.0	6.5	7.0
Iran	6.0	7.0	7.0	5.5	6.5
Other countries	70.1	67.7	62.6	58.8	60.0
Total	168.1	161.2	157.6	152.2	155.5

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

UNITED KINGDOM

	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Australia	10.0	11.0	9.0	12.0	13.0	14.0	27.2	26.4	23.8	33.5
China	1.0	1.0	2.0	5.0	3.0	1.0	5.8	15.1	18.6	18.5
France	9.0	4.0	3.0	12.0	11.0	21.0	15.0	13.6	14.7	16.2
Germany	6.0	4.0	8.0	5.0	8.0	8.0	9.1	9.2	11.4	16.1
India	4.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	6.0	10.0	6.2	10.3	17.2	16.0
South Africa	1.0	2.0	1.0	3.0	4.0	6.0	11.7	12.0	14.2	13.1
United States	11.0	14.0	15.0	11.0	15.0	11.0	21.1	16.9	14.0	13.1
Philippines	1.0	1.0	..	1.0	2.0	1.0	0.1	5.4	6.1	11.6
New Zealand	6.0	6.0	7.0	8.0	9.0	7.0	14.5	13.4	12.4	11.6
Pakistan	6.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	8.0	5.0	4.2	6.6	9.5	9.6
Greece	3.0	8.0	3.0	3.0	6.0	9.0	12.5	10.3	5.5	5.6
Malaysia	5.0	5.0	8.0	10.0	5.0	10.0	5.1	4.1	5.5	5.4
Korea	2.0	1.0	1.0	3.0	4.0	..	1.7	1.4	4.3	5.3
Japan	4.0	5.0	5.0	5.0	5.0	8.0	7.1	7.9	7.3	4.8
Bangladesh	2.0	4.0	2.0	2.0	1.0	5.0	1.7	3.2	3.1	4.5
Other countries	42.0	42.0	58.0	60.0	64.0	66.0	71.1	81.0	93.1	81.5
Total	113.0	118.0	132.0	150.0	164.0	182.0	214.0	237.0	260.5	266.2
Total (adjusted figures)	175.0	179.2	206.2	228.0	224.2	237.2	287.3	337.4	379.3	373.3

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.1. **Inflows of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

UNITED STATES

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Mexico	89.9	163.6	146.9	131.6	147.6	173.9	206.4	219.4	115.9	175.4
India	34.7	44.9	38.1	36.5	30.2	42.0	70.3	71.1	50.4	70.1
Philippines	51.0	55.9	49.1	34.5	31.0	42.5	53.2	51.3	45.4	57.8
China	35.5	41.7	41.1	36.9	32.2	45.7	56.4	61.3	40.7	51.2
Viet Nam	41.8	42.1	38.5	17.6	20.4	26.7	35.5	33.6	22.1	31.5
Dominican Republic	38.5	39.6	27.1	20.4	17.9	17.5	21.3	22.6	26.2	30.5
El Salvador	11.7	17.9	18.0	14.6	14.6	22.6	31.3	31.2	28.3	29.8
Cuba	17.9	26.5	33.6	17.4	14.1	20.8	27.7	28.3	9.3	20.5
Korea	16.0	18.2	14.2	14.3	12.8	15.8	20.7	21.0	12.5	19.8
Colombia	10.8	14.3	13.0	11.8	10.0	14.5	16.7	18.8	14.8	18.7
Guatemala	6.2	8.8	7.8	7.8	7.3	10.0	13.6	16.2	14.4	18.0
Canada	12.9	15.8	11.6	10.2	8.9	16.2	21.9	19.5	11.4	15.6
United Kingdom	12.4	13.6	10.7	9.0	7.7	13.4	18.4	16.4	9.6	14.9
Jamaica	16.4	19.1	17.8	15.1	14.7	16.0	15.4	14.9	13.4	14.4
Poland	13.8	15.8	12.0	8.5	8.8	10.1	11.8	12.7	10.5	14.3
Other countries	310.7	378.3	318.8	268.4	268.3	362.0	443.6	425.3	280.9	363.8
Total	720.5	915.9	798.4	654.5	646.6	849.8	1 064.3	1 063.7	705.8	946.1

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Metadata related to Tables A.1.1, A.1.2. and B.1.1. **Migration flows in selected OECD countries**
Flow data based on Population Registers

Country	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
Austria	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 6 weeks.	Until 2001, data are from local population registers. Starting in 2002, they are from the central population register, where the nationality field is optional. The "other countries" line includes persons whose nationality is unknown.	Statistics Austria.
Belgium	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 3 months. Outflows include administrative corrections.	Figures do not include asylum seekers who are now recorded in a separate register.	Population Register, National Statistical Office.
Czech Republic	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a permanent or a long-term residence permit.	Until 2000, data include only holders of a permanent residence permit. From 2001 on, data also include refugees and long-term residence permit holders (valid for 90 days or more) whose stay exceeds a year.	Czech Statistical Office.
Denmark	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 3 months. However, the data on immigrants only count those who have lived in the country for at least one year. Outflows include administrative corrections.	Asylum seekers and all those with temporary residence permits are excluded from the data.	Central population register, Statistics Denmark.
Finland	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a residence permit, intending to stay in the country for at least 1 year.	Foreign persons of Finnish origin are included.	Central population register, Statistics Finland.
Germany	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 1 week.	Includes asylum seekers living in private households. Excludes inflows of ethnic Germans.	Central Population register, Federal Statistical Office.
Hungary	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a long-term residence permit (valid for up to 1 year).	Data include foreigners who have been residing in the country for at least a year and who currently hold a long-term permit. Data are presented by actual year of entry (whatever the type of permit when entering the country). Outflow data do not include people whose permit has expired.	Register of long-term residence permits, Ministry of the Interior and Central Statistical Office.
Japan	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a valid visa and intending to remain in the country for more than 90 days.	Excluding temporary visitors and re-entries.	Register of foreigners, Ministry of Justice, Immigration Bureau.
Luxembourg	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 3 months.		Central population register, Central Office of Statistics and Economic Studies (Statec).
Netherlands	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 4 of the next 6 months. Outflows include administrative corrections.	Inflows include some asylum seekers (except those staying in reception centres).	Population register, Central Bureau of Statistics.
Norway	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 6 months.	Includes asylum seekers awaiting decisions on their application for refugee status. In 1999, inflow data include refugees from Kosovo who received temporary protection in Norway.	Central population register, Statistics Norway.
Slovak Republic			Register of foreigners, Statistical Office of the Slovak Republic.
Spain	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> Residing in the municipality.	Statistics on changes of residence (EVR).	Local register (Padron municipal de habitantes), National Statistical Institute (INE).
Sweden	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a residence permit and intending to stay in the country for at least 1 year.	Asylum seekers and temporary workers are not included in inflows.	Population register, Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland	<i>Criteria for registering foreigners:</i> holding a permanent or an annual residence permit. Holders of an L-permit (short duration) are also included if their stay in the country is longer than 12 months.		Register of foreigners, Federal Office of Immigration, Integration and Emigration.

Metadata related to Tables A.1.1, A.1.2, and B.1.1. **Migration flows in selected OECD countries** (cont.)

Flow data based on residence permits or other sources

Country	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
Australia	<p>A. Permanent migrants: Permanent arrivals are travellers who hold migrant visas, New Zealand citizens who indicate an intention to settle and those who are otherwise eligible to settle.</p> <p>Permanent departures are persons who on departure state that they do not intend to return to Australia.</p> <p>B. Temporary residents: entries of temporary residents (<i>i.e.</i> excluding students). Includes short and long-term temporary entrants, <i>e.g.</i>, top managers, executives, specialists and technical workers, diplomats and other personnel of foreign governments, temporary business entry, working holiday makers and entertainers.</p> <p>Long-term departures include persons departing for a temporary stay of more than twelve months.</p>	<p>Data refer to the fiscal year (July to June of the year indicated) from 1992 on. From 1996 on, inflow data include those persons granted permanent residence while already temporary residents in Australia.</p> <p>Data refer to the fiscal year (July to June of the year indicated). Data for 2002 and 2003 have been corrected.</p>	Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs, Population Research.
Canada	<p><i>Permanent</i>: Issues of permanent residence permits.</p> <p><i>Temporary</i>: Inflows of foreign workers entering Canada to work temporarily (excluding seasonal workers) provided by reason for initial entry.</p>	Data include those already present in Canada, and also those granted residence as part of a programme to eliminate a backlog of applications.	Statistics Canada
France	Data consist of those entering as permanent workers plus those entering under family reunification. Persons entering as self-employed and persons entering under other permits relating to family reunification are also included.	All data concern non-EU foreign citizens. Data by nationality are foreigners registered by the ANAEM. Totals in Table A.1.1. include some estimates for some specific categories of migrants.	ANAEM (Agence nationale de l'accueil des étrangers et des migrations).
Greece	Issues of residence permits.	Excluding ethnic Greeks.	Ministry of Public Order.
Ireland	Figures are derived from the CSO series of Annual Labour Force Surveys over the period from 1987 to 1996 and the QNHS series from 1997 on. The estimates relate to those persons resident in the country at the time of the survey and who were living abroad at a point in time twelve months earlier.		Central Statistical Office.
Italy	Issues of residence permits, including short-term ones (excluding renewals) which are still valid at the end of the year. In principle, this excludes seasonal workers.	New entries were 130 745 in 1999 and 155 264 in 2000. Other permits are first-time permits issued to foreigners who had applied for regularisation in 1998.	Ministry of the Interior.
Korea	Data refer to long-term inflows/outflows (more than 90 days).		Ministry of Justice.
Mexico	<p><i>Permanent inflows</i>: Entries of persons with permanent residence permits (<i>inmigrados</i>), including re-entries.</p> <p><i>Temporary inflows</i>: Entries of <i>inmigrantes</i> (retirees, highly skilled workers, family members, artists, sportsmen...), including re-entries.</p> <p><i>Outflows</i>: Data refer to persons holding a permanent residence permit (<i>inmigrados</i>) or a temporary residence permit (<i>inmigrantes</i>).</p>	Data are not available by country of origin.	National Statistical Office (<i>INM</i>).

Metadata related to Tables A.1.1, A.1.2, and B.1.1. **Migration flows in selected OECD countries**
(cont.)

Flow data based on residence permits or other sources

Country	Types of migrant recorded in the data	Other comments	Source
New Zealand	<i>Inflows:</i> Residence approvals. <i>Outflows:</i> Permanent and long term departures (foreign-born persons departing permanently or intending to be away for a period of 12 months or more).	Data refer to calendar years.	New Zealand Immigration Service and New Zealand Statistics.
Poland	Number of permanent and "fixed-time" residence permits issued.		Office for repatriation and Aliens.
Portugal	Data based on residence permits. 2001, 2002 and 2003 figures include respectively 126 901, 47 657 and 9 097 permits which were delivered under the 2001 programme of regularisation.		SEF and National Statistical Office (INE).
Turkey	Residence permits issued for a duration of residence longer than one month.		Directorate of General Security, Ministry of Interior.
United Kingdom	<i>Inflows:</i> Non-British citizens admitted to the United Kingdom. Table A.1.1 data have been revised to include short term migrants (including asylum seekers) who actually stayed longer than one year. <i>Outflows:</i> Non-British citizens leaving the territory of the United Kingdom.	Data by nationality (Table B.1.1.) on inflows do not include short-term migrants who actually stayed longer than one year.	<i>International Passenger Survey</i> , Office for National Statistics. Data by nationality are provided by Eurostat.
United States	<i>Permanent inflows:</i> Issues of permanent residence permits. <i>Temporary inflows:</i> Data refer to non-immigrant visas issued, excluding visitors and transit passengers (B and C visas) and crewmembers (D visas). Includes family members.	The figures include those persons already present in the United States, that is, those who changed status and those benefiting from the 1986 legalisation program. Data cover the fiscal year (October to September of the year indicated).	US Department of Justice. United States Department of State. Bureau of Consular Affairs.

Inflows of Asylum Seekers

The statistics on asylum seekers published in this annex are based on data provided by the United Nations High Commission for Refugees. Since 1950, the UNHCR, which has a mission of conducting and co-ordinating international initiatives on behalf of refugees, has regularly produced complete statistics on refugees and asylum seekers in OECD countries and other countries of the world (www.unhcr.org/cgi-bin/texis/vtx/statistics).

These statistics are most often derived from administrative sources, but there are differences depending on the nature of the data provided. In some countries, asylum seekers are registered when the application is accepted. Consequently, they are shown in the statistics at that time rather than at the date when they arrived in the country (it should be pointed out that acceptance of the application means that the administrative authorities are going to review the applicants' files and grant them certain rights during this review procedure). In other countries, the data do not include the applicants' family members, who are admitted under different provisions (France), while other countries register the entire family (Switzerland).

The figures presented in the summary table (Table A.1.3) generally concern initial applications (primary processing stage) and sometimes differ significantly from the totals presented in Tables B.1.3, which give data by country of origin. This is because the data that the UNHCR receives by country of origin combine initial applications and appeals, and it is sometimes difficult to separate these two categories retrospectively. The reference for total asylum applications remains the figures shown in summary table A.1.3. The data by nationality for the United States refer to the number of applications registered rather than the total number of persons concerned. For further details by host country, refer to Chapter VI of the 2003 statistical yearbook of the UNHCR.

Table A.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers into OECD countries**

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Australia	9 758	9 312	8 156	9 451	13 065	12 366	5 863	4 295	3 200	3 210
Austria	6 991	6 719	13 805	20 096	18 284	30 135	39 354	32 359	24 630	22 470
Belgium	12 433	11 788	21 965	35 780	42 691	24 549	18 805	16 940	15 358	15 960
Bulgaria	302	429	833	1 331	1 755	2 428	2 888	1 549	1 127	820
Canada	26 120	22 584	23 838	29 393	34 252	44 038	39 498	31 937	25 750	19 740
Czech Republic	2 211	2 109	4 085	7 220	8 788	18 094	8 484	11 396	5 460	4 020
Denmark	5 893	5 092	9 370	12 331	12 200	12 512	6 068	4 593	3 240	2 260
Estonia	23	21	3	12	9	14	15	10
Finland	711	973	1 272	3 106	3 170	1 651	3 443	3 221	3 860	3 560
France	17 405	21 416	22 375	30 907	38 747	54 291	58 971	59 768	58 550	50 050
Germany	116 367	104 353	98 644	95 113	78 564	88 287	71 127	50 563	35 613	28 910
Greece	1 643	4 376	2 953	1 528	3 083	5 499	5 664	8 178	4 466	9 050
Hungary	152	209	7 097	11 499	7 801	9 554	6 412	2 401	1 600	1 610
Iceland	4	6	19	17	24	52	117	80	75	93
Ireland	1 179	3 883	4 626	7 724	10 938	10 325	11 634	7 900	4 766	4 320
Italy	675	1 858	11 122	33 364	15 564	9 620	16 015	13 455	9 720	9 500
Japan	147	242	133	223	216	353	250	336	426	370
Korea	1	44	17	4	43	39	37	86
Latvia	58	19	4	14	30	5	7	20
Lithuania	..	320	163	133	199	256	294	183	170	120
Luxembourg	263	431	1 709	2 921	621	687	1 043	1 549	1 577	800
Netherlands	22 170	34 443	45 217	42 733	43 895	32 579	18 667	13 402	9 782	12 350
New Zealand	1 317	1 495	1 972	1 528	1 551	1 601	997	841	580	350
Norway	1 778	2 271	8 373	10 160	10 842	14 782	17 480	15 959	7 945	5 400
Poland	3 211	3 533	3 373	2 955	4 589	4 529	5 170	6 909	8 077	5 440
Portugal	270	297	365	307	224	234	245	88	107	110
Romania	588	1 425	1 236	1 670	1 366	2 431	1 151	1 077	661	590
Slovak Republic	415	645	506	1 320	1 556	8 151	9 700	10 358	11 390	3 490
Spain	4 730	4 975	6 654	8 405	7 926	9 489	6 309	5 918	5 540	5 260
Sweden	5 753	9 662	12 844	11 231	16 303	23 515	33 016	31 348	23 161	17 530
Switzerland	18 001	23 982	41 302	46 068	17 611	20 633	26 125	20 806	14 247	10 060
Turkey	4 183	5 053	6 838	6 606	5 685	5 041	3 795	3 952	3 910	3 910
United Kingdom	37 000	41 500	58 500	91 200	98 900	91 600	103 080	60 047	40 620	30 460
United States	107 130	52 200	35 903	32 711	80 910	104 340	100 270	73 780	52 360	48 770
EU-25, Norway and Switzerland	259 251	284 835	376 401	476 141	442 503	470 998	467 145	377 360	289 901	242 760
North America	133 250	74 784	59 741	62 104	115 162	148 378	139 768	105 717	78 110	68 510
OECD	407 911	375 451	453 033	555 901	578 043	638 546	617 639	492 465	376 010	319 053

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.3.

The symbol ("..") indicates that the value is zero or not available.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/636057821508>

Table B.1.3. Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality
AUSTRIA

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Russian Federation	120	102	37	59	120	291	366	2 221	6 709	6 172
Serbia and Montenegro	1 371	1 025	1 084	6 647	6 834	1 486	1 637	4 723	2 526	2 835
India	189	201	253	472	874	2 441	1 802	3 366	2 822	1 839
Nigeria	89	157	202	189	270	390	1 047	1 432	1 849	1 828
Turkey	509	477	340	210	335	592	1 868	3 561	2 854	1 114
Afghanistan	141	766	723	467	2 206	4 205	12 955	6 651	2 357	757
Pakistan	114	270	221	242	316	624	486	359	508	575
Iran	485	656	502	950	3 343	2 559	734	760	979	343
Bangladesh	42	141	110	167	305	305	949	1 104	887	330
Iraq	659	1 585	1 478	1 963	2 001	2 361	2 118	4 466	1 446	232
Bosnia and Herzegovina	1 050	220	84	78	172	96	162	212	214	198
Romania	91	50	66	51	43	55	60	89	173	110
Poland	6	..	16	2	7	5	8	7	12	6
Czech Republic	5	..	11	6	14	19	8	12	11	3
Hungary	1	..	6	1	2	18	1	14	2	2
Other countries	1 047	1 341	1 586	2 301	3 254	2 837	5 926	10 377	9 010	8 290
Total	5 919	6 991	6 719	13 805	20 096	18 284	30 127	39 354	32 359	24 634

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/440878637130>

Table B.1.3. Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality
BELGIUM

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Democratic Republic of the Congo	972	860	1 230	1 714	1 402	1 421	1 371	1 789	1 778	1 471
Russian Federation	243	274	213	277	1 376	3 604	2 424	1 156	1 680	1 361
Serbia and Montenegro	1 455	1 822	1 290	6 057	13 067	4 921	1 932	1 523	1 280	1 294
Slovak Republic	29	233	284	985	1 175	1 392	898	635	390	730
Turkey	581	713	436	403	518	838	900	970	618	561
Iran	103	118	97	101	165	3 183	1 164	743	1 153	512
Armenia	479	991	604	697	1 472	1 331	571	340	316	477
Rwanda	297	405	565	1 049	1 007	866	617	487	450	427
Algeria	316	225	281	337	351	807	1 709	936	400	357
Pakistan	378	300	465	437	566	655	237	177	341	308
Bulgaria	370	605	243	471	887	1 693	508	347	168	259
Albania	228	402	1 007	1 147	1 010	2 674	763	539	340	255
India	119	178	263	204	340	442	450	212	202	204
Romania	915	758	641	1 572	1 703	948	697	631	282	154
Ghana	108	61	61	36	22	13	6	17	24	15
Other countries	4 827	4 838	4 108	6 477	10 717	17 903	10 302	8 303	7 518	6 973
Total	11 420	12 783	11 788	21 964	35 778	42 691	24 549	18 805	16 940	15 358

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**
CANADA

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Colombia	76	87	71	270	622	1 063	1 831	2 718	2 131	3 664
Mexico	548	951	926	1 158	1 172	1 310	1 669	2 397	2 560	2 918
China	777	929	900	1 420	2 443	1 855	2 413	2 862	1 848	1 982
Sri Lanka	2 392	2 946	2 665	2 634	2 915	2 822	3 001	1 801	1 270	1 141
India	1 259	1 367	1 166	1 157	1 346	1 360	1 300	1 313	1 125	1 083
Pakistan	1 011	1 105	1 047	1 607	2 335	3 088	3 192	3 884	4 257	1 006
Nigeria	322	410	482	580	583	800	790	828	637	589
Israel	1 226	1 270	416	360	302	254	443	632	533	447
Somalia	1 655	962	689	653	531	753	799	388	348	408
Democratic Republic of the Congo	592	1 127	767	744	880	985	1 245	649	435	394
Iran	1 901	1 728	1 210	880	794	767	768	381	329	352
Bangladesh	900	806	539	394	317	378	371	397	697	320
Lebanon	434	274	268	197	345	444	486	449	416	245
El Salvador	444	307	365	301	300	269	561	305	190	194
Hungary	42	64	294	977	1 581	1 936	3 895	1 180	132	162
Other countries	12 493	11 787	10 779	10 506	12 927	16 168	21 274	19 314	15 029	10 845
Total	26 072	26 120	22 584	23 838	29 393	34 252	44 038	39 498	31 937	25 750

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**
FRANCE

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Turkey	1 653	1 205	1 548	1 621	2 219	3 735	5 347	6 582	7 192	4 741
Algeria	1 794	643	895	920	1 306	1 818	2 933	2 865	2 794	4 209
China	1 617	1 435	1 754	2 076	5 174	4 968	2 948	2 869	5 330	4 196
Democratic Republic of the Congo	1 241	1 064	1 348	1 778	2 272	2 950	3 781	5 260	5 093	3 848
Serbia and Montenegro	842	699	717	1 283	2 480	2 053	1 591	1 629	2 704	3 812
Russian Federation	3 331
Haiti	146	138	134	357	503	1 886	2 713	1 904	1 488	3 133
Bosnia and Herzegovina	2 915
Sri Lanka	1 095	1 169	1 831	1 832	2 001	2 117	2 000	1 992	2 129	2 246
Moldova	2 227
Nigeria	1 572
Georgia	1 563
Mauritania	410	321	422	542	786	1 385	2 332	2 998	2 380	1 437
Armenia	1 292
Angola	372	232	269	263	538	611	993	1 590	1 409	1 085
Other countries	11 000	10 499	13 719	11 703	13 628	18 252	22 653	23 398	29 249	16 970
Total	20 170	17 405	22 637	22 375	30 907	39 775	47 291	51 087	59 768	58 577

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.3. Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality
GERMANY

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Turkey	33 750	31 732	25 937	11 754	9 065	8 968	10 869	9 575	6 301	4 136
Serbia and Montenegro	34 480	24 773	30 962	34 979	31 451	11 121	7 758	6 679	4 909	3 878
Viet Nam	3 025	1 907	2 855	2 991	2 425	2 332	3 721	2 340	2 096	1 660
Iran	4 314	5 264	4 490	2 955	3 407	4 878	3 455	2 642	2 049	1 374
Iraq	6 941	10 934	14 189	7 435	8 662	11 601	17 167	10 242	3 850	1 290
India	4 565	4 128	3 027	1 491	1 499	1 826	2 651	2 246	1 736	1 120
Pakistan	4 642	3 800	3 774	1 520	1 727	1 506	1 180	1 084	1 122	1 064
Afghanistan	7 715	6 217	6 033	3 768	4 458	5 380	5 837	2 772	1 473	912
Bulgaria	2 172	1 682	1 244	172	90	72	66	814	502	479
Bosnia and Herzegovina	5 217	2 246	2 348	1 533	1 755	1 638	2 259	1 017	600	416
Ghana	781	676	698	308	277	268	284	297	375	392
Lebanon	2 040	1 734	1 456	604	598	757	671	779	637	345
Sri Lanka	6 687	5 640	5 125	1 982	1 254	1 170	622	434	278	216
Romania	5 536	2 105	1 180	341	222	174	181	118	104	60
Poland	199	189	207	49	42	141	134	50	32	21
Other countries	44 887	46 130	48 175	26 762	28 181	26 732	31 432	30 038	24 499	18 250
Total	166 951	149 157	151 700	98 644	95 113	78 564	88 287	71 127	50 563	35 613

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.3. Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality
SLOVAK REPUBLIC

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
India	–	12	–	145	155	380	1 111	1 611	1 653	2 969
Russian Federation	–	–	23	–	–	14	84	618	2 653	2 413
China	–	–	–	–	–	–	33	1 764	1 080	1 271
Georgia	–	–	–	–	–	–	27	58	582	989
Moldova	–	–	–	–	–	1	16	266	587	826
Pakistan	–	5	–	–	86	161	176	168	307	799
Bangladesh	–	–	–	–	41	46	429	1 032	558	544
Afghanistan	–	129	313	158	654	624	4 315	1 669	627	393
Viet Nam	–	–	–	–	–	–	38	220	61	155
Armenia	–	6	–	20	17	15	29	102	758	144
Iraq	–	99	96	50	140	115	990	1 245	475	116
Sri Lanka	–	11	–	22	83	87	98	96	49	58
Iran	–	–	–	–	10	11	109	79	182	53
Serbia and Montenegro	–	4	10	51	104	38	27	50	65	51
Somalia	–	11	–	–	–	3	129	199	114	12
Other countries	359	126	203	60	30	61	540	523	607	598
Total	359	403	645	506	1 320	1 556	8 151	9 700	10 358	11 391

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**
SWEDEN

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Serbia and Montenegro	1 012	636	2 115	3 446	1 812	2 055	3 102	5 852	5 305	4 022
Iraq	1 783	1 557	3 057	3 843	3 576	3 499	6 206	5 446	2 700	1 456
Russian Federation	326	203	232	229	449	590	841	1 496	1 361	1 288
Somalia	869	434	364	228	289	260	525	1 107	3 069	905
Bosnia and Herzegovina	1 059	262	742	1 331	486	4 244	2 775	2 885	1 397	785
Iran	451	401	356	613	854	739	780	762	787	660
Bulgaria	14	15	31	17	11	18	461	767	688	567
Turkey	269	186	208	280	220	229	458	696	733	445
Lebanon	56	44	75	125	176	124	196	299	398	354
Romania	84	54	37	22	45	67	82	534	490	179
Ethiopia	31	58	62	50	63	62	91	72	184	120
Pakistan	81	34	67	122	212	187	115	62	85	77
Chile	35	33	24	21	16	35	38	229	60	33
Poland	84	73	179	21	31	28	42	30	18	11
Other countries	2 893	1 763	2 113	2 496	2 991	4 166	7 803	12 779	14 073	12 259
Total	9 047	5 753	9 662	12 844	11 231	16 303	23 515	33 016	31 348	23 161

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality**
SWITZERLAND

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Serbia and Montenegro	5 491	6 228	6 913	20 396	28 913	3 613	3 425	3 692	2 921	1 777
Turkey	1 293	1 317	1 395	1 565	1 453	1 431	1 960	1 940	1 652	1 154
Iraq	321	413	522	2 041	1 658	908	1 201	1 182	1 444	631
Somalia	478	700	884	610	517	470	369	387	471	592
Algeria	388	396	564	529	491	477	828	1 020	836	480
Democratic Republic of the Congo	320	695	605	536	523	540	602	746	521	345
Bosnia and Herzegovina	3 534	1 269	1 987	1 891	1 513	1 304	1 230	1 548	729	301
Sri Lanka	1 024	1 965	2 137	1 901	1 487	898	684	459	340	251
Pakistan	437	483	448	314	323	236	278	274	237	211
Iran	110	134	129	168	206	728	336	286	262	200
Romania	82	70	114	92	271	51	33	968	253	192
Angola	493	468	251	392	545	378	600	824	373	168
Albania	..	315	3 081	3 752	1 386	339	205	151	116	80
India	156	201	203	162	131	135	181	154	207	80
Lebanon	129	148	184	152	111	94	102	122	78	61
Other countries	2 765	3 199	4 565	6 801	6 540	6 009	8 599	12 372	10 366	7 725
Total	17 021	18 001	23 982	41 302	46 068	17 611	20 633	26 125	20 806	14 248

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.3. Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality
UNITED KINGDOM

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Iran	615	585	585	745	1 320	5 610	3 415	2 630	3 497	3 992
Somalia	3 465	1 780	2 730	4 685	7 495	5 020	6 465	6 540	7 194	3 295
Pakistan	2 915	1 640	1 615	1 975	2 615	3 165	2 860	2 405	3 143	3 028
Zimbabwe	105	115	60	80	230	1 010	2 115	7 655	4 018	2 522
China	790	820	1 945	1 925	2 625	4 000	2 390	3 675	3 493	2 411
Iraq	930	965	1 075	1 295	1 800	7 475	6 705	14 570	4 288	1 878
Democratic Republic of the Congo	935	650	690	660	1 240	1 030	1 395	2 215	1 919	1 826
Afghanistan	580	675	1 085	2 395	3 975	5 555	9 000	7 205	2 591	1 605
Turkey	1 820	1 420	1 445	2 015	2 850	3 990	3 700	2 835	2 992	1 588
India	3 255	1 795	1 285	1 030	1 365	2 120	1 850	1 865	2 411	1 485
Nigeria	5 825	2 540	1 480	1 380	945	835	870	1 125	1 112	1 209
Angola	555	365	195	150	545	800	1 025	1 420	1 154	548
Serbia and Montenegro	1 565	1 030	2 245	7 420	11 465	6 070	3 280	2 265	1 133	405
Sri Lanka	2 070	1 260	1 830	3 505	5 130	6 395	5 510	3 130	810	402
Ghana	1 915	675	350	225	195	285	200	275	360	375
Other countries	16 585	13 325	13 885	16 530	27 350	26 955	20 590	24 325	19 932	14 054
Total	43 925	29 640	32 500	46 015	71 145	80 315	71 370	84 135	60 047	40 623

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.3. Inflows of asylum seekers by nationality
UNITED STATES

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
China	4 822	1 976	2 377	3 074	4 210	5 541	8 008	10 237	4 906	5 624
Haiti	2 396	3 792	4 310	2 676	2 492	4 257	4 938	3 643	3 316	4 989
Colombia	740	850	251	200	334	2 631	7 144	7 950	4 661	2 759
Mexico	9 148	7 820	13 663	4 460	2 251	3 669	8 747	8 775	3 955	1 563
Cameroon	1 156
Ethiopia	835	948	961	868	1 101	1 445	1 467	1 287	890	976
Russian Federation	775	512	554	1 073	770	856	844	837	761	884
Guatemala	22 006	8 857	2 386	2 526	1 107	890	1 131	1 193	2 236	785
India	3 135	3 942	3 776	1 764	1 180	1 289	1 894	1 708	1 241	767
Guinea	748
Albania	743
Pakistan	2 318	651	548	364	354	338	410	567	513	680
Armenia	579
Iran	421
El Salvador	75 138	63 174	4 706	3 553	2 008	1 736	1 264	640	376	350
Other countries	27 382	15 208	18 685	14 480	16 904	18 215	23 585	21 567	20 483	18 643
Total	148 695	107 130	52 217	35 038	32 711	40 867	59 432	58 404	43 338	41 667

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Metadata related to Tables A.1.3. and B.1.3. **Inflows of asylum seekers**

Sources for all countries: Governments, compiled by UNHCR, Population Data Unit.

www.unhcr.org/statistics

General comments:

All data are based on annual submissions.

Data by nationality for the United States refer to number of cases, and not persons.

Data for the United States refer to fiscal year and not calendar year.

From 2003 on, data for France include unaccompanied minors.

Data for Table A.1.3. generally refer to first instance/new applications only and exclude repeat/review/appeal applications while data by origin (Tables B.1.3) may include some repeat/review/appeal applications. This explains why totals in Tables A.1.3. and B.1.3. may be slightly different for some countries.

Stocks of Foreign and Foreign-born Population

Two questions must be asked before examining stocks of immigrants in OECD countries: 1) Who is considered as an “immigrant” in OECD countries (the answer is clearest for inflows), and 2) What is the nature of the problems of international comparison?

Who is an immigrant?

There are major differences in how immigrants are defined. Some countries have traditionally focused on producing data on foreign residents (European countries, Japan and Korea) whilst others refer to the foreign-born (settlement countries, i.e. Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States). This difference in focus relates in part to the nature and history of immigration systems and legislation on citizenship and naturalisation.

The foreign-born population can be viewed as representing first-generation migrants, and may consist of both foreign and national citizens. The size and composition of the foreign-born population is influenced by the history of migration flows and mortality amongst the foreign-born. For example, where inflows have been declining over time, the stock of the foreign-born will tend to age and represent an increasingly established community.

The concept of foreign population may also include immigrants having retained the nationality of their country of origin as of the second and third generations born in the host country. The characteristics of the population of foreign nationals depend on a number of factors: the history of migration flows, natural increase in the foreign population and naturalisations. It is possible to find people having always the statute of immigrant even if they were born in the host country. The nature of legislation on citizenship and the incentives foreigners have to naturalise both play a role in determining the extent to which this occurs in practice.

Sources and problems of measuring the immigrant population

Four types of sources are used: population registers, residence permits, labour force surveys and censuses. In countries that have a population register and in those that use residence permit data effectively, stocks and flows of immigrants are most often calculated using the same source. There are exceptions, however, as some countries instead use census or labour force survey data to evaluate the stock of the immigrant population. The same problems for studying stocks and flows are encountered whether registers or permit data are used (in particular, the risk of underestimation when minors are registered on the permit of one of the parents or if

migrants are not required to have permits because of a free movement agreement). To this must be added the difficulty of “clearing” series regularly to eliminate permits that have expired.

Census data enable comprehensive, albeit infrequent analysis of the stock of immigrants (censuses are generally conducted every five to ten years). In addition, many labour force surveys now include questions about nationality and place of birth, thus providing a source of annual stock data. However, some care has to be taken with detailed breakdowns of the immigrant population from survey data as sample sizes can be very small. Inevitably, both census and survey data may underestimate the number of immigrants, especially where they tend not to be registered for census purposes, or where they do not live in private households (labour force surveys generally do not cover those living in institutions such as reception centres and hostels for immigrants). Both these sources can detect a portion of the illegal population, which is by definition excluded from population registers and residence permit systems.

Table A.1.4 **Stocks of foreign-born population in selected OECD countries**

Thousands

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Australia	4 164.1	4 258.6	4 315.8	4 334.8	4 373.3	4 417.5	4 482.0	4 565.8	4 655.3	4 751.1
% of total population	23.0	23.3	23.3	23.2	23.1	23.0	23.1	23.2	22.8	23.6
Austria	895.7	872.0	843.0	893.9	873.3	923.4	1 059.1
% of total population	11.2	10.9	10.5	11.1	10.8	11.4	13.0
Belgium	<i>983.4</i>	<i>999.2</i>	<i>1 011.0</i>	<i>1 023.4</i>	<i>1 042.3</i>	1 058.8	1 112.2	1 151.8	1 185.5	..
% of total population	<i>9.7</i>	<i>9.8</i>	<i>9.9</i>	<i>10.0</i>	<i>10.2</i>	10.3	10.8	11.1	11.4	..
Canada	<i>4 867.4</i>	<i>4 971.1</i>	<i>5 082.5</i>	<i>5 165.6</i>	<i>5 233.8</i>	<i>5 327.0</i>	5 448.5	<i>5 568.2</i>	<i>5 670.6</i>	<i>5 781.3</i>
% of total population	<i>16.6</i>	<i>16.8</i>	<i>17.0</i>	<i>17.1</i>	<i>17.2</i>	<i>17.4</i>	17.5	<i>17.7</i>	<i>17.9</i>	<i>18.0</i>
Czech Republic	440.1	455.5	434.0	448.5	471.9	482.2	499.0
% of total population	4.3	4.4	4.2	4.4	4.6	4.7	4.9
Denmark	249.9	265.8	276.8	287.7	296.9	308.7	321.8	331.5	337.8	343.4
% of total population	4.8	5.1	5.2	5.4	5.6	5.8	6.0	6.2	6.3	6.3
Finland	106.3	111.1	118.1	125.1	131.1	136.2	145.1	152.1	158.9	166.4
% of total population	<i>2.0</i>	<i>2.1</i>	<i>2.3</i>	<i>2.4</i>	<i>2.5</i>	2.6	2.7	2.8	2.9	3.2
France	5 868.2
% of total population	10.0
Germany	<i>9 377.9</i>	<i>9 708.5</i>	<i>9 918.7</i>	<i>10 002.3</i>	<i>10 172.7</i>	10 256.1	<i>10 404.9</i>	<i>10 527.7</i>	<i>10 620.8</i>	..
% of total population	<i>11.5</i>	<i>11.9</i>	<i>12.1</i>	<i>12.2</i>	<i>12.4</i>	12.5	<i>12.6</i>	<i>12.8</i>	<i>12.9</i>	..
Greece	1 122.9
% of total population	10.3
Hungary	283.7	283.9	284.2	286.2	289.3	294.6	300.1	302.8	307.8	319.0
% of total population	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.2
Ireland	..	251.6	271.2	288.4	305.9	328.7	356.0	390.0	416.6	443.0
% of total population	..	6.9	7.4	7.8	8.2	8.7	9.3	10.0	10.5	11.0
Italy	1 446.7
% of total population	2.5
Luxembourg	<i>127.7</i>	<i>130.9</i>	<i>134.1</i>	<i>137.5</i>	<i>141.9</i>	<i>145.0</i>	144.8	<i>147.0</i>	<i>148.5</i>	<i>149.6</i>
% of total population	<i>30.9</i>	<i>31.5</i>	<i>31.9</i>	<i>32.2</i>	<i>32.8</i>	<i>33.2</i>	32.8	<i>32.9</i>	<i>33.0</i>	<i>33.1</i>
Mexico	385.2	406.0
% of total population	0.4	0.5
Netherlands	1 407.1	1 433.6	1 469.0	1 513.9	1 556.3	1 615.4	1 674.6	1 714.2	1 731.8	1 736.1
% of total population	9.1	9.2	9.4	9.6	9.8	10.1	10.4	10.6	10.7	10.6
New Zealand	..	605.0	620.8	630.5	643.6	663.0	698.6	726.3	748.6	763.6
% of total population	..	16.2	16.4	16.5	16.8	17.2	18.0	18.4	18.7	18.8
Norway	<i>240.3</i>	<i>246.9</i>	<i>257.7</i>	<i>273.2</i>	<i>292.4</i>	305.0	<i>315.2</i>	<i>333.9</i>	<i>347.3</i>	<i>361.1</i>
% of total population	<i>5.5</i>	<i>5.6</i>	<i>5.8</i>	<i>6.1</i>	<i>6.5</i>	6.8	<i>6.9</i>	<i>7.3</i>	<i>7.6</i>	<i>7.8</i>
Poland	776.2
% of total population	1.6
Portugal	<i>533.6</i>	<i>529.2</i>	<i>523.4</i>	<i>516.5</i>	<i>518.8</i>	<i>522.6</i>	651.5	<i>699.0</i>	<i>704.6</i>	<i>704.4</i>
% of total population	<i>5.4</i>	<i>5.4</i>	<i>5.3</i>	<i>5.1</i>	<i>5.1</i>	<i>5.1</i>	6.3	<i>6.7</i>	<i>6.7</i>	<i>6.7</i>
Slovak Republic	119.1	207.6
% of total population	2.5	3.9
Spain	2 172.2
% of total population	5.3
Sweden	936.0	943.8	954.2	968.7	981.6	1 003.8	1 028.0	1 053.5	1 078.1	1 100.3
% of total population	10.5	10.7	10.8	11.0	11.8	11.3	11.5	11.8	12.0	12.2
Switzerland	<i>1 503.2</i>	<i>1 509.5</i>	<i>1 512.8</i>	<i>1 522.8</i>	<i>1 544.8</i>	1 570.8	<i>1 613.8</i>	<i>1 658.7</i>	<i>1 697.8</i>	<i>1 737.7</i>
% of total population	<i>21.4</i>	<i>21.3</i>	<i>21.3</i>	<i>21.4</i>	<i>21.6</i>	21.9	<i>22.3</i>	<i>22.8</i>	<i>23.1</i>	<i>23.5</i>
Turkey	1 278.7
% of total population	1.9
United Kingdom	<i>4 030.7</i>	<i>4 131.9</i>	<i>4 222.4</i>	<i>4 335.1</i>	<i>4 486.9</i>	<i>4 666.9</i>	4 865.6	<i>5 075.6</i>	<i>5 290.2</i>	<i>5 552.7</i>
% of total population	<i>6.9</i>	<i>7.1</i>	<i>7.2</i>	<i>7.4</i>	<i>7.6</i>	<i>7.9</i>	8.2	<i>8.6</i>	<i>8.9</i>	<i>9.3</i>
United States (revised)	<i>24 648.2</i>	<i>27 721.5</i>	<i>29 272.2</i>	<i>29 892.7</i>	<i>29 592.4</i>	<i>31 107.9</i>	<i>32 341.2</i>	<i>35 312.0</i>	<i>36 520.9</i>	<i>37 591.8</i>
% of total population	<i>9.3</i>	<i>10.3</i>	<i>10.7</i>	<i>10.8</i>	<i>10.6</i>	<i>11.0</i>	<i>11.3</i>	<i>12.3</i>	<i>12.6</i>	<i>12.8</i>

Note: Data in italic are estimated. For more details on the method of estimation, please refer to: www.oecd.org/els/migration/imo2006. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.4.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/600534542236>

Table B.1.4 **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

AUSTRALIA

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
United Kingdom	1 220.9	1 164.1	1 156.8	1 149.2	1 141.0	1 134.0	1 126.9	1 123.9	1 126.2	1 134.2
New Zealand	304.2	315.1	323.8	331.7	349.6	369.5	394.1	413.7	428.0	442.2
Italy	261.6	259.1	255.2	251.3	247.2	243.0	238.5	235.2	231.6	227.9
China	107.2	121.1	131.6	135.1	141.5	148.2	157.0	164.9	173.1	182.0
Viet Nam	157.8	164.2	167.6	168.8	169.8	169.8	169.5	171.6	174.6	176.6
Greece	142.3	141.8	140.6	138.8	136.7	134.7	132.5	131.2	130.0	128.7
India	80.0	84.8	87.8	89.4	91.2	95.8	103.6	110.6	118.3	128.6
Philippines	98.3	102.7	104.4	105.6	108.2	110.2	112.2	115.8	120.0	125.1
Germany	120.1	120.8	120.5	119.8	119.0	118.3	117.5	117.1	116.6	116.1
South Africa	58.8	61.7	66.1	69.4	74.9	80.8	86.9	95.3	101.6	109.2
Malaysia	82.8	83.0	83.8	84.1	84.6	85.4	87.2	89.6	93.2	97.8
Netherlands	96.1	95.3	94.8	94.0	93.0	92.1	91.2	90.4	89.6	88.7
Lebanon	77.1	77.6	78.3	78.7	78.8	79.2	80.0	81.2	83.1	84.3
Hong Kong, China	76.6	77.1	79.2	79.2	78.3	76.7	75.2	75.6	76.3	76.5
Serbia and Montenegro	..	61.9	62.3	62.0	63.7	64.0	64.0	66.5	68.3	68.9
Other countries	1 280.3	1 328.3	1 363.0	1 377.7	1 395.8	1 415.8	1 445.7	1 483.2	1 524.8	1 564.3
Total	4 164.1	4 258.6	4 315.8	4 334.8	4 373.3	4 417.5	4 482.0	4 565.8	4 655.3	4 751.1

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/383522443626>Table B.1.4 **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

AUSTRIA

	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	<i>Of which: Women</i>		
								2002	2003	2004
Turkey	118.8	124.5	110.1	128.0	121.2	127.6	141.9	56.0	59.5	66.6
Germany	122.8	122.2	126.0	125.3	114.2	126.7	140.4	67.7	71.7	86.1
Bosnia and Herzegovina	113.1	125.1	115.4	132.3	130.1	132.3	139.7	64.3	63.2	68.1
Former Yugoslavia (others)	129.9	123.8	111.0	114.4	124.2	131.2	139.6	67.3	66.1	72.4
Poland	41.2	41.0	42.3	44.1	34.8	35.4	51.4	20.7	19.7	28.9
Former Czechoslovakia	52.5	47.4	45.6	41.1	47.1	33.7	44.7	30.4	22.4	26.5
Croatia	50.8	50.5	54.7	53.4	42.4	33.8	42.8	23.2	17.3	21.9
Romania	40.5	34.0	31.2	36.9	38.0	41.0	42.6	19.3	23.1	23.7
Hungary	24.2	22.3	18.0	23.3	28.8	27.6	26.3	16.3	16.8	15.0
Italy	24.8	18.8	23.2	19.5	21.8	23.6	23.4	11.7	11.6	11.9
Slovenia	29.1	17.9	15.9	17.7	14.0	16.8	14.9	8.1	10.1	8.5
Other countries	148.0	144.5	149.6	157.8	156.6	193.7	251.5	84.9	104.9	132.5
Total	895.7	872.0	843.0	893.9	873.3	923.4	1 059.1	469.8	486.4	562.0

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4 **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

BELGIUM

	2000	2001	2002	2003	<i>Of which: Women</i>	
					2002	2003
France	150.3	151.9	152.5	153.0	86.5	86.6
Morocco	107.3	118.8	126.5	134.2	56.8	61.1
Italy	135.2	132.2	130.5	128.7	62.9	62.2
Netherlands	92.3	97.8	101.3	104.4	52.0	53.4
Germany	83.7	83.4	80.1	83.3	44.7	46.7
Turkey	66.5	71.6	78.6	78.6	38.0	38.0
Democratic Republic of the Congo	46.8	50.8	52.7	53.8	27.1	27.9
Spain	37.3	37.0	36.6	36.2	19.7	19.6
Former Yugoslavia	21.9	21.1	23.6	25.8	11.4	12.5
United Kingdom	26.1	26.1	25.9	25.6	12.9	12.7
Poland	18.4	20.4	21.9	23.0	14.4	15.1
Portugal	21.2	21.3	21.7	22.3	11.0	11.3
Algeria	14.0	15.1	16.0	17.0	7.1	7.4
Congo	13.8	14.9	15.5	15.7	7.9	8.0
Greece	15.4	15.1	15.1	15.1	7.3	7.3
Other countries	208.5	234.5	253.3	268.6	135.4	143.9
Total	1 058.8	1 112.2	1 151.8	1 185.5	595.1	613.7

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4 **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

CANADA

	1996	2001	<i>Of which: Women</i>	
			1996	2001
United Kingdom	655.5	606.0	352.2	323.1
China	231.1	332.8	122.2	177.6
Italy	332.1	315.5	158.0	152.2
India	235.9	314.7	117.0	156.6
United States	244.7	237.9	139.8	136.6
Hong Kong, China	241.1	235.6	124.3	122.3
Philippines	184.6	232.7	111.7	139.3
Poland	193.4	180.4	100.1	95.7
Germany	181.7	174.1	95.2	90.9
Portugal	158.8	153.5	79.3	77.5
Viet Nam	139.3	148.4	69.7	75.7
Former Yugoslavia	122.0	145.4	59.3	71.1
Former Soviet Union	108.4	133.2	57.1	76.3
Jamaica	115.8	120.2	67.3	69.6
Netherlands	124.5	117.7	60.9	56.9
Other countries	1 702.2	2 000.4	851.4	1 004.5
Total	4 971.1	5 448.5	2 565.7	2 825.9

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4 **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

DENMARK

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Turkey	25.5	26.5	27.3	28.2	29.0	29.7	30.4	30.8	30.9	30.9
Germany	22.0	22.5	22.6	22.9	22.9	22.7	22.6	22.5	22.5	22.6
Iraq	6.6	7.6	8.7	10.8	12.5	15.1	18.0	19.7	20.7	20.8
Bosnia and Herzegovina	15.2	16.9	17.9	18.0	18.0	18.0	18.1	18.1	18.2	17.9
Norway	12.1	12.4	12.6	12.9	13.1	13.4	13.4	13.6	13.9	14.0
Sweden	11.7	11.9	12.3	12.5	12.6	12.6	12.5	12.3	12.2	12.3
Lebanon	11.2	11.3	11.5	11.6	11.7	11.9	12.0	12.1	12.1	12.1
Former Yugoslavia	10.3	12.3	12.3	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.4	12.3	11.9
Iran	10.1	10.5	10.7	11.0	11.1	11.3	11.4	11.6	11.7	11.7
Poland	9.8	9.9	10.1	10.2	10.3	10.4	10.6	10.7	10.9	11.3
Somalia	6.0	8.4	9.9	10.7	11.3	11.8	12.2	12.3	11.8	11.2
United Kingdom	10.0	10.3	10.5	10.7	10.5	10.5	10.6	10.6	10.7	10.7
Pakistan	8.9	9.2	9.4	9.7	9.9	10.3	10.5	10.6	10.7	10.6
Afghanistan	1.3	1.6	1.9	2.3	2.9	4.3	7.2	8.4	9.0	9.4
Viet Nam	7.6	7.8	7.9	8.1	8.2	8.3	8.5	8.6	8.6	8.7
Other countries	81.6	86.8	91.2	95.7	100.3	105.7	111.4	117.1	121.8	127.3
Total	249.9	265.8	276.8	287.7	296.9	308.7	321.8	331.5	337.8	343.4

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4 **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

FINLAND

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Former Soviet Union	24.8	26.4	28.8	31.4	33.5	32.9	34.4	36.3	37.3	38.5
Sweden	26.6	27.0	27.4	27.8	27.9	28.0	28.3	28.6	28.9	29.2
Estonia	5.6	6.0	6.5	7.0	7.4	7.8	8.7	9.5	10.3	11.2
Former Yugoslavia	3.1	3.6	3.7	3.8	5.9	4.2	4.5	4.6	4.7	4.9
Somalia	3.2	3.5	3.8	4.1	4.2	4.4	4.3	4.6	4.7	4.8
Germany	2.9	3.0	3.3	3.3	3.5	3.6	3.8	3.9	4.1	4.3
Iraq	1.4	1.8	2.3	2.6	3.0	3.2	3.5	3.8	4.0	4.3
China	1.5	1.5	1.7	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.4	2.7	3.1	3.6
United Kingdom	2.1	2.2	2.4	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.9	3.1	3.2	3.4
Thailand	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.6	1.8	2.1	2.4	2.8	3.1
United States	2.7	2.7	2.8	2.9	3.0	2.9	3.0	3.1	3.1	3.1
Viet Nam	2.4	2.5	2.6	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.1
Turkey	1.5	1.6	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.2	2.4	2.6	2.9	3.1
Iran	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.7	1.9	2.1	2.3	2.5	2.7	3.0
India	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.6	1.8
Other countries	25.5	26.0	27.2	28.9	28.6	34.3	38.3	40.0	42.5	45.1
Total	106.3	111.1	118.1	125.1	131.1	136.2	145.1	152.1	158.9	166.4

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4 **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

GREECE

	2001	Of which: Women
		2001
Albania	403.9	166.6
Germany	101.4	54.5
Turkey	76.6	45.1
Russian Federation	72.7	42.1
Georgia	71.7	38.6
Bulgaria	38.9	23.8
Egypt	32.7	15.6
Romania	26.5	12.7
Kazakhstan	24.4	12.9
United States	23.1	12.9
Cyprus	22.5	13.0
Australia	20.4	11.0
Ukraine	16.7	12.5
Poland	15.5	8.7
United Kingdom	13.3	8.5
Other countries	162.7	78.9
Total	1 122.9	557.4

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4 **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

HUNGARY

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Romania	141.2	141.5	141.7	142.0	142.3	144.2	145.2	146.5	148.5	152.7
Former Soviet Union	27.1	27.8	28.3	29.2	30.2	31.5	30.4	31.0	31.4	32.2
Former Czechoslovakia	43.3	41.8	40.3	38.9	37.5	36.0	34.6	33.3	33.4	31.4
Former Yugoslavia	33.9	33.6	33.3	33.5	34.4	35.1	33.4	30.3	30.7	29.9
Germany	13.2	13.4	13.6	13.8	14.1	14.4	15.3	15.9	16.3	18.8
Austria	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.9	4.0	4.2	4.3	4.7
China	0.5	0.7	1.0	1.7	2.6	3.5	3.6	3.8	3.9	4.2
United States	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.1	2.4	2.7	3.0
Poland	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.9
France	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.6	2.2
Viet Nam	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.8	1.0	1.2	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.6
Greece	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.5
Bulgaria	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4
Other countries	11.6	12.2	12.8	13.7	14.6	16.1	23.0	26.8	27.8	32.5
Total	283.7	283.9	284.2	286.2	289.3	294.6	300.1	302.8	307.8	319.0

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4 **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

IRELAND

	2002
United Kingdom	242.2
United States	21.0
Nigeria	8.9
Germany	8.5
France	6.7
South Africa	6.1
Australia	5.9
Romania	5.8
China	5.6
Spain	4.5
Philippines	3.9
Canada	3.9
Italy	3.6
Netherlands	3.4
Pakistan	3.3
Other countries	56.6
Total	390.0

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4 **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

LUXEMBOURG

	2001	<i>Of which: Women</i>
		2001
Portugal	41.7	20.0
France	18.8	9.9
Belgium	14.8	7.2
Germany	12.8	7.6
Italy	12.3	5.4
Serbia and Montenegro	6.5	3.0
Netherlands	3.3	1.6
United Kingdom	3.2	1.4
Spain	2.1	1.1
Denmark	1.5	0.8
United States	1.1	0.5
Poland	1.0	0.6
Sweden	1.0	0.5
Greece	0.9	0.4
Switzerland	0.8	0.4
Other countries	23.2	12.6
Total	144.8	73.1

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4 **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

NETHERLANDS

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Turkey	167.5	169.3	172.7	175.5	178.0	181.9	186.2	190.5	194.6	195.9
Suriname	181.0	181.6	182.2	184.2	185.0	186.5	188.0	189.0	189.7	190.1
Morocco	140.7	142.7	145.8	149.6	152.7	155.8	159.8	163.4	166.6	168.5
Indonesia	177.7	174.8	172.1	170.3	168.0	165.8	163.9	161.4	158.8	156.0
Germany	130.1	128.0	126.8	125.5	124.2	123.1	122.1	120.6	119.0	117.7
Former Yugoslavia	43.8	46.1	46.7	47.5	50.5	53.9	55.9	56.2	55.5	54.5
United Kingdom	42.3	41.7	42.3	42.7	43.6	45.7	47.9	48.5	48.3	47.5
Belgium	43.3	43.3	44.0	44.6	45.3	46.0	46.5	46.8	47.1	47.1
Iraq	10.2	14.4	20.4	27.3	29.9	33.7	36.0	35.8	36.0	35.9
Former Soviet Union	8.4	10.1	11.7	13.7	16.1	21.6	27.1	30.8	32.8	34.5
China	16.1	16.9	18.0	19.4	20.6	22.7	25.8	28.7	31.5	33.5
Afghanistan	..	7.2	10.8	14.6	19.8	24.3	28.5	31.0	32.1	32.4
Poland	13.6	14.3	15.1	15.9	16.3	17.4	18.6	20.1	21.2	25.0
Iran	14.9	17.3	18.5	19.3	20.1	21.5	23.2	24.2	24.2	24.1
United States	17.4	17.9	18.6	19.5	20.3	21.4	22.1	22.5	22.6	22.6
Other countries	400.2	407.9	423.5	444.3	465.6	494.3	523.2	544.7	551.9	550.9
Total	1 407.1	1 433.6	1 469.0	1 513.9	1 556.3	1 615.4	1 674.6	1 714.2	1 731.8	1 736.1

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4 **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

NEW ZEALAND

	2001	Of which: Women
		2001
United Kingdom	218.4	109.7
Australia	56.3	30.1
Samoa	47.1	24.7
China	38.9	20.5
South Africa	26.1	13.4
Fiji	25.7	13.5
Netherlands	22.2	10.2
India	20.9	10.2
Tonga	18.1	9.1
Korea	17.9	9.4
Cook Islands	15.2	7.9
United States	13.3	6.8
Chinese Taipei	12.5	6.8
Malaysia	11.5	6.0
Hong Kong, China	11.3	6.0
Other countries	143.2	75.6
Total	698.6	359.7

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4 **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

NORWAY

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Sweden	24.3	26.0	29.3	32.6	33.4	33.2	33.0	33.0	33.1	33.1
Denmark	20.9	20.9	21.1	21.7	21.7	22.0	22.1	22.3	22.3	22.2
Pakistan	11.8	12.1	12.4	12.9	13.3	13.6	14.1	14.6	14.9	15.2
United Kingdom	13.6	13.5	13.6	14.1	14.3	14.2	14.1	14.3	14.3	14.6
United States	15.2	15.0	15.0	15.1	15.0	14.7	14.6	14.6	14.6	14.5
Germany	9.5	9.7	10.1	10.8	11.4	11.8	12.2	12.9	13.5	14.1
Bosnia and Herzegovina	10.8	11.1	11.1	11.2	11.6	11.7	11.8	13.5	13.2	12.6
Viet Nam	10.8	10.8	10.9	11.0	11.2	11.3	11.5	11.7	11.9	12.1
Iran	7.1	7.3	7.7	8.3	8.9	9.3	10.1	10.7	11.3	11.6
Serbia and Montenegro	7.9	7.3	7.2	7.5	13.3	12.9	11.7	8.1	8.7	9.7
Turkey	6.1	6.3	6.6	6.9	7.3	7.6	7.9	8.4	8.8	9.1
Poland	5.3	5.4	5.5	5.6	5.7	5.9	6.2	6.7	7.0	8.3
Sri Lanka	6.3	6.5	6.7	7.0	7.3	7.5	7.7	8.0	8.1	8.2
Philippines	4.8	5.0	5.1	5.4	5.7	6.0	6.4	7.0	7.5	8.0
Korea	5.5	5.6	5.7	5.8	6.0	6.1	6.2	6.4	6.4	6.6
Other countries	80.3	84.3	89.7	97.2	106.4	117.4	125.6	141.8	151.7	161.1
Total	240.3	246.9	257.7	273.2	292.4	305.0	315.2	333.9	347.3	361.1

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4 **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

POLAND

	2002	Of which: Women
		2002
Ukraine	312.3	191.0
Belarus	105.2	63.2
Germany	98.2	56.8
Lithuania	79.8	48.6
Russian Federation	55.2	35.7
France	33.9	18.9
United States	8.4	5.0
Czech Republic	6.3	3.7
Austria	3.9	2.0
Kazakhstan	3.8	2.1
Serbia and Montenegro	3.6	1.9
Romania	3.4	2.0
Italy	3.3	1.5
Bosnia and Herzegovina	3.3	1.9
United Kingdom	2.8	1.1
Other countries	52.8	25.0
Total	776.2	460.3

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4 **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

PORTUGAL

	2001	<i>Of which: Women</i>
		2001
Angola	174.2	91.7
France	95.3	50.7
Mozambique	76.0	40.1
Brazil	49.9	25.4
Cape Verde	45.0	22.0
Germany	24.3	12.4
Venezuela	22.4	11.7
Guinea-Bissau	21.4	8.6
Spain	14.0	8.3
Switzerland	12.9	6.4
Sao Tome and Principe	12.5	6.7
South Africa	11.2	5.9
United Kingdom	10.1	5.1
Canada	7.3	3.8
United States	7.3	3.7
Other countries	67.8	28.0
Total	651.5	330.5

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4 **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

SLOVAK REPUBLIC

	2001	2004
Czech Republic	71.5	107.7
Hungary	17.2	22.5
Ukraine	7.1	13.3
Poland	3.4	7.2
Russian Federation	1.6	5.8
Germany	0.6	4.7
Macedonia	0.1	4.6
Romania	3.0	4.4
Austria	0.7	3.9
United States	0.7	3.5
France	1.3	3.4
Viet Nam	0.6	2.4
Bulgaria	1.0	1.7
Belgium	0.2	0.9
Serbia and Montenegro	1.4	0.8
Other countries	8.4	21.0
Total	119.1	207.6

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4 **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

SWEDEN

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Finland	205.7	203.4	201.0	198.8	197.0	195.4	193.5	191.5	189.3	186.6
Serbia and Montenegro	..	72.8	70.9	70.9	70.4	72.0	73.3	74.4	75.1	74.6
Iraq	26.4	29.0	32.7	37.9	43.1	49.4	55.7	62.8	67.6	70.1
Bosnia and Herzegovina	..	46.8	48.3	50.0	50.7	51.5	52.2	52.9	53.9	54.5
Iran	49.0	49.2	49.8	50.3	50.5	51.1	51.8	52.7	53.2	54.0
Norway	53.9	43.8	42.7	41.9	41.8	42.5	43.4	44.5	45.1	45.0
Poland	39.4	39.5	39.6	39.7	39.9	40.1	40.5	41.1	41.6	43.5
Denmark	40.5	39.8	38.9	38.2	37.9	38.2	38.9	39.9	40.9	41.7
Germany	36.5	36.5	36.8	37.2	37.4	38.2	38.9	39.4	40.2	40.8
Turkey	29.8	30.2	..	31.0	31.4	31.9	32.5	33.1	34.1	35.0
Chile	27.0	26.9	26.7	26.6	26.6	26.8	27.2	27.3	27.5	27.7
Lebanon	..	21.6	21.4	20.2	20.0	20.0	20.2	20.5	20.8	21.1
United Kingdom	12.7	13.1	13.3	13.7	14.0	14.6	15.5	16.1	16.4	16.8
Thailand	7.8	8.2	..	9.0	9.6	10.4	11.2	12.4	14.3	16.3
Syrian Arab Republic	9.4	12.8	13.6	14.2	14.6	15.2	15.7	16.2
Other countries	398.0	283.0	332.0	290.5	297.5	307.6	318.7	329.7	342.1	356.5
Total	936.0	943.8	954.2	968.7	981.6	1 003.8	1 028.0	1 053.5	1 078.1	1 100.3

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4 **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

TURKEY

	1990	2000	<i>Of which: Women</i>	
			1990	2000
Bulgaria	462.8	480.8	237.9	252.5
Germany	176.8	273.5	88.3	140.6
Greece	101.8	59.2	54.0	32.3
Netherlands	9.9	21.8	5.0	11.1
Russian Federation	11.4	19.9	5.1	12.1
United Kingdom	6.5	18.9	3.3	10.1
France	10.3	16.8	5.0	8.2
Austria	7.0	14.3	3.5	7.2
United States	12.9	13.6	5.2	6.1
Iran	10.5	13.0	3.9	4.9
Cyprus	9.2	10.4	4.8	5.6
Switzerland	8.1	10.4	4.1	5.4
Other countries	310.1	326.1	154.4	167.6
Total	1 137.2	1 278.7	574.5	663.6

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.4 **Stock of foreign-born population by country of birth**

Thousands

UNITED STATES

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	<i>Of which: Women</i>		
											2002	2003	2004
											Mexico	6 960.9	6 894.8
China	523.9	825.0	961.4	865.9	890.6	898.0	968.2	986.9	1 167.6	1 463.0	520.7	634.9	773.3
Philippines	1 084.4	1 239.0	1 205.6	1 324.6	1 549.4	1 313.8	1 333.1	1 488.1	1 457.5	1 449.0	868.3	857.1	827.1
India	422.2	772.2	770.0	747.7	849.2	1 010.1	1 028.8	1 322.4	1 183.6	1 296.7	556.8	542.5	630.2
Germany	1 169.5	1 096.1	1 204.2	1 200.8	986.9	1 147.4	1 128.2	1 161.8	1 091.5	1 093.0	709.2	627.2	632.4
Cuba	819.8	790.6	927.3	930.6	960.9	957.3	859.6	935.7	1 005.2	1 075.0	478.1	514.3	527.3
Viet Nam	475.9	800.9	805.9	1 013.8	988.1	872.7	768.2	831.5	946.7	985.7	423.0	510.4	515.1
El Salvador	715.0	728.6	645.4	791.6	811.3	787.7	840.9	882.8	1 025.3	958.4	420.4	450.4	465.2
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	560.8	595.5	659.0	657.6	660.7	801.8	889.2	811.2	916.2	854.1	491.0	530.0	486.6
Canada	870.4	867.0	739.9	787.3	825.1	879.3	957.4	921.2	852.6	831.9	506.2	431.9	451.9
United Kingdom	734.5	693.6	713.4	761.9	796.2	758.2	715.3	745.1	700.7	730.9	397.6	387.6	409.6
Jamaica	523.8	510.5	400.1	355.6	405.2	422.5	488.4	537.8	671.1	660.0	298.4	371.4	377.5
Dominican Republic	510.3	526.6	643.4	646.8	692.1	699.2	640.1	668.6	725.9	641.4	397.3	431.8	388.8
Russian Federation	480.3	363.7	507.6	490.8	459.3	370.5	523.5	522.6	543.5	606.0	290.9	297.8	329.4
Haiti	302.1	396.5	439.7	481.6	402.2	384.7	522.6	571.2	496.8	567.4	273.8	258.7	290.7
Other countries	7 211.8	9 178.3	9 827.7	9 898.1	9 346.0	10 113.5	10 500.6	11 187.2	11 598.8	11 683.4	5 667.3	5 843.8	5 888.6
Total	23 365.5	26 278.9	27 748.8	28 337.1	28 052.4	29 489.0	30 658.1	33 474.4	34 620.3	35 635.5	16 710.3	17 288.9	17 800.9

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Metadata related to Tables A.1.4. and B.1.4. **Foreign-born population**

Data in *italics* in Table A.1.4. are estimated. For more details on the method of estimation, please refer to www.oecd.org/els/migration/imo2006

Country	Comments	Source
Australia	Estimated resident population (ERP) based on Population Censuses. In between Censuses, the ERP is updated by data on births, deaths and net overseas migration. <i>Reference date:</i> 30 June.	Australian Bureau of Statistics.
Austria	<i>Reference date:</i> March of the given year.	Labour Force Survey, Statistics Austria
Belgium	Stock of foreign-born citizens recorded in the population register. Until 1994, asylum seekers were included in the population register. Since 1995 they have been recorded in a separate register.	Population register, National Statistical Office.
Canada	Total immigrants (excluding non-permanent residents). "Other countries" include "not stated".	Censuses of Population, Statistics Canada.
Denmark	Immigrants are defined as persons born abroad by parents that are both foreign citizens or born abroad. When no information is available on the country of birth, the person is classified as an immigrant.	Statistics Denmark.
Finland	Stock of foreign-born citizens recorded in population register. Includes foreign-born persons of Finnish origin.	Central population register, Statistics Finland.
France		Census, National Institute for Statistics and Economic Studies (INSEE).
Greece	Stock of foreign-born citizens recorded in the census (Usual resident population).	National Statistical Service of Greece.
Hungary	Holders of a permanent or a long-term residence permit. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Register of foreigners, Ministry of the Interior.
Ireland	Persons usually resident and present in their usual residence on census night. <i>Reference date:</i> 28 April 2002.	Census, Central Statistics Office.
Italy	<i>Reference date:</i> 2001.	Census, ISTAT.
Luxembourg	<i>Reference date:</i> 15 February 2001.	Census 2001, Central Office of Statistics and Economic Studies (Statec).
Mexico	Population aged 5 and over.	2000 Census, National Council on Population (CONAPO)
Netherlands	<i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Register of Population, Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS).
New Zealand	<i>Reference date:</i> March 2001.	Census of population, Statistics New Zealand.
Norway	<i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Central Population Register, Statistics Norway.
Poland	Excluding foreign temporary residents who at the time of the census had been staying at a given address in Poland for less than 12 months.	Census, Central Statistical Office.
Portugal		Census of population, National Statistical Office (INE)
Slovak Republic	Census of population who had permanent residence at the date of the Census.	Ministry of the Interior.
Sweden	<i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Population register, Statistics Sweden.
Turkey		Census of Population, State Institute of Statistics (SIS).
United States	In Table A.1.4, the statistic for the year 2000 is from the population census. Starting with this level the series is estimated using the trend in foreign-born levels from the CPS. On the other hand, the statistics by country of birth (Table B.1.4) are taken directly from CPS estimates.	Current Population Survey March Supplement and Census, US Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Table A.1.5 **Stocks of foreign population in selected OECD countries**

Thousands

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Austria	677.1	681.7	683.4	686.5	694.0	701.8	718.3	743.3	759.6	776.8
% of total population	8.5	8.6	8.6	8.6	8.7	8.8	8.9	9.2	9.4	9.5
Belgium	909.8	911.9	903.1	892.0	897.1	861.7	846.7	850.1	860.3	870.9
% of total population	9.0	9.0	8.9	8.7	8.8	8.4	8.2	8.2	8.3	8.4
Czech Republic	158.6	198.6	209.8	219.8	228.9	201.0	210.8	231.6	240.4	254.3
% of total population	1.5	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.2	1.9	2.0	2.3	2.4	2.5
Denmark	222.7	237.7	249.6	256.3	259.4	258.6	266.7	265.4	271.2	267.6
% of total population	4.2	4.7	4.7	4.8	4.9	4.8	5.0	4.9	5.0	4.9
Finland	68.6	73.8	80.6	85.1	87.7	91.1	98.6	103.7	107.0	108.3
% of total population	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.1
France	3 263.2
% of total population	5.6
Germany	7 173.9	7 314.0	7 365.8	7 319.6	7 343.6	7 296.8	7 318.6	7 335.6	7 334.8	6 738.7
% of total population	8.8	8.9	9.0	8.9	8.9	8.9	8.9	8.9	8.9	8.9
Greece	762.2
% of total population	7.0
Hungary	139.9	142.5	148.3	150.2	153.1	110.0	116.4	115.9	130.1	142.2
% of total population	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.3	1.4
Ireland	96.1	118.0	114.4	110.8	117.8	126.3	155.0	187.7	222.1	223.1
% of total population	2.7	3.2	3.1	3.0	3.1	3.3	4.0	4.8	5.6	5.5
Italy	729.2	986.0	1 022.9	1 090.8	1 340.7	1 379.7	1 448.4	1 503.3	2 227.6	..
% of total population	1.7	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.4	2.5	2.6	3.9	..
Japan	1 362.4	1 415.1	1 482.7	1 510.0	1 556.1	1 686.4	1 778.5	1 851.8	1 915.0	1 973.7
% of total population	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5
Korea	110.0	148.7	176.9	147.9	169.0	210.2	229.6	252.5	438.0	468.9
% of total population	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.9	0.9
Luxembourg	138.1	142.9	147.7	152.9	159.4	164.7	166.7	170.7	174.2	177.4
% of total population	33.4	34.1	34.9	35.6	36.0	37.3	37.5	38.1	38.6	39.0
Netherlands	725.4	679.9	678.1	662.4	651.5	667.8	690.4	700.0	702.2	699.4
% of total population	4.7	4.4	4.3	4.2	4.1	4.2	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.3
Norway	160.8	157.5	158.0	165.1	178.7	184.3	185.9	197.7	204.7	213.3
% of total population	3.8	3.7	3.6	3.6	3.7	4.0	4.1	4.1	4.3	4.6
Poland	49.2
% of total population	0.1
Portugal	168.3	172.9	175.3	177.8	190.9	207.6	350.5	413.3	433.9	449.2
% of total population	1.7	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.9	2.1	3.4	4.0	4.2	4.3
Slovak Republic	21.9	24.1	24.8	28.4	29.5	28.8	29.4	29.5	29.2	22.3
% of total population	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4
Spain	499.8	539.0	609.8	719.6	801.3	895.7	1 109.1	1 324.0	1 647.0	1 977.3
% of total population	1.3	1.4	1.6	1.8	2.0	2.2	2.7	3.1	3.9	4.6
Sweden	531.8	526.6	522.0	499.9	487.2	477.3	476.0	474.1	457.5	462.9
% of total population	5.2	6.0	6.0	5.6	5.5	5.4	5.3	5.3	5.1	5.1
Switzerland	1 330.6	1 337.6	1 340.8	1 347.9	1 368.7	1 384.4	1 419.1	1 447.3	1 471.0	1 495.0
% of total population	18.9	18.9	19.0	19.0	19.2	19.3	19.7	19.9	20.0	20.2
United Kingdom	1 948.0	1 934.0	2 066.0	2 207.0	2 208.0	2 342.0	2 587.0	2 584.0	2 742.0	2 857.0
% of total population	3.4	3.4	3.6	3.8	3.8	4.0	4.4	4.5	4.7	4.9

Note: Data are from population registers or from registers of foreigners except for France, Greece, Mexico and Poland (Census), Portugal (residence permits), Ireland and the United Kingdom (Labour Force Survey).

For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.5.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/373844821811>

Table B.1.5 **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

AUSTRIA

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Former Yugoslavia	311.2	314.2	314.4	315.8	319.9	322.2	316.9	314.1	313.9	311.7
Turkey	136.4	135.0	133.0	132.2	129.6	127.3	126.9	126.8	124.8	120.0
Other countries	229.4	232.5	235.9	238.4	244.4	252.3	274.5	302.3	320.8	345.1
Total	677.1	681.7	683.4	686.5	694.0	701.8	718.3	743.3	759.6	776.8

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/131238325605>

Table B.1.5 **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

BELGIUM

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	<i>Of which: Women</i>		
											2002	2003	2004
Italy	210.7	208.2	205.8	202.6	200.3	195.6	190.8	187.0	183.0	179.0	84.8	83.1	81.5
France	100.1	101.7	103.6	105.1	107.2	109.3	111.1	113.0	114.9	117.3	58.5	59.5	60.9
Netherlands	77.2	80.6	82.3	84.2	85.8	88.8	92.6	96.6	100.7	105.0	43.8	45.8	47.8
Morocco	140.3	138.3	132.8	125.1	122.0	106.8	90.6	83.6	81.8	81.3	38.4	38.1	38.7
Spain	48.3	47.9	47.4	46.6	45.9	43.4	45.0	44.5	43.8	43.2	22.0	21.8	21.6
Turkey	81.7	78.5	73.8	70.7	69.2	56.2	45.9	42.6	41.3	39.9	21.5	20.8	20.1
Germany	31.8	32.7	33.3	34.0	34.3	34.6	34.7	35.1	35.5	36.3	17.4	17.7	18.2
Portugal	23.9	24.9	25.3	25.5	25.6	25.6	25.8	26.0	26.8	27.4	12.9	13.2	13.6
United Kingdom	26.0	26.2	26.1	25.9	26.2	26.6	26.4	26.2	26.2	26.0	11.8	11.7	11.6
Greece	19.9	19.5	19.2	18.8	18.4	18.0	17.6	17.3	17.1	16.6	8.2	8.1	7.9
Poland	5.4	5.7	6.0	6.3	6.7	6.9	8.9	10.4	11.6	14.0	6.4	7.0	8.1
Democratic Republic of the Congo	12.2	12.0	12.1	12.4	12.5	11.3	13.0	13.6	13.8	13.2	6.6	6.8	6.5
United States	12.0	12.3	12.6	12.4	12.2	11.9	11.8	11.7	11.6	11.5	5.9	5.8	5.8
Former Yugoslavia	8.1	1.1	1.3	6.0	14.4	9.8	10.3	10.4	8.1	11.1	3.1	3.3	5.4
Algeria	9.5	9.2	8.9	8.5	8.3	7.7	7.2	7.2	7.3	7.4	3.1	3.1	3.1
Other countries	102.8	113.0	112.6	107.7	108.1	109.3	115.2	124.8	136.7	141.7	66.1	71.6	74.4
Total	909.8	911.9	903.1	892.0	897.1	861.7	846.7	850.1	860.3	870.9	410.4	417.6	425.2

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5 **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

CZECH REPUBLIC

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Ukraine	28.2	46.3	43.4	52.7	65.9	50.2	51.8	59.1	62.3	78.3
Slovak Republic	39.7	50.3	52.2	49.6	40.4	44.3	53.2	61.1	64.9	47.4
Viet Nam	14.2	17.6	21.0	22.9	24.8	23.6	23.9	27.1	29.0	34.2
Poland	23.1	24.5	25.0	22.2	18.3	17.1	16.5	16.0	15.8	16.3
Russian Federation	4.4	6.7	8.9	10.0	16.9	13.0	12.4	12.8	12.6	14.7
Germany	5.6	5.9	5.9	5.1	6.1	5.0	4.9	5.2	5.2	5.8
Bulgaria	4.3	4.3	6.6	6.0	5.0	4.0	4.1	4.2	4.0	4.4
United States	4.4	4.1	3.8	3.9	3.8	3.2	3.2	3.4	3.3	3.8
Serbia and Montenegro	4.8	5.0	3.8	3.9	4.1	3.7	3.3	3.2	3.1	3.4
China	4.2	4.8	4.5	4.2	4.3	3.6	3.3	3.2	4.0	3.4
Romania	1.6	1.8	2.4	2.7	2.6	2.4	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.6
Austria	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.3	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9	2.1
United Kingdom	1.9	1.5	2.1	1.6	1.7	1.5	1.6	1.8	1.7	1.8
Other countries	20.0	23.6	27.9	32.8	32.7	27.7	28.3	30.2	30.3	36.2
Total	158.6	198.6	209.8	219.8	228.9	201.0	210.8	231.6	240.4	254.3

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5 **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

DENMARK

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	<i>Of which: Women</i>		
											2002	2003	2004
Turkey	35.7	36.8	37.5	38.1	36.6	35.2	33.4	31.9	30.3	30.1	15.6	14.8	14.7
Iraq	7.1	8.1	9.4	11.3	12.7	13.8	16.5	18.0	19.4	18.2	8.2	9.0	8.5
Bosnia and Herzegovina	17.8	17.2	13.6	8.8	8.5	6.6
Germany	10.6	11.4	11.9	12.4	12.7	12.7	12.9	13.0	13.3	12.7	6.1	6.3	6.0
Norway	11.1	11.5	11.9	12.2	12.6	13.0	13.2	13.4	13.8	11.5	7.8	8.0	7.0
Somalia	6.9	9.7	11.9	13.1	14.3	14.4	14.6	13.3	13.1	11.2	6.6	6.5	5.5
Former Yugoslavia (others)	28.1	32.2	33.9	34.5	35.1	35.0	34.8	10.8	10.7	10.2
United Kingdom	12.1	12.5	12.8	12.9	12.7	12.6	12.8	12.7	12.8	9.4	4.5	4.5	3.1
Afghanistan	1.3	1.6	2.0	2.4	2.9	4.2	7.1	8.2	9.1	9.2	3.8	4.2	4.3
Pakistan	6.6	6.7	6.9	7.1	7.1	7.1	7.2	6.9	7.0	8.9	3.7	3.7	4.4
Sweden	9.1	9.4	10.0	10.4	10.8	10.8	10.8	10.7	10.8	8.8	6.1	6.2	5.3
Iceland	4.8	5.6	5.9	5.9	5.8	5.9	6.0	6.6	7.1	7.0	3.3	3.6	3.5
Poland	5.3	5.3	5.5	5.5	5.6	5.5	5.7	5.7	5.9	6.4	3.9	4.0	4.3
China	1.7	1.9	2.1	2.3	2.5	2.7	3.2	3.9	5.2	5.8	2.2	2.7	3.0
Thailand	2.7	3.0	3.4	3.7	4.1	4.4	4.9	5.2	5.4	5.6	4.3	4.5	4.6
Other countries	79.6	81.9	84.6	84.5	84.1	81.2	83.7	87.2	90.2	98.8	50.5	51.9	55.7
Total	222.7	237.7	249.6	256.3	259.4	258.6	266.7	265.4	271.2	267.6	135.4	138.4	136.5

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5 **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

FINLAND

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	<i>Of which: Women</i>		
											2002	2003	2004
Russian Federation	9.7	11.8	14.3	16.9	18.6	20.6	22.7	24.3	25.0	24.6	15.0	15.5	15.2
Estonia	8.4	9.0	9.7	10.3	10.7	10.8	11.7	12.4	13.4	14.0	7.2	7.6	7.8
Sweden	7.0	7.3	7.5	7.8	7.8	7.9	8.0	8.0	8.1	8.3	3.5	3.5	3.6
Somalia	4.0	4.6	5.2	5.4	4.4	4.2	4.4	4.5	4.6	4.7	2.3	2.3	2.4
Iraq	1.3	1.9	2.4	2.7	3.0	3.1	3.2	3.4	3.5	3.4	1.6	1.6	1.5
Serbia and Montenegro	2.4	2.6	2.8	2.9	3.4	3.6	4.2	2.2	2.8	3.3	0.9	1.4	1.6
United Kingdom	1.9	1.8	1.9	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.4	2.5	2.7	2.7	0.6	0.6	0.6
Germany	1.7	1.8	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.5	2.6	2.6	1.0	0.9	1.0
China	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.9	2.1	2.4	2.6	1.1	1.2	1.4
Iran	1.3	1.4	1.7	1.7	1.9	1.9	2.2	2.4	2.5	2.6	1.0	1.1	1.1
Turkey	1.3	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.8	2.0	2.1	2.3	2.4	0.6	0.6	0.7
Thailand	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.5	1.8	2.1	2.3	1.5	1.7	1.9
United States	1.8	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.0	0.9	0.9	0.8
Bosnia and Herzegovina	0.9	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.6	0.8	0.8	0.8
Viet Nam	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.0	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.5	0.9	0.8	0.8
Other countries	22.5	22.4	23.4	23.3	23.6	24.4	26.5	29.8	29.6	29.7	13.1	12.8	12.8
Total	68.6	73.8	80.6	85.1	87.7	91.1	98.6	103.7	107.0	108.3	52.0	53.5	53.9

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5 **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

FRANCE

	1982	1990	1999	<i>Of which: Women</i>		
				1982	1990	1999
Portugal	767.3	649.7	553.7	361.6	304.2	258.9
Morocco	441.3	572.7	504.1	172.4	250.7	229.2
Algeria	805.1	614.2	477.5	310.5	253.9	204.6
Turkey	122.3	197.7	208.0	51.8	87.5	98.3
Italy	340.3	252.8	201.7	147.3	108.0	87.3
Spain	327.2	216.0	161.8	154.5	103.7	80.6
Tunisia	190.8	206.3	154.4	72.0	84.8	63.8
Senegal	32.3	43.7	39.0	9.7	17.0	16.5
Poland	64.8	47.1	33.8	37.9	28.9	20.9
Cambodia	37.9	47.4	26.0	17.6	22.6	13.0
Viet Nam	33.8	33.7	21.2	16.0	15.3	10.9
Lao People's Democratic Republic	32.5	31.8	16.2	15.4	15.0	7.8
Other countries	518.6	683.4	866.0	228.0	322.6	439.1
Total	3 714.2	3 596.6	3 263.2	1 594.6	1 614.3	1 530.9

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5 **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

GERMANY

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	<i>Of which: Women</i>		
											2002	2003	2004
Turkey	2 014.3	2 049.1	2 107.4	2 110.2	2 053.6	1 998.5	1 947.9	1 912.2	1 877.7	1 764.3	879.5	866.8	820.3
Italy	586.1	599.4	607.9	612.0	615.9	619.1	616.3	609.8	601.3	548.2	247.7	244.9	224.3
Former Yugoslavia	381.6	176.8
Greece	359.5	362.5	363.2	363.5	364.4	365.4	362.7	359.4	354.6	316.0	162.8	160.9	143.8
Poland	276.7	283.4	283.3	283.6	291.7	301.4	310.4	317.6	326.9	292.1	162.0	169.5	160.0
Croatia	185.1	201.9	206.6	208.9	214.0	216.8	223.8	231.0	236.6	229.2	113.8	117.8	115.7
Russian Federation	69.1	81.1	98.4	115.9	136.1	155.6	173.5	178.6	89.7	101.0	105.0
Austria	184.5	184.9	185.1	185.2	186.1	187.7	189.0	189.3	189.5	174.0	86.6	87.0	81.4
Bosnia and Herzegovina	316.0	340.5	281.4	190.1	167.7	156.3	159.0	163.8	167.1	156.0	78.6	80.4	75.2
Ukraine	51.4	63.8	76.8	89.3	103.5	116.0	126.0	128.1	67.5	74.1	76.4
Serbia and Montenegro	797.7	754.3	721.0	719.5	737.2	662.5	627.5	591.5	568.2	125.8	..	259.1	58.6
Portugal	125.1	130.8	132.3	132.6	132.6	133.7	132.6	131.4	130.6	116.7	58.0	57.9	52.9
Netherlands	113.1	113.3	112.8	112.1	110.5	110.8	112.4	115.2	118.7	114.1	52.3	53.8	51.9
Spain	132.3	132.5	131.6	131.1	129.9	129.4	128.7	127.5	126.0	108.3	61.4	60.9	53.7
France	99.1	101.8	103.9	105.8	107.2	110.2	111.3	112.4	113.0	100.5	60.2	60.5	54.3
Other countries	1 984.4	2 059.6	2 008.9	2 020.1	2 057.8	2 099.8	2 157.3	2 203.0	2 225.2	2 005.3	1 287.4	1 045.4	967.1
Total	7 173.9	7 314.0	7 365.8	7 319.6	7 343.6	7 296.8	7 318.6	7 335.6	7 334.8	6 738.7	3 407.4	3 440.1	3 217.5

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5 **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

GREECE

	2001	<i>Of which: Women</i>	
		2001	
Albania	438.0	180.9	
Bulgaria	35.1	21.2	
Georgia	22.9	13.0	
Romania	22.0	9.5	
United States	18.1	9.3	
Russian Federation	17.5	11.0	
Cyprus	17.4	9.1	
Ukraine	13.6	10.3	
United Kingdom	13.2	7.9	
Poland	12.8	7.0	
Germany	11.8	7.1	
Pakistan	11.1	0.5	
Australia	8.8	4.7	
Turkey	7.9	3.9	
Armenia	7.7	4.1	
Other countries	104.1	47.1	
Total	762.2	346.6	

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5 **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

HUNGARY

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	<i>Of which: Women</i>		
											2002	2003	2004
Romania	65.7	61.6	62.1	57.4	57.3	41.6	45.0	47.3	55.7	67.5	24.3	28.6	34.8
Ukraine	11.5	12.0	7.2	9.9	11.0	8.9	9.8	9.9	13.1	13.9	5.4	7.1	7.3
Serbia and Montenegro	7.1	9.9	10.9	8.6	8.4	7.9	8.3	13.6	3.9	4.1	6.3
Germany	7.8	8.3	9.0	9.4	9.6	7.5	7.7	7.1	7.4	6.9	4.3	4.5	4.5
China	4.3	6.7	7.8	8.3	8.9	5.8	6.8	6.4	6.8	6.9	2.9	3.1	3.1
Former Soviet Union	7.9	7.1	6.3	5.6	5.1	5.7	4.0	5.1	3.7	2.8	3.5
Russian Federation	3.7	4.1	2.5	2.8	3.0	1.9	2.0	1.8	2.2	2.6	1.1	1.3	1.6
Viet Nam	1.3	1.6	1.8	2.2	2.4	1.9	2.2	2.1	2.4	2.5	0.9	1.1	1.1
Former Czechoslovakia	3.2	3.0	2.8	2.4	2.2	2.4	2.1	2.2	1.9	1.6	1.8
Poland	4.5	4.3	4.5	4.4	4.1	2.3	2.2	1.9	2.2	2.2	1.2	1.4	1.4
Slovak Republic	3.5	3.7	1.0	1.6	1.7	1.6	2.2	1.5	2.5	1.2	1.0	1.8	0.8
Bulgaria	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	0.5	0.5	0.6
Mongolia	0.6	0.7	0.9	1.1	1.2	0.7	0.9	0.7	0.9	0.9	0.5	0.6	0.6
Croatia	0.9	1.1	1.2	0.9	0.9	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.4	0.4	0.4
Israel	0.6	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.2	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.3	0.3	0.3
Other countries	34.7	37.1	29.8	29.6	29.8	18.4	18.9	18.5	20.0	13.8	7.1	7.8	5.3
Total	139.9	142.5	148.3	150.2	153.1	110.0	116.4	115.9	130.1	142.2	59.2	67.0	73.5

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5 **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

IRELAND

	2002	<i>Of which: Women</i>
		2002
United Kingdom	101.3	51.8
United States	11.1	6.0
Nigeria	8.6	4.5
Germany	7.0	3.9
France	6.2	3.2
China	5.8	2.4
Romania	4.9	2.1
Spain	4.3	2.6
South Africa	4.1	2.0
Philippines	3.7	2.4
Italy	3.7	1.6
Australia	3.6	1.9
Netherlands	3.0	1.4
Pakistan	2.9	1.0
Russian Federation	2.6	1.3
Other countries	46.2	21.0
Total	219.3	109.3

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5 **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

ITALY

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Romania	14.2	26.9	28.8	33.8	61.2	70.0	83.0	94.8	244.4
Albania	30.2	66.6	72.6	87.6	133.0	146.3	159.3	171.6	240.4
Morocco	81.2	115.0	122.2	128.3	155.9	162.3	167.9	170.7	231.0
Ukraine	0.9	1.3	1.9	3.1	6.5	9.1	12.6	14.8	117.2
China	16.2	31.6	35.3	41.2	56.7	60.1	62.1	64.0	105.0
Philippines	36.0	56.2	57.3	59.1	67.4	65.1	67.7	65.6	76.1
Poland	14.0	23.2	22.9	23.3	29.5	30.4	32.9	35.0	64.9
Tunisia	30.7	40.0	41.4	41.1	46.8	46.0	53.4	51.1	62.7
Senegal	20.8	31.5	32.0	31.4	40.9	39.2	37.8	37.0	49.7
India	12.0	19.1	20.5	22.0	27.6	30.0	32.5	34.3	49.2
Peru	8.0	21.9	23.0	23.6	29.1	30.1	31.7	31.3	48.8
Ecuador	1.7	4.3	4.7	4.9	10.5	11.2	12.3	12.3	48.3
Egypt	15.5	23.5	23.6	23.8	34.0	32.4	31.8	31.1	47.1
Serbia and Montenegro	33.9	33.0	31.7	36.1	41.2	40.2	39.3	40.2	46.8
United States	44.8	44.9	44.7	45.9	47.9	45.5	44.7	45.6	45.1
Other countries	369.0	446.9	460.3	485.6	552.6	562.0	579.3	603.8	751.0
Total	729.2	986.0	1 022.9	1 090.8	1 340.7	1 379.7	1 448.4	1 503.3	2 227.6

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5 **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

JAPAN

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Korea	666.4	657.2	645.4	638.8	636.5	635.3	632.4	625.4	613.8	607.4
China	223.0	234.3	252.2	272.2	294.2	335.6	381.2	424.3	462.4	487.6
Brazil	176.4	201.8	233.3	222.2	224.3	254.4	266.0	268.3	274.7	286.6
Philippines	74.3	84.5	93.3	105.3	115.7	144.9	156.7	169.4	185.2	199.4
Peru	36.3	37.1	40.4	41.3	42.8	46.2	50.1	51.8	53.6	55.8
United States	43.2	44.2	43.7	42.8	42.8	44.9	46.2	48.0	47.8	48.8
Thailand	16.0	18.2	20.7	23.6	25.3	29.3	31.7	33.7	34.8	36.3
Viet Nam	9.1	10.2	11.9	13.5	14.9	16.9	19.1	21.1	23.9	26.0
Indonesia	7.0	8.7	11.9	15.0	16.4	19.3	20.8	21.7	22.9	23.9
United Kingdom	12.5	13.3	14.4	14.8	15.4	16.5	17.5	18.5	18.2	18.1
India	5.5	6.3	7.5	8.7	9.1	10.1	11.7	13.3	14.2	15.5
Canada	7.2	8.0	8.8	9.0	9.2	10.1	11.0	11.9	12.0	12.1
Australia	6.0	6.3	6.9	7.6	8.2	9.2	10.6	11.4	11.6	11.7
Bangladesh	4.9	5.9	6.1	6.4	6.6	7.2	7.9	8.7	9.7	10.7
Sri Lanka	2.8	3.2	3.9	4.7	5.1	5.7	6.5	7.3	8.0	8.8
Other countries	71.7	75.9	82.4	84.2	89.8	101.1	109.1	117.0	122.2	125.1
Total	1 362.4	1 415.1	1 482.7	1 510.0	1 556.1	1 686.4	1 778.5	1 851.8	1 915.0	1 973.7

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5 **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

KOREA

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	<i>Of which: Women</i>		
											2002	2003	2004
China	19.2	26.7	35.4	30.9	39.7	59.0	73.6	84.6	77.2	80.0	45.7	32.8	33.9
Philippines	9.0	10.8	13.1	8.0	10.8	16.0	16.4	17.3	27.6	27.9	8.7	12.2	11.7
Indonesia	3.4	9.6	13.6	9.7	13.6	16.7	15.6	17.1	28.3	26.1	3.2	5.3	4.4
Viet Nam	5.7	10.3	13.5	8.1	10.0	15.6	16.0	16.9	23.3	26.1	6.1	8.3	9.4
United States	22.2	26.4	27.9	26.1	25.8	22.8	22.0	22.8	23.2	22.6	9.9	9.9	9.5
Chinese Taipei	23.3	23.3	23.2	22.9	23.0	23.0	22.8	22.7	22.6	22.3	10.5	10.4	10.3
Thailand	0.5	1.2	1.9	1.6	1.8	3.2	3.6	4.8	2.0	21.9	1.5	7.3	7.1
Japan	9.4	12.4	13.7	13.0	13.2	14.0	14.7	12.1	16.0	16.4	10.6	10.9	11.2
Bangladesh	2.7	6.3	7.9	5.7	6.7	7.9	9.1	9.0	13.6	13.1	0.1	0.5	0.4
Uzbekistan	0.8	1.0	2.2	2.0	2.3	3.7	4.0	4.2	10.7	11.5	1.2	2.1	2.1
Pakistan	0.8	1.1	1.7	1.3	1.8	3.2	3.3	3.7	7.1	9.2	0.1	0.2	0.2
Canada	3.0	3.7	4.2	3.0	3.0	3.3	4.0	5.0	5.4	5.8	1.9	2.1	2.3
Sri Lanka	1.7	2.9	3.7	2.4	2.2	2.5	2.5	2.7	4.9	5.5	0.5	0.7	0.7
Nepal	0.8	1.0	1.2	1.0	1.2	2.0	2.1	2.3	4.2	5.3	0.3	0.6	0.7
Russian Federation	0.5	0.8	1.0	1.0	1.5	2.6	3.3	4.0	6.1	4.6	3.2	4.0	2.8
Other countries	7.1	11.3	12.7	11.2	12.1	14.7	16.7	23.2	165.7	170.7	7.4	71.6	83.9
Total	110.0	148.7	176.9	147.9	169.0	210.2	229.6	252.5	438.0	468.9	111.1	179.0	190.6

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5 **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

LUXEMBOURG

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Portugal	51.5	53.1	54.5	55.9	57.0	58.5	59.8	61.4	63.8	65.7
France	15.0	15.7	16.5	17.5	18.8	20.1	20.9	21.6	21.9	22.4
Italy	19.8	19.8	19.9	20.0	20.1	20.3	19.1	19.0	18.9	18.8
Belgium	11.8	12.5	13.2	13.8	14.5	15.1	15.4	15.9	16.0	16.1
Germany	9.7	9.9	10.0	10.3	10.5	10.6	10.1	10.2	10.3	10.4
United Kingdom	4.2	4.4	4.4	4.4	4.6	4.9	4.5	4.7	4.6	4.5
Netherlands	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.9	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.6
Spain	2.8	2.8	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.0	2.8	2.9	2.9	2.9
Denmark	1.9	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.2	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.9
Sweden	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2
Greece	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2
Ireland	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Finland	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8
Austria	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
Other countries	14.0	15.0	16.3	17.9	20.5	21.4	23.5	24.6	25.4	26.4
Total	138.1	142.9	147.7	152.9	159.4	164.7	166.7	170.7	174.2	177.4

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5 **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

NETHERLANDS

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	<i>Of which: Women</i>		
											2002	2003	2004
Turkey	154.3	127.0	114.7	102.0	100.7	100.8	100.3	100.3	101.8	100.6	50.9	51.5	51.1
Morocco	149.8	138.7	135.7	128.6	119.7	111.4	104.3	97.8	94.4	91.6	47.5	46.3	45.1
Germany	53.9	53.5	53.9	54.1	54.3	54.8	55.6	56.1	56.5	57.1	28.5	28.9	29.6
United Kingdom	41.1	39.3	39.2	38.8	39.5	41.4	43.6	44.1	43.7	42.5	17.5	17.4	17.1
Belgium	24.1	24.0	24.4	24.8	25.4	25.9	26.1	26.3	26.2	26.1	14.0	14.0	14.0
Italy	17.4	17.3	17.4	17.6	17.9	18.2	18.6	18.7	18.5	18.4	6.6	6.5	6.5
Spain	16.7	16.6	16.6	16.8	16.9	17.2	17.4	17.5	17.4	17.1	8.5	8.6	8.5
United States	12.8	12.6	13.0	13.4	14.1	14.8	15.2	15.4	15.1	14.8	7.6	7.5	7.4
China	7.9	7.3	7.3	7.5	7.5	8.0	9.4	11.2	13.3	14.7	6.2	7.5	8.4
France	10.5	10.6	11.2	11.9	12.5	13.3	14.1	14.5	14.5	14.5	7.3	7.3	7.3
Portugal	9.1	8.8	8.7	8.8	9.2	9.8	10.6	11.3	11.8	12.0	5.0	5.3	5.5
Indonesia	8.2	7.9	8.0	8.4	8.7	9.3	10.1	10.8	11.2	11.4	7.0	7.4	7.6
Poland	5.9	5.6	5.7	5.9	5.6	5.9	6.3	6.9	7.4	11.0	5.1	5.4	7.4
Suriname	15.2	12.0	11.8	10.5	8.7	8.5	8.5	8.6	9.4	9.6	4.7	5.2	5.3
Greece	5.4	5.2	5.3	5.3	5.5	5.7	6.0	6.2	6.3	6.4	2.2	2.3	2.3
Other countries	193.1	193.4	205.4	208.1	205.3	222.9	244.2	254.3	254.6	251.5	122.6	125.1	126.6
Total	725.4	679.9	678.1	662.4	651.5	667.8	690.4	700.0	702.2	699.4	341.2	346.2	349.6

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5 **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

NORWAY

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	<i>Of which: Women</i>		
											2002	2003	2004
Sweden	15.4	17.3	20.6	24.0	25.1	25.2	25.1	25.2	25.4	25.8	12.7	12.8	12.9
Denmark	17.9	18.1	18.4	19.1	19.2	19.4	19.7	20.0	20.0	20.1	9.6	9.5	9.5
Iraq	2.6	2.8	3.3	4.2	5.8	9.9	10.8	13.0	13.4	13.7	4.8	5.4	5.8
United Kingdom	11.1	10.9	10.8	11.2	11.4	11.1	11.0	11.2	11.0	11.2	4.3	4.2	4.3
Somalia	3.7	3.6	3.7	4.1	4.8	6.2	6.6	8.4	9.9	10.5	3.9	4.4	4.8
Germany	4.8	5.1	5.4	6.0	6.7	7.1	7.5	8.2	8.8	9.6	4.1	4.3	4.6
United States	9.0	8.7	8.6	8.6	8.3	8.0	7.9	8.0	7.7	7.6	4.1	4.0	4.0
Pakistan	9.7	8.6	7.5	6.9	7.4	6.7	6.9	6.7	6.6	6.4	3.6	3.5	3.4
Finland	3.7	3.9	4.5	5.3	5.7	6.0	6.1	6.4	6.3	6.0	3.7	3.6	3.5
Serbia and Montenegro	6.4	6.0	5.7	5.5	10.2	8.8	6.5	6.0	5.7	5.8	2.9	2.7	2.8
Bosnia and Herzegovina	11.2	11.5	11.6	11.8	12.2	11.6	8.8	7.9	6.0	5.2	3.9	3.0	2.6
Iran	4.7	3.8	3.5	3.6	3.7	3.8	4.2	4.7	5.1	5.0	2.3	2.5	2.4
Netherlands	3.0	3.1	3.2	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.7	3.8	4.0	4.2	1.7	1.8	1.9
Iceland	2.9	3.2	3.7	4.1	4.0	3.9	4.0	4.2	4.1	3.9	2.1	2.0	2.0
Poland	2.4	2.3	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.0	2.2	2.6	2.7	3.9	1.7	1.8	2.0
Other countries	52.4	48.7	45.2	45.2	48.5	51.0	54.8	61.4	68.1	74.4	34.6	38.2	42.0
Total	160.8	157.5	158.0	165.1	178.7	184.3	185.9	197.7	204.7	213.3	99.9	103.9	108.5

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5 **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

POLAND

	2002	Of which: Women	
		2002	
Ukraine	9.9	6.8	
Russian Federation	4.3	3.1	
Germany	3.7	1.5	
Belarus	2.9	2.0	
Viet Nam	2.1	0.8	
Armenia	1.6	0.7	
United States	1.3	0.5	
Bulgaria	1.1	0.4	
United Kingdom	1.0	0.3	
France	1.0	0.3	
Lithuania	0.9	0.6	
Czech Republic	0.8	0.5	
Italy	0.7	0.2	
Greece	0.5	0.1	
Kazakhstan	0.5	0.3	
Other countries	16.9	6.7	
Total	49.2	24.7	

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5 **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

PORTUGAL

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	Of which: Women		
											2002	2003	2004
Brazil	19.9	20.0	20.0	19.9	20.9	22.2	47.3	60.0	64.3	66.7	24.8	27.1	28.7
Ukraine	45.4	62.0	64.8	65.8	11.3	12.0	12.6
Cape Verde	38.7	39.6	39.8	40.1	43.8	47.1	55.4	60.4	62.1	64.3	26.7	27.6	28.8
Angola	15.8	16.3	16.3	16.5	17.7	20.4	27.6	32.2	34.0	35.1	14.4	15.4	16.0
Guinea-Bissau	12.3	12.6	12.8	12.9	14.1	15.9	20.8	23.4	24.5	25.3	7.1	7.7	8.2
United Kingdom	11.5	12.0	12.3	12.7	13.3	14.1	15.0	15.9	16.9	18.0	7.4	7.5	8.4
Spain	8.9	9.3	8.8	10.2	11.2	12.2	13.6	14.6	15.3	15.9	7.4	7.7	8.1
Moldova	9.0	12.2	12.9	13.7	1.6	1.7	2.0
Germany	7.4	7.9	8.3	8.8	8.0	10.4	11.1	11.9	12.5	13.1	5.4	5.7	6.0
Romania	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.4	8.0	10.9	11.6	12.0	2.1	2.3	2.5
Sao Tome and Principe	4.1	4.2	4.3	4.4	4.8	5.4	7.8	9.2	9.8	10.5	4.6	4.9	5.3
France	4.7	5.1	5.4	5.8	6.5	7.2	7.8	8.4	8.9	9.3	4.0	4.2	4.5
China	2.2	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.7	3.3	7.2	8.3	8.7	9.2	3.1	3.3	3.5
United States	8.5	8.5	8.4	8.1	9.6	8.0	8.1	8.1	8.1	8.1	3.5	3.5	3.5
Russian Federation	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.5	5.9	7.6	7.6	7.9	2.4	2.4	2.6
Other countries	33.9	34.5	35.9	35.4	37.6	40.4	60.4	68.4	71.9	74.2	23.8	25.8	26.7
Total	168.3	172.9	175.3	177.8	190.9	207.6	350.5	413.3	433.9	449.2	149.3	158.9	167.3

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5 **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SLOVAK REPUBLIC

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Ukraine	2.6	3.0	3.5	3.8	3.9	4.3	4.6	4.7	4.9	4.0
Czech Republic	4.3	5.1	5.8	6.6	7.0	6.3	5.9	5.4	4.9	3.6
Poland	2.3	2.5	2.8	2.9	2.6	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.5
Former Yugoslavia	1.9	2.0	2.0	2.3	2.7	2.6	2.7	1.6	1.5	0.4
Other countries	10.7	11.6	10.7	12.8	13.4	13.2	13.8	15.5	15.5	11.7
Total	21.9	24.1	24.8	28.4	29.5	28.8	29.4	29.5	29.2	22.3

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5 **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SPAIN

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	<i>Of which: Women</i>		
											2002	2003	2004
Morocco	74.9	77.2	111.1	140.9	161.9	199.8	234.9	282.4	333.8	387.0	92.2	113.7	139.9
Ecuador	2.0	2.9	4.1	7.0	12.9	30.9	84.7	115.3	174.3	221.5	57.5	85.0	110.3
Colombia	7.0	7.9	8.4	10.4	13.6	24.7	48.7	71.2	107.5	137.4	42.8	63.2	81.0
United Kingdom	62.3	68.4	68.7	74.4	76.4	74.0	80.2	90.1	105.5	128.3	45.2	52.7	64.1
Romania	1.2	1.4	2.4	3.5	5.1	11.0	24.9	33.7	54.7	83.4	12.2	20.8	34.3
Italy	19.8	21.4	22.6	26.5	29.9	30.9	35.6	45.2	59.7	72.0	17.0	23.0	28.4
China	9.2	10.8	15.8	20.7	24.7	28.7	36.1	45.8	56.1	71.9	20.0	24.7	32.4
Peru	15.1	18.0	21.2	24.9	27.3	27.9	33.8	39.0	57.6	71.2	22.5	31.2	38.0
Germany	41.9	45.9	49.9	58.1	60.8	60.6	62.5	65.8	68.0	69.7	32.8	34.0	35.1
Argentina	18.4	18.2	17.2	17.0	9.4	16.6	20.4	27.9	43.3	56.2	13.8	21.2	28.3
Portugal	37.0	38.3	38.2	42.3	44.0	42.0	42.6	43.3	45.6	51.0	18.6	19.1	20.6
France	30.8	33.1	34.3	39.5	43.3	42.3	44.8	47.0	49.2	49.9	23.7	24.8	25.2
Dominican Republic	14.5	17.8	20.4	24.3	26.9	26.5	29.3	32.4	36.7	42.9	22.0	23.6	27.0
Cuba	..	7.8	10.5	13.2	16.6	19.2	21.5	24.2	27.3	30.7	14.2	15.7	17.7
Algeria	3.6	3.7	5.8	7.0	9.9	13.8	15.2	20.1	23.8	27.5	4.0	5.2	6.9
Other countries	162.2	166.1	179.2	209.8	238.7	247.0	293.8	340.4	404.0	476.6	152.3	181.1	219.1
Total	499.8	539.0	609.8	719.6	801.3	895.7	1 109.1	1 324.0	1 647.0	1 977.3	590.6	739.2	908.2

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5 **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SWEDEN

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	<i>Of which: Women</i>		
											2002	2003	2004
Finland	104.9	103.1	101.3	99.9	99.0	98.6	97.5	96.3	93.5	90.3	54.5	53.1	51.5
Iraq	21.3	22.8	24.8	26.6	30.2	33.1	36.2	40.1	41.5	39.8	18.5	19.4	18.9
Norway	32.3	31.7	31.0	30.6	30.9	32.0	33.3	34.7	35.5	35.6	17.8	18.1	18.2
Denmark	26.5	26.0	25.4	25.0	25.0	25.6	26.6	28.1	29.7	31.2	11.8	12.4	12.9
Germany	13.4	13.9	14.4	15.1	15.5	16.4	17.3	18.1	19.1	19.9	8.5	9.0	9.4
Bosnia and Herzegovina	53.9	55.4	54.8	44.5	34.2	22.8	19.7	17.0	15.5	14.8	8.6	7.8	7.5
Poland	16.0	15.9	15.8	15.9	16.3	16.7	15.5	13.9	13.4	14.7	9.3	8.9	9.4
United Kingdom	11.2	11.5	11.7	12.1	12.4	13.1	13.8	14.2	14.4	14.6	4.5	4.5	4.5
Iran	29.3	27.2	26.2	19.8	16.1	14.3	13.5	12.9	12.5	12.4	6.7	6.4	6.4
Turkey	20.3	18.9	18.4	17.4	16.4	15.8	13.9	12.6	12.4	12.3	6.2	6.0	5.8
Thailand	4.7	4.9	5.1	5.3	5.5	..	6.3	6.8	8.3	9.8	5.4	6.6	7.9
United States	9.2	9.4	9.4	9.5	9.6	10.0	10.0	9.6	9.4	9.3	4.3	4.2	4.1
Somalia	11.3	12.2	13.1	13.5	13.5	..	9.6	8.7	8.8	9.0	4.4	4.5	4.5
Chile	13.0	12.4	11.9	11.4	10.8	10.3	9.9	9.4	9.1	8.9	4.3	4.0	3.9
Russian Federation	3.0	3.6	4.0	4.5	5.1	..	5.9	6.2	6.5	7.1	4.2	4.4	4.7
Other countries	161.5	157.8	154.7	149.0	146.6	168.7	146.9	145.4	128.0	133.3	70.7	62.1	64.5
Total	531.8	526.6	522.0	499.9	487.2	477.3	476.0	474.1	457.5	462.9	239.5	231.2	234.1

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5 **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

SWITZERLAND

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	<i>Of which: Women</i>		
											2002	2003	2004
Italy	358.9	350.3	342.3	335.4	327.7	321.6	314.0	308.3	303.8	300.2	130.9	128.6	127.0
Serbia and Montenegro	189.4	190.7	194.7	198.1	199.8	199.2
Portugal	134.8	137.1	136.3	135.8	135.0	140.2	135.5	141.1	149.8	159.7	66.8	70.5	74.4
Germany	90.9	92.7	94.7	97.9	102.7	110.7	116.6	125.0	133.6	144.9	57.6	61.7	66.7
Turkey	78.6	79.4	79.6	79.5	79.9	79.5	79.5	78.8	77.7	76.6	36.6	36.0	35.4
Spain	101.4	97.7	94.0	90.4	86.8	83.8	81.0	78.9	76.8	74.3	35.7	34.7	33.6
France	53.6	54.2	55.0	56.1	58.0	61.1	61.5	63.2	65.0	67.0	29.8	30.6	31.5
Macedonia	55.9	58.4	59.8	60.5	60.8	27.9	28.5	28.7
Bosnia and Herzegovina	44.3	45.7	46.0	45.4	44.8	22.6	22.3	21.9
Croatia	43.6	43.9	43.4	42.7	41.8	21.7	21.4	20.9
Austria	28.1	28.1	28.0	28.6	28.2	29.6	29.9	31.1	31.6	32.5	13.9	14.3	14.6
United Kingdom	18.4	18.3	18.3	18.7	19.6	20.8	22.2	22.8	23.4	24.1	9.7	9.9	10.2
Netherlands	13.6	13.9	13.9	13.8	13.9	14.4	14.6	15.0	15.2	15.4	7.0	7.1	7.1
United States	11.4	11.6	11.6	11.1	12.2	16.9	13.4	18.1	13.2	13.2	30.3	6.3	6.3
Belgium	6.3	6.5	6.6	6.9	7.1	7.5	7.9	8.0	8.2	8.5	3.9	4.0	4.1
Other countries	434.4	447.8	460.6	473.6	308.1	163.7	200.2	209.8	224.3	232.1	184.8	216.3	221.5
Total	1 330.6	1 337.6	1 340.8	1 347.9	1 368.7	1 384.4	1 419.1	1 447.3	1 471.0	1 495.0	679.2	692.0	704.1

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.5 **Stock of foreign population by nationality**

Thousands

UNITED KINGDOM

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	<i>Of which: Women</i>		
											2002	2003	2004
Ireland	443.0	441.0	446.0	448.0	442.0	404.0	436.0	403.0	367.0	368.0	224.0	197.0	206.0
India	114.0	128.0	110.0	139.0	149.0	153.0	132.0	145.0	154.0	171.0	78.0	83.0	92.0
Poland	34.0	24.0	34.0	48.0	11.0	19.0	26.0
United States	110.0	105.0	104.0	120.0	123.0	114.0	148.0	100.0	120.0	133.0	61.0	68.0	68.0
South Africa	31.0	22.0	24.0	39.0	50.0	..	68.0	64.0	95.0	92.0	33.0	49.0	49.0
France	60.0	53.0	54.0	74.0	68.0	85.0	82.0	92.0	102.0	95.0	52.0	64.0	51.0
Germany	51.0	53.0	59.0	75.0	85.0	64.0	59.0	68.0	70.0	96.0	43.0	40.0	59.0
Pakistan	81.0	78.0	68.0	69.0	73.0	94.0	82.0	97.0	83.0	86.0	52.0	43.0	38.0
Italy	80.0	85.0	77.0	89.0	80.0	95.0	102.0	98.0	91.0	121.0	45.0	49.0	61.0
Portugal	30.0	28.0	27.0	38.0	44.0	29.0	58.0	85.0	88.0	83.0	45.0	45.0	44.0
Australia	47.0	50.0	62.0	50.0	55.0	75.0	67.0	75.0	73.0	80.0	38.0	42.0	41.0
Zimbabwe	20.0	35.0	51.0	73.0	19.0	30.0	40.0
Bangladesh	53.0	43.0	63.0	69.0	78.0	55.0	70.0	61.0	48.0	69.0	34.0	28.0	27.0
Nigeria	45.0	42.0	33.0	43.0	21.0	16.0	18.0
Spain	31.0	35.0	44.0	29.0	45.0	47.0	48.0	44.0	51.0	40.0	23.0	27.0	27.0
Other countries	817.0	813.0	928.0	968.0	916.0	1 127.0	1 136.0	1 151.0	1 282.0	1 259.0	578.0	676.0	670.0
Total	1 948.0	1 934.0	2 066.0	2 207.0	2 208.0	2 342.0	2 587.0	2 584.0	2 742.0	2 857.0	1 357.0	1 476.0	1 517.0

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Metadata related to Tables A.1.5. and B.1.5. **Foreign population**

Country	Comments	Source
Austria	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. <i>Reference date:</i> Annual average.	Population Register, Central Office of Statistics.
Belgium	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. Asylum seekers are recorded in a separate register. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Population register, National Statistical Office.
Czech Republic	Holders of a permanent residence permit (mainly for family reasons) or a long-term residence permit (1-year permit, renewable). <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December, except for 2004 where data are for 30 June.	Register of foreigners, Ministry of the Interior.
Denmark	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. Excludes asylum seekers and all persons with temporary residence permits. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Central population register, Statistics Denmark.
Finland	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in population register. Includes foreign persons of Finnish origin. <i>Reference date:</i> 30 September.	Central population register, Statistics Finland.
France	Foreigners with permanent residence in France. Includes permanent workers, trainees, students and their dependent families. Seasonal and cross-border workers are not included. <i>Reference dates:</i> 8 March 1999.	Census, National Institute for Statistics and Economic Studies (INSEE).
Germany	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. Includes asylum seekers living in private households. Excludes foreign-born persons of German origin (<i>Aussiedler</i>). <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December. <i>Other comments:</i> Disaggregation by sex and nationality covers only those aged 16 and over.	Central population register, Federal Office of Statistics.
Greece	Usual resident population.	Census, National Statistical Service of Greece.
Hungary	Holders of a permanent or a long-term residence permit. From 2000 on, registers have been purged of expired permits. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Register of foreigners, Ministry of the Interior.
Ireland	Estimates in Table A.1.5. are from the Labour Force Survey. Data by nationality (Table B.1.5.) are from the 2002 Census and refer to persons aged 15 years and over. <i>Reference date:</i> 28 April 2002 (2002 Census) and 2nd quarter of each year (Labour Force survey).	Central Statistics Office (CSO).
Italy	Holders of a residence permit. Children under 18 who are registered on their parents' permit are not counted. Data include foreigners who were regularised following the 1987-1988, 1990, 1995-1996, 1998 and 2002 programmes. In 1999 and 2000, figures include 139 601 and 116 253 regularised persons respectively. Data for "Former Yugoslavia" refer to persons entering with a Yugoslav passport (with no other specification). <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Ministry of the Interior.
Japan	Foreigners staying in Japan more than 90 days and registered in population registers. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Register of foreigners, Ministry of Justice, Immigration Bureau.
Korea	Foreigners staying in Korea more than 90 days and registered in population registers. The large increase in 2003 is mainly due to a regularisation program introduced in mid 2003.	Ministry of Justice.
Luxembourg	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in population register. Does not include visitors (less than three months) and cross-border workers. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Population register, Central Office of Statistics and Economic Studies (Statec).
Netherlands	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. Figures include administrative corrections and asylum seekers (except those staying in reception centres). <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Population register, Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS).

Metadata related to Tables A.1.5. and B.1.5. **Foreign population (cont.)**

Country	Comments	Source
Norway	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in population register, including asylum seekers waiting decisions on their application for refugee status. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	CPR, Statistics Norway.
Poland	Excluding foreign permanent residents who had been staying abroad for more than 12 months and foreign temporary residents who had been staying in Poland for less than 12 months. <i>Reference date:</i> May 2002.	Census, Central Statistical Office.
Portugal	Holders of a valid residence permit. Data for 1996 include 21 800 permits delivered following the regularisation programmes. Data for 2001 and 2002 include permanent permits delivered following the 2001 regularisation programme, 126 901 and 47 657 respectively.	Ministry of the Interior; National Statistical Office (INE).
Slovak Republic	Holders of a long-term or a permanent residence permit.	Register of foreigners, Ministry of the Interior.
Spain	Holders of residence permits. Does not include those with temporary permits (less than six months duration) and students. In 1996 and 2001, data include 21 300 and 234 600 permits respectively delivered following the 1996 and 2001 regularisation programme. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Ministry of the Interior.
Sweden	Stock of foreign citizens recorded in the population register. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Population register, Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland	Stock of all those with residence or settlement permits (permits B and C respectively). Holders of an L-permit (short duration) are also included if their stay in the country is longer than 12 months. Does not include seasonal or cross-border workers. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Register of foreigners, Federal Office of Immigration, Integration and Emigration.
United Kingdom	Foreign residents. Those with unknown nationality from the New Commonwealth are not included (around 10 000 to 15 000 persons). <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December. <i>Other comments:</i> Figures are rounded and not published if less than 10 000.	Labour Force Survey, Home Office.

Acquisition of Nationality

Naturalisations must be taken into account in the analysis of the population of foreigners and nationals. Also, differing national approaches to naturalisation between countries must be considered when making international comparisons. In France and Belgium, for example, where foreigners can fairly easily acquire nationality, increases in the foreign population through immigration and births can eventually contribute to a significant rise in the native population. However, in countries where naturalisation is more difficult, increases in immigration and births amongst foreigners manifest themselves almost exclusively as rises in the foreign population. In addition, changes in rules regarding naturalisation can have significant numerical effects. For example, during the 1980s, a number of OECD countries made naturalisation easier and this resulted in noticeable falls in the foreign population (and rises in the population of nationals).

However, host-country legislation is not the only factor affecting naturalisation. For example, where naturalisation involves forfeiting citizenship of the country of origin, there may be incentives to remain as a foreign citizen. Where the difference between remaining a foreign citizen or becoming a national is marginal, naturalisation may largely be influenced by the time and effort required to make the application, and the symbolic and political value individuals attach to being citizens of one country or another.

Data on naturalisations are usually readily available from administrative sources. As with other administrative data, resource constraints in processing applications may result in a backlog of unprocessed applications which are not reflected in the figures. The statistics generally cover all means of acquiring the nationality of a country. These include standard naturalisation procedures subject to criteria such as age or residency, etc. as well as situations where nationality is acquired through a declaration or by option (following marriage, adoption or other situations related to residency or descent), recovery of former nationality and other special means of acquiring the nationality of the country).

Table A.1.6 Acquisition of nationality in selected OECD countries
Numbers and percentages

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
<i>Countries where the national/foreigner distinction is prevalent</i>										
Austria	15 309	16 243	16 274	18 321	25 032	24 645	32 080	36 382	45 112	41 645
% of foreign population		2.4	2.4	2.7	3.6	3.6	4.6	5.1	6.1	5.5
Belgium	26 129	24 581	31 687	34 034	24 273	62 082	62 982	46 417	33 709	34 754
% of foreign population	2.8	2.7	3.5	3.8	2.7	6.9	7.3	5.5	4.0	4.0
Czech Republic	8 107	8 335	6 321	4 532	3 410	5 020
% of foreign population	3.7	3.6	3.1	2.1	1.5	2.1
Denmark	5 260	7 283	5 482	10 262	12 416	18 811	11 902	17 300	6 583	14 976
% of foreign population	2.7	3.3	2.3	4.1	4.8	7.3	4.6	6.5	2.5	5.5
Finland	668	981	1 439	4 017	4 730	2 977	2 720	3 049	3 712	8 246
% of foreign population	1.1	1.4	2.0	5.0	5.6	3.4	3.0	3.1	3.6	7.7
France	147 522	150 026	127 548	128 092	144 640	168 826
% of foreign population	4.6
Germany	71 981	86 356	82 913	106 790	142 670	186 688	178 098	154 547	140 731	127 153
% of foreign population	1.0	1.2	1.1	1.4	2.0	2.5	2.4	2.1	1.9	1.9
Hungary	10 021	12 266	8 658	6 435	6 066	7 538	8 590	3 369	5 261	5 432
% of foreign population	7.3	8.8	6.1	4.3	4.0	4.9	7.8	2.7	4.5	4.2
Italy	7 445	8 823	9 789	12 016	11 335	9 563	10 382	10 685	13 406	11 934
% of foreign population	1.1	1.2	1.0	1.2	1.0	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.9	0.5
Japan	14 104	14 495	15 061	14 779	16 120	15 812	15 291	14 339	17 633	16 336
% of foreign population	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.8	1.0	1.0
Luxembourg	802	779	749	631	549	648	496	754	785	841
% of foreign population	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.5
Netherlands	71 440	82 700	59 830	59 170	62 090	49 968	46 667	45 321	28 799	..
% of foreign population	9.4	11.4	8.8	8.7	9.4	7.7	7.0	6.6	4.1	..
Norway	11 778	12 237	12 037	9 244	7 988	9 517	10 838	9 041	7 867	8 154
% of foreign population	7.2	7.6	7.6	5.8	4.8	5.3	5.9	4.9	4.0	4.0
Portugal	1 413	1 154	1 364	519	946	721	1 082	1 369	1 747	1 346
% of foreign population	0.9	0.7	0.8	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.3
Slovak Republic	3 492	4 016
% of foreign population	11.8	13.8
Spain	6 756	8 433	10 311	13 177	16 394	11 999	16 743	21 810	26 556	..
% of foreign population	1.5	1.7	1.9	2.2	2.3	1.5	1.9	2.0	2.0	..
Sweden	31 993	25 552	28 867	46 502	37 777	43 474	36 397	37 792	33 006	26 769
% of foreign population	6.0	4.8	5.5	8.9	7.6	8.9	7.6	7.9	7.0	5.9
Switzerland	16 795	19 375	19 170	21 280	20 363	28 700	27 586	36 515	35 424	35 685
% of foreign population	1.3	1.5	1.4	1.6	1.5	2.1	2.0	2.6	2.4	2.4
United Kingdom	40 516	43 069	37 010	53 525	54 902	82 210	90 295	120 125	125 535	140 795
% of foreign population	2.0	2.2	1.9	2.6	2.5	3.7	3.9	4.6	4.9	5.1
<i>Countries where native-born/foreign-born distinction is prevalent</i>										
Australia	114 757	111 637	108 266	112 343	76 474	70 836	72 070	86 289	79 164	87 049
Canada	228 167	155 645	154 624	134 485	158 753	214 568	167 353	141 588	155 117	192 590
Mexico	510	655	1 061	1 795	1 625	3 227	1 094	4 737	4 245	5 554
New Zealand	15 757	20 173	34 470	29 609	23 535	19 469	18 296	22 142
United States	488 088	1 044 689	598 225	463 060	839 944	888 788	608 205	573 708	463 204	537 151
EU-25, Norway and Switzerland	583 160	697 902	670 727	677 100	659 775	690 947
North America	716 765	1 200 989	753 910	599 340	1 000 322	1 106 583	776 652	720 033	622 566	735 295

Note: Statistics cover all means of acquiring the nationality of a country, except where otherwise indicated. These include standard naturalisation procedures subject to criteria such as age, residency, etc., as well as situations where nationality is acquired through a declaration or by option (following marriage, adoption, or other situations related to residency or descent), recovery of former nationality and other special means of acquiring the nationality of a country. For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.1.6. The naturalisation rate ("% of foreign population") gives the number of persons acquiring the nationality of the country as a percentage of the stock of the foreign population at the beginning of the year.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/42868067736>

Table B.1.6 **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**
AUSTRALIA

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
United Kingdom	36 134	35 431	27 294	23 080	13 529	14 592	12 474	16 411	14 854	17 201
New Zealand	9 033	11 724	9 982	8 764	6 320	6 676	11 007	17 334	13 994	13 052
China	5 971	4 250	16 173	21 053	10 947	7 664	6 890	6 416	7 126	7 072
South Africa	1 324	1 262	1 578	1 880	1 606	2 253	2 992	3 922	3 998	4 908
India	3 107	2 638	2 563	3 358	2 695	2 381	2 335	2 510	3 051	3 638
Philippines	5 408	4 021	3 815	3 688	2 606	2 349	2 211	2 849	2 885	3 019
Viet Nam	7 772	7 741	5 083	4 685	3 083	3 441	1 953	2 090	1 676	2 215
Malaysia	764	719	1 002	1 154	1 057	1 504	1 619	1 846
Fiji	2 204	1 815	1 721	1 934	1 665	1 379	1 398	1 567	1 509	1 582
Sri Lanka	1 730	1 644	1 620	2 049	1 707	1 832	1 672	1 362	1 328	1 582
Bosnia-Herzegovina	1 637	2 728	1 841	1 531	2 661	2 194	1 475	1 490
United States	1 912	2 272	1 701	1 565	1 083	989	1 004	1 318	1 194	1 409
Iraq	1 591	2 877	1 698	1 853	1 862	2 182	1 502	1 271
Ireland	1 882	1 688	1 278	1 167	724	698	682	852	734	905
Iran	895	870	891	1 143	876	755	827	864	928	644
Other countries	37 385	36 281	30 575	31 653	25 092	21 289	21 045	22 914	21 291	25 215
Total	114 757	111 637	108 266	112 343	76 474	70 836	72 070	86 289	79 164	87 049

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/172760628142>

Table B.1.6 **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**
AUSTRIA

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Former Yugoslavia	4 538	3 133	3 671	4 151	6 745	7 576	10 760	14 018	21 615	19 068
Turkey	3 209	7 499	5 068	5 683	10 350	6 732	10 068	12 649	13 680	13 024
Germany	202	140	164	157	91	102	108	91	107	137
Other countries	7 360	5 471	7 371	8 330	7 846	10 235	11 144	9 624	9 710	9 416
Total	15 309	16 243	16 274	18 321	25 032	24 645	32 080	36 382	45 112	41 645

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6 Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality
BELGIUM

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Morocco	9 146	7 912	11 076	13 484	9 133	21 917	24 018	15 832	10 565	8 704
Turkey	6 572	6 609	6 884	6 177	4 402	17 282	14 401	7 805	5 186	4 467
Democratic Republic of the Congo	452	442	756	1 202	1 890	2 993	2 991	2 809	1 796	2 585
Italy	2 096	1 940	1 726	1 536	1 187	3 650	3 451	2 341	2 646	2 271
Former Yugoslavia	416	0	438	499	756	2 187	2 487	2 678	1 593	2 155
Algeria	780	556	608	672	520	1 071	1 281	926	826	830
France	608	539	530	491	363	948	1 025	856	698	780
Netherlands	336	259	292	249	234	492	601	646	522	665
Rwanda	794	1 012	557	571
Poland	176	175	220	277	253	551	677	630	460	465
Philippines	124	115	147	162	190	315	323	388	283	442
Tunisia	537	406	566	585	301	859	729	521	383	406
Armenia	77	151	176	368
Russian Federation	265	301	237	339
Romania	85	115	358	387	267	403	321	294	277	314
Other countries	4 801	5 513	8 086	8 313	4 777	9 414	9 541	9 227	7 504	9 392
Total	26 129	24 581	31 687	34 034	24 273	62 082	62 982	46 417	33 709	34 754

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6 Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality
CANADA

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
China	12 908	10 563	11 535	14 110	17 991	24 310	18 555	16 973	20 558	25 189
India	11 700	10 756	10 766	8 804	11 446	19 402	14 788	13 136	14 530	21 622
Pakistan	3 345	2 598	2 867	2 394	3 226	8 478	8 904	7 654	6 622	10 454
Philippines	12 969	9 771	12 703	11 069	11 565	14 134	9 560	7 705	8 289	9 031
United Kingdom	11 198	8 944	11 484	6 177	4 741	5 278	3 586	3 003	4 399	7 784
Korea	1 428	1 679	1 205	1 395	2 129	3 724	3 129	3 503	4 357	5 884
United States	4 834	3 120	2 760	2 143	2 429	3 180	2 443	2 362	3 309	5 273
Sri Lanka	10 174	6 288	4 925	6 114	6 302	6 692	4 448	3 555	3 312	5 091
Iran	6 483	3 226	2 602	2 631	3 645	6 637	6 449	5 823	5 249	4 637
Jamaica	5 275	3 039	2 245	2 010	2 390	2 944	2 678	2 218	2 942	4 468
Former Yugoslavia	1 922	2 926	4 037	2 861	4 557	5 460	3 526	3 082	3 326	4 074
Hong Kong, China	15 002	15 110	9 751	13 096	15 050	17 886	11 200	6 188	4 794	3 996
Romania	2 494	2 294	3 297	2 856	3 824	4 571	3 404	2 694	3 128	3 296
Chinese Taipei	2 743	3 774	4 751	4 351	4 818	8 945	6 750	4 745	4 062	3 272
Portugal	4 473	2 547	1 998	1 498	1 416	2 394	2 920	1 428	1 252	2 179
Other countries	121 219	69 010	67 698	52 976	63 224	80 533	65 013	57 519	64 988	76 340
Total	228 167	155 645	154 624	134 485	158 753	214 568	167 353	141 588	155 117	192 590

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6 Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality
CZECH REPUBLIC

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Former Czechoslovakia	798	1 899	1 607	1 273	1 154	1 784
Slovak Republic	6 278	5 377	3 593	2 109	989	1 741
Ukraine	263	373	173	251	419	446
Poland	23	8	163	304	170	298
Romania	38	58	140	109	116	101
Kazakhstan	3	17	25	43	156	89
Russian Federation	100	71	87	65	7	86
Bulgaria	84	105	132	95	54	62
Bosnia and Herzegovina	10	11	13	20	47	62
Viet Nam	87	101	76	29	46	47
Serbia and Montenegro	50	12	35	16	14	42
Armenia	11	8	11	8	18	23
Belarus	7	13	19	13	14	21
Macedonia	16	18	28	18	21	19
Greece	45	26	38	19	26	16
Other countries	294	238	181	160	159	183
Total	8 107	8 335	6 321	4 532	3 410	5 020

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6 Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality
DENMARK

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Former Yugoslavia	413	629	291	695	709	1 523	1 134	3 399	1 245	4 349
Somalia	12	32	17	159	215	1 189	1 074	2 263	324	2 022
Iraq	177	339	244	718	918	2 210	871	1 161	153	1 015
Turkey	797	917	1 036	1 243	3 154	2 787	3 130	2 418	2 158	732
Sri Lanka	635	765	376	613	523	819	365	594	119	678
Iran	531	829	553	969	914	1 105	437	519	120	505
Afghanistan	24	29	15	101	98	276	215	301	40	367
China	18	42	32	117	169	228	195	289	203	339
Pakistan	145	220	149	284	463	545	297	573	94	332
Viet Nam	137	200	126	365	439	647	318	508	280	318
Morocco	122	201	110	248	322	485	213	313	69	244
Lebanon	216	314	160	811	601	1 099	309	376	69	219
Poland	175	237	130	241	173	201	126	309	130	186
Thailand	56	65	44	85	137	214	124	172	62	180
Germany	118	126	138	173	197	240	129	174	82	178
Other countries	1 684	2 338	2 061	3 440	3 384	5 243	2 965	3 931	1 435	3 312
Total	5 260	7 283	5 482	10 262	12 416	18 811	11 902	17 300	6 583	14 976

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6 Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality
FINLAND

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Former Soviet Union	55	52	44	138	135	48	51	56	85	138
Other countries	613	929	1 395	3 879	4 595	2 929	2 669	2 993	3 627	8 108
Total	668	981	1 439	4 017	4 730	2 977	2 720	3 049	3 712	8 246

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6 Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality

FRANCE

	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Morocco	38 298	37 795	34 922	33 967	36 875	32 878
Algeria	15 743	17 627	15 498	15 711	20 245	25 474
Tunisia	12 467	12 763	10 251	9 956	11 412	9 472
Turkey	11 380	12 137	10 755	10 468	10 492	9 464
Portugal	13 151	11 201	9 182	8 844	9 576	3 753
Democratic Republic of the Congo	1 495	1 765	1 401	1 572	2 012	2 647
Senegal	1 530	1 595	1 463	1 858	2 185	2 491
Serbia and Montenegro	2 249	2 358	1 880	1 902	2 129	2 459
Haiti	1 711	1 920	1 571	2 082	2 734	2 367
Sri Lanka	1 439	1 819	1 345	1 377	1 748	1 992
Viet Nam	2 069	2 129	1 524	1 512	1 540	1 624
Lebanon	1 554	1 695	1 113	1 210	1 363	1 532
Cambodia	2 843	2 958	2 241	1 861	1 734	1 515
Italy	1 809	1 522	1 217	996	1 042	798
Lao People's Democratic Republic	2 046	2 178	1 444	1 346	1 050	720
Other countries	26 651	29 994	25 824	28 172	33 793	36 063
Total	136 435	141 456	121 631	122 834	139 930	135 249

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6 Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality

GERMANY

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Turkey	31 578	46 294	42 420	59 664	103 900	82 861	76 573	64 631	56 244	44 465
Iran	874	649	919	1 171	1 529	14 410	12 020	13 026	9 440	6 362
Afghanistan	1 666	1 819	1 475	1 200	1 355	4 773	5 111	4 750	4 948	4 077
Morocco	3 288	2 918	4 010	4 981	4 312	5 008	4 425	3 800	4 118	3 820
Serbia and Montenegro	3 275	2 733	1 989	2 404	3 120	9 776	12 000	8 375	5 504	3 539
Lebanon	595	784	1 159	1 782	2 491	5 673	4 486	3 300	2 651	2 265
Bosnia and Herzegovina	1 915	1 847	995	3 469	3 745	4 002	3 791	2 357	1 770	2 103
Croatia	2 479	2 268	1 789	2 198	1 536	3 316	3 931	2 974	2 048	1 689
Viet Nam	3 357	3 464	3 129	3 452	2 270	4 489	3 014	1 482	1 423	1 371
Other countries	22 954	23 580	25 028	26 469	18 412	52 380	52 747	49 852	52 585	57 462
Total	71 981	86 356	82 913	106 790	142 670	186 688	178 098	154 547	140 731	127 153

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6 Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality

HUNGARY

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Romania	7 055	8 549	5 229	3 842	3 463	4 231	5 644	2 238	3 415	3 605
Former Soviet Union	1 182	1 227	788	713	874	1 015	1 143	434	721	884
Former Yugoslavia	1 132	1 999	1 610	1 082	1 135	1 655	1 302	487	794	557
Other countries	651	491	1 030	799	594	637	501	210	331	386
Total	10 021	12 266	8 658	6 435	6 066	7 538	8 590	3 369	5 261	5 432

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6 Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality
ITALY

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Morocco	333	549	570	634	638	573	579	624	1 132	1 046
Albania	137	259	438	535	748	521	687	703	830	882
Romania	579	821	796	1 086	936	665	855	968	977	847
Poland	311	378	422	469	502	448	475	519	677	619
Brazil	191	268	339	537	461	512	619	604	726	579
Cuba	60	70	140	357	379	377	512	542	646	539
Argentina	286	321	335	345	255	240	316	411	541	515
Switzerland	638	608	1 005	952	836	724	533	514	546	506
Russian Federation	0	0	0	0	452	347	384	439	463	436
Colombia	138	152	214	292	245	240	322	300	453	360
Dominican Republic	390	548	580	694	423	377	354	393	409	317
Egypt	219	287	220	287	270	266	235	195	264	283
Tunisia	126	243	205	256	237	208	215	175	271	258
Venezuela	51	57	94	107	113	121	121	215	252	255
Peru	134	167	196	326	252	228	263	305	383	253
Other countries	3 852	4 095	4 235	5 139	4 588	3 716	3 912	3 778	4 836	4 239
Total	7 445	8 823	9 789	12 016	11 335	9 563	10 382	10 685	13 406	11 934

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6 Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality
JAPAN

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Korea	10 327	9 898	9 678	9 561	10 059	9 842	10 295	9 188	11 778	11 031
China	3 184	3 976	4 729	4 637	5 335	5 245	4 377	4 442	4 722	4 122
Other countries	593	621	654	581	726	725	619	709	1 133	1 183
Total	14 104	14 495	15 061	14 779	16 120	15 812	15 291	14 339	17 633	16 336

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6 Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality
LUXEMBOURG

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Italy	209	193	192	149	94	157	105	119	120	111
Belgium	67	65	64	48	53	72	39	87	73	83
Germany	70	55	60	44	41	50	45	47	50	62
France	78	85	79	53	43	52	33	65	57	44
Netherlands	15	20	17	15	11	14	13	11	17	6
Other countries	363	361	337	322	307	303	261	425	468	535
Total	802	779	749	631	549	648	496	754	785	841

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6 Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality
NETHERLANDS

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Morocco	13 480	15 600	10 480	11 250	14 220	13 471	12 721	12 033	7 126
Turkey	33 060	30 700	21 190	13 480	5 210	4 708	5 513	5 391	3 726
Suriname	3 990	4 450	3 020	2 990	3 190	2 008	2 025	1 957	1 242
Afghanistan	..	360	217	905	1 847	945	803	1 118	982
Iraq	..	854	798	2 721	3 834	2 403	2 315	2 367	832
China	..	1 394	975	800	977	1 002	1 111	908	722
Germany	500	780	560	560	580	508	573	608	445
Former Yugoslavia (others)	1 700	2 156	3 356	2 795	2 577	1 163	764	538	323
Poland	..	1 129	827	677	688	587	597	530	318
Former Soviet Union	..	289	298	537	1 021	681	544	411	296
United Kingdom	820	1 170	690	580	450	374	356	394	294
Bosnia and Herzegovina	..	127	2 056	3 873	5 416	2 646	883	400	216
Russian Federation	..	302	288	289	489	422	335	347	207
Egypt	810	1 080	550	390	500	443	528	437	190
Iran	..	2 299	1 285	1 806	2 560	1 375	754	336	180
Other countries	17 080	20 010	13 240	15 517	18 531	17 232	16 845	17 546	11 700
Total	71 440	82 700	59 830	59 170	62 090	49 968	46 667	45 321	28 799

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6 Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality
NEW ZEALAND

	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
China	1 346	2 232	4 687	3 752	2 579	1 896	2 032	2 849
South Africa	937	1 181	1 645	2 010	2 028	1 973	1 992	2 407
United Kingdom	2 744	3 031	4 212	3 670	3 019	2 187	2 266	2 377
India	520	895	1 779	1 847	1 376	1 350	1 255	2 127
Fiji	808	739	1 104	1 253	1 273	1 139	1 047	1 452
Korea	1 238	1 072	2 314	1 982	1 053	685	642	1 099
Samoa	1 495	1 663	1 649	1 702	1 590	1 307	1 189	1 065
Philippines	329	403	1 007	949	829	652	555	702
Iraq	261	473	1 699	1 047	528	434	509	516
Sri Lanka	213	363	836	774	738	568	472	511
Former Soviet Union	162	338	879	695	508	392	365	489
Chinese Taipei	1 010	1 365	3 213	1 970	1 619	1 069	546	355
United States	282	288	427	363	281	335	348	335
Former Yugoslavia	513	1 223	1 507	945	404	315	372	262
Hong Kong, China	1 251	1 416	1 600	1 270	740	539	255	259
Other countries	2 648	3 491	5 912	5 380	4 970	4 628	4 451	5 337
Total	15 757	20 173	34 470	29 609	23 535	19 469	18 296	22 142

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6 Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality
NORWAY

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Pakistan	997	1 530	1 583	1 097	106	1 077	409	829	497	568
Turkey	793	836	837	705	170	523	356	412	398	393
Former Yugoslavia	754	554	520	560	1 176	1 322	1 199	614	310	303
Philippines	343	315	360	155	199	157	261	299	265	249
Morocco	248	318	294	154	90	131	154	160	86	235
Viet Nam	727	1 446	1 276	781	651	738	594	292	210	222
Sweden	130	112	167	154	241	246	249	216	211	221
India	346	313	274	157	232	188	235	230	196	207
Poland	374	267	282	192	209	196	159	165	167	171
Denmark	102	91	143	149	158	170	162	108	129	167
Chile	923	531	416	240	252	156	172	234	138	141
Korea	121	122	109	146	144	113	143	106	74	93
China	235	383	348	279	315	156	113	135	84	82
United Kingdom	110	162	142	129	94	104	57	83	68	78
Germany	45	41	63	55	73	74	68	95	75	74
Other countries	5 530	5 216	5 223	4 291	3 878	4 166	6 507	5 063	4 959	4 950
Total	11 778	12 237	12 037	9 244	7 988	9 517	10 838	9 041	7 867	8 154

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6 Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality
PORTUGAL

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Brazil	235	241	296	46	186	175	283	345	345	307
Venezuela	431	411	431	1	219	186	162	221	311	301
Cape Verde	169	80	93	159	117	69	228	271	370	274
Guinea-Bissau	43	27	16	67	37	27	55	73	38	95
United States	164	120	203	7	91	64	90	108	94	72
Angola	76	57	56	56	62	42	65	82	144	63
Canada	76	69	92	4	70	55	54	65	68	38
Sao Tome and Principe	18	10	12	28	15	7	20	34	58	22
United Kingdom	16	14	9	0	17	8	5	12	28	21
Mozambique	30	19	26	56	37	10	24	27	56	17
Russian Federation	1	9
France	14	11	18	3	8	6	8	9	12	8
Netherlands	0	1	3	0	0	1	6	2	6	7
Germany	1	2	2	1	2	3	2	3	2	4
Romania	4
Other countries	140	92	107	90	85	68	80	117	215	104
Total	1 413	1 154	1 364	519	946	721	1 082	1 369	1 747	1 346

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6 Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality
SLOVAK REPUBLIC

	2003	2004
Czech Republic	597	775
Viet Nam	405	619
Ukraine	251	549
Serbia and Montenegro	438	506
Romania	450	442
China	484	200
Macedonia	175	143
United States	97	136
Russian Federation	65	96
Croatia	35	50
Bulgaria	66	42
Armenia	44	39
Bosnia and Herzegovina	18	30
Germany	19	30
Poland	43	26
Other countries	305	333
Total	3 492	4 016

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6 Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality
SPAIN

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Morocco	785	687	1 056	1 542	2 053	1 921	2 822	3 111	6 827
Peru	658	1 150	1 159	1 863	2 374	1 488	2 322	3 117	2 932
Dominican Republic	499	833	1 257	1 860	2 652	1 755	2 126	2 876	2 639
Colombia	364	457	478	624	818	302	848	1 267	1 802
Cuba	169	250	442	773	1 109	893	1 191	2 088	1 601
Argentina	1 314	1 387	1 368	1 126	1 027	661	791	997	1 015
Philippines	281	455	583	499	551	365	554	831	670
Portugal	372	452	524	677	683	452	568	627	536
Venezuela	130	133	153	203	290	197	326	439	529
Brazil	..	128	217	299	308	273	411	477	500
China	74	109	180	238	302	240	263	308	396
Chile	317	425	428	473	432	594	359	353	349
Equatorial Guinea	140	200	278	206	321	338	342
India	111	128	172	206	270	232	287	271	291
Uruguay	217	260	279	310	309	177	239	219	234
Other countries	1 465	1 579	1 875	2 284	2 938	2 243	3 315	4 491	5 893
Total	6 756	8 433	10 311	13 177	16 394	11 999	16 743	21 810	26 556

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6 Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality
SWEDEN

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Iraq	1 466	1 851	2 328	3 719	2 328	4 181	4 043	4 160	4 678	5 298
Finland	2 125	2 009	1 882	1 668	1 632	1 389	1 512	1 561	2 816	2 703
Bosnia and Herzegovina	27	98	2 550	10 860	11 348	12 591	4 241	4 064	3 090	1 469
Iran	3 867	2 696	2 423	7 480	4 476	2 798	2 031	1 737	1 350	1 296
Turkey	2 836	2 030	1 402	1 694	1 833	1 398	2 796	2 127	1 375	1 269
Syrian Arab Republic	1 330	616	567	653	438	693	588	1 063	1 218	1 117
Poland	895	636	523	454	159	264	1 906	2 604	1 325	990
Somalia	610	491	491	737	739	2 843	2 802	1 789	1 121	840
Croatia	1 569	1 531	780
China	333	363	302	334	300	434	460	563	675	654
Russian Federation	626	642	535
Thailand	301	264	343	336	492	525	454	606	443	500
Norway	363	276	186	208	238	289	301	376	395	473
Chile	946	707	545	426	693	687	727	689	548	464
Afghanistan	285	278	361
Other countries	16 894	13 515	15 325	17 933	13 101	15 382	14 536	13 973	11 521	8 020
Total	31 993	25 552	28 867	46 502	37 777	43 474	36 397	37 792	33 006	26 769

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6 Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality
SWITZERLAND

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Serbia and Montenegro	2 085	2 365	3 285	3 686	5 803	6 332	7 854
Italy	4 376	5 167	4 982	5 613	5 510	6 652	5 386	6 633	5 085	4 196
Turkey	1 205	1 432	1 814	2 093	2 260	3 127	3 116	4 128	4 216	3 565
Bosnia and Herzegovina	205	409	999	1 128	1 865	2 268	2 371
Macedonia	308	410	857	1 022	1 639	1 802	1 981
Croatia	634	671	970	1 045	1 638	1 565	1 616
Portugal	175	262	291	421	481	765	779	920	1 165	1 199
France	871	1 045	985	1 152	848	1 360	1 307	1 367	1 215	1 181
Spain	432	453	481	619	507	851	699	691	800	823
Germany	706	675	644	605	461	646	586	817	670	639
United Kingdom	278	299	269	285	228	339	310	350	306	289
Netherlands	52	55	71	76	45	74	90	90	155	254
Austria	261	248	223	186	140	240	233	227	194	150
Hungary	297	278	206	187	153	167	127	138	108	99
Slovak Republic	78	75	69	78	105	105	73
Other countries	8 142	9 461	9 204	6 733	5 800	8 299	7 994	10 104	9 438	9 395
Total	16 795	19 375	19 170	21 280	20 363	28 700	27 586	36 515	35 424	35 685

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.1.6 **Acquisition of nationality by country of former nationality**
UNITED STATES

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Mexico	81 655	254 988	142 569	112 442	207 750	189 705	103 234	76 531	56 093	63 840
India	18 558	33 113	21 206	17 060	30 710	42 198	34 311	33 774	29 790	37 975
Philippines	37 870	51 346	30 898	24 872	38 944	46 563	35 431	30 487	29 081	31 448
Viet Nam	31 728	51 910	36 178	30 185	53 316	55 934	41 596	36 835	25 995	27 480
China	21 564	34 320	20 947	16 145	38 409	54 534	34 423	32 018	24 014	27 309
Korea	15 709	27 969	16 056	10 305	17 738	23 858	18 053	17 307	15 968	17 184
Dominican Republic	9 999	29 459	21 092	11 916	23 089	25 176	15 010	15 591	12 627	15 464
Jamaica	11 156	25 458	20 253	15 040	28 604	22 567	13 978	13 973	11 232	12 271
Iran	11 761	19 278	11 434	10 739	18 268	19 251	13 881	11 796	10 807	11 781
Cuba	17 511	63 234	13 155	15 331	25 467	15 661	11 393	10 889	7 727	11 236
Poland	8 092	14 047	8 037	5 911	13 127	16 405	11 661	12 823	9 140	10 335
Colombia	12 823	27 483	11 645	7 024	13 168	14 018	10 872	10 634	7 962	9 819
El Salvador	13 702	35 478	18 273	12 267	22 991	24 073	13 663	10 716	8 738	9 602
Pakistan	4 912	11 251	7 266	3 572	6 572	8 726	8 375	8 658	7 431	8 744
Haiti	7 884	25 012	16 477	10 416	19 550	14 428	10 408	9 280	7 263	8 215
Other countries	183 164	340 343	202 739	159 835	282 241	315 691	231 916	242 396	199 336	234 448
Total	488 088	1 044 689	598 225	463 060	839 944	888 788	608 205	573 708	463 204	537 151

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Metadata related to Tables A.1.6. and B.1.6. **Acquisition of nationality**

Country	Comments	Source
Australia		Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs.
Austria		Central Office of Statistics.
Belgium		National Statistical Office and Ministry of Justice.
Canada		Statistics Canada.
Czech Republic		Ministry of the Interior.
Denmark		Statistics Denmark.
Finland	Includes naturalisations of persons of Finnish origin.	Statistics Finland.
France	The data by former nationality include induced acquisitions (by minors) when a parent acquires French nationality by decree or as a result of marriage. The total in Table A.1.6 includes estimates of the number of acquisitions due to entitlement (without formal procedures) as a result of birth and residence in France. In 2004, the breakdown by former nationality of acquisitions of nationality by advance declaration is not available. This explains the high number of estimates for 2004 (29 872 advance declarations).	Ministry of Social Affairs, Labour and Solidarity.
Germany	Figures do not include ethnic Germans.	Federal Office of Statistics.
Hungary	Including grants of nationality to ethnic Hungarians mainly from former Yugoslavia and Ukraine.	Ministry of the Interior.
Italy		Ministry of the Interior.
Japan		Ministry of Justice, Civil Affairs Bureau.
Luxembourg	Excludes children acquiring nationality as a consequence of the naturalisation of their parents.	Ministry of Justice.
Mexico		National Migration Institute.
Netherlands		Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS).
New Zealand	The country of origin of persons granted New Zealand citizenship is the country of birth if birth documentation is available. If not, the country of origin is the country of citizenship as shown on the person's passport.	Department of Internal Affairs.
Norway		Statistics Norway.
Portugal	Data do not include the acquisition of nationality through marriage and adoption.	National Statistical Office (INE).
Slovak Republic		Ministry of the Interior.
Spain	Excludes individuals recovering their former (Spanish) nationality.	Ministry of Justice and Ministry of the Interior.
Sweden		Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland		Federal Office of Immigration, Integration and Emigration.
United Kingdom		Home Office.
United States	Data refer to fiscal years (October to September of the year indicated).	US Department of Justice.

Inflows of Foreign Workers

Most of the statistics published herein are based on the number of work permits issued during the year. As was the case for overall immigration flows, the settlement countries (Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States) consider as immigrant workers persons who have received a permanent immigration permit for employment purposes. In each of these four countries, it is also possible to work on a temporary basis under various programmes (these data are also available in this annex). Data by country of origin are not published in this annex.

The data on European countries are based on initial work permits granted, which sometimes include temporary and seasonal workers. Major flows of workers are not covered, either because the type of permit that they hold is not covered in these statistics, or because they do not need permits in order to work (free circulation agreements, beneficiaries of family reunification, refugees). Some data also include renewals of permits. The administrative backlog in the processing of work permit applications is sometimes large (as in the United States, for example) and affects the flows observed. The data may also cover initial entries into the labour market and include young foreigners born in the country who are entering the labour market.

Table A.2.1 **Inflows of foreign workers into selected OECD countries**

Thousands

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Australia										
Permanent settlers	20.2	20.0	19.7	26.0	27.9	32.4	35.7	36.0	38.5	51.5
Temporary workers	14.3	15.4	31.7	37.3	37.0	39.2	45.7	43.3	48.8	43.1
Austria	15.4	16.3	15.2	15.4	18.3	25.4	27.0	24.6	24.1	24.5
Belgium	2.8	2.2	2.5	7.3	8.7	7.5	7.0	6.7	4.6	4.3
Canada	69.7	71.6	75.8	80.3	87.1	97.0	99.1	93.3	85.5	90.7
Denmark	2.2	2.8	3.1	3.2	3.1	3.6	5.1	4.8	2.3	4.3
Finland	10.4	14.1	13.3	13.8	14.2
France										
Permanents	6.1	4.8	5.2	5.4	6.3	6.4	9.2	8.0	6.9	7.0
<i>APT</i>	4.5	4.8	4.7	4.3	5.8	7.5	9.6	9.8	10.1	10.0
Germany	270.8	262.5	285.4	275.5	304.9	333.8	373.8	374.0	372.2	380.3
Hungary	18.4	14.5	19.7	22.6	29.6	40.2	47.3	49.8	57.4	79.2
Ireland	4.3	3.8	4.5	5.7	6.3	18.0	36.4	40.3	47.6	34.1
Italy	21.6	21.4	58.0	92.4	139.1
Japan	81.5	78.5	93.9	101.9	108.0	129.9	142.0	145.1	155.8	158.9
Luxembourg	16.5	18.3	18.6	22.0	24.2	26.5	25.8	22.4	22.6	22.9
Mexico	70.1	72.4	73.2	73.9	64.9	65.3	61.9	57.0	60.1	68.8
Netherlands	..	9.2	11.1	15.2	20.8	27.7	30.2	34.6	38.0	44.1
New Zealand										
Permanent settlers	5.0	5.1	6.7	9.8	13.8	12.0	8.2
Temporary workers	25.4	29.5	32.5	43.1	54.6	63.4	69.8
Norway	15.3	15.9	19.0	24.2	25.7	33.0
Poland	10.4	11.9	15.3	16.9	17.1	17.8	17.0	22.8	18.8	12.4
Portugal	2.2	1.5	1.3	2.6	4.2	7.8	133.0	52.7	13.6	6.5
Spain	36.6	36.6	25.9	48.1	49.7	172.6	154.9	101.6	74.6	..
Sweden	10.2	8.5
Switzerland	27.1	24.5	25.4	26.4	31.5	34.0	41.9	40.1	35.4	40.0
United Kingdom	24.2	26.4	31.7	37.5	42.0	64.6	85.1	88.6	85.8	89.5
United States										
Permanent settlers	85.3	117.5	90.6	77.5	56.8	107.0	179.2	175.0	82.1	155.3
Temporary workers	208.1	242.0	303.7	355.1	413.6	357.9	352.1	396.7

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata which follow.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/824047508680>

Metadata related to Table A.2.1. **Inflows of foreign workers**

Country	Types of workers covered in the data	Source
Australia	<p><i>Permanent settlers</i></p> <p>Skilled workers including the following categories of visas: Employer nominations, Business skills, <i>Occupational Shares System</i>, special talents, Independent. Including accompanying dependents.</p> <p><i>Period of reference:</i> Fiscal years (July to June of the given year).</p> <p><i>Temporary workers</i></p> <p>Skilled temporary resident programme (including accompanying dependents). Including Long Stay Temporary Business Programme from 1996/1997 on.</p> <p><i>Period of reference:</i> Fiscal years (July to June of the given year).</p>	Department of Immigration and Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs.
Austria	Data for all years cover initial work permits for both direct inflows from abroad and for first participation in the Austrian labour market of foreigners already present in the country. Seasonal workers are included. EU citizens are excluded.	Ministry of Labour, Health and Social Affairs.
Belgium	Work permits issued to first-time immigrants in wage and salary employment. Citizens of European Union (EU) member states are not included.	Ministry of Employment and Labour.
Canada	Persons issued employment authorisations to work temporarily in Canada (excluding people granted a permit on humanitarian grounds, foreign students and their spouses). From 1997 on, persons are shown in the year in which they received their first temporary permit except for seasonal workers who are counted each time they enter the country.	Citizenship and Immigration Canada.
Denmark	Residence permits issued for employment. Nordic and EU citizens are not included. From 2003 on, data only cover the categories Wage earners, Work permits to persons from the new EU member states and Specialists included by the jobcard scheme. Persons granted a residence permit on basis of employment who previously obtained an educational residence permit are no longer included.	Statistics Denmark.
Finland	Work and residence permits for foreign workers entering Finland are granted from abroad through Finnish Embassies and Consulates.	Directorate of Immigration, Ministry of Foreign Affairs.
France	<p><i>Permanent workers</i></p> <p>"Permanents" are foreign workers subject to control by the <i>ANAEM</i>. Data only include non-EEA permanent workers (including self employed).</p> <p>Resident family members of workers who enter the labour market for the first time and the self-employed are not included.</p> <p><i>Provisional work permits (APT)</i></p> <p>Provisional work permits (APT) cannot exceed 9 months, are renewable and apply to trainees, students and other holders of non-permanent jobs.</p>	ANAEM (Agence nationale de l'accueil des étrangers et des migrations).
Germany	New work permits issued. Data include essentially newly entered foreign workers, contract workers and seasonal workers. Citizens of EU member states are not included.	Federal Labour Office.
Hungary	Grants of work permits (including renewals).	Ministry of Labour.
Ireland	Work permits issued (including renewals). EU citizens do not need a work permit.	Ministry of Labour.
Italy	New work permits issued to non-EU foreigners (excl. self-employed).	Ministry of Labour and National Institute of Statistics (ISTAT).
Japan	Residents with restricted permission to work. Excluding temporary visitors and re-entries. Including renewals of permits.	Ministry of Justice.
Luxembourg	Data cover both arrivals of foreign workers and residents admitted for the first time to the labour market.	Social Security Inspection Bureau.
Mexico	Immigrants and residents with permission to work.	National Migration Institute.
Netherlands	Holders of a temporary work permit (regulated since 1995 under the Dutch Foreign nationals labour act, WAV).	Center for work and income.
New Zealand	Permanent settlers refer to principal applicants 16 and over in the business and skill streams. Temporary workers refer to work applications approved for persons entering New Zealand for the purpose of employment.	Statistics New Zealand
Norway	Data include granted work permits on the grounds of Norway's need for workers. This includes permanent, long-term and short-term work permits.	Directorate of Immigration
Poland	Data refer to work permits granted.	Ministry of Economy, Labour, and Social Policy.

Metadata related to Table A.2.1. **Inflows of foreign workers** (cont.)

Country	Types of workers covered in the data	Source
Portugal	Persons who obtained a residence permit for the first time and who declared that they have a job or are seeking a job. Data for 2001 and 2002 include permits delivered following the 2001 regularisation programme.	National Statistical Office.
Spain	Data include both initial "B" work permits, delivered for 1 year maximum (renewable) for a specific salaried activity and "D" work permits (same type of permit for the self-employed). From 1997 on, data also include permanent permits. Since 1992, EU citizens do not need a work permit. The large increase in 2000 is due to the regularisation programme which affected statistics for 2000 and 2001. The results for 2002 and 2003 are from Social Security statistics ("Anuario de Estadísticas Laborales y de Asuntos Sociales"). The 2003 result is preliminary.	Ministry of Labour and Social Security.
Sweden	Data include seasonal workers and other temporary workers (fitters, specialists, artists and athletes).	Population register (Statistics Sweden) and Migration Board.
Switzerland	Data cover foreigners who enter Switzerland to work and who obtain an annual residence permit, whether the permit is renewable or not (<i>e.g.</i> trainees). The data also include holders of a settlement permit returning to Switzerland after a short stay abroad. Issues of an annual permit to persons holding a seasonal one are not included.	Federal Office of Immigration, Integration and Emigration.
United Kingdom	Grants of work permits and first permissions. Data exclude dependents and EEA nationals.	Overseas Labour Service.
United States	<i>Permanent workers</i> Data include immigrants issued employment-based preference visas. <i>Period of reference</i> : fiscal years (October to September of the given year). <i>Temporary workers</i> Data refer to non-immigrant visas issued, (categories H, O, P, Q, R, NATO, and NAFTA). Family members are included. <i>Period of reference</i> : Fiscal years (October to September of the given year).	US Department of Justice. United States Department of State, Bureau of Consular Affairs.

Stocks of Foreign and Foreign-born Labour

The international comparison of “immigrant” workers faces the difficulties already mentioned earlier regarding measuring the overall stock of immigrants and taking into account different concepts of employment and unemployment.

For the European countries, the main difficulty consists of covering EU nationals, who have free labour market access in EU member States. They are sometimes issued work permits, but this information is not always as readily available as for third-country nationals. Switzerland recently revised the sampling of its labour-force survey in order to compensate for the information that was no longer available on EU workers in registers of foreign nationals following the signature of free movement agreements with the European Union. These bilateral agreements enable employees who are holders of “EU/EFTA” permits to change their job or profession (professional mobility), and this change is not registered in the Central Register for Foreign Nationals, the usual source for statistics on the stock of foreign workers.

The use of work permit statistics can result in counting the same person more than once if the data include temporary workers and this person has successively been granted two permits during the same reference period. On the other hand, holders of “permanent” residence permits allowing access to the labour market are not systematically covered, especially since it is not always possible to determine the proportion of those who are actually working.

Another difficulty concerns determining the number of unemployed, self-employed and cross-border workers. The unemployed are generally included, except when the source is work permit records and when permits are granted subject to a definite job offer. Self-employed and cross-border workers are much less well covered by statistics. The reference periods of data are highly variable, as they are generally the end of December for register data, and the end of the first quarter of the reference year for employment survey data.

The management of population registers (when the population in the labour force can be identified) and work permits results in numerous breaks in series when expired work permits are eliminated, when this is not done automatically, or when regularisation programmes are implemented, which often give priority to foreigners who can show that they are employed or have a job offer. When these breaks occur, the analysis of the growth of the stock of foreign workers is significantly biased.

Table A.2.2 Stocks of foreign-born labour force in selected OECD countries
Thousands and percentages

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Australia	2 200.4	2 268.1	2 270.1	2 313.7	2 318.1	2 372.8	2 394.4	2 438.1	2 486.8	2 524.1
% of total labour force	24.4	24.9	24.7	24.8	24.6	24.7	24.6	24.6	24.9	24.4
Austria	601.7
% of total labour force	15.3
Canada	..	2 839.1	3 150.8
% of total labour force	..	19.2	19.9
Denmark	154.4	161.0
% of total labour force	5.4	..
Mexico	120.5
% of total labour force	0.4
New Zealand	372.3
% of total labour force	19.9
United States	13 492	15 314	16 712	17 373	17 068	18 055	19 020	20 964	21 564	21 985
% of total labour force	10.3	11.6	12.3	12.7	12.3	12.9	13.4	14.6	14.8	15.1

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.2.1.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/028831505130>

Table B.2.1 Stock of foreign-born labour by country of birth

Thousands

AUSTRALIA

	1996	2001	2002	2003	2004	Of which: Women		
						2002	2003	2004
United Kingdom	661.3	630.0	637.6	662.7	635.6	268.8	274.9	255.9
New Zealand	208.7	251.1	245.2	257.4	274.2	105.6	111.7	127.3
China	56.3	80.0	93.5	90.2	96.8	41.5	40.1	44.8
India	49.0	75.0	71.1	75.7	93.8	28.6	28.6	38.5
Former Yugoslavia	110.8	92.9	96.1	98.6	91.1	38.2	41.8	35.3
Viet Nam	83.6	90.8	101.3	105.6	103.3	39.2	43.8	44.1
Philippines	56.4	64.8	79.1	81.6	84.5	48.1	50.9	49.3
Malaysia	51.1	47.1	58.0	55.9	56.6	30.6	27.1	29.2
Italy	95.8	86.2	75.8	83.7	77.6	25.2	27.0	24.0
Germany	59.8	62.3	64.7	57.6	55.7	24.8	25.9	26.0
Netherlands	45.0	40.7	40.8	46.8	44.9	17.0	18.0	18.4
Greece	60.1	45.3	37.3	44.2	43.5	13.5	15.7	17.5
Lebanon	35.8	39.3	34.7	33.7	35.6	9.7	9.5	11.3
Other countries	675.6	761.8	802.8	793.1	830.9	341.8	345.0	369.8
Total	2 249.3	2 367.3	2 438.0	2 486.8	2 524.1	1 032.6	1 060.0	1 091.4

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/364837548641>

Table B.2.1 **Stock of foreign-born labour by country of birth**

Thousands

AUSTRIA

	2004
Bosnia and Herzegovina	100.8
Serbia and Montenegro	82.5
Turkey	79.3
Germany	65.3
Poland	35.0
Croatia	26.5
Romania	24.2
Hungary	13.8
Czech Republic	12.2
Macedonia	11.3
Philippines	9.6
Italy	9.3
Slovak Republic	8.5
Switzerland	8.1
Iran	6.5
Other countries	108.8
Total	601.7

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.1 **Stock of foreign-born labour by country of birth**

Thousands

CANADA

	1996	2001	<i>Of which: Women</i>	
			1996	2001
United Kingdom	372.5	335.4	180.6	154.9
India	158.3	209.4	68.2	91.8
Philippines	126.7	166.1	76.4	97.8
China	113.8	162.8	51.8	76.7
Hong Kong, China	129.4	140.9	62.5	68.9
Italy	166.2	140.1	62.7	54.3
United States	142.0	137.1	74.2	73.2
Poland	98.0	104.1	45.1	50.3
Viet Nam	85.8	103.5	37.7	47.6
Portugal	101.0	95.6	43.4	41.4
Germany	100.7	87.0	45.3	39.6
Jamaica	79.5	85.4	44.1	47.8
Netherlands	70.5	60.2	28.2	23.9
Other countries	1 094.7	1 323.3	468.7	590.1
Total	2 839.1	3 150.8	1 288.9	1 458.3

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.1 **Stock of foreign-born labour by country of birth**

Thousands

DENMARK

	2003	2004	Of which: Women
			2004
Turkey	17.6	18.1	7.1
Germany	10.6	10.4	4.6
Bosnia and Herzegovina	8.1	8.4	3.7
Sweden	7.2	7.1	4.2
United Kingdom	6.8	6.7	2.0
Norway	6.7	6.7	4.2
Poland	6.0	6.2	4.1
Former Yugoslavia (others)	6.2	6.1	2.6
Iran	5.6	5.9	2.0
Pakistan	5.0	5.2	1.6
Iraq	3.9	5.2	1.4
Viet Nam	4.9	5.1	2.3
Sri Lanka	4.2	4.2	1.8
Lebanon	3.8	4.1	1.2
Thailand	3.3	3.6	3.2
Other countries	54.5	57.9	26.5
Total	154.4	161.0	72.4

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.1 **Stock of foreign-born labour by country of birth**

Thousands

FINLAND

	2003
Former Soviet Union	19.7
Sweden	18.5
Estonia	5.9
Former Yugoslavia	2.5
Germany	2.1
Viet Nam	1.9
United Kingdom	1.8
Turkey	1.8
Somalia	1.7
Iraq	1.5
China	1.3
Iran	1.3
Thailand	1.1
United States	1.1
India	0.8
Other countries	19.8
Total	83.0

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.1 **Stock of foreign-born labour by country of birth**

Thousands

MEXICO

	2000
United States	46.3
Guatemala	12.2
Spain	10.0
Argentina	3.8
Cuba	3.5
Colombia	3.1
El Salvador	3.0
France	3.0
Germany	2.9
Italy	2.3
Peru	2.1
Chile	2.1
Canada	1.9
Honduras	1.8
Japan	1.5
Other countries	21.0
Total	120.5

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.1 **Stock of foreign-born labour by country of birth**

Thousands

NEW ZEALAND

	2001	<i>Of which: Women</i>
		2001
United Kingdom	115.2	51.5
Australia	29.2	14.8
Samoa	26.8	12.7
Fiji	16.3	7.7
South Africa	15.2	7.2
China	15.2	7.2
India	12.2	5.1
Netherlands	11.3	4.7
Tonga	10.0	4.3
Cook Islands	8.2	3.8
United States	7.4	3.5
Malaysia	6.9	3.4
Philippines	6.5	4.4
Korea	6.0	2.7
Germany	5.0	2.4
Other countries	80.6	37.0
Total	372.3	172.2

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.1 **Stock of foreign-born labour by country of birth**

Thousands

UNITED STATES

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	<i>Of which: Women</i>		
											2002	2003	2004
Mexico	4 203.7	4 033.8	4 414.8	4 578.1	4 618.6	5 005.2	5 334.6	6 348.7	6 458.4	6 726.3	2 025.0	2 059.2	2 049.0
Philippines	754.3	840.8	873.5	922.1	1 016.8	938.7	941.1	1 016.0	1 010.9	977.4	586.5	590.9	538.5
India	291.3	536.5	514.5	510.4	584.7	681.3	670.1	890.5	787.7	909.6	272.0	270.9	344.0
China	285.8	498.6	531.0	537.7	548.2	565.7	597.9	590.6	657.6	825.1	270.5	306.6	368.4
El Salvador	446.9	479.9	463.0	566.9	574.3	557.4	614.0	667.6	788.6	688.2	283.4	285.6	280.0
Viet Nam	245.4	484.1	551.8	682.4	629.9	485.8	488.2	544.9	579.7	659.2	244.5	272.0	312.2
Germany	558.7	514.9	595.7	629.7	517.1	625.2	617.7	632.8	585.8	629.8	344.5	300.7	325.1
Cuba	466.7	448.9	513.7	502.9	545.0	520.0	458.2	452.4	492.2	558.6	180.9	212.2	217.3
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	280.5	283.2	407.0	411.1	340.1	441.0	511.5	461.3	543.9	460.2	249.2	278.6	242.3
Canada	481.3	475.4	424.0	419.8	462.9	495.1	536.0	519.3	519.5	459.9	248.4	241.1	232.7
Jamaica	361.2	336.7	273.1	262.8	282.3	311.5	362.9	378.0	460.9	449.3	207.1	253.2	258.3
United Kingdom	410.7	394.8	441.0	440.3	473.3	438.9	401.4	443.7	399.0	436.0	198.9	187.6	204.0
Dominican Republic	217.7	272.0	330.0	363.2	370.1	369.5	362.8	384.2	432.3	374.1	207.7	242.1	210.5
Guatemala	229.2	244.8	319.5	295.4	273.9	241.2	224.6	301.5	310.8	371.4	106.7	97.2	105.6
Haiti	200.5	255.6	289.8	316.2	254.4	268.6	395.5	412.9	324.7	365.5	168.9	148.1	187.0
Other countries	4 046.8	5 188.8	5 734.8	5 906.1	5 563.1	6 083.3	6 477.8	6 873.1	7 211.5	7 094.6	2 937.7	3 148.1	3 017.5
Total	13 480.7	15 288.6	16 677.1	17 345.1	17 054.7	18 028.5	18 994.1	20 917.6	21 563.6	21 985.2	8 531.8	8 894.1	8 892.4

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Metadata related to Tables A.2.2. and B.2.1. **Foreign-born labour force**

Country	Comments	Source
Australia	Labour force aged 15 and over. <i>Reference date:</i> August. Data for China exclude Hong Kong and Chinese Taipei. Data in Table A.2.2. are annual averages whereas data in Table B.2.1. refer to the month of august.	Labour Force Survey (ABS).
Austria		Labour Force Survey.
Canada	Labour force aged 15 and over.	Censuses of Population, Statistics Canada.
Denmark		Ministry of Refugee, Immigration and Integration Affairs.
Mexico	Data refer to the foreign-born labour force population aged 12 and over.	Census of Population, CONAPO.
New Zealand	Labour force aged 15 and over.	2001 Census, Statistics New Zealand.
United States	Labour force aged 15 and over (including those born abroad with US citizenship at birth). Data by nationality are not statistically relevant. <i>Reference date:</i> March.	Current Population Survey, US Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Table A.2.3 **Stocks of foreign labour force in selected OECD countries**

Thousands and percentages

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Austria	325.2	328.0	326.3	327.1	333.6	345.6	359.9	370.6	388.6	402.7
% of total labour force	9.9	10.0	9.9	137.5	10.0	10.5	11.0	10.9	11.8	11.9
Belgium	363.7	370.9	380.5	394.9	382.7	387.9	392.5	393.9	396.0	427.7
% of total labour force	8.3	8.4	8.6	8.9	8.5	8.6	8.6	8.6	8.5	9.1
Czech Republic	111.9	143.2	130.8	111.2	93.5	103.6	103.7	101.2	105.7	108.0
% of total labour force	2.2	2.8	2.5	2.1	1.8	2.0	2.0	1.9	2.1	2.1
Denmark	83.8	88.0	93.9	98.3	96.3	96.8	100.6	101.9	101.5	106.9
% of total labour force	3.0	3.1	3.3	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.6	3.9
Finland	41.4	45.4	46.3	47.6	48.6
% of total labour force	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.9
France	1 573.3	1 604.7	1 569.8	1 586.7	1 593.8	1 577.6	1 617.6	1 623.8	1 515.9	1 537.6
% of total labour force	6.2	6.3	6.1	6.1	5.8	6.0	6.2	6.2	5.6	5.6
Germany	3 575.0	3 501.0	3 545.0	3 546.0	3 616.0	3 634.0	3 703.0	3 701.0
% of total labour force	8.9	8.7	8.8	8.8	9.1	9.2	9.4	9.1
Greece	413.2
% of total labour force	9.5
Hungary	21.0	18.8	20.4	22.4	28.5	35.0	38.6	42.7	48.7	121.8
% of total labour force	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	1.0	1.2	1.4
Ireland	42.1	52.4	51.7	53.7	57.5	63.9	84.2	101.7
% of total labour force	2.9	3.5	3.4	3.3	3.4	3.7	4.7	5.5
Italy	332.2	580.6	539.6	614.6	747.6	850.7	800.7	840.8	1 479.4	..
% of total employment	1.7	2.6	2.4	2.7	3.6	4.0	3.7	3.8	6.0	..
Japan	88.0	98.3	107.3	119.0	125.7	154.7	168.8	179.6	185.6	192.1
% of total labour force	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.3
Korea	52.2	82.9	106.8	76.8	93.0	122.5	128.5	137.3	415.0	297.8
% of total labour force	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.6	0.6	0.6	1.8	1.0
Luxembourg	111.8	117.8	124.8	134.6	145.7	152.7	169.3	175.1	180.4	187.5
% of total employment	52.4	53.8	55.1	57.7	57.3	57.3	61.2	61.3	65.5	62.0
Netherlands	282.1	280.5	275.2	269.5	267.5	300.1	302.6	295.9	317.2	299.4
% of total labour force	4.0	3.9	3.8	3.6	3.5	3.9	3.8	3.7	3.9	3.8
Norway	52.6	54.8	59.9	66.9	104.6	111.2	133.7	138.4	140.6	149.3
% of total employment	2.5	2.6	2.8	3.0	4.7	4.9	5.7	5.8	6.3	6.6
Portugal	84.3	86.8	87.9	88.6	91.6	99.8	233.6	285.7	298.0	303.0
% of total labour force	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8	2.0	4.4	5.3	5.5	5.5
Slovak Republic	3.9	4.8	5.5	5.9	4.5	4.7	4.4	4.7	5.0	2.8
% of total labour force	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1
Spain	139.0	166.5	178.7	197.1	199.8	454.6	607.1	831.7	982.4	1 076.7
% of total labour force	0.8	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.1	2.5	3.4	4.5	5.2	6.3
Sweden	220	218	220	219	222	222	227	218	221	216
% of total labour force	5.1	5.1	5.2	5.1	5.1	5.0	5.1	4.9	4.9	4.9
Switzerland	728.7	709.1	692.8	691.1	701.2	717.3	738.8	829.6	814.3	817.3
% of total labour force	18.6	17.9	17.5	17.4	17.6	17.8	18.1	..	20.5	20.6
United Kingdom	862	865	949	1 039	1 005	1 107	1 229	1 251	1 322	1 445
% of total employment	3.4	3.3	3.6	3.9	3.7	4.0	4.4	4.6	4.8	5.2

Note: For details on definitions and sources, refer to the metadata at the end of Tables B.2.1.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/187628838875>

Table B.2.2 **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

AUSTRIA

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Former Yugoslavia (others)	129.3	126.1	123.3	122.3	122.9	124.2	122.8	119.8	117.1	113.4
Turkey	54.7	53.6	52.8	54.2	55.6	57.1	56.8	56.3	55.7	54.6
Germany	13.5	14.6	15.7	16.9	18.8	20.9	23.5	26.5	31.5	39.0
Bosnia and Herzegovina	10.8	13.6	15.1	16.5	18.5	21.3	24.1	25.4	26.7	27.5
Hungary	9.4	9.3	9.2	9.2	9.7	10.4	11.3	12.0	12.7	13.6
Croatia	4.7	5.3	5.3	6.2	7.0	8.4	9.8	10.6	11.4	12.1
Poland	11.2	11.0	10.9	10.7	10.9	11.2	11.2	11.3	11.5	12.0
Romania	9.6	9.3	9.1	9.1	9.3	9.7	9.9	10.1	10.7	11.0
Former Czechoslovakia	8.9	8.1	7.5	7.1	6.9	6.7	6.3	5.5	5.2	4.9
Slovak Republic	0.8	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.6	1.9	2.4	2.9	3.5	4.4
Slovenia	2.8	3.0	2.9	3.2	3.4	3.6	3.8	3.9	4.0	4.3
Czech Republic	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.2	1.4	1.7	2.4	2.7	3.1
Philippines	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.6	2.6	2.7	2.9	3.1
Macedonia	0.5	0.7	1.1	1.3	1.6	2.0	2.2
India	2.1	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.0	2.1	2.2
Other countries	39.4	40.2	40.4	35.5	35.1	37.3	39.5	41.4	50.8	54.8
Total	300.3	300.4	298.8	298.6	306.4	319.9	329.3	334.4	350.4	362.3

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Statlink: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1786/050358424140>Table B.2.2 **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

BELGIUM

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Italy	102.2	101.6	104.0	104.5	97.1	94.4	91.4	88.9	86.1	86.3
France	51.8	54.3	57.3	60.8	63.3	68.8	71.2	71.7	73.0	77.7
Morocco	44.6	44.6	44.5	46.1	43.4	41.3	40.2	38.6	36.8	39.9
Netherlands	30.6	32.2	33.6	34.4	33.6	34.0	34.2	34.4	35.1	38.0
Spain	22.9	22.9	23.3	23.6	23.0	22.6	22.2	22.0	21.4	21.7
Turkey	30.1	30.5	30.1	31.6	26.6	24.0	21.9	21.0	20.2	21.1
Portugal	10.6	11.3	11.9	12.2	12.3	12.3	12.4	12.7	13.3	14.2
Germany	8.4	8.6	9.1	9.4	9.2	9.2	9.2	9.6	9.8	10.9
United Kingdom	8.4	8.4	8.7	8.8	8.9	9.2	9.2	9.3	9.1	9.6
Democratic Republic of the Congo	3.6	4.0	4.2	4.6	4.9	5.4	6.3	7.0	7.0	8.7
Poland	2.8	3.2	4.0	4.8	5.6	7.7
Greece	7.0	7.1	7.1	7.2	7.1	7.0	6.8	6.6	6.4	6.5
Algeria	3.4	3.2	3.4	3.4	3.4	3.3	3.6	3.8	4.1	4.3
Tunisia	2.4	2.3	2.2	2.2	2.0	2.0	1.9	1.9	1.9	2.2
Luxembourg	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4
Other countries	36.2	38.5	39.7	44.6	43.6	49.7	56.2	60.3	64.7	77.5
Total	363.7	370.9	380.5	394.9	382.7	387.9	392.5	393.9	396.0	427.7

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2 **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

CZECH REPUBLIC

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Slovak Republic	59.3	72.2	69.7	61.3	53.2	63.6	63.6	56.6	58.0	59.8
Ukraine	26.7	42.1	25.2	19.3	16.6	15.8	17.5	20.0	22.5	22.4
Poland	12.1	12.8	13.7	9.9	6.9	7.7	6.7	7.3	7.4	8.9
Bulgaria	0.8	1.4	3.3	2.7	1.7	1.5	1.9	2.0	1.8	1.7
Mongolia	0.3	0.6	0.8	0.9	0.6	0.7	1.0	1.2	1.4	1.6
Moldova	0.2	0.3	2.0	2.1	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.5
Germany	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.2	1.3	1.4	1.3
United States	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.2
Russian Federation	0.7	0.9	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.1
Belarus	0.3	0.9	2.5	2.0	1.3	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.0	0.8
United Kingdom	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	0.7
Romania	0.8	0.9	1.2	1.1	0.7	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.6
France	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.5
Austria	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.4
China	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3
Other countries	5.2	5.8	6.0	5.5	4.7	4.8	4.2	4.8	5.3	5.3
Total	111.9	143.2	130.8	111.2	93.5	103.6	103.7	101.2	105.7	108.0

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2 **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

DENMARK

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Turkey	13.5	13.6	14.0	14.1	13.8	13.0	13.0	12.5	11.9	11.8
United Kingdom	7.2	7.5	7.6	7.6	7.5	7.6	7.7	7.8	7.6	7.6
Germany	5.9	6.2	6.5	6.8	6.7	6.9	7.1	7.1	7.0	7.0
Norway	6.0	6.2	6.2	6.3	6.2	6.5	6.7	6.8	6.8	6.9
Sweden	5.0	5.2	5.5	5.7	5.6	5.8	5.9	5.9	5.8	5.7
Former Yugoslavia	6.3	7.3	9.3	11.3	10.8	11.5	12.7	12.5	3.7	3.7
Iceland	2.3	2.7	2.9	2.8	2.8	2.7	2.8	2.8	2.9	3.1
Pakistan	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.4	2.4	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.2	2.4
Finland	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.0
Other countries	34.2	35.9	38.3	40.1	39.3	39.5	41.4	43.2	52.7	57.8
Total	83.8	88.0	93.9	98.3	96.3	96.8	100.6	101.9	101.5	106.9

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2 **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

FINLAND

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Russian Federation	9.1	10.1	11.0	11.2	11.5
Estonia	5.3	5.9	6.3	6.5	8.0
Sweden	3.5	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.7
United Kingdom	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.6
Serbia and Montenegro	..	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5
Germany	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4
Turkey	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.3
Somalia	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.2
Iraq	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.2	1.1
China	0.7	0.8	0.8	1.0	1.0
United States	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9
Thailand	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.9
Viet Nam	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.8
Bosnia and Herzegovina	0.7	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.8
Former Soviet Union	1.3	1.2	1.1	1.0	0.4
Other countries	12.9	12.9	12.5	12.5	12.5
Total	41.4	45.4	46.3	47.6	48.6

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2 **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

FRANCE

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Portugal	375.0	359.0	342.5	316.0	325.7	353.1	371.0	376.8	334.6	349.9
Algeria	245.6	253.3	246.1	241.6	237.2	215.0	233.6	198.4	212.9	194.5
Morocco	197.5	203.1	205.0	229.6	226.9	204.3	186.0	199.6	191.0	193.0
Turkey	66.4	72.5	65.8	79.0	76.1	81.5	81.7	92.6	61.9	71.7
Tunisia	81.0	75.2	85.0	84.4	83.9	77.5	84.2	84.4	64.6	69.4
Italy	76.6	74.3	65.5	72.9	75.6	73.8	72.2	71.2	53.5	57.5
Spain	82.1	85.6	90.7	88.2	86.5	65.8	58.3	52.0	52.1	47.7
Poland	7.1	10.1	13.8	12.6	14.0	13.5	16.2	15.6	15.7	21.6
Other countries	441.9	471.5	455.4	462.5	467.9	493.1	514.5	533.2	529.6	532.4
Total	1 573.3	1 604.7	1 569.8	1 586.7	1 593.9	1 577.6	1 617.6	1 623.8	1 515.9	1 537.6

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2 **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

GERMANY

	1997	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Turkey	1 039.0	1 008.0	996.0	1 004.0	974.0	975.0	937.0
Italy	375.0	386.0	395.0	403.0	407.0	408.0	398.0
Greece	214.0	219.0	207.0	210.0	213.0	196.0	198.0
Croatia	215.0	189.0	195.0	193.0	185.0	173.0	186.0
Serbia and Montenegro	207.0	217.0	220.0	218.0	175.0
Poland	94.0	100.0	106.0	113.0	133.0	144.0	144.0
Austria	123.0	118.0	110.0	116.0	113.0	118.0	124.0
Bosnia and Herzegovina	169.0	103.0	100.0	96.0	98.0	104.0	114.0
Netherlands	63.0	63.0	63.0	61.0	63.0	74.0	83.0
Portugal	65.0	77.0	83.0	84.0	76.0	83.0	76.0
United Kingdom	76.0	65.0	71.0	74.0	72.0	78.0	73.0
Spain	75.0	69.0	71.0	74.0	71.0	66.0	70.0
France	58.0	56.0	67.0	62.0	62.0	65.0	64.0
United States	53.0	54.0	51.0	58.0	55.0	57.0	55.0
Other countries	956.0	1 038.0	824.0	851.0	892.0	944.0	1 004.0
Total	3 575.0	3 545.0	3 546.0	3 616.0	3 634.0	3 703.0	3 701.0

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2 **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

GREECE

	2001
Albania	240.7
Bulgaria	27.5
Romania	17.3
Georgia	11.1
Pakistan	10.3
Ukraine	10.1
Poland	7.9
Russian Federation	7.8
India	6.6
United Kingdom	5.3
Philippines	5.3
Cyprus	5.0
Egypt	5.0
Germany	3.8
United States	3.7
Other countries	45.7
Total	413.2

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2 **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

HUNGARY

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Romania	9.8	8.5	9.5	10.6	14.1	17.2	22.0	25.8	27.6	67.5
Slovak Republic	0.7	0.4	0.4	0.5	1.0	2.9	1.8	2.8	5.7	18.7
Ukraine	5.9	7.6	17.5
Serbia and Montenegro	0.9	0.9	2.2
China	0.9	0.5	0.7	1.1	1.4	2.1	1.1	1.0	0.9	1.7
Germany	1.5
Mongolia	1.2
Poland	1.4	1.0	1.1	1.0	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.9
Japan	0.7
Austria	0.6
United States	0.6
United Kingdom	0.5
France	0.4
Russian Federation	0.4
Viet Nam	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.7	0.4	0.3	0.2	0.3
Other countries	8.1	8.2	8.5	9.0	11.0	11.8	13.0	5.6	5.3	7.1
Total	21.0	18.8	20.4	22.4	28.5	35.0	38.6	42.7	48.7	121.8

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2 **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

IRELAND

	2002
United Kingdom	62.2
United States	7.0
France	5.9
Germany	5.8
Spain	4.4
Philippines	4.2
Nigeria	4.1
Italy	3.8
Australia	3.6
South Africa	3.1
Romania	3.0
Netherlands	2.5
China	2.2
Lithuania	2.2
Latvia	2.2
Other countries	34.3
Total	150.5

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2 **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

ITALY

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Romania	5.7	17.6	17.8	19.2	41.5	47.0	52.7	56.6	194.4
Morocco	66.1	95.1	97.6	95.9	114.0	115.5	114.8	113.9	164.8
Albania	20.4	51.7	52.4	54.8	86.7	90.6	91.0	92.8	145.6
China	11.0	24.5	26.9	28.7	40.9	43.8	41.8	41.5	79.0
Philippines	29.2	48.6	49.1	49.4	56.0	53.2	54.1	51.1	60.7
Poland	6.1	14.4	13.1	12.1	16.6	17.0	17.0	17.4	45.8
Tunisia	25.3	32.9	33.2	31.6	35.5	34.2	38.6	36.2	45.5
Senegal	19.8	30.2	30.5	29.5	38.6	36.6	34.7	33.3	45.2
Ecuador	1.0	3.4	3.4	3.4	8.3	8.6	8.2	7.8	42.6
Peru	5.5	18.5	18.9	18.3	22.1	22.7	22.5	21.5	37.8
Egypt	11.2	18.8	18.6	18.0	26.9	25.2	24.0	22.3	37.1
Sri Lanka	12.6	19.6	19.6	19.8	22.6	23.4	25.3	23.4	30.7
India	4.6	10.9	11.4	11.0	14.8	16.1	16.2	16.6	30.3
Former Yugoslavia	27.5	26.1	24.2	23.9	23.8	24.6	23.0	22.2	27.9
Bangladesh	4.3	10.2	10.8	10.0	16.0	16.8	17.1	16.4	27.3
Other countries	183.6	234.1	232.7	235.0	263.4	262.7	260.0	256.7	464.9
Total	433.8	656.6	660.3	660.6	827.6	837.9	841.0	829.8	1 479.4

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2 **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

JAPAN

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Philippines	13.7	18.1	20.3	25.7	28.6	45.6	46.9	48.8	52.9	53.2
China	23.3	26.6	29.7	32.6	33.4	35.8	38.9	40.8	41.8	45.6
United States	17.5	17.7	17.8	17.2	16.8	17.6	18.8	19.9	19.2	19.5
Korea	6.4	6.7	6.9	8.2	9.3	10.7	12.3	13.1	13.6	15.2
United Kingdom	5.6	6.1	6.8	7.0	7.4	8.1	9.1	9.8	9.3	9.0
Canada	4.1	4.5	5.0	5.2	5.3	5.8	6.6	7.1	7.0	6.9
India	1.7	2.1	2.5	2.9	3.1	3.5	4.5	5.3	5.7	6.2
Australia	2.4	2.6	3.0	3.5	3.9	4.6	5.7	6.3	6.2	6.0
France	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.7	2.0	2.2	2.4	2.4	2.5
Germany	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.7
Other countries	10.6	11.0	12.1	13.7	14.8	19.5	22.2	24.5	25.7	26.3
Total	88.0	98.3	107.3	119.0	125.7	154.7	168.8	179.6	185.6	192.1

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2 **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

KOREA

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
China	11.3	33.2	43.8	36.5	48.1	43.2	46.1	47.5	54.8	60.3
Philippines	8.5	10.1	12.0	6.9	9.2	9.8	12.2	12.4	22.0	21.0
Uzbekistan	0.8	1.0	2.1	1.9	2.2	3.5	3.6	2.8	13.0	10.4
Canada	1.1	2.7	3.2	2.0	2.0	2.5	3.2	4.6	2.8	4.5
United States	4.2	6.1	6.1	4.3	4.1	3.4	3.5	4.2	4.4	4.3
India	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.5	0.6	3.8	3.4
Russian Federation	0.2	0.4	0.6	0.5	1.0	1.9	2.3	2.7	1.9	2.5
Japan	1.5	1.7	1.9	1.3	1.3	1.0	1.1	1.1	2.8	1.2
United Kingdom	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.7	1.0	1.3	1.0
Australia	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.2	0.8	0.7
New Zealand	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.4	0.7	1.0	0.9	0.6
Romania	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.4	0.4
South Africa	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.4	0.8	0.3
Germany	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.9	0.5	0.2
France	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.6	0.2
Other countries	23.7	26.0	35.0	22.1	23.6	55.0	53.2	57.8	304.3	186.8
Total	52.2	82.9	106.8	76.8	93.0	122.5	128.5	137.3	415.0	297.8

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2 **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

LUXEMBOURG

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
France	33.2	36.0	39.7	44.1	49.0	52.0	59.0	61.1	62.3	64.9
Portugal	27.3	27.8	28.3	29.5	30.5	32.0	32.2	33.3	34.5	35.5
Belgium	19.6	20.9	22.4	24.3	26.6	28.4	31.9	33.1	33.8	34.8
Germany	12.7	13.6	14.6	16.0	17.8	19.1	21.8	22.8	24.5	26.4
Italy	7.7	7.6	7.7	8.1	8.2	9.0	8.6	8.5	8.3	8.4
Former Yugoslavia	1.7	1.5	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.8	1.9	2.2	2.3	2.0
United Kingdom	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.8	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.7
Spain	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.3
Other countries	7.3	8.0	8.2	8.4	9.3	7.4	10.8	11.1	11.8	12.5
Total	111.8	117.8	124.8	134.6	145.7	152.7	169.3	175.1	180.4	187.5

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2 **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

NETHERLANDS

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Turkey	48.2	36.6	33.6	34.7	26.7	56.8	54.5	48.9	53.3	42.4
Germany	32.0	39.6	38.7	34.1	30.7	30.2	34.1	30.4	33.6	37.0
Morocco	35.9	33.6	28.8	39.1	32.2	34.6	42.1	33.1	34.3	29.2
United Kingdom	25.9	25.9	22.5	24.0	29.2	36.6	33.4	30.4	32.4	25.8
Belgium	18.7	23.8	22.2	17.4	19.3	16.9	19.2	25.7	16.7	20.7
Italy	10.7	10.4
France	7.1	8.7
Spain	8.5	7.6	12.3	6.7	15.6	7.7	18.1	15.6	11.3	8.6
Other countries	112.9	113.4	116.9	113.4	113.9	117.3	101.1	111.8	117.8	116.5
Total	282.1	280.5	275.2	269.5	267.5	300.1	302.6	295.9	317.2	299.4

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2 **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

NORWAY

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Sweden	7.8	8.7	10.8	12.9	13.4	13.6	15.4	15.2	15.0	15.3
Denmark	9.0	9.1	9.5	9.9	9.1	9.0	10.7	10.6	10.5	10.4
Germany	2.2	2.4	2.7	3.0	4.3	4.4	5.6	5.9	6.2	6.8
United Kingdom	5.2	5.3	5.6	5.9	5.5	5.4	6.3	6.2	6.2	6.2
Pakistan	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.7	4.8	4.9	5.8	5.9	6.0	6.2
Poland	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	2.7	2.8	3.4	3.8	4.0	4.8
Sri Lanka	2.0	1.7	1.6	1.5	4.0	4.2	4.5	4.6	4.5	4.7
Turkey	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	2.9	3.1	3.5	3.8	3.8	4.1
Finland	1.9	2.0	2.3	2.8	3.6	3.7	4.4	4.3	4.2	4.0
Chile	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.3	2.8	2.9	3.4	3.3	3.3	3.4
United States	3.1	3.1	3.3	3.4	2.5	2.4	2.9	2.9	2.9	3.0
India	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.9	2.2	2.3	2.6	2.7	2.6	2.7
Netherlands	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.8	1.9	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.5
Other countries	14.2	15.3	17.2	20.2	45.1	50.6	63.1	66.8	69.0	75.3
Total	52.6	54.8	59.9	66.9	104.6	111.2	133.7	138.4	140.7	149.3

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2 **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

PORTUGAL

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Ukraine	45.3	61.8	64.4	64.9
Brazil	9.6	9.7	9.7	9.6	9.9	10.6	34.5	46.4	49.5	50.4
Cape Verde	21.8	22.2	22.1	21.9	22.0	23.1	29.0	32.0	32.9	33.6
Angola	8.0	8.2	8.2	8.2	8.4	9.7	15.3	18.3	18.8	19.1
Guinea-Bissau	7.0	7.2	7.2	7.2	7.8	8.9	12.6	13.8	14.9	15.0
Moldova	9.0	12.1	12.5	13.0
Romania	7.7	10.6	10.8	11.0
Spain	4.7	4.9	5.3	5.5	6.1	6.8	7.7	8.3	8.6	8.9
United Kingdom	5.4	5.6	5.8	6.0	6.3	6.5	6.8	7.0	7.1	7.4
Russian Federation	5.4	7.0	7.3	7.4
China	..	1.3	..	1.3	1.5	1.7	5.3	5.9	6.0	6.2
Germany	4.1	4.4	4.6	4.8	5.0	5.3	5.5	5.8	5.8	6.0
Sao Tome and Principe	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.3	4.0	4.9	5.2	5.5
France	2.9	3.1	3.3	3.5	3.8	4.1	4.4	4.6	4.9	5.1
India	..	0.4	..	0.4	..	0.5	3.4	4.0	4.2	4.3
Other countries	18.8	17.9	19.9	18.3	18.9	20.5	37.6	43.1	45.0	45.3
Total	84.4	86.8	87.9	88.6	91.6	99.8	233.6	285.7	298.0	303.0

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2 **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

SLOVAK REPUBLIC

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Czech Republic	1.2	1.5	1.7	2.2	2.3	2.2	1.9	2.0	2.3	0.5
Ukraine	0.4	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.4	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Germany	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.2
Poland	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2
France	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2
United Kingdom	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1
United States	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.1
Austria	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1
Italy	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Russian Federation	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	-
Croatia	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	-	-	-	-	-	-
Serbia and Montenegro	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	..	-
Viet Nam	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Other countries	1.2	1.3	1.7	1.7	0.4	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9
Total	3.9	4.8	5.5	5.9	4.5	4.7	4.4	4.7	5.0	2.8

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2 **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

SPAIN

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Morocco	51.6	61.6	68.8	76.9	80.4	101.8	124.2	148.1	173.8	172.7
Ecuador	1.4	2.3	3.1	7.4	9.4	25.7	67.9	125.7	139.3	147.2
Colombia	3.1	3.6	3.8	4.3	4.8	12.1	26.8	60.5	66.4	77.7
Romania	0.9	1.1	1.5	2.4	3.0	8.3	18.2	38.2	46.3	60.8
Peru	11.4	14.3	15.0	16.3	14.7	18.6	22.7	27.4	37.9	47.1
China	6.2	8.2	9.3	11.9	12.4	15.7	20.7	27.2	29.4	37.0
Argentina	7.5	7.8	6.6	4.9	3.9	7.0	9.9	16.9	24.1	30.8
Dominican Republic	9.7	12.4	12.3	13.2	11.0	12.3	13.2	14.6	17.0	18.7
Cuba	1.4	2.0	2.5	3.0	3.4	8.7	10.9	12.9	14.8	15.5
Algeria	2.7	3.3	3.7	4.0	4.2	7.0	8.8	11.0	13.6	13.2
Philippines	7.1	8.3	8.3	8.4	7.5	9.2	9.9	10.4	11.1	11.5
Senegal	3.4	3.9	4.3	4.7	5.0	5.2	7.0	8.1	9.9	10.2
Chile	2.5	2.8	2.8	3.7	4.8	6.5	8.4
Brazil	1.6	3.4	4.6	6.1	6.9	7.9
Uruguay	1.5	1.9	2.4	3.6	5.3	7.4
Other countries	26.9	34.7	39.6	39.8	40.0	214.9	256.2	316.2	380.0	410.9
Total	139.0	166.5	178.7	197.1	199.8	454.6	607.1	831.7	982.4	1 076.7

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2 **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

SWEDEN

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Finland	56.0	57.0	54.0	52.0	52.0	50.0	53.0	53.0	52.0	49.0
Denmark	13.0	13.0	13.0	13.0	13.0	13.0	14.0	14.0	14.0	17.0
Norway	19.0	19.0	18.0	17.0	19.0	17.0	16.0	17.0	16.0	17.0
Former Yugoslavia	15.0	23.0	31.0	31.0	28.0	27.0	23.0	19.0	17.0	8.0
Turkey	7.0	7.0	7.0	5.0	4.0	10.0	7.0	5.0	5.0	6.0
Poland	9.0	7.0	7.0	7.0	8.0	8.0	10.0	8.0	8.0	5.0
Iran	15.0	10.0	10.0	9.0	8.0	5.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0
Other countries	86.0	82.0	80.0	85.0	90.0	92.0	100.0	98.0	105.0	110.0
Total	220.0	218.0	220.0	219.0	222.0	222.0	227.0	218.0	221.0	216.0

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2 **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

SWITZERLAND

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Italy	214.3	202.5	191.7	184.4	179.3	177.4	172.3	..	176.5	171.2
Former Yugoslavia	134.6	136.2	138.2	142.8	80.4	82.8	85.7	..	166.2	164.4
Portugal	80.5	79.3	77.4	76.6	76.5	77.0	77.9	..	86.5	88.0
Germany	56.3	56.7	57.3	58.7	61.3	65.4	73.3	..	78.3	84.4
Spain	63.5	59.8	56.4	53.7	51.7	50.1	48.8	..	57.2	54.3
France	32.3	31.3	30.7	30.7	31.8	33.2	34.2	..	39.1	40.2
Austria	19.4	18.8	18.2	17.8	17.6	17.9	18.5	..	19.8	19.3
Other countries	127.8	124.5	122.9	126.4	202.6	213.5	228.1	..	190.7	195.5
Total	728.7	709.1	692.8	691.1	701.2	717.3	738.8	829.4	814.3	817.3

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Table B.2.2 **Stock of foreign labour by nationality**

Thousands

UNITED KINGDOM

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Ireland	216.0	218.0	216.0	221.0	220.0	206.0	212.0	179.0	179.0	172.0
India	60.0	58.0	56.0	71.0	66.0	61.0	61.0	69.0	82.0	97.0
United States	49.0	46.0	53.0	63.0	55.0	61.0	75.0	52.0	62.0	68.0
Australia	34.0	32.0	35.0	31.0	36.0	54.0	46.0	57.0	55.0	63.0
France	34.0	27.0	33.0	49.0	44.0	48.0	47.0	60.0	59.0	51.0
Germany	27.0	30.0	32.0	39.0	44.0	33.0	35.0	32.0	39.0	48.0
Italy	43.0	42.0	42.0	52.0	43.0	55.0	58.0	58.0	53.0	67.0
Portugal	18.0	15.0	14.0	23.0	20.0	15.0	35.0	47.0	52.0	50.0
Spain	17.0	20.0	24.0	18.0	25.0	30.0	30.0	31.0	33.0	26.0
New Zealand	19.0	26.0	21.0	30.0	23.0	25.0	25.0	39.0	29.0	29.0
Pakistan	20.0	17.0	20.0	20.0	27.0	31.0	29.0	31.0	27.0	31.0
Bangladesh	..	12.0	18.0	16.0	17.0	14.0	19.0	14.0	11.0	26.0
Other countries	325.0	322.0	385.0	406.0	385.0	474.0	557.0	582.0	641.0	717.0
Total	862.0	865.0	949.0	1 039.0	1 005.0	1 107.0	1 229.0	1 251.0	1 322.0	1 445.0

Note: For details on definitions and sources, please refer to the metadata at the end of the tables.

Metadata related to Tables A.2.3. and B.2.2. **Foreign labour force**

Country	Comments	Source
Austria	Annual average. The unemployed are included and the self-employed are excluded. Data on employment by nationality are from valid work permits. From 1994 on, EEA members no longer need work permits and are therefore no longer included. A person holding two permits is counted twice.	Ministry of Labour, Health and Social Affairs.
Belgium	Including unemployed and self employed.	National Institute of self employed's social insurances, National Office for Employment, National Bank of Belgium and National Institute of Statistics.
Czech Republic	Holders of a work permit and registered Slovak workers. Excluding holders of a trade licence. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December (except 2004: 30 July).	Research Institute for Labour and Social Affairs.
Denmark	Data are from population registers. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Statistics Denmark.
Finland	Foreign labour force recorded in the population register. Includes persons of Finnish origin. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Statistics Finland.
France	Labour Force Survey. The survey has moved to a continuous one from 2003 on. Data are therefore not fully comparable with those of the previous years. <i>Reference date:</i> March of each year until 2002.	National Institute for Statistics and Economic Studies (INSEE).
Germany	Microcensus. Data include the unemployed and the self-employed. <i>Reference date:</i> April.	Federal Office of Statistics.
Greece		Census, National Statistical Service.
Hungary	Number of valid work permits <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Ministry of Labour.
Ireland	Estimates are from the Labour Force Survey. Data by nationality (Table B.2.2.) are issued from the 2002 Census and refer to persons aged 15 years and over in the labour force.	Central Statistics Office.
Italy	Figures refer to the number of foreigners with a valid work permit (including the self-employed, the unemployed, sponsored workers and persons granted a permit for humanitarian reasons). EU citizens do not need a work permit.	National Institute of Statistics (ISTAT).
Japan	Foreigners whose activity is restricted according to the Immigration Act (revised in 1990). Permanent residents, spouses or children of Japanese national, spouses or children of permanent residents and long-term residents have no restrictions imposed on the kind of activities they can engage in while in Japan and are excluded from the data.	Ministry of Justice, Immigration Bureau.
Korea	Data are based on registered foreign workers, which excludes short-term (under 90 days) workers. Trainees are included. The huge increase is mainly due to a number of undocumented workers who were given a legal worker status following a regularisation program in mid 2003.	Ministry of Justice.
Luxembourg	Number of work permits. Data cover foreigners in employment, including apprentices, trainees and cross-border workers. The unemployed are not included. <i>Reference date:</i> 1 October.	Social Security Inspection Bureau.
Netherlands	Data are from the Labour Force Survey and refer to the Labour force aged 15 and over. <i>Reference date:</i> March.	Labour Force Survey (Eurostat).
Norway	Data are from population registers. Excluding the unemployed and the self-employed until 2000. <i>Reference date:</i> second quarter of each year (except in 1995, 1996, 1999 and 2000: 4th quarter).	Statistics Norway.
Portugal	Workers who hold a valid residence permit (including the unemployed). Including foreign workers who benefited from the 1992-1993, 1996 and 2001 regularisation programmes. Data for 2001, 2002 and 2003 include workers regularised following the 2001 programme. <i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.	Ministry of the Interior and National Statistical Office (INE).
Slovak Republic	Foreigners who hold a valid work permit. Czech workers do not need a work permit but they are registered through the Labour Offices.	National Labour Office.

Metadata related to Tables A.2.3. and B.2.2. **Foreign labour force** (cont.)

Country	Comments	Source
Spain	<p>Number of valid work permits. EU workers are not included.</p> <p>In 1996, the data include work permits delivered following the 1996 regularisation programme.</p> <p>From 2000 on, data relate to the number of foreigners who are registered in the Social Security system. A worker may be registered several times if he/she has several activities. Regularised workers are included in 2000 and 2001 data.</p> <p><i>Reference date:</i> 31 December (data for 2003 are stocks on January 14th 2004).</p>	Ministry of Labour and Social Security.
Sweden	Annual average from the Labour Force Survey.	Statistics Sweden.
Switzerland	<p>Til 2001, data are counts of the number of foreigners with an annual residence permit or a settlement permit (permanent permit), who engage in gainful activity. Cross-border workers and seasonal workers are excluded.</p> <p>Since the bilateral agreements signed with the European Union have come into force (1 June 2002), movements of EU workers can no longer be followed through the central register of foreigners.</p> <p><i>Reference date:</i> 31 December.</p>	Federal Office of Immigration, Integration and Emigration.
United Kingdom	<p>Estimates are from the Labour Force Survey. The unemployed are not included.</p> <p>There is a break in the serie as 2004 data are calculated using a new weighting system.</p>	Home Office.

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International Migration Outlook

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This first issue of the *International Migration Outlook* analyses recent trends in migration movements and policies in all OECD countries. For the first time, it includes harmonised statistics on long-term international migration inflows for most OECD countries. The report highlights the growing importance of immigrants from Russia, Ukraine, China and Latin America, as well as increasing feminisation of the flows. It describes the importance of the immigrant population and its contribution to human capital in receiving countries. The determinants of the employment situation are also analysed, with a particular focus on recent measures to facilitate the integration of immigrant women into the labour market.

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